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Abstrakt

Hong Kong ist eine internationale Metropole, welche früher eine britische Kolonie war und 156 Jahre lang vom Vereinigten Königreich von Großbritannien geführt wurde. Hong Kong ist eine multikulturelle, dreisprachige Stadt und wird in dieser Arbeit behandelt. Auf Grund der Regelung einer zwei- bzw. dreisprachigen Ausbildung ist es in Hong Kong üblich, dass die Menschen mehr als eine Sprache gleichzeitig anwenden, was allgemein als „Code-Alternation“ bezeichnet wird. Gelehrte unterteilen den Bereich "Code-Alternation" in "Code-Switching" bei abwechselnder Sprache bei vollständiger Satzverwendung und "Code-Mixing" bei abwechselnder Sprachverwendung innerhalb des Satzaufbaus. Code-Switching bedeutet, dass eine mehrsprachige Person mindestens zwei Sprachen getrennt abwechselnd zur Anwendung bringt um seinen Bedarf zum Ausdruck zu bringen. Code-Mixing hingegen zeigt eine feinere abwechselnde Verwendung von einzelnen Wörtern oder Satzteilen. Daher hat diese Arbeit zum Ziel die syntaktischen Strukturen und Charakteristiken der englischen Sprache in Kantonesisch-Englischer „Code-Alternation“ in Blogs aus Hong Kong zu untersuchen. Hierfür wurden mehr als hundert geschriebene Blog-Einträge von zehn unterschiedlichen Personen aus Hong Kong gesammelt und analysiert. Für die Analyse wurde eine Kombination aus zwei Theorien zur Anwendung gebracht. Diese sind die „Morpheme Order Principle“ und „System Morpheme Principle“ aus dem „Lemma Kongruenz Model“ (1992) von Myers-Scotton als auch eine Typologie von Muysken, namentlich „Alternation“ (2000). Das erste Ziel der Arbeit ist die Darstellung der syntaktischen Struktur der „Code-Alternation“ anhand der gesammelten Daten. Es gibt verschiedenste englische Elemente, welche in den Daten gefunden werden können; so etwa Nomen und Nominalphrasen, Verben und Verbalphrasen, Adjektive und Adjektivphrasen, Adverbien, Interjektionen, Präpositionen und Präpositionalphrasen und Konjunktionen. Das weitere Ziel ist die Analyse von Charakteristiken in Kantonesisch-Englischer „Code-Alternation“ anhand der Blogs in Hong Kong. Als Ergebnis der Arbeit wurde festgehalten, dass die größte Anwendung der englischen Sprache auf Nomen oder Nominalphrasen entfällt. Diese Arbeit hat auch gezeigt, dass die Kombination von den beiden genannten Theorien nicht ausreicht, um alle Daten zu erklären. Daten, welche nicht erklärt werden können sind vor allem "Relexicalization", unregelmäßige englische Verben und Änderungen von Verb-Klassen. Für etliche sprachliche Erscheinungen, wie etwa einzelne Morpheme, Zeichensetzung und andere, hat sich gezeigt, dass diese bereits in vorangegangenen Studien enthalten waren und analysiert wurden. Zusätzlich

wurden neue Funktionen in der Englisch-Kantonesischen „Code-Alternation“ entdeckt, wie etwa die bewusste Verwendung von "Emoticons & Smileys", Erweiterungen bei Übersetzungen der Morpheme sowie Wortverkürzungen. Ebenfalls kommt es vor, dass Wörter, wie zum Beispiel „hea“, welche keine eigenen Zeichen im Kantonesischen vorweisen, in Englischen Zeichensätzen geschrieben werden, jedoch entsprechend der Aussprache im Kantonesischen.

Abstract

Hong Kong is an international city; it was a former British colony, ruled by the United Kingdom for 156 years. Hong Kong is a multicultural, trilingual city, and is the target city of this paper. Due to its 'biliterate and trilingual' education policy, Hong Kong people tend to communicate in more than one language, also known as 'code-alternation'. Scholars divided 'code-alternation' into 'code-switching' which occurs on an intra-sentential level, while 'code-mixing' occurs on the inter-sentential level. Code-switching can be defined as occurring when "a bilingual speaker uses more than one language in a single utterance above clause level to appropriately convey his/her intents" (Cárdenas-Claros & Isharyanti, 2009: 68). On the other hand, CM "occurs when speakers use two or more languages below clause level within one social situation" (Cárdenas-Claros & Isharyanti, 2009: 68). The paper attempts to investigate the syntactic structure and features of English in Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs. A hundred blog entries written by 10 people in Hong Kong were collected for analysis from ten blogs. A combination of two theories of code-alternation was applied for the analysis; these are taken from the Lemma Congruence Model (1992) proposed by Myers-Scotton, namely, 'Morpheme Order principle' and 'System Morpheme Principle' and a typology proposed by Muysken, namely, 'alternation' (2000). The first goal is to find out the syntactic structure of code-alternation in the data set. There are several English elements that can be found in the data; namely, nouns or noun phrases, verbs or verb phrases, adjectives or adjectival phrases, adverbs, interjections, prepositions or prepositional phrases, conjunctions and clauses. The second goal is to identify the English features in Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs. As a result of this study, it was discovered that the most popular parts of English speech are nouns or noun phrases. This study has also shown that the combination of the two theories was not developed fully enough to explain all the data. The data which cannot be explained are relexicalizations, irregular verbs of English and the change of verb class. There are some features which were found based on the previous studies. The features of relexicalization, shortening,

morpheme-by-morpheme translation, sentence final particles, smileys and emoticons, use of punctuation, eccentric spelling, written-out laughter, capital letters, abbreviations and reduction of capitalization, are found in the present data set. Moreover, some new features in relation to English in Cantonese-English code-alternation have been discovered, such as extensions of emoticons or smileys, and additional extensions in morpheme-by-morpheme translation and shortenings. Also, some words such as 'hea', which does not have its own character in Cantonese, were replaced by English based on the pronunciation of Cantonese.

Abbreviations

1P	First Person
2P	Second Person
3P	Third Person
Adj	Adjectives
Adv	Adverbs
CA	Code-alternation
CL	Classifier
CMC	Computer-mediated communication
CM	Code-mixing
COP	Copula
CS	Code-switching
DET	Determiner
EL	Embedded Language
GEN	Genitive Marker
Inj	Interjections
LCM	Lemma Congruence Model
ML	Matrix Language
MLF model	Matrix Language Frame Model
MOD	Modal Verbs
MOP	Morpheme Order Principle
N	Nouns
NP	Noun Phrase
OV	Subject-verb
PFV	Perfective aspect
PRE	Prepositions
PL	Plural
PROG	Progressive aspect
PRT	Particle
QTR	Quantifier
SG	Singular
SMP	System Morpheme Principle
SOV	Subject-object-verb
SV(O)	Subject-verb-object
V	Verbs
VP	Verb Phrase
WWW	WorldWideWeb

1. Introduction

Hong Kong is an international city located on the southeast coast of China. It was a former British colony which was ruled by the UK from 1842 to 1997 (GovHK, 2014). Starting from the time when it was a British colony, Hong Kong has been developed into a melting pot of Chinese and British cultures, which have caused it to become the multicultural, multilingual society that it is today. There are several types of pluralism that are combined or juxtaposed in Hong Kong; for example, cultural pluralism, linguistic pluralism, political pluralism (Westad, 2013) and so forth.

"Pluralism is not diversity alone, but the energetic engagement with diversity." It is "not just tolerance, but the active seeking of understanding across lines of difference." Moreover, "pluralism is not relativism, but the encounter of commitments." Lastly, it is "based on dialogue. The language of pluralism is that of dialogue and encounter, give and take, criticism and self-criticism." (Eck, 2014) Since this study is focusing on language, the linguistic pluralism is elaborated further.

According to the definitions of pluralism above, linguistic pluralism can be defined as the acceptance of linguistic diversity. All people, regardless of whether they are part of a majority or a minority, have the right to use their own languages to communicate with others, in public and private domains, without the fear of condemnation. In Hong Kong 89.2% of the population speak Cantonese, 0.9% of the population speak Mandarin, 5.5% of the population speak other Chinese dialects, 3.2% of the population speak English and 1.2% of the population speak other languages (GovHK, 2014). In Hong Kong "simply walking the streets will expose you to a medley of Asian and European languages" (Hong Kong Tourism Board, N/A). Hong Kong residents tend to find that people who speak languages other than Cantonese are accepted by the people and will not be condemned. Therefore, Hong Kong has a culture of linguistic pluralism (ibid).

Although the majority of the population in Hong Kong speaks Cantonese, the official languages of Hong Kong are Chinese and English. "English was the only official language of the government in Hong Kong for more than a hundred years, from the establishment of Hong Kong as a colony until 1974, when the government passed an Official Languages Ordinance in which Chinese was also recognized as an official language" (Setter, Wong & Chan, 2010:104). Therefore, Chinese and English became very important in Hong Kong. English is widely spoken in Hong Kong as it is an international financial center. English is also the preferred language in

the government, business, professional and tourism sectors (GovHK, 2014). "All official signs and public transport announcements, as well as most menus, are bilingual" (Hong Kong Tourism Board, N/A).

In Hong Kong the majority of people use traditional Chinese characters in written language, which is different from Mainland China where Mandarin is used as spoken language and simplified Chinese characters as written language. Cantonese, also named "Yue", is one of the five major languages in China. Some scholars define Cantonese as a 'dialect' (Tam & Lau, 2014); however, the United Nations has accepted Cantonese as a 'language' (United Nations Population Information Network (POPIN), 1996). In the present study, Cantonese is seen to be a language used in Hong Kong. It is spoken by approximately 100 million people worldwide, including Hong Kong, Macau, Southern China, parts of Southeast Asia such as Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam, as well as Chinatowns of many major cities in Canada, Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States. Cantonese has been around for 2000 years and Mandarin has only been around for 700 or 800 years. (Lau, 1999: 9) In the written form of Chinese, traditional Chinese is the original form whereas simplified Chinese was reformed in the 1950s by Chairman Mao Zedong (Lo, 2014). Written Chinese shares the same base of the character roots. The only difference is that traditional Chinese, which is used in Hong Kong and Taiwan, is more complicated than the simplified Chinese used in Mainland China. For example, "love" is "愛" in traditional Chinese and "爱" in simplified Chinese; "listen" is "聽" and in simplified Chinese, "听". Traditional Chinese has more strokes than simplified Chinese in most cases.

Spoken Chinese has more differences between Cantonese and Mandarin. Mandarin is the official language and lingua franca in China. Cantonese as a mother tongue is only spoken in Hong Kong, Macau and Guangdong province. These two languages are not mutually intelligible. Both languages are tonal languages, which means one word has many meanings depending on the pronunciation and intonation. Mandarin has five tones, whereas Cantonese has nine, making it easier to learn Mandarin. Kao (1971:83) indicates that "the static tones occurring with these two types of syllables (tones 3 and 6) show not a difference in pitch but a mere difference in duration." Mandarin and Cantonese are also different in the form of phonetics and phonology. Mandarin consists of twenty-one initial sounds (b, c, ch, d, f, g, p, h, j, k, l, m, n, q, r, s, sh, t, x, z, and zh) and Cantonese only has nineteen initial sounds (b, ch, d, f, g, gw, h, j, k, kw, l, m, n, ng,

p, s, t, w, y). Their final consonants are also different, as Mandarin does not have any syllable final consonant sounds, while Cantonese syllable can be ended with p, t and k. Cantonese has a couple of vowel sounds, for example |oe| and |u|. Mandarin also has some vowel combinations such as |i| + vowel but it does not involve any complexities such as |oe|, |ui| or many others. (Lau, 1999)

While Cantonese is the mother tongue of most people in Hong Kong, learning English is compulsory in school from the age of five as well as Mandarin as spoken languages; English and traditional Chinese are taught as written languages. This is known as a 'biliterate and trilingual' policy. This policy was adopted by the government of Hong Kong in 1997 (Wang, 2014). It is believed that the 'biliterate and trilingual' policy and the history of being a British colony are the main factors that caused the occurrence of code-alternation in Hong Kong. In 1998 Luke (1998:146) mentioned that code-alternation in Hong Kong was widely used. Along with the rapid development of technology, code-alternation also appears in computer-mediated communication (CMC).

The purpose of this paper is to investigate Cantonese-English code-alternation in blogs written by Hong Kong bloggers. Herring (2001: 613) mentioned that CMC is affected by technical and situational factors which make it complex and variable. Blogging consists of an informal context in which users produce a hybrid genre of speech and writing. Therefore, it is interesting to find out the syntactic structure and English features in such a setting. This study seeks to investigate i) the English features of Cantonese-English code-alternation in blogs; and ii) the English grammatical aspects of Cantonese-English code-alternation in blogs. There are only few studies that can be found which have been conducted about code-switching in blogs, although there is a vast body of research on code-alternation in Hong Kong. Therefore, this study intends to show whether the code-alternation theories are supported in this setting.

This paper is divided into three main parts. Chapter One briefly introduces the background, history and languages in Hong Kong as well as the differences between Cantonese and Mandarin and the aims and interests of the present paper. Chapter Two shows the development of English in Hong Kong and provides the main theoretical framework and mainly reviews the code-alternation, computer-mediated communication and blogging, which includes terminology and a

general literature review. Chapter Three includes the methodology and analytical approaches. Chapter Four presents the findings and discussion, followed by a conclusion.

2. Literature Review

In this chapter, the development of English in Hong Kong and two main notions will be reviewed; these are code-alternations and CMC. Before discussing them, it is important to point out the emergence and development of English in Hong Kong.

2.1 The emergence & development of Hong Kong English

Bolton (2002:47) stated that there is a long history of English in China. As an international finance city, Hong Kong attracts many scholars (Gibbons, 1979; Gibbons, 1987; Chan B. 1993; Bolton, 2000; Chan E. 2002) of sociolinguistics from the post-war era to the post-colonial period for research because of its historical background. There are many debates on the issue of language policy. (Low & Hashim, 2012:224) English was the only official language in Hong Kong in the early years as a British colony, which still plays an important role in the present day, particularly in the domains of politics, economy and education. (Evans, 2010:155) On the other hand, the usage of English consists of its own characteristics and has gradually become more systematic. Under these circumstances, Hong Kong English seems to have become one of the varieties of English in the world, which can be proved and recognized to a certain degree. However, it has also caused a decline in the proficiency of standard English in Hong Kong in the past few decades. This situation has been getting worse since Hong Kong's handover to China when a change in language policy took place. (Zhao, 2013)

2.1.1 Early era of English in Hong Kong

Hong Kong was a part of China before the Second Opium War, and belonged to Guangdong Province at that period. After the war, it then became one of the British colonial cities and its language matters became distinctive from those of China. It is likely that English started developing at that stage (Bolton, 2002:35). Hong Kong was occupied by the British in the year 1842. This led to a change in the language policy. Tsou (1996:128) quoted Article 50 of the Treaty of Tientsin from 1842 to demonstrate the status of language in Hong Kong:

Article 50:

All official communications, addressed by the diplomat and Consular Agents of Her Majesty the Queen to the Chinese Authorities, shall, henceforth, be written in English. They will for the present be accompanied by a Chinese version, but it is understood that in the event of there being any difference of meaning between the English and Chinese text the English Government will hold the sense as expressed in the English text to be the correct sense. This provision is to apply to the treaty now negotiated, the Chinese text of which has been carefully corrected by the English original.

This article illustrates the prestigious status and the power hierarchy of English in Hong Kong. It also emphasized the usage of English and made Cantonese become an inferior language.

In the early eighteenth century, English was used in Canton, mainly in Guangzhou, which was an important economic area for trade. Between the mid-eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, this kind of English developed its own style, namely from Canton English, which was spoken as a jargon, to Chinese Pidgin English (Bolton, 2002:5). Canton English was widely used in Southern China. This is because when China lost the First and Second Opium wars, China had to open more cities and harbors for Western countries. Therefore, English spread across China, which contributed to the development of Hong Kong English. In addition, foreigners built some missionary schools in Hong Kong and some other places in China (Chan E. 2002:274). This resulted in an increasing number of people who could speak English. In the 1890s there was a decline in Canton English since people could access English through formal education (ibid).

The aforementioned missionary schools were first established in Hong Kong (Sweeting, 1990:209). These missionary schools had a great influence on the development of English in Hong Kong as well as the education system. Anglo-Chinese schools developed from the missionary schools. They advocated that English was the language to be used for teaching and most of the textbooks (Bolton, 2002: 32). The fact that the English language was used as the medium of teaching in schools has become a tradition and this seems to be an obstacle to the present language policy in Hong Kong, which will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

2.1.2 Late colonial era of English in Hong Kong

The late colonial period refers to the time between the mid-1960s until 1st of July 1997. It is believed that this period is a crucial part of the history of Hong Kong because the economy thrived during this period. Hong Kong became a refugee district after World War II. Refugees

mainly came from Canton and Shanghai (Harrison & So, 1996:115). These refugees brought the capital and labor force for constructing a wealthier and more commercial center as they were from pre-eminent commercial centers of China. Hong Kong also has a favorable geographical location (Harrison & So, 1996:115).

In 1981 the majority population was Chinese, comprising 98%; 88% of the population spoke Cantonese in the year 1979 (Gibbon, 1987:1). However, Hong Kong had a large number of immigrants; therefore, Hong Kong became a multi-ethnic community. These immigrants adopted Cantonese as the main language for communication. Although English was the dominant and the only official language, Cantonese was used in the non-official domains (Tsou, 1996:139). Tsou (1996:139) said that it was "a drive towards an expansion of English use in upper-middle class families." This diglossic situation lasted until 1997.

2.1.3 Post-colonial era of English in Hong Kong

The Hong Kong government attempted to change the language policy two years before the handover, intending to "develop a civil service which is biliterate in English and Chinese and trilingual in English, Cantonese and Putonghua" (Bolton, 2002: 35). This means that Putonghua (Mandarin hereafter) was being promoted, which was an important change to the language policy in Hong Kong. Mandarin is the official language of Mainland China. The promotion of Mandarin can be seen as a signal of decolonization as it makes English less superior. However, English and Cantonese along with their long histories are difficult to demolish. An example of post-colonial problems was that the medium of instruction from English to Cantonese was very difficult to put into practice.

Although there were schools which used Cantonese as the medium of instruction during the colonial period, English was still used as the dominant language of education. In 1997, the Hong Kong government decided to change the language status and emphasized using Cantonese as the medium of instruction in schools. There were only 114 out of 460 secondary schools that were still using English as the medium language of instruction (Bolton, 2002). The Hong Kong government forced the other 346 schools to change the medium of instruction to Cantonese as the spoken form and traditional Chinese as the written form. However, this act led to a huge debate with many defending education in English, since most of the parents and students preferred English because of its status as the lingua franca of the world.

Although the Hong Kong government promoted the mother tongue for education, English still played an important role in the domain of employment as well as media. Lai (2001) stated that there was a change of the status between English and Cantonese, with Cantonese becoming superior. Lai (2001) also pointed out that students of Hong Kong hold a very positive view of English for academic studies or future careers.

2.2 Code-alternation

2.2.1 Terminology

Gardner-Chloros (2009: 11) stated that linguists adopted "code" from communication technology. Code refers to "a mechanism for the unambiguous transduction of signals between systems" and it is believed that the switching of languages can be seen as a system used by bilingual speaker-hearers in everyday communication. The term "code" is frequently used nowadays by the linguists as an "umbrella term for languages, dialects, styles, etc." (Gardner-Chloros, 2009:11).

Code-alternation (CA) is discussed broadly in linguistics. It is used in a variety of related fields. A search of the library of University of Vienna's database in October 2014 showed that more than 12,000 articles or books on the subject were published in virtually every field of linguistics, particularly in bilingualism, sociolinguistics and pragmatics. Code-alternation can be divided into two sub-categories which are code-switching (CS) and code-mixing (CM). The distinction between code-switching (CS) and code-mixing (CM) is one of the most puzzling debates in linguistics (Cárdenas-Claros & Isharyanti, 2009:68). Perhaps because of their ubiquitous usage in every branch of linguistics, the definitions of CS and CM vary among scholars and this is perhaps inevitable with their particular concerns in different fields such as formal linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, philosophy, and others (Benson, 2001).

Clyne (1991:161) mentions that CS and CM refer to the same phenomenon; "the speaker stops using language 'A' and employs language 'B'." However, this definition remains vague.

Hoffmann (1991: 110) elaborates further that CS refers to "the alternate use of two (or more) languages within the same utterance or during the same conversation." This definition is quite similar to Myers-Scotton's. Myers-Scotton (1993a:vii) defines CS as "the use of two or more languages in the same conversation, usually within the same conversational turn, or even within the same sentence of that turn." Gumperz (1982:59) defined CS as "juxtaposition within the

same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems” or as “the use of more than one linguistic variety, by a single speaker in the course of a single conversation” (Heller and Pfaff 1996:594). These definitions are developed based on their understandings and experiences; they are in agreement that CS occurs in any linguistic alternation within or beyond a sentence.

Code-mixing is defined as “all cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence” (Muysken, 2000:1). In other words, CM takes place at the intra-sentential level. On the other hand, according to Bokamba (1989:278), CS occurs at the inter-sentential level. This definition of CS and CM is shared by different scholars (Sridhar & Sridhar 1980, Tay 1989, Kamwangamalu & Lee 1991).

The information above presents a terminological confusion in defining CM and CS. On the one hand CM and CS are different phenomena; on the other hand, CS is a more general term for covering the language alternations at both inter-sentential and intra-sentential levels.

With the consideration of the functions of CA and the focus of the present study, the following definitions of CS and CM are adopted. CS, which is also called inter-sentential code-alternation, can be defined as occurring when "a bilingual speaker uses more than one language in a single utterance above clause level to appropriately convey his/her intents" (Cárdenas-Claros & Isharyanti, 2009: 68). On the other hand, CM, also named intra-sentential code-alternation, "occurs when speakers use two or more languages below clause level within one social situation" (Cárdenas-Claros & Isharyanti, 2009: 68).

A clause is "a syntactic unit typically consisting of a verb (in some languages within a verb phrase), its noun phrase arguments, and optional adverbial elements (usually adverbs and adpositional phrases)" (Genetti, 2014:130). For example, "The band played my favourite song" (ibid). Two or more clauses can be combined, known as a 'clause complex'; for instance, "Chris carried the popcorn and Robin carried the drinks" (ibid). This sentence combines two clauses. There are two types of clause, which are main clause (independent clause) and subordinate clause (dependent clause) (Altenberg & Vago, 2010:214). The main clause is complete in itself (Hatch & Hatch, 2013:35) and it may be a complete sentence with a capital letter and full stop. Subordinate clauses are sentence fragments. Although these clauses contain a subject and a verb, they cannot be seen as a sentence alone without other information (ibid). An independent clause

is normally "joined to another clause by a subordinating conjunction such as although, if, where" (Altenberg & Vago, 2010:215). For example, "I won't tell you the answer (independent clause) unless you agree to help (main clause)" (Altenberg & Vago, 2010:214). Dependant clauses can occur at various positions of a sentence such as at the beginning, in the middle or at the end (ibid).

In Cantonese, besides simple sentences two or more clauses can also be combined, which is the same as English. A comma or a semicolon is inserted in order to separate two or more Chinese clauses. For example, "天黑了, 我們回家吧。 (It is getting dark, let's go home)" (Wen, 2013:389). In most cases, Cantonese can also be divided into a main clause and a subordinate clause. The main clause is basically the same as English. Subordinate clauses, however, are used less often than in English, "because other means such as serial verb constructions are used instead, especially in colloquial speech. It is often possible to combine two clauses without the use of conjunctions or subordinate clauses" (Yip & Matthews, 2001:127). However, when it occurs, it is similar to English clauses.

2.2.2 Code-alternation in different genres

In this section some of the studies of CA in different countries are discussed and the next section presents the studies of CA conducted in Hong Kong. This section is divided into three sub-sections, which includes the three dominant paradigms and major studies of CA. According to Auer (1988, 1998) and Gardner-Chloros (2009), the three dominant paradigms are the grammatical, macro-sociolinguistic and interactional approaches. Although there are other studies that focus on other approaches, they have not been reviewed due to their lack of relevance to the present paper as well as limited space.

2.2.2.1 Linguistic approach

From the 1980s onwards there has been a growing interest in studying the syntactic constraints of inter-sentential and intra-sentential CA. Most of the research studies, focusing on grammatical aspects of CA, are based on the assumption that CA is frequently used by bilinguals or multilinguals (Gardner-Chloros, 2009). In this section four of the most well-known linguistic terms are introduced: the Free Morpheme Constraint, the Equivalence Constraint, the Matrix Language-Frame model and the 'insertion' based approach.

Sankoff and Poplack (1980) proposed two linguistic constraints, the Free Morpheme Constraint and the Equivalence Constraint. The former can be defined as "codes may be switched after any constituent in discourse provided that [the] constituent is not [a] bound morpheme" (Sankoff & Poplack, 1980:224). The latter is defined thus:

Code switches will tend to occur at points where the juxtaposition of elements from the two languages does not violate a syntactic rule of either language. ... language switch can take place only at boundaries common to both languages, and switching cannot occur between any two sentence elements unless they are normally ordered in the same way.

(Romaine, 1995: 126)

There is a question regarding these two constraints in terms of how universal they are. Joshi (1985) and Nishimura (1997) do not confirm these two constraints based on their study of CA in Marathi and English and in Japanese and English. Furthermore, a null theory is proposed by Mahootian (1993) based on his study which involved collecting data from Farsi and English and data from other studies, including Sankoff and Poplack's. He (1993: 138) claims that "no special constraints or mechanisms are required to account for code-switching." Li (1996), Romaine (1995) and Muysken (2000) pointed out that these two constraints are only workable for two languages which share the same categories such as word order. Their criticism was that these models cannot be applied to languages with different syntactic structures (Gardner-Chloros, 2009:96). However, some language combinations are proved by his constraints, such as Spanish-English, Arabic-French, Tamil-English, French-English and Finnish-English (Poplack, 2000, 2001).

In 1993b, Myers-Scotton proposed the Matrix Language Frame model (MLF model). It is believed that it is universal in predicting the syntactic constraints of data in CA across different languages. Myers-Scotton takes languages from different typologies into consideration. The MLF model assumes that there is a matrix language (ML) and an embedded language (EL). The ML is the predominant language which occurs in CA; on the other hand, the EL is the language inserted into utterances of the predominant language. The argument of the MLF model is that "the ML sets the morphosyntactic frame for ML + EL constituents" (Myers-Scotton, 1993b:7). It is proven that the syntactic pattern of CA is rule-governed rather than randomly occurring and it should be studied systematically. However, this approach focuses on the rules and orders of CA, largely ignoring the social role languages play in different communities. Hence, the rules are not

able to explain the different language patterns of the same languages in different communities. Myers-Scotton (1993b) also remarks that CA is not the same everywhere because of the different social motivations and the context of sociolinguistics in different communities.

Muysken (2000:3) proposed an approach of analyzing CA which is associated with the MLF model; these processes are 'insertion', 'alternation' and 'congruent lexicalization'.

Insertion occurs when EL lexical items or entire constituents are inserted, and are mixed into the syntactic structure from the ML. According to Muysken, “there is a considerable variation in what is or can be inserted: in some languages this consists mostly of adverbial phrases, [in] others mostly single nouns, and yet in others again determiner + noun combinations” (2000:5).

(5)
Žib li-ya een glas water of zo.
(Get me a glass of water or something.)

(Muysken 2000: 62)

Alternation Muysken mentions is true code-switching. It can be defined thus: “Alternation is a common strategy in which two languages present in the clause remain relatively separate” (Muysken, 2000:96). This type occurs at the discourse level, such as between sentences, conversational turns or clauses within one sentence. There is a change of EL or ML of the predominant lexicon and the structure of one language can alternate the structure of the other language.

(6)
Je dois je dois glisser *daan vinger hier*.
(I have to insert my finger here.)

(Muysken 2000: 96)

Congruent lexicalization refers to the sharing of grammatical structures between two languages (Muysken, 2000). It occurs because of the "overabundance of homophonous words, dimorphs that serve as bridges or triggers for the" code-mixing that is possible without any lexical correspondence (2000:123).

(7)
Wan heri gedeelte de ondro beheer fu gewapende machten.
(One whole part is under the control of armed forces.)

(Muysken 2000: 139)

MacSwan (2014) argued that this approach is constraint-oriented and predictive, instead of constraint-free, focusing on the explanatory principles of language.

2.2.2.2 Sociolinguistic approach

There has been a significant amount of research done on the linguistic phenomenon of code-alternation in an attempt to find out the reasons and motivations behind it (Dulm, 2007:9). Some scholars (Fishman, 1972; Auer, 1998; Li, 1994) consider code-alternation to be triggered by sociolinguistic factors. This sociolinguistic approach tends to be studied in bilingualism instead of CA. However, Nguyen (2008) mentions that "there are two approaches for [the] sociolinguistic matter of" CA, which are the 'macro approach' and the 'micro approach' (Alshehab, 2014:3). According to Nguyen (2014:48)

[m]acro-level approaches regard external, societal categories and norms as decisive factors that give meaning to individuals' language choices, micro-level approaches emphasize that the speakers themselves give meaning to their language choices since they attempt to realize particular communicative needs through code switching.

The macro approach "explores language alternatives at a given community level" and it is interpretative and interactional (ibid). In other words, the macro approach concerns the context of intergroup interaction, whereas the micro approach concerns the intra group interaction (Boxer, 2002:4). Some scholars (Auer, 1998; Li, 1994; Myers-Scotton, 1993a) have considered taking account of both the macro approach and the micro approach in order to develop a coherent model.

The findings of the sociolinguistic language approach to CA include how language variations and language choice are studied in bilingual or multilingual communities. Secondly, they show how languages used by an individual can be restricted by various social factors as well as sociolinguistic profiles of the community. Fishman (1972) stated that these social factors and sociolinguistic profiles can be determined by the social situation which is constructed by what (the topics), where (the domains), when (the time) and whom (the relationship between speaker and interlocutors). For example, "the topic of conversation, the participants, the setting, the affective aspect of the message and so on" (Hamers & Blanc, 2000:266).

Although there are advantages to the sociolinguistic approach, such as providing the basis of how languages are generally and principally used by individuals in a specific context, there are also inadequacies and weaknesses when applied to the study of CA. Firstly, it tends not to

acknowledge the use of CA among bilingual or multilingual speakers. Myers-Scotton (1993a: 48) thinks that the notion of Fishman is more likely to be an "allocation paradigm" under which CA occurs when "we use language X with such and such persons and language Y with other persons." It is not yet certain whether Fishman views CA as an improper use of language, or whether he did not notice the existence of CA among bilinguals or multilinguals. Secondly, Auer (1984: 2) points out that this approach cannot explain "where code-switching occurs and why". Mesthrie, Swann, Deumet and Leap (2004:4) also argue that "the process of acquiring a language is not just a cognitive process involving the activation of a predisposition in the human brain; it is a social process as well, that only unfolds in social interaction." For example, a child acquiring the first language is not socially passive but more likely is "sensitive to certain environment conditions" (ibid). These include social identity as well as the people who interact with the child. The sociolinguistic approaches should be developed further in order to connect every possible reason which could cause the occurrence of CA.

2.2.2.3 Interactional approach

In this section, the micro-interactional approach of CA studies is presented. This is different from the macro-sociolinguistic approach, as the former focuses on how bilingual or multilingual users use languages to do things in social interactions. The latter is used for correlating social variations with language variations by conducting a large-scale survey. Li (1994:14) explained that "any order or pattern of language choice is seen as the result of an ongoing interactional process. The emphasis [...] is on individuals' capacity to make use of the linguistic and social resources available to them in producing and reproducing social structures and social relations." Blom and Gumperz (1972) and Gumperz (1982) are arguably the pioneers of studying CA at the micro-level. Blom and Gumperz (1972) undertook influential research from this perspective. In their research, they discussed the social factors of code-alternation in Norway. They also categorized code-alternation into "situational switching" (Blom & Gumperz, 1972:424) and "metaphorical switching" (Blom & Gumperz: 1972: 425). Situational switching occurs when speakers switch languages due to a change in their perceptions of one another's rights and obligations. Metaphorical switching occurs when there is a change in the topic, which alters the speakers' identities or roles. Later, Gumperz (1982) revised the subject of CA. He introduced conversational code-switching to identify the difference between situational switching and

metaphorical switching. He then suggested six possible factors of CA in bilingual conversation. These factors are quotation, addressee specification, interjection, reiteration, message qualification, and personalization versus objectivization. He also mentioned that CA is an additional discourse strategy which can be employed by bilinguals or multilinguals.

It is unquestionable that the contribution of Gumperz to research on CA is profound. However, his studies have been criticized by some scholars. For instance, Auer (1984) mentioned two inadequacies. Firstly, there is the problem of closed classification of CA, which means the assumption that CA always corresponds to certain functions in a single utterance. In Auer's words, "what exactly a bilingual participant is doing when he or she switches languages is closely tied to the specific, never-identical circumstances in which alternation occurs" (Auer, 1984:3). He suggested that if the functions of conversation are infinite, the functions of CA are infinite as well. Secondly, he stated that the descriptions by Gumperz of the functions of CA are analyst-oriented rather than speaker-oriented. Gumperz only concentrated on examining the functions of CA and ignored the relationships between speakers in conversations including two languages or codes as well as the ways in which speakers generate CA. Myers-Scotton (1993a) also criticized Gumperz's work regarding the differentiation between metaphorical switching and situational switching. Her argument is that

[o]ne would want to argue that codes, in metaphorical switches, receive their social meaning from whatever that meaning is when they occur in a situational switch. That is, their metaphorical meaning is derived from their unmarked meaning (i.e., situationally based) meaning.

(Myers-Scotton 1993a: 55)

Myers-Scotton (1993a) and Auer (1984) proposed the markedness model and the sequential model respectively for studying CA based on the aforementioned weaknesses. The markedness model tried to provide "an exploration accounting for speakers' socio-psychological motivations when they engage in code-switching" (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 75). It makes two assumptions: firstly, "speakers know the social consequences of the choices they make" (Romaine, 1995: 166); and secondly, the speakers know the different rights-and-obligations sets of social interactions. Myers-Scotton believed that speakers are involved in one of four types of motivation. These four types are code-switching as a sequence of unmarked choice (CA occurs in order to index any changes in the set of rights-and-obligations) (Myers-Scotton, 1993a:114); code-switching as an

unmarked choice (the pattern of CA carries the desired communicative intention) (ibid: 117); code-switching as a marked choice (speaker "disidentifies" with the expected rights-and-obligations set and wishes to develop a new rights-and-obligations set as unmarked for a particular communicative exchange) (ibid:131); and code-switching as an exploratory choice ("when the speaker is unsure of what is expected or optimal, and wishes to find out which code choice will match his/her desired rights-and-obligation set") (ibid:142).

Although the markedness model seeks to account for CA behaviors among bilinguals or multilinguals at a universal level, there are some questions which are not answered. Firstly, how do speakers learn the rights-and-obligation sets? Secondly, how do scholars differentiate the unmarked choice from the marked choice of CA? The markedness model is believed to be too general because scholars have to modify it in every situation. Li (2005:377) points out that the markedness model is only applicable when the researchers set a presumption that "all speakers have an intrinsic 'markedness evaluator' that permits them to assess which codes are marked and which codes are unmarked in any given interaction" (cited in Moradi, 2014:17).

Auer (1984) proposes a new approach for studying CA by applying concepts from conversation analysis. This model is characterized into procedural and sequential. He states that the main purpose of the procedural model is to "analyze members' procedures to arrive at local interpretations of language alternation" (Auer, 1984:3). He proposed four procedures for local interpretations which are discourse-related code-switching, discourse-related transfer, participant-related code-switching and participant-related transfer (ibid:12). Code-switching signals an invitation for other interlocutors to switch languages while transfer is neutral for language negotiation. In his words, "transfer marks items, code-switching marks point" (ibid: 29). It is believed that the meanings of CA are inferred by the interlocutors' knowledge. Discourse-related language alternation occurs when the interlocutors wish to introduce new footing or intend to change a frame in conversation, while participant-related language alternation occurs when the speakers have unbalanced competence in the two languages or is based on the preferences of speakers in different languages. However, this model seems not to take any sociolinguistic environments into consideration. Myers-Scotton (1993a:61) questioned "how are speakers able to do this unless their interactions are conducted against a common social backdrop of shared views of salient situational factors?" Although Auer's model can partly explain the reasons for the language sequences, it is not fully explained. For instance, a speaker

may start a conversation in Cantonese and then switch to English for introducing a new topic, but is it possible that the conversation could be conducted in English first and then Cantonese? If not, what are the explanations for this? Hence, a macro sociolinguistic picture should be drawn in order to obtain such results in the micro analysis.

A range of representative studies on CA have been presented above, dealing with the fact that modern social beings hardly ever engage in one single mode (spoken or written) of discourse. We tend to use different discourses in daily life for communicating. Therefore, neither micro analysis nor macro contexts should be ignored. The following section presents the studies done on CA in Hong Kong.

2.2.3 Code-alternation in Hong Kong & the reasons for it

In this section, a review on CA in Hong Kong is presented. These studies are classified into different approaches according to those discussed in the previous section (2.2.2). Due to the fact that no study is completely inclined to the language approach of sociology, this approach is often combined with other approaches for analyzing CA in certain social groups. A new heading is therefore created, which is CA and code choice in the community. Besides this classification, the linguistic constraint approach and the interactional approach are also discussed.

2.2.3.1 CA & code choice in the community

In 1984, Luke called for more studies on mixing behavior in different social groups in the Hong Kong community. Before the study by Luke (1984), the only major study on CA was probably Gibbons, (1979) which involved university students. Luke (1984:191) is the first study to examine how the "occupationally specific model of mixing and borrowing can be related to the central theme of code choice." Myers-Scotton (2002:234) explains 'borrowing' is a traditional term used to describe a language's adoption of a linguistic feature of another language. In other words, a foreign word, namely a 'loanword', is used in the host language and it is fully integrated (Romaine, 1995:143). The definitions of CA and borrowings might seem clear; however, Myers-Scotton (2002:153) argues that it is difficult to "distinguish borrowing from codeswitching". Eastman (1992:1) wrote that "efforts to distinguish code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing are doomed". Also, many scholars (Gardner-Chloros, 2009; Myers-Scotton, 1992; Thomason, 2001) have also argued that there is no clear difference between CA and borrowing. Gardner-Chloros (2009:12) stated that CA and borrowing "are on a diachronic continuum: loans start off

as code-switches and then gradually become established as loans." Therefore, this paper does not take 'borrowing' or loanwords' into account for analysis. According to Luke (1984:191) six code choices are suggested among Hong Kong people. These choices are English, High Cantonese (formal Cantonese, close to written Chinese), Low Cantonese (spoken Cantonese), expedient mixing, orientation mixing and code-switching.

Two kinds of CM are distinguished, which are expedient mixing and orientational mixing. Expedient mixing refers to using English words to fill in the lexical gaps of Cantonese (Luke, 1984). Speakers can choose to use either High Cantonese or English words. High Cantonese words are not as popular as English words in daily life. For example, the word 'file' (English) 文件夾 (High Cantonese) does not have its own term in Low Cantonese. People tend to use the word 'file' instead of using the High Cantonese, as using High Cantonese makes the speaker sound too formal and odd. However, the differences between English words and Low Cantonese words are uncertain. This is because Hong Kong people create Low Cantonese words based on the pronunciation of English words. For example, 'file' in English is 'faail1 lou2¹' in Low Cantonese, whilst it does not exist in written Chinese. 'Faail1 lou2' has eventually become a Low Cantonese word for 'file'. There are more examples to illustrate how English words may become Low Cantonese. Lin (1998) gives some such examples. The Low Cantonese word '卡士' (kaa1 si2) represents 'class' and '菲士' (fei1 si2) represents 'face'. The word 'taste', on the other hand, is 'tei1 si2' in Low Cantonese which does not exist in the written form. In High Cantonese, these words are '氣派', '面子' and '品味' respectively. Therefore, in some cases, it is uncertain whether expedient mixing has been used to fill in lexical gaps of Cantonese or not, due to the English words having been interpreted in Low Cantonese words.

On the other hand, orientational mixing occurs when the speakers want to express a more westernized identity by using CA (Luke, 1984). In this category, speakers can choose English, High Cantonese or Low Cantonese. English is the preferred language as the speakers can show their western identity. For example, the word lunch (English) is represented as 午餐 (High Cantonese) and 晏晝飯 (Low Cantonese). People tend to say '我食 lunch' (I eat lunch) to show

¹ The number on the side of the translations indicates the tone of the characters; for example '1' is high flat, '2' is middle rise.

their western side and this concept of being westernized is different in different contexts. It can show that one is western, educated, independent, trendy, fashionable and so on (Li, 2000:309).

Li (1996) argues that Luke's explanations are merely concerned with pragmatic motivations. He gives the example of 'shopping' as although shopping has both High Cantonese and Low Cantonese equivalent terms, the English word 'shopping' is still popular among Hong Kong people. He indicates that "'shopping' has functional equivalents in 'high' Cantonese (購物, kau3 mat6), and 'low' Cantonese (買嘢, maai5 je5)." (Li, 2000:309) However, their meanings are literally different. This is because 'shopping' and 'buying thing(s)' are different activities. '買嘢' tends to be a more necessary and inevitable activity, whilst 'shopping' tends to be a more unnecessary and frivolous consumption.

Besides Luke, Gibbons (1987) is another of the pioneers to study CA among a specific group in a community. His studies on the behavior of CA among students in the University of Hong Kong are considered to be the first systematic and comprehensive works on CA in Hong Kong. There are two significances of his study; one is how a specific social group uses language, which he calls MIX. This MIX language may only happen to be the register used by the students in the eighties in the University of Hong Kong; therefore, it is not further explored. The other is the aim of his study, which is to evaluate different approaches to CA. It includes the interactional approach by Gumperz and the sociology of language approach by Fishman. Based on his data generated from students in the University of Hong Kong, he proves that although different approaches have different emphases, strengths and weaknesses, there is no conflict between them. Instead, he mentions that "they are complementary, each producing additional information, and at the same time providing a measure of mutual support and confirmation" (Gibbons 1987: 123).

After Gibbons' studies, many scholars have used part of Gibbons' framework for analyzing CA behaviors in different social groups; for example, Pennington, Balla, Detaramani, Poon and Tam (1992) conducted research on students in the City Polytechnic of Hong Kong (now called the City University of Hong Kong) by replicating a part of Gibbons' studies.

In addition to the above studies of CA on behaviors, there are some studies which aim to study the correlation between the frequency of CA and the social factors of speakers. Lo (1985) conducted a study among middle-class females in order to find out how the frequency of CA instances varied depending on the domains and backgrounds of the interlocutors. Another

example is Li's study in 1996, in which he tried to find out the CA instances that appeared in local radio programs and to correlate the frequency of the occurrence of CA with the gender of the broadcaster and the genre of the program, as well as the age of the targeted audience. These studies make two skeptical assumptions. Firstly, it is assumed that the occurrence of CA is affected by the social factors of the speakers, such as the background and the age of the interlocutor, the gender and the genre (settings or situations). However, it is believed that the speakers might want to "draw the attention of others, to show off, to take the advantage of knowing a separate language" (Anuar & Hamid, 2014:72); hence, they code-switch. Secondly, it is assumed that the nature and functions of CA occurrence are very similar in different contexts.

2.2.3.2 Linguistic Approach

A number of studies have been made in order to investigate the syntactic aspects of Cantonese-English code-alternation after Gibbons' studies. Scholars have particularly tried to find out the syntactic structure of this code, which can be explained by Poplack's (1979; Sankoff & Poplack, 1980) Free Morpheme Constraint and Equivalence Constraint (Leung, 1987) or the Matrix Language Frame Model by Myers-Scotton (1993a). Leung (1987) conducted a study by collecting data from ten Cantonese-English bilinguals and indicated that there are no specific rules on which part of the sentence can be switched. Chan (1993) conducted a study across different domains including tutorial classes, fellowship sharings, informal conversations and interviews from television and radio and analyzed the data using Poplack and Sankoff's Equivalence Constraint and Free Morpheme Constraint. He pointed out that both constraints failed to account for the linguistic pattern in CA between Cantonese and English. In 1998 Chan proposed that the MLF model could provide a framework for analyzing CA in English-Cantonese data more adequately.

The study of Li (1994), conducted in the Chinese community in Newcastle, England, on CA between Cantonese and English, proved that the pattern of CA between Cantonese and English in England is not entirely the same as the patterns observed in Hong Kong. One example in Li's study (1994:157) is "maybe ye(.) perhaps I (.) Koeige nambe geido a" (maybe ye(ah) (.) perhaps I (.) what is his number). In Hong Kong, people tend to use the Cantonese characters rather than morpheme-by-morpheme translation, which is 'maybe ye(.) perhaps I (.) 佢個 number 幾多號呀'

This example shows that there is a difference in the CA between Cantonese and English in Hong Kong based on my analysis.

2.2.3.3 Interactional Approach

The most representative study on CA using the interactional approach was arguably the one conducted by Lin (1988, 1990). He used Auer's conversational analysis approach in understanding the CA practices of Hong Kong teachers in English lessons. Inter-sentential CA was found in bilingual classrooms and bilingual radio programs under certain institutional contexts (Lin, 1988, 1990; Pennington 1994). Lin's study attempted to analyze the procedures of CA between teachers and students in the bilingual classroom (Lin, 1988, 1990). Pennington (1994) reviewed Lin's suggestions on the pedagogical and para-pedagogical functions, which were the changes in discourse topic, a switch in the role relationship such as between teachers and students, from a friend to a guardian and others, and a modification of the participation framework; for instance, using English in class or using Cantonese with someone in person. These studies showed that participants communicate with others by taking up, negotiating and shifting between different roles. For example, in order to show the power relationship and solidarity with the students, the teacher chose to switch from English to Cantonese in class for signaling a new footing and negotiating a change of role. Lee (2012) conducted research investigating the motivations for CA of Cantonese television programs, using 'expedient switching' and 'orientational switching' as the framework. The results showed that the "four main motivations - 'register', 'personal name', 'principle of economy', and 'specificity'- account for more than 95% of the embedded English segments" (Lee, 2012:168).

Some of the major studies on CA in Hong Kong have been presented in this section. Since the study of Gibbons in 1979, the subject of CA in different domains has been examined from different perspectives. The reasons for CA in written discourse have also been examined by different scholars and are presented in the next section.

2.2.4 Reasons for code-alternation in written discourse

Many studies have attempted to find the reasons behind code-alternation (Gibbons, 1987; Yau, 1993; Li, 1996, 1998, 2000; Li and Elly, 2002), which were presented earlier with a focus on spoken data or discourse. This section presents the studies of written discourse on CA as it is more relevant to the present paper. The studies of Li had a flavor of linguistic motivations in the

Chinese press in Hong Kong and aimed at "demonstrating that code-mixing as an observable phenomenon often obscures the fact that there are hidden linguistic factors at work which somehow may be uncovered through careful, sometimes meticulous, analysis" (Li, 1996: 164). He focused on finding out what, how and why English was mixed to written discourse which was predominantly written in Chinese. Li (1996, 2000) proposed several reasons which may cause such CA. These reasons were availability, specificity, creativity, (Li, 1996) euphemism and the principle of economy (Li, 2000).

The availability and specificity of languages make them useful for filling the lexical gap of the host language. Li mentioned that English words were sometimes preferred for their more general and specific meanings, while sometimes being preferred for their specificity in the cultural context. For example, 'fans' is used in English, while '迷' in Cantonese requires specific talent(s) as a premodifier, such as '歌迷' (song fan). Secondly, regarding linguistic creativity, "English serves as an additional linguistic resource ... the code-mixed English expressions are preferred because they bear intrinsic rhetorical features which, when translated into Chinese, may not be preserved" (Li, 1996:97). One of the pragmatic motivations of CA is euphemism. In every society there are terms or topics which are considered embarrassing, unpleasant or frightening. These terms or topics are not often discussed openly in public. However, there are occasions when these subjects are discussed. Euphemisms become one strategy to create a circumlocutory or mitigating effect. Euphemisms sometimes occur with non-native languages because "we have conditioned reactions to taboo words in our native language, but we do not have strong emotional reactions to taboo words in a foreign language" (Jay, 2003: 417). The concept of the motivation principle of economy is that an English term may be preferred because it is shorter, and hence less effort is needed compared with Chinese or Cantonese (Li, 2000). For instance, Chinese input systems on the keyboard tend to be more complicated than the English input system as they are mainly stroke-based (倉頡/ 速成) and pronunciation-based in Mandarin (pinyin). Stroke-based Chinese input systems are skill-intensive, while the pronunciation-based system in Mandarin (pinyin) is less user-friendly to Cantonese speakers as they are not familiar with pinyin.

Users in Hong Kong tend to switch languages in different contexts. For example, they use English mainly in writing assignments, business emails, etc. However, for some personal

messaging, they tend to use Chinese and English mixed. Although there are many reasons for typing English rather than Chinese, Chinese is the major L1 in Hong Kong. People therefore tend to type Chinese in Cantonese structure and style rather than English. These reasons may contribute to the occurrence of CA in computer-mediated-communication in Hong Kong.

2.3 CMC & Blogging

2.3.1 Computer-mediated communication & its languages

The history of computer technology started in the 1950s; the first recorded exchange of email occurred in the 1960s. However, individual computers began to swiftly gain importance and became one of the most important methods for communication in the 1990s. Therefore, computer-mediated communication (CMC) has developed rapidly around the world over the past two decades. CMC is a new communication method among computer users. People hold their mobiles or other electronic devices in their hands while surfing on the internet the world over. Amid different forms, such as Facebook, blogging, twitter and WhatsApp, internet provides a platform for communication among computer users. This eliminates the temporal and spatial constraints in traditional interactions as well as allowing people to share interests and activities across geographical, political and economic borders (Purohit, Singh, & Dangi, 2013:119).

CMC was defined as "communication that takes place between human beings through the instrumentality of computer" (Herring, 1996: 1). Later, in 2004, Thurlow, Lengel and Tomic (2004: 15) stated that CMC "essentially refers to any human communication achieved through, or with the help of, computer technology." However, due to the rapid technological change, the definition of CMC has changed over the years as well, from exchanging textual messages between individual users typing on the keyboards and reading on the screens of the computer, to any digital devices. This communication through digital devices includes all kinds of internet activities; for example, email, instant messaging, game interaction, blogs, forums and others.

CMC can be divided into two main types, which are synchronous and asynchronous.

Synchronous CMC takes place in real time through any chat media; chat rooms, instant messengers and others. Asynchronous CMC allows access to the media at different times such as emails, blogs, forums and so on. It has been argued that synchronous CMC is closer to the spoken form than asynchronous CMC. This is because of the numerous communication strategies as well as a wide range of discourse patterns that are found in synchronous CMC (Chun, 1994;

Pellettieri, 2000; Smith, 2003; Vandergriff, 2006; Lee, 2007). On the other hand, asynchronous CMC is closer to the written form as it allows for more syntactic complexity (Yates, 1996; Sotillo, 2000; Abrams, 2003). CMC can also be divided into different forms, which are text-based, audio-visual and mixed forms (Murray, 1995; Hine, 2000).

A new question has arisen as to whether to consider CMC as a written form or spoken form of language. Baron (2000: 248) mentions that CMC is "an emerging language centaur, part speech, part writing." Hale (1999) claimed that the language of CMC is less expressive or sophisticated than traditional forms of writing. Crystal (2006: 51) suggested that the use of language on the internet - which he also called "Netspeak" - is a new species of communication which means it is "something genuinely different in kind - speech + writing + electronically mediated properties." Written language is more formal, more abstract and has a more complex structure, while spoken language tends to be more informal, more context-dependent and with a simpler structure (Herring, 2001). Herring (2001) pointed out that the distinctions between spoken and written language are blurred in the environment of CMC. The written language communication in the environment of CMC, particularly the synchronous communication, contains the features of spoken language as in face-to-face communication. Danet and Herring (2007) proved that the written language of internet chatting is less complex, less correct and not as coherent as standard written language, which means that it is closer to speech. Crystal (2006) mentioned that the language of CMC contains few written features. Instant messaging contains more written features than chatroom and virtual world interactions. Emails and blogs occupy the middle of the continuum (Crystal, 2006: 44).

There are many studies which aim to examine the phenomenon of CA in CMC. For example, Cárdenas-Claros and Isharyanti (2009) examined CA in synchronous CMC with a focus on chatroom conversation among non-native English users with a Spanish or Indonesian background. The results showed that CA occurs more often among Indonesian users. In most cases CA is triggered by the language function of confirming. Urbäck (2007) conducted a study with a focus on asynchronous CMC for investigating a bilingual online discussion forum about the language change in online communication to find out whether English is the preferred language in CMC among Swedish-English users. Results showed that CA most often occurred in greetings and short phrases. English is the preferred language in online discussion forums based on a variety of reasons, such as users being more comfortable using English after having spent a

long time in an English-speaking country. Also, it is more appropriate to use the official language of the forum and so on. Fung and Carter (2007) studied the language form and varieties of synchronous CMC (ICQ) among English-Cantonese speakers. There are many creativities found in written discourse, particularly CA, loan translation and relexicalization (the Romanization of Cantonese characters, see chapter 2.3.5). In addition to the studies focusing on either synchronous or asynchronous CMC, there have also been studies which aimed at comparing these two types. For example, Perez (2003) examined these two types of CMC to identify whether they affected the productivity of the learners' language by investigating emails (asynchronous) and online chatting (synchronous). The results showed that there are no significant differences between these two CMC modes. However, many more words were produced in online chat compared to emails. These two modes used by students and teachers proved that they were effective in increasing language productivity in foreign language learning. Regarding asynchronous CMC, Schiffirin, Tannen, and Hamilton (2001: 618) indicated that it "permits users to take their time in constructing and editing messages."

Although studies have been conducted on the asynchronous CMC, a very limited number of studies have focused on blogs. Therefore, blogs are the target CMC medium of this study.

2.3.2 Strengths & weaknesses of CMC

There are several problems in CMC. The lack of face-to-face contact possibly results in a loss of the ability for socialization (phatic functions), affecting both speakers and listeners (Feenberg, 1989). Secondly, Crystal (2006) and Jarvis (2006) stated that in CMC poor writing skills and spelling mistakes are widely accepted by users. Poor writing skills and spelling mistakes affect people in formal writing such as business emails, assignments and others. For example, "cant' instead of can't; johnson and faTher instead of Johnson and father; some thing instead of something; hear, betwn, ples, matreat and stude instead of here, between, maltreat, and study,etc) " (Jibril, Hoon, & Mohammed, 2014:61) Thirdly, CMC can be time-consuming (Rourke, Anderson, Garrison, & Archer, 2001). This is because of the low internet speed, the time required for entering a post and other issues. Moreover, communication through the internet can only allow people to exchange messages linguistically but does not allow for the extra-linguistic characteristics; for instance, body gestures, facial expressions, etc. (Huffaker & Calvert, 2006). These extra-linguistic characteristics are not available for the interlocutors, which may lead to

misunderstanding. The extra-linguistic characteristics are absent in CMC. For example, person A may be angry with person B and might send person B a message such as 'Can we meet tonight?'. Since person B cannot see the facial expressions and the speaking tone of person A, person B would not notice that person A is angry and urge for a talk with him/her. Therefore, smileys or emoticons, English idiomatic expressions and constructions and Cantonese utterance particles have been created for conveying emotional and attitudinal meanings (James, 2001). For example, "ar (呀／阿)" has a tentative function which shows indifference and perhaps an element of bashfulness (ibid:14): "something want to ask u ar" compared with "there's something I've been wanting to ask you" shows a sharp contrast of formality, and more keystrokes are also required in the latter. However, these kinds of particles are only understandable when communicating with Cantonese speakers and cannot be used with non-Cantonese speakers (James, 2001).

Although there are several weaknesses in CMC, there are also strengths. CMC allows participants to think, study, participate and initiate conversation without the restrictions of time or place. People use the internet through many digital devices and can communicate with people from all over the world at any time (Brent, 1999). For example, there might be a person who is originally from Hong Kong and lives in Vienna, but his or her family live in Hong Kong. S/he can talk to them once in a while through 'skype' or even video chatting as long as s/he has internet access and a digital device. Secondly, people tend to be less shy (Chun, 1994 & Lee, 2004) and have an increased desire to express themselves online rather than use face-to-face communication (Graziadei, 1996) for sensitive topics such as sex, diseases and so on. They can easily ask questions or research online through the internet. Moreover, conversations or posts can be archived for future reference or to re-visit the full context (Mason, 1988). Also, for instance, the loss of a diary or articles in real life are avoided.

The weaknesses and strengths of CMC have been discussed above. Blogging as the target data of this study and its languages are presented in the next section.

2.3.3 Blogging & its languages

A weblog, which is also called a blog, is a web application for users to compose posts at any time. According to Blood (2000), Kajder and Bull (2004), a "blog is a site or online journal published on the World Wide Web (WWW) for discussion or informational purposes in a reverse

chronological order" (Aydin, 2014). Blogs allow visitors to leave comments or messages to the owners (Mutum & Wang, 2010) as well as connect to other online communities by linking to them (Godwin-Jones, 2003). Baron (2008:11) states that there are four basic features of a blog, which are that it is text-based, in reverse chronological order, frequently updated and linked to other sites. Crystal (2006: 240) considered that blogs had different uses; on the one hand, there is the personal blog, a vehicle for self-expression and self-empowerment for expressing what happens in daily life, individual thoughts and feelings. On the other hand, it can be maintained by an institution, namely a corporate blog.

Blood (2002) also mentioned three types of blogs: filters, personal journals and notebooks (Spigel, Malecki, & Jones, 2010). Filters contain content external to the blogger such as world events and online happenings whereas a notebook refers to either personal or external content. These are also called knowledge-logs (Herring, Scheidt, Wright, & Bonus, 2005: 148). Finally, a notebook may contain either external or personal content, which is a mixed type of filter and personal journal. Also, a notebook tends to be distinguished by longer and more focused essays. Herring and others (2005: 117) reported that a personal journal is the most commonly used blog type in the blogging community after analyzing over 200 randomly-selected blogs. They also pointed out that the number of female and teenage bloggers is higher than those of males and adults.

According to Herring and others (2005), the blog is a hybrid genre which can be a combination of public, private, personal and professional information. Crystal (2006: 242) commented that the writing style of personal blogs consists of standard and non-standard English. It is a kind of written language in its most "naked" form because it does not always have "editorial interference" undertaken in the writing process. (Crystal, 2006:245) Thus, blogs are a new variety of writing.

According to the census and statistic department of Hong Kong, (2012) the compilation or creation of blogs is not popular among internet users. However, 15.8% (686,500 persons) of the participants had compiled or created blogs in the past twelve months before enumeration.

Around half of those bloggers update their blogs frequently. Although the language used in Hong Kong blogs is mainly Cantonese, there are also blogs with different languages or mixed languages. Blogs in Hong Kong are mainly written in Cantonese, Chinese, English, Cantonese-English or Chinese-English code-alternation. The written language of Cantonese is considered

to be a mixture of spoken Cantonese and standard written Chinese, which indicates that blogs are a hybrid of spoken and written language, a genre placed somewhere on the spoken-written continuum (Tannen, 1982: 3). For example, the Cantonese '你食咗飯未呀?' is '你吃了飯沒有?' in Chinese. Both have the same meaning of 'have you eaten yet?' '食咗' (ate) and '未呀' (no) are normally used in spoken Cantonese while '吃了' (ate) and '沒有' (no) are standard written Chinese. The syntactic structures of both sentences are the same. However, the terms that are used are different. The spoken form of Cantonese '食咗' (ate) and '未呀' (no) are inserted into the written form of Chinese.

2.3.4 Word processing in Hong Kong

Chinese characters are logograms. Chinese characters have several types based on the manner in which they are formed. They are mainly derived from pictograms, simple ideograms, ideogrammic compounds, phono-semantic compound characters, phonetic loan characters and derivative cognates (Li, 2012:94-95).

Chinese characters are very different from the Roman alphabet and the word bank is significantly greater in number. Writing Chinese characters is far different from typing them because Chinese characters are bound by the limitations of the keys on the keyboard.

There are numerous Chinese input methods, but less than ten of them are in common use today. These inputting methods are based on the shape or pronunciation of the characters and each character was mapped onto one to five keys (Po, Wong, Au, Ng, & Wong, 2009). In Hong Kong most people have adopted Cangjie or Simplified Cangjie (ibid). These two input systems belong to the method of shape-based word processing. The main reason for Hong Kong people to choose to use these two inputting methods is because there is no standard phonetic transcription system for Cantonese. Also, many people in Hong Kong are not familiar with Pinyin, which is most widely used in China and Taiwan (ibid). Pinyin is based on the pronunciation of the character using the Roman alphabet for inputting, which is one type of Romanization inputting method. For example, '我' is written by entering 'wo3' to obtain the character.

The Cangjie input method assigns twenty-four radicals or character roots to the keys. There are two steps to this method for obtaining the character. The first step is decomposing the character into one to five radicals or roots, which depends on the complexity of the characters. Secondly, it

is necessary to enter the correct order of the radicals or roots in order to obtain the desired character. For example, 慢 (slow) can be divided into four parts: 心 (heart), 日(day), 田 (field) and 水 (water). To input the character, the user has to strike the keys in the sequence of P, A, W and E. Table 1 shows the distribution of the character roots on the keys.

Table 1 The distribution of Cangjie radicals or character roots on computer keys

Key	Character Root	Key	Character Root	Key	Character Root	Key	Character Root
A	日	H	竹	O	人	V	女
B	月	I	戈	P	心	W	田
C	金	J	十	Q	手	X	N/A
D	木	K	大	R	口	Y	N/A
E	水	L	中	S	尸	Z	卜
F	火	M	一	T	廿		
G	土	N	弓	U	山		

On the other hand, the simplified Cangjie input method requires a simpler version of the Cangjie method. It also follows the rules of decomposition, but it is only necessary to enter the first and the last roots of the desired character. Following our example, the writer is then only required to enter 心 and 水 so that a list of characters will appear and the user can choose the desired character 慢 from the list.

2.3.5 Features of Cantonese- English code-alternation

Code-alternation is a very common linguistic behavior in Hong Kong (Li 1998, 2000; Wu, 2000). In the context of CMC, code-alternation is no longer restricted to mixing Chinese and English. A number of different codes are used by users to express themselves in different situations.

Lee (2002: 12; 2007) proposed a classification of 'codes' which are adopted and practiced by Hong Kong CMC users. These six forms of 'code' are Standard written English, Attempted Standard English, Standard written Chinese, Character representation of Cantonese, Coined Cantonese Romanization and Morpheme-for-Morpheme translation. Firstly, Standard written

English refers to the variety of English that does not include any remarkable error. However, "there is no doubt that what is considered to be standard English has been a controversy" (ibid: 13). In her study, "standard refers to the acceptable norm in education and other formal institutions" (ibid: 13). She gave an example of an email between colleagues discussing some official issues. She also mentioned that this type of message usually occurs in a formal setting. Secondly, Attempted Standard English may contain some mistakes in grammar or lexical choice. Apart from this, it is similar to Standard written English. "It is clear that the senders have the intention to write in [the] standard form of language, but they fail to do so by making some mistakes in grammar or lexical choice" (Lee, 2002: 13). The messages of this category tends to be composed in the formal setting. Thirdly, standard written Chinese shares the same meaning as Standard English. It is widely used in the domains of "education, business and other official settings" (Lee, 2002:14). Standard Chinese in Hong Kong uses the traditional Chinese language without any sign of Cantonese dialect items. Fourthly, the form of Cantonese represented in character writing is called character representation of Cantonese. This form can also be named as "Cantonese dialectal words" (ibid). It is normally found in informal interpersonal settings. For example, 啲嘢 (something) and 咩野黎咖 (what's that?) are both Cantonese dialectal words which traditionally only appear in spoken language. Fifthly, Coined Cantonese Romanization "refers to the kind of Cantonese Romanization system coined by Cantonese CMC users" (Lee, 2002: 14). According to Lee's study, the final particles are the most likely to be Romanized. She explained that these characters were not available in the standard character set. Historically, users who wanted to insert such a character had to install a supplementary character set called the Hong Kong Supplementary Character Set. However, people tend to use combinations of the Roman alphabet rather than installing this set in order to represent the pronunciation of the character. For example, the official pronunciation of 咩 and 啲 are "me1" and "di1" respectively. Instead of entering 咩 in Chinese, people tend to type "mei" in the Roman alphabet based on the Cantonese pronunciation 'me1'; the same happens to 啲 which is replaced by "D". Lastly, the "Morpheme-for-Morpheme translation deals with the direct transliteration of Cantonese elements into English in a syllable-by-syllable manner (or morpheme for morpheme)" (Lee, 2002:17), such as "大頭蝦". The literal meanings is "big head shrimp". However, the actual meaning is "careless and absent-minded". Instead of typing the Chinese characters or the proper English

words, users prefer to type "big head shrimp" to express the ideographic meaning in Chinese. "Creativity of language is the key issue in this category"(ibid).

Many researchers have aimed at studying the patterns of the Cantonese-English CA of Hong Kong bilinguals (Gibbon, 1987; Chan, 1998). They found that a single English word mostly appeared surrounded by Cantonese constituents. These English words were content words such as nouns, verbs and adjectives, while it was uncommon for English to be used in function words; for instance, determiners, conjunctions and auxiliary words (Gibbon, 1987). However, later in Chan's (1998) study, prepositions and conjunctions were discovered in English which could be inserted alone in discourse. Besides the features mentioned above, Table 2 summarizes the features of Cantonese-English code-alternation in the previous CMC studies of James (2001), Lee (2007), Nishimura (2003) and Lam (2014).

Table 2 Summary of English features of Cantonese-English CA in Previous CMC Studies

Features	*No.	Studies			
		James (2001)	Lee (2007)	Nishimura (2003)	Lam (2014)
Hong Kong Cantonese CMC only	1		X		
	2		X		
	3		X		
Universal	4	X	X	X	
	5	X	X	X	X
	6			X	
	7			X	X
	8			X	
	9			X	
	10			X	X
	11				X

* No. is representing the following features:

- 1 Relexicalization (Romanization of Cantonese characters): see above
- 2 Shortening: e.g. "88" resembling the pronunciation of "bye bye".
- 3 Morpheme-by-morpheme translation: see above

- 4 Sentence Final Particles: see above
 - 5 Smileys and Emoticons: e.g. (*o*)
 - 6 Use of Punctuation: Punctuation marks are frequently used by the users of two languages, e.g. in Chinese writing "。" is used to represent the end point of a sentence
 - 7 Eccentric Spelling (Pronunciation spelling): e.g. sooooooooooon
 - 8 Written-out laughter: other vocalizations and non-linguistic sound/ noise, e.g. hehehehe
 - 9 Capital Letters: an attention-catching function, e.g. WOOOW
 - 10 Abbreviations: e.g. LOL
 - 11 Reduction of Capitalization: e.g. first-person pronoun 'I' is replaced by 'i'
- (James, 2001; Lee, 2007; Nishimura, 2003; Lam, 2014)

English plays an important role in Hong Kong, due to its history as a British colony. However, the status of English has changed from superior to inferior, since Hong Kong's handover to China. A biliterate and trilingual policy was adopted; this policy allows people to learn three spoken languages in school. It is believed that the occurrence of CA in Hong Kong is mainly caused by the language policy and its history. CA is divided into two sub-terms which are code-switching and code-mixing. Based on the focus of this study, CS is inter-sentential code-alternation while CM is intra-sentential code-alternation. Also, the main approaches of CA are present. These approaches include the grammatical approach, the sociolinguistic approach and the interactional approach, which are explained along with the main studies. MLF and Muysken's typologies are discussed in the section regarding the grammatical approach. Based on the weaknesses of these two models, combinations of these models are chosen for analysis. CMC occurs along with the rapid development of technology. This kind of communication offers people a chance to communicate freely, so that a new genre of language is developed. This is a combination of written and spoken language. Many studies have been conducted on different social websites and instant messengers. Researches on blogs are relatively few; therefore, blogs are the target CMC data in this paper. Word processing in Hong Kong is also present, in which the simplified Cangjie is the most popular input method among Hong Kong people. Word

processing in entering Chinese or Cantonese characters is one of the reasons causing the occurrence of CA in CMC in Hong Kong. Finally, a summary of the English features of Cantonese-English CA found in previous CMC studies is shown. According to different studies, different features are found, including relexicalization, shortening, smileys and emoticons, and others. These features are used for the analysis.

3. Data, Methodology and Analytical Approach

3.1 Research Questions

This study seeks to investigate the features of English in Cantonese-English code-alternation and its syntactic patterns. The main research question is "What are the syntactic features of English contributions to Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs?"

1. What English parts of speech are used in the context of Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs?
2. Can the Matrix Language Frame Model and Muysken's typology of code-alternation explain all the data? If they cannot explain it, then what are the cases?
3. Are there any new features of English which are not mentioned in Table 2, in the context of Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs?

3.2 Methodology and Data

3.2.1 Methodology

In this section, the methodology and the statistics of how and where the data were collected and conducted will be presented. A large number of Hong Kong blogs can be found on the internet. These blogs can be divided into different categories such as personal blogs, company blogs, travel blogs, beauty blogs, food blogs, etc.

The data were collected through different blogs in Hong Kong. A qualitative method is applied for analyzing the discourse patterns, the Lemma Congruence Model (LCM), and alternations were applied, while English features analysis was considered to analyze data both qualitatively (based on the features mentioned in Table 2) and quantitatively (English parts of speech).

3.2.2 Data Collection

The data used for the present study were comprised of 100 blog entries written by 10 people in Hong Kong. These blog entries were collected from five different blogging platforms, which were Blogcity (10 entries), Blogspot (10 entries), Xanga (20 entries), Mysinablog (20 entries) and Qooza (40 entries). The latest ten entries per blog were collected for this study. The genre of all entries was personal journal or diary which establishes an informal and carefree setting for the blog entries. The data consists of 947 paragraphs with 38458 words in total. Asian languages comprise 33678 words while non-Asian languages comprise 5080 words. Entries which were written in only Chinese or English were excluded from the study. This is because the goal of the study is not to investigate the frequency of Cantonese-English code-alternation in blogs but to investigate the syntactic features, the English parts of speech and features of English in the context of Cantonese-English CA. Therefore, only those entries which contained both English and Cantonese elements were analyzed, including titles and main contents. Some English items were not considered to be code-alternation elements:

- 1 Emoticons or Smileys: they are just a kind of image
- 2 Website addresses or addresses or proper nouns (e.g. name of person or place or shops): it is not possible to translate and it is meaningless to change it.
3. Translations: translation of Cantonese into English or English into Cantonese.
4. Relexicalization: Romanized Cantonese characters will not be analyzed for syntactic structure, but for features of English. This is because these are not English.

3.2.3 Questionnaire

A questionnaire (Appendix 1) was designed for eliciting information about the blog owners through email. The questionnaire provided different choices. Some questions allowed interviewees to choose more than one answer. 'Others' was inserted as an option in order to provide another choice for the interviewees in case the provided choices were too narrow. Few questions were asked as open questions. Demographic information was collected, entailing age, gender, place of birth, place of domicile, mother tongue, second language, profession, educational level and language proficiency. This was followed by some questions which focus on the usage of English and CMC.

3.2.4 Participants

Ten blogs were chosen; therefore, ten participants were interviewed. The participants are mainly young Hong Kong residents, aged between 18 and 35. There is only one participant who is under 25 years old while all the others are between 25 and 35 years old. Seven females and 3 males were interviewed in this study. All of the participants were born and live in Hong Kong. They also have the same mother tongue and second language which are Cantonese and English, respectively. The education level of the participants is college level or above.

3.3 Analytical approach

3.3.1 Syntactic structures

Cantonese is the lingua franca in Hong Kong, but English has been taught in kindergarten, schools and is the main language in the University (see Chapter 1). English is also very important regardless of one's daily life, profession or student status. Cantonese and English are very distinct; there are many differences between them such as lexical categorization, syntactic structure, word formations, etc. In this section, syntactic structure is discussed as it is important to point out the differences between Cantonese and English in order to answer the research questions.

The word order of a simple Cantonese sentence is similar to an English one. Both languages follow the order of Subject-Verb-Object. However, the noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase and Adverb Phrase are considered to have some distinctions between Cantonese and English (Chan, 1998b:263). For example:

NP

- (1)
三 個 橙(samm1 go3 caang4)
Three CL orange
'three oranges'

Example 1 shows some differences between English and Cantonese. Firstly, Cantonese has classifiers which can be either an article or a determiner placed before the noun. Secondly, Cantonese does not have the indication of pluralization of nouns (-s/-es).

VP

(2)

佢哋 尋日 去 咗 行街 (ngo5 cam4 jat6 heoi2 zo2 haang4 gaai1)

PL yesterday go-PRT.PFV shopping

'They went shopping yesterday.'

Cantonese does not use "be" to agree with the nouns in number or person and neither does it indicate the tense and mood by verb affix.

AdjP

(3)

好 靚 嘅 袋 (hou2 leng3 ge1 doi6)

Adv beautiful ADJ marker bag

'very beautiful bag'

AdvP

(4)

我 跑 得 慢啲 (ngo5 paau2dak1 maan3di1), he runs faster

1P.SG run PRT slow.

'I run slower. He runs faster'

In Cantonese, "ge1" (嘅) is inserted in order to mark the adjective(s) on the following noun;

Cantonese does not have the comparative and superlative form such as slower, bigger, the biggest and others. However, a particle is inserted for indicating these forms.

After the brief stretch of the differences in syntactic structure between English and Cantonese, the theoretical frameworks are now presented for analyzing the syntactic structure. The Matrix Language Frame Model (MLF) is adopted which was proposed by Myers-Scotton (1993a). She indicates three distinctions of constituents in code-alternation which are

1. Matrix Language (ML) island which is made up of constituents with ML only;
2. Embedded Language (EL) island which is made up of constituents with EL only;
3. ML + EL constituents which are mixtures of ML and EL constituents.

In the present data, most cases are Cantonese as ML and English as EL. According to the distinctions above, ML island must follow the word order of Cantonese and similarly for EL island, which works according to that of English. For the ML+ EL constituents, Myers-Scotton suggested the Lemma Congruence Model (LCM), subject to two principles which are the

Morpheme Order Principle (MOP) and the System Morpheme Principle (SMP). MOP defines the order of the morpheme and it must follow ML. SMP must come from ML such as tenses, quantifiers, specifiers and inflectional morphology. This method is useful for describing the morpho-syntactic structure. Myers-Scotton (1992: 104) summarized that “ML generates the phrase structure of an utterance, and code-mixing results from the insertion of lexical constituents from both the ML and EL into appropriate slots of the phrase structure.” MLF explains that the sentence structure must follow the order of ML.

Muysken's (2000) typology of code-alternation has been applied. This method focuses on the clause and discourse level of code-alternation. In this case, that is code-mixing, which means that a language phenomenon consists of lexical items and grammatical structures from two languages and appears in the same sentence. Muysken defined three different types of code-mixing. (see Chapter 2.2.2.1)

Considering that the MLF model provides a clearer definition on CA than insertion as the MLF model are categorized into two principles. These two principles are MOP and SMP. It is believed that the present data consists of these two elements; therefore, in order to provide a clearer explanation, MOP and SMP are adopted. Since the MLF model only focuses on ML, which provides the overall syntactic structure, and EL must follow that order. Alternation will also be applied in the present study for analyzing the syntactic structure which the MLF model cannot explain.

3.3.2 Parts of speech & features of English in Cantonese-English CA

In order to investigate the parts of speech and features of Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs, a mixed research method has been applied. Quantitatively, it aims to find out the frequency of code-switching and code-mixing. Secondly, the frequency of English parts of speech that appear in code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs will be identified. Qualitatively, as shown in Table 2, the mentioned features will be used in order to categorize English elements.

4. Findings

In this section, the findings of the syntactic structures of Cantonese-English CA and the English parts of speech are presented. Firstly, the background information of the participants is discussed based on the answers collected through the questionnaire. Secondly, all the data are counted and

the English word classes are categorized into nouns or noun phrases, verbs or verb phrases, adjectives or adjectival phrases, adverbs or adverb phrases, prepositions or prepositional phrases, interjections and clauses.

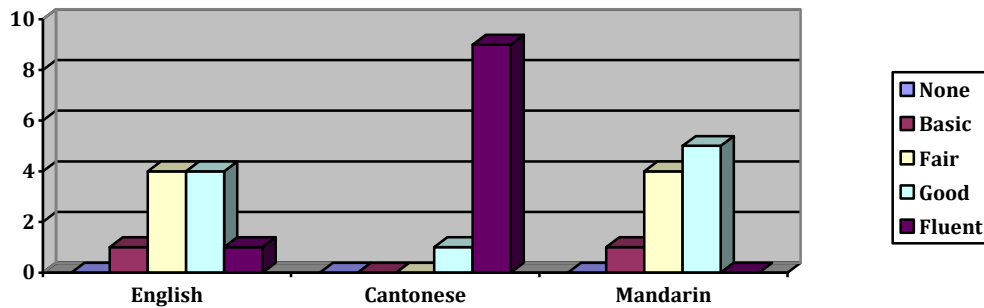


Figure 1 The proficiency of language use in Hong Kong by participants

Figure 1 shows that the participants are fluent in Cantonese as it is their mother tongue, while their proficiency in English and Mandarin is rated mainly fair or good. Although their self-evaluation of language proficiency in English and Mandarin is fair or good, their daily usage of Cantonese comprised 71.7% on average while English comprised 20.8% and Mandarin is the lowest percentage used by the participants which is 7.5%. According to the participants, English is quite important for their professions; the average rating is 4.1 where 1 stands for not important and 5 stands for very important. The same question was asked about daily life, and it was found that compared with professional work, English is not as important in their daily lives. The rating is 2.3. For this, the reason is that most of the documents are written in English, and the customers are mainly foreigners. In order to communicate with them, English is needed for their jobs. However, in daily life, they only need to speak or type in English for communication such as online games. Two of the participants said that English was 'Not important in daily life.'

The main input methods used are English (QWERTY keyboard) and Chinese (simplified Cangjie). This is because they are easier and faster in typing compared with other methods. Also, the interviewees are more sophisticated with these methods. Seven out of ten participants said that they do not use English exclusively when communicating with others through the internet or other media, while seven out of ten participants said they use Cantonese exclusively. Therefore,

among the ten bloggers in my data base, CA in Hong Kong is not as popular as mentioned previously (see Chapter 2.3.5).

4.1 Syntactic structures of Cantonese-English code-alternation in blogs

In Chapter 3.3.1 the differences between the syntactic structures of Cantonese and English were mentioned. This section presents the results of the syntactic analysis of data collected through different blogs written by Hong Kong people. In most cases among the present data, Cantonese is considered to be the ML while English is the EL. In addition, only two examples, which English is the ML and Cantonese is the EL, were found in the data:

(8)

很 有 "leave the tall buildings & crowds behind" 的 意味。
very have "leave the tall buildings & crowd behind" PRT implication-N
'it has an implication of "leave the tall buildings and crowds behind." '

(9)

書包... 錶..... OR any thing but is nothing "~~~
satchel-N watch-N or anything but is nothing
'satchel, watch or anything, but is nothing'

Example 8 shows the main VP is in English which is 'leave behind'. In Cantonese there is only one N, which does not contain any V or VP. This is different from English, which contains both VP and NP. In example 9, there are two nouns written in Cantonese at the beginning of the sentence. The main V is in English; therefore, for both examples it is considered that English is the ML and Cantonese is the EL.

Many examples of MOP and SMP were found; however, the examples of alternation were relatively few. The examples of MOP are as follows:

(10)

今日 Nathan 學校 有 field trip
Today-adv Nathan-3 SG school-N has-V field trip
'Today, Nathan's school has a field trip.'

(11)

可是，在我 take action 之前，它比 我 更 快
but-PRT PRT I take action before, it compares-V I-1P.SG more fast-AdjP
'but, before I take action, it is faster than me.'

As mentioned before, MOP, the EL must follow the order of the morpheme from the ML. Example 10 shows that Cantonese can ignore the genitive morpheme while English cannot. Example 11 clearly shows that the sentence structure follows the order of Cantonese. This is because "之前' (before) cannot be placed before the subject in Cantonese; that is considered grammatically incorrect, '可是，在之前(before) 我 take action，它比我更快' (but, before I take action...). However, in English 'before' should be placed before the subject. Another focus is the 'comparative form' which does not exist in Cantonese, in either spoken or written language. A particle or an adverb will be inserted to emphasize the adjective.

SMP was mentioned above as the system morpheme that should follow the ML. The following examples were extracted from the data:

(12)

點 知 尋日 miss 咗 個 delivery
 PRT know-V yesterday-N miss-V PFV CL delivery
 'Yesterday, I missed the delivery.'

(13)

我 岩岩 都 DEL 左 我 起 BLOG 打 過 同 佢 有關 既 野...
 1P SG just-Adv PRT DEL PFV I-1SG PRT Blog type PFV with him relative PRT things
 'I have just deleted something related to him on the blog.'

Both examples used a PRT to modify the tenses in Cantonese. '咗 or 左'- PFV have the same meaning. The formal character in Cantonese is '咗'; however, some people who did not install the program in order to type proper Cantonese characters would use either '左' or 'o 左'. These examples follow the ML grammatically, because in English it would be 'deleted' or 'missed', and '-ed' or '-d' are inserted to indicate a past event. '-d' or '-ed' is normally added for regular verbs for indicating the past tense.

(14)

好 安全 咁 帶 晒 三 個 B 返 屋企!
 very-Adv safe-N PRT bring-VP PRT three-N CL B(babies)-N back-VP home-N
 'Three babies were brought home safely.'

(15)

d 拍.. 跟 左 我 最 少 3 年...
 DET rackets-N.. followed-V PFV I-1SG most-QTR least-Adj 3 year-CL
 'These rackets were owned by me for at least 3 years.'

A few examples of plural forms were found in the data. Cantonese uses particles or classifiers to indicate the plural forms which in English normally would just change the form of the nouns by either adding -s or -es at the end. These two examples also show the abbreviations in English which will be discussed later in this paper. 'd' was used here as the Cantonese character '啲', which is a very common determiner with the common meaning of 'a few' or 'these'.

Lastly, the last category is alternation; not many examples could be found in the data. Since MLF model cannot explain why EL does not follow the ML grammatically. The following examples show that Cantonese and English follow their own sentence structure and grammatical rules. It was difficult to determine which language was more dominant. The cases of EL follow its own grammar, are considered one of the types of alternation.

(16)

謹記 下 幾 個 需要 在 未來 幾 年 改進 的
Remember-V PRT few-QTR CL require-V PRT future-N CL Year improve-V PRT
地方：

place-N:

Be warmer. tone too cool. need small talks

Don't condescend. you are no smarter

Speak less

Speak slow

Trust your teammates. Don't micromanage.

'Please remember the following points which are required to be improved in the next few years.'

Be warmer. tone too cool. need small talks

Don't condescend. you are no smarter

Speak less

Speak slow

Trust your teammates. Don't micromanage.

(17)

今晚 的 精彩 對話 有：

Tonight-N PRT brilliant-Adj conversations-N have-V

- Stop talking, start touching

- Today everything is about Shell

- I don't give it a Shell!

'Tonight, the brilliant conversations consist:'

- Stop talking, start touching

- Today everything is about Shell
- I don't give it a Shell!

NP and VP could be found in both languages as well as having their own island. Therefore, they were categorized as alternation. For example, Cantonese contains its special particles and classifiers, while English has its own grammar such as tenses and comparative form.

(18)

Choices 很多， 而且 新鮮 美味， AU\$39 值 回
 Choices many-QTR, moreover-PRT fresh-Adj tasty-Adj, AU\$39 worth back-VP
 票價。
 ticket price-NP
 'Many choices, moreover, fresh and tasty, AU\$39 is reasonable.'

(19)

晚上 去同 CK AND FDS 食 飯 呀
 At night-N go with-VP CK-N and FDS-N eat-V rice-N PRT
 'At night, (I) go for dinner with CK and friends.'

Examples (18) and (19) insert the plural form of English which follows the grammatical rules of English and inserts into the frame of Cantonese. For example, 'choices' and 'FDS' are in plural form of English which do not exist in Cantonese grammar. Also, example (18) 'AU\$39 值回' uses English sentence structure, because in Cantonese the formal form should be '值回 AU\$39' instead. 'FDS' is an abbreviation of 'friends' and will be discussed later.

The above examples show that these three categories (MOP, SMP and alternation) can fulfill most of the data of Cantonese-English code-switching when some exclusions are set. The following chapter investigates these three categories according to different parts of speech.

4.2 English parts of speech in Cantonese-English code-alternation

This chapter investigates the parts of English speech in Cantonese-English code-alternation based on different parts of speech in English. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and prepositions are the target of discussion. These parts of speech have been chosen because they occur frequently in the data. Prepositions in Cantonese are grouped as particles, while in English they have their own class. The most common examples are extracted in order to provide a more general and accurate pattern.

First of all, Table 3 shows the frequency of different parts of speech in English which were used in the data.

Table 3 Frequency and percentage of Cantonese-English Code-Alternation in Blogs

<u>Part of speech</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>	<u>Total Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Nouns	311	48.8	417	65.5
Noun Phrases	106	16.6		
Verbs	57	8.9	92	14.4
Verb Phrases	35	5.5		
Adjectives	38	6	60	9.4
Adjective Phrases	22	3.5		
Adverbs	6	0.9	6	0.9
Adverb Phrases	0	0		
Interjections	23	3.6	23	3.6
Prepositions	5	0.8	7	1.1
Prepositional Phrases	2	0.3		
Clauses (fully in English)²	32	5	32	5
Total	637	99.9	637	99.9

Table 3 shows that the dominant parts of English speech in Cantonese-English code-alternation in blogs are nouns and noun phrases, which occupied 65.5% of the CA instances. The following examples show the basic patterns of nouns and noun phrases from the data respectively:

(20)

這門民間手藝 通常 是 中秋, 新年 的 傳統統 節日
This folk handicraft-N normal is mid-autumn festival, new years' traditional festival

² For example, ' Xanga may have to close down.'

才 有 booking.

just have booking-N.

'In general, booking of this kind of folk handicraft would only happen in mid-autumn festival and Chinese new year.'

(21)

sugar painting 亦 能令 你 回憶起 童年時的玩物

Sugar painting-NP also can you memorize childhood toy

'Sugar painting'³ van also remind you to memorize the childhoods' toys.'

Verbs and verb phrases occupied the second place in the overall data with 14.4 %. Examples are as follows:

(22)

最後 都 managed 到

At the end PRT managed-V PFV

'At the end (it) was managed.'

(23)

這 可是 我 growing up 中 記低 所有 大大小小事情的 地方

This but I growing up-VP PROG keep all things' place

'this place can let me keep all the things of myself growing up.'

This was followed by the adjectives and adjective phrases, which comprise only 9.4%. Examples of adjectives and adjective phrases in code-alternation utterances follow respectively:

(24)

一開始 覺得頗為 混淆， 又 nominal 又 real， 又 potential，

At the beginning feel quite confused, also nominal-Adj, also real-Adj, also potential-Adj,

又 per capita。

also per capita-Adj.

'(I) felt quite confused at the beginning, it is nominal, real, potential and per capita.'

(25)

不是說，得出 了 一 個 good enough 的 option 之後便 停

Not say, derive PFV one CL good enough-AdjP GEN option-N after PRT stop

'It was said, after (I have) obtained a good option, then (I) would stop.'

³ 'Sugar Painting' is a traditional Chinese form of folk art using hot, liquid sugar for painting (Wai's Mask Illusion Entertainment Co, 2014).

Around 1 % of the data used English adverbs in Cantonese-English code-alternation and more than 3% of the data used interjection.

(26)

Actually 今次是分上、下集入住了兩次
Actually-Adv this time-CL is divide up, down part in live PFV two times-CL
'Actually, this time, (we) moved in two times in different days.'

(27)

Wow!! 公司開的好快
Wow-Inj company open PRT very fast
'Wow!! The company was opened quickly.'

Prepositions and preposition phrases comprised 1.1% while 5% of English clauses were found. Examples are as follows respectively.

(28)

我地玩 大富翁:) IN 手機
We play Monopoly IN-Pre mobile
'We play monopoly on the mobiles.'

(29)

仲開左聖誕 PARTY ~~ IN CLASS
Also open PFV Christmas party-N in class-Prep
'The Christmas party was held in class.'

(30)

到了中環再徒步走回灣仔 in Cinta-J, Again, beer and
dinner with forever great music.
Arrive PFV Central-N then on foot walk back Wan Chai-N in Cinta-J, again, beer and
dinner with forever great music-Clause.
'(I) arrived Central and walked back to Wan Chai, then drank beer and had dinner in
Cinta-J where they played great music.'

The most popular code-alternation pattern of Cantonese-English in blogs is nouns and noun phrases in the present study, followed by verbs and verb phrases. Adverbs, prepositions and prepositional phrases are almost absent. The distinctive pattern will be briefly explored in terms of linguistic aspects by using LCM and alternation.

4.2.1 English nouns or noun phrases in Cantonese-English code-alternation

Firstly, English nouns or noun phrases could be found frequently in the data. It was observed that English nouns or noun phrases always occur after a verb of Cantonese. For instance, in example

(29), '開左聖誕 PARTY', '開左' is a verb which means 'opened' literally and is followed by a noun '聖誕 party' (Christmas party). These nouns or noun phrases are very popular in Cantonese-English CA. Moreover, the Cantonese particle '的' always appears before the noun or noun phrase of English. Chan (2003:104) mentioned that this particle, '的', has diverse usage and its nature is not yet confirmed. However, three uses of '的' were discovered after analyzing the present data:

a) Part of Cantonese adjective

(31)

規模 大一點 的 NGO 還好

Scale-N bigger-Adj PRT NGO not bad-Adj

'the bigger Non-Government Organization is not bad.'

b) Part of the Cantonese Genitive, -s

(32)

自己的 option..

Own-GEN option-N

'The option of my own'

c) Part of the Cantonese Pronoun

(33)

我的 groupmate 也不是 很 diverse

My groupmate not really-PRT very-Adj diverse

'My groupmate(s) are not very diverse.'

Besides the abovementioned two phenomena, in Cantonese-English code-alternation, nouns or noun phrases, another aspect concerns the plural marker. In this study, Cantonese as the ML does not require any plural forms attached to words. The plural markers of Cantonese are normally indicated by either classifiers or quantifiers before the nouns or noun phrases.

(34)

一個 winter storm

one CL winter storm

'one winter storm

(35)

好多 街頭 SHOW!!

Many-QTR street SHOW!!

'Many street shows'

The above two examples show a good combination of EL inserted into the ML frame. From the latter example, it is clear that the English noun is congruent with the grammatical structure of Cantonese. The plural form of 'show' is 'shows' in English; however, the singular form was used here instead of adding the plural marker '-s'. The plurality of 'show' in English is expressed through the quantifier in Cantonese '好多' (many) before the noun. This can be explained by SMP from LCM.

However, there are some examples found in the data which cannot be explained by the LCM. Due to this issue, 'alternation' from Muysken's typology of code-alternation has been applied.

(36)

Hit songs 未必 有， 反而會 有 一些 side tracks
 Hit songs may not-COP have-V, but-COP have-V some-QTR side tracks
 '(The karaoke shop) may not have hit songs, but side tracks.'

'Songs' and 'tracks' have the plural marker from English which violates the principle of the SMP as they have the English grammatical elements instead of Cantonese. Plural forms do not exist in Cantonese grammatically.

4.2.2 English verbs or verb phrases in Cantonese-English code-alternation

Compared with nouns or noun phrases, verbs or verb phrases are less frequent in Cantonese-English code-alternation in the present data set. It is observed that verbs or verb phrases normally appear in the infinitival forms. Two patterns can be extracted from the data.

Firstly, three different particles were found in the data to indicate the past tense of the English. They are always inserted after the verbs in English. These three particles are '左', '埋' and '到'.

(37)

上機 前 就 知道 佢 FAIL 左
 boarding-V before-N already-Adv know-V he/she-3P.SG fail-V PFV
 '(I) had already known that he/she failed before boarding.'

(38)

佢 仲要 LIKE 埋
 he/she-3P SG even-PRT like-V PFV
 'He/she liked'

(39)

無 CHECK 到 EMAIL
 not check PFV email

'did not check email.'

These three particles carry no meanings themselves when they are used as particles. '咗' and '左' have the same meaning when they are used as particles. '左' means 'left' literally; however, it has the same pronunciation as '咗'. Due to the issue of the availability in the typing program, the occurrence of '左' can be found more frequently than the proper form - '咗'. The other two particles were observed to be used relatively less often when compared with '左/咗'.

Secondly, a few examples can be found in the data where English verbs appear after the modal verbs of Cantonese.

(40)

應該 都 cover 了所有 想去 的地方。
should-MOD already-Adv cover PRT all-PRT want-V GEN place-N
'All the places where (we) wanted to go are covered.'

(41)

一對 眼 就 可能 miss
one pair-CL eye-N PRT may-MOD miss-V
'one pair of eye may miss.'

The first example shows that 'cover' does not appear right after the Cantonese modal verb '應該' but the second example 'miss' appears right after the Cantonese modal verb '可能'. This can possibly be explained by the LCM later. (see page 48 & 49)

As shown above, English verbs are inserted in their infinitive form after the modal verbs of Cantonese, following the Cantonese syntactic structure. However, one may argue that even in English, when modal verbs of English are inserted, the English verbs remain in their bare form as well. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that these examples follow the Cantonese sentence structure. Example 37, 38 and 39 show that readers have to understand the context in order to find out these examples are referring to past events as the English verb forms are in the infinitive. These examples are discovered because of the perfective marker which was inserted to indicate that the event had passed. However, there are some examples that can be found in the data which do not contain any of these particles.

It is important to understand the syntactic structure of Cantonese and English for the following analysis. For English, SV(O) is undoubtedly the sentence structure. English verbs must be placed

after the nouns and are always in the second position of the sentence. However, for Cantonese, it varies from case to case. It can be OV or SV(O) and of course SOV. Objects can be dislocated as they precede the verbs' position. In English, a passive morphology is needed in order to produce an OV sentence, but not in Cantonese.

(42)

呢個 醫生 係 七月 嘅 時候 book 嘅
 This doctor-N (Obj) is-V July-N PRT moment-N book PRT
 'This doctor was booked in July.'

Firstly, this example shows that it is an OV sentence, which means the object took over the position of the subject, yet the sentence does not contain any passive morphology. Also, English passive markers cannot be found. Secondly, in Cantonese, it used the noun 'July' to indicate the past event as this entry was typed in January. However, 'book' is the infinitival form; the past tense of 'book' should be 'booked' in English. This can be explained by SMP because the EL morpheme has followed the Cantonese rules, either syntactically or grammatically.

Referring back to Example 37, it is a typical example of an EL morpheme inserted into ML counterparts but not violating the principle of LCM. In English, the phrases of timing are normally placed either at the beginning of a sentence or at the end of a sentence. On the other hand, the temporal phrases of Cantonese are supposed to be placed at the beginning of a sentence or in the middle of a sentence, normally before the verb. A hypothetical example is illustrated below in which an equivalent translation of English sentences into Cantonese sentences was applied:

43a) I watched a film yesterday.

b) *我睇 戲 昨天

44a) Yesterday I watched a film.

b) 昨天 我睇 戲

45a) *I yesterday watched a film.

b) 我昨天 睇 戲

In the example 37, the temporal phrase has been inserted at the beginning of the sentence, which is also available in English- 'Before boarding, (I) have already known that he/she failed' .

However, from the above examples, the structure of STV (which stands for Subject-Temporal-Verb) is available in Cantonese but not in English.

There are some exceptional cases which can be found in the data but which cannot be explained perfectly by LCM.

(46)

最後 都 managed 到
At the end also managed PFV
'it can be managed at the end.'

(47)

第一天，我 蠻 surprised
First day, I-1P.Sg quite surprised-Adj
'on the first day, I was quite surprised.'

These examples violate the SMP. The verbs 'managed' and 'surprised' consist of an inflectional morpheme '-d' or in regular English verbs with '-ed', showing that the event is either past or is a passive morphology. Therefore, 'alternation' is needed for analyzing the data in this paper.

4.2.3 English adjectives or adjective phrases in Cantonese-English code-alternation

Unlike in Chan (2003)'s findings, there are not many English adjectives found in the present study. However, these adjectives are followed by the Cantonese degree markers, for example, '很', '好' which mean 'very':

(48)

今 次 這艘飛機 十分 OK。
This time this plane-N very OK-Adj
'the plane is very OK this time.'

(49)

但系都 好 SWEET SWEET
but also very sweet sweet-Adj (reduplication)
'but (it is) also very sweet.'

Chan (2003:178) mainly discussed the derivational suffixes of English such as '-ed' and '-ing'. These suffixes are considered to be English system morphemes and ruled by SMP of LCM. From the current data, a few examples can be found. An example illustrated earlier from (44), '蠻 surprised' (quite surprised) or

(50)

所以我 好 好 好 touching
so I very very very touching
'so that I am very touching.'

From the Cantonese point of view, 'touching' is an adjective. The above examples show the violation of SMP because the English adjectives contain suffixes, whereas Cantonese does not. Thus, the EL elements are not congruent with the Cantonese counterparts. This has raised the potential problems of LCM. English adjectives with '-al', '-able' or '-ic' or simple adjectives can also be found in the data.

(51)

那就 wonderful 了。

Then wonderful PRT

'(If I can adopt the culture of other cities,) then (is) wonderful.'

(52)

只差沒有預計 到 會那麼 dramatic

Just not expect PFV can so dramatic

'(I) just did not expect (it) can be so dramatic.'

(53)

攞住 羽毛球 拍 好 profession..

hold-V Badminton racket-NP very profession

'(I am) holding the badminton racket, (I) look very professional.'

If one did not understand Cantonese and looked at the English word used in example (50), one might think it was an English noun. Even so, it is an English adjective without any derivational suffixes. This can be explained perfectly by the SMP. This is because the EL content morpheme remains in its bare form which shows that the change of a word class occurs from noun to adjective.

4.2.4 English prepositions or preposition phrases in Cantonese-English CA

The current data on English prepositions in Cantonese-English code-alternation can be found in a few cases; however, they are connected with other English elements.

(54)

突然 接 了 這個 工作 - 剪 panda with bamboo

suddenly-Adv took-V PRT this job-N - cut-V panda with bamboo

'(I) suddenly took this job - to cut the paper of panda with bamboo.'

This example is grouped in 'alternation' as the English preposition is incongruent with the Cantonese prepositions. However, both the Cantonese and English languages in the present study are prepositional. The structures of prepositions in these languages are different. The preposition

phrase of English is formed by a preposition, followed by a determiner or noun phrase in order to point out the location or position of the noun. However, in Cantonese the prepositional phrase normally consists of the preposition '在' or '係/喺' and a determiner or noun phrase with a linking particle. The function of this particle is to link up the adjective or noun phrase. Location or position is not reflected in the Cantonese preposition; instead, localizers carrying the meaning of locations or positions are inserted.

(55)

甚至 更多 人 直接打 在 Facebook 的 notes 內
even more people direct type PRE Facebook GEN notes inside
'even more people type on the Facebooks' notes directly.'

4.3 Limitations of LCM and 'alternation'

Although LCM and alternation can explain most of the cases from the database, the exclusion elements of code-alternation have to be set. Abbreviations, interpretations, emoticons or smileys, relexicalizations, etc., point out that the definitions of EL elements are not clear. Abbreviations are one example. In the example mentioned above - Blog 7: Example 8 - 'FDS' stands for 'friends'; whether it counts as an EL element or not is debatable since it is not a formal English form. The more obvious example is relexicalizations:

(56)

十分 Chur
very Chur-Adj
'very in a hurry.'

'Chur' is written in English; however, English does not have this word. It comes from Cantonese, is based on its pronunciation and transformed into English. Whether this kind of Romanization is to be counted as an English element or a Cantonese element remains unclear. When this issue occurs, it cannot be categorized according to any of the principles of code-alternation.

There is one more limitation, which is the irregular verbs in English. For example,

(57)

為 慶祝 某 音樂 文章 read 數達 3000 及 video 觀看 數近 500
for celebrate certain music article read more 3000 and video watch almost 500
'(In order to) celebrate (that) the article about music has been read more than 3000 times and the video has been watched almost 500 times[...]'

This example cannot be categorized. One may argue that this is the infinitival form and can be counted as following the Cantonese grammatical structure (SMP). However, 'read' is also the past tense form of English. When 'read' is considered to be the past tense form it can then be classed as 'alternation'. It depends on the point of view of the researcher or reader, or the intentions of the writer or speaker. To be able to categorize this issue, theories of code-alternation should be developed further.

There is an interesting phenomenon in the present study, which is the change of word classes (also called 'conversion' in word-formation) of the EL items. There are three types of changes which can be found in the data. Table 4 shows the frequency of the change of word class in Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs.

Table 4 The frequency of the conversion in word-formation

Word Class		Frequency of appearance in Cantonese-English CA data
Original	Present	
Adjective	Noun	1
Noun	Verb	4
	Adjective	1
Total:		6

a) From adjective to noun

(58)

外藉 客人 最 愛 Q 版 肖像

foreign customer most favorite Q(cute)-Adj version portrait.

'The most favorable painting of foreign customers is the portrait in cutie-version.-N'

The example above shows the change of the part of speech from adjective to noun. 'Q' has the same pronunciation of 'cute'; therefore, 'Q' stands for 'cute' in this context. As is known, however, 'cute' is an adjective, whereas 'Q 版' (cute version) is a noun. When this code-switching is translated into English, 'cute' transformed from an adjective to a noun phrase which became 'cutie-version'.

b) From Noun to Verb

(59)

今 年 的 第 一 次 beach!!!

This year GEN first CL beach-N

'The first time of this year to beach-V.'

Secondly, this 'beach' is one of the features of English in Cantonese-English code-alternation, which will be discussed later. 'Beach' is a 'noun' which is well-known; the only way to use it as a verb is to describe, for example, how a whale is beached, meaning that it has swum onto the shore and cannot get back into the water. However, according to the data set, this creative Cantonese user use 'beach' as a verb, which means 'going to the beach'. Therefore, the 'beach' here is used as a verb instead of a noun.

c) From Noun to Adjective

(60)

攞住 羽毛球 拍 好 profession

hold-V Badminton racket-NP very profession-N

'(I am) holding the badminton racket, (I) look very professional- Adj'

Lastly, we will look at the change from noun to adjective. According to the context of the example above, 'profession' is not a noun, but more likely to be an adjective. One may argue that this is a typing error or should be seen as a mistake. However, when the data was analyzed, this was unknown. Therefore, this example is considered to be a change of word class. According to the LCM, the EL have to be mapped structurally and grammatically into the rules of Cantonese, in order not to violate the principle. This is also one of the reasons for the occurrence of word class changes. 'Profession' is a bare form while 'professional' is the adjective form.

This chapter discussed the syntactic structure and English parts of speech which can be found in the Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs. In most cases in the present data, Cantonese is considered the ML and English is the EL. There are only two examples using English as the ML and Cantonese as the EL. Most cases can be explained by the MLF model. However, some examples cannot be explained by the MLF model. Therefore, a typology of Muysken is applied, which is 'alternation'. For example, in the CA which consists of both languages, it cannot be determined which one is more dominant. Another example is the tenses or the plural forms of English. For example, 'choices' followed the English grammar which

violates the concept of the MLF model. This chapter also answered one of the research questions which is 'What English parts of speech are used in the context of Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs?' The dominant parts of speech in English are nouns and noun phrases. Also, some changes of word class were found which include the change from adjective to noun, noun to verb and noun to adjective. These conversions of word formations are not explained by the MLF model or Muysken's typology. The following chapter will discuss the features of English in Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs.

5. Linguistic selected CMC features of English

This section will present the selected English features (table 2) from which were found in the Cantonese-English code-alternation in blogs. Examples are given in order to help the reader to understand the contents. These features are relexicalization, shortening, morpheme-by-morpheme translation, sentence final particles, smileys and emoticons, use of punctuation, eccentric spelling, written-out laughter, capital letters and abbreviations. The examples are shown as follows:

a) Relexicalization:

(61)

首先 要 去 圖書館 退還 D 書,
First have go library return some book
'Firstly, (I) have to return some books to the library.'

'D' is the relexicalization of '啲' which represents 'some' in English.

b) Shortening

(62)

外藉 客人 最 愛 Q 版 肖像
foreign customer most favorite Q(cute)-Adj version portrait.
'The most favorable painting of foreign customers is the portrait in cutie-version.-N'

c) Morpheme-by-morpheme translation

(63)

後來 列車 去 到 Central Station 居然 宣佈 "no service anymore"
A while train arrive PFV Central Station unexpectedly announce "no service anymore"
'A while later, when the train arrived at Central Station, (it) announced "out of service" unexpectedly.'

d) Sentence final particles

(64)

重 行得 好 開心TIM

also walk very happy PRT

'(I was) very happy when (I was) walking.'

'TIM' is the relexicalization of '添' which is a particle consisting of no meaning.

e) Smileys and emoticons

(65)

@@

f.1) Use of punctuation (Cantonese)

(66)

真是唸唔到聖誕節畫 face painting,比旺過上年添。

'it is really unexpected that face painting at Christmas is more popular than last year.'

f.2) Use of punctuations (English)

(67)

又來到星期五, 來享受這個 wonderful weekend ar.

'(it is) Friday again, (I should) enjoy this wonderful weekend.'

g) Eccentric spelling (pronunciation spelling)

(68)

WOWOOOOOOO

h) Written-out laughter

(69)

Haha

i) Capital letters

(70)

DEAD LINE 又做唔切唔同我講

'(it is) already deadline but (s/he) cannot make it without telling me.'

j) Abbreviations

(71)

最近愛攞攞diy

'(I) have fallen in love with 'do-it-yourself' recently.'

The unique English features of Cantonese-English code-alternation were found frequently in the data. The final particles found at the end of the sentences are used to enhance the writers' moods and attitudes. Other unique features like relexicalization and morpheme by morpheme translation can be found in the data as well as all the other features. However, these features are only the tip of the iceberg in the data. Some other new English features are believed to be found in other Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs.

James (2001) mentioned that emoticons and smileys are effective prosodic complements for CMC to resemble the tone or intonation in reality. It is observed that this feature can be found in the current data for expressing the writers' moods or emotions; however, they modify the emoticons or smileys in order to present a more intensified emotion or facial expression. People also use Latin scripts and punctuation to develop the smileys. For example, '*o*', '=P', '=J', '^ ^', ':D', '= _=', 'XD', '♥' and so on, are found in the data. In some cases, a Chinese character can also be found in the smileys such as '(= _= ㄣ)'; this is the only one to be found in the current data.

This smiley with the Chinese character represents the writer feeling angry or annoyed. 'ㄣ' means 'to stick out' literally, but in Cantonese, based on its shape, it represents the middle finger, i.e. an offensive gesture in English.

The morpheme by morpheme translation, according to Lee (2007), mainly occurs at the word level. However, in the current data, it occurs on the clause level. The example (60) shows the use of 'no service anymore' which stands for 'out of service' which is considered to be a clause.

Lee (2007) said that shortening is a very common feature in the early CMC such as MSN or ICQ. Due to its time-saving function, it also appears in today's communication in blogging, although it is not as popular as instant messenger systems. Lee (2007) found that 'are' is the most popular shortened word in ICQ, which can appear as 'r'. However, it does not occur in the present data. Apart from 'are', there are many other shortenings found in the present data, such as 'Q' representing 'cute', which is shown in example (59). Another shortening was also observed, whereby instead of using English, sign was used.

(72)

@ night去 ck 表哥 晚宴
'at night go ck-N cousin night party

'At night, (I) go to the party of my cousin CK.'

The use of the sign '@' represents 'at'. They have a similar pronunciation; therefore, '@' is adopted. Besides the above traditional features, some new features have been discovered. Firstly, English syllable have been adopted in order to produce a word which cannot be written in Cantonese. This means the word was created and does not have the written form of Cantonese; therefore, people use English to represent it. For example:

(73)

而且... Again... 十分 Chur /@@
Also... Again... very Chur
'Also, (it is) in a hurry again.'

(74)

個 人 好 HEA
CL human very HEA
'(I) am very Hea.'

'Chur' and 'hea' cannot be written in Chinese characters. They can be considered as Cantonese slang, the meaning of which only people who live or grew up in Hong Kong can understand. 'Chur' means 'in a rush' as in the example above. However, it can also mean 'aggressive' or 'possessive' or 'to exert oneself' according to the context. For example in '個女仔將佢男友的錢 chur 到盡' means 'this girl exerted herself spending the money of her boyfriend until nothing was left.' The second example 'hea' originally comes from the English phrase of 'hang and means someone is being lazy, is bored and has nothing to do; in English 'idle' has the same meaning as 'hea'.

Creativity is a factor, as people like to coin new words every day. Combinations of different English words are also found in the data.

(75)

Hangry (hungry + angry)

(76)

難道 是 upperground 乎!?
Otherwise is upperground PRT
'Otherwise is upperground?'

'Hangry' and 'upperground' have been created by the writers. The meaning of 'Hangry' was described by the writer as 'hungry' and 'angry'. 'Hangry' is also an established word used by

people, which has the same meaning as mentioned before. 'Hangry' may be considered an urban word instead of being an example of 'creativity'. However, 'upperground' was created according to the context. As the writer was talking about the 'underground' in Perth, saying that there was an escalator leading downwards from the ground and that this escalator was for the 'underground', the writer then said 'otherwise is upperground?'

Thirdly, there are a few errors which can be found in the data. These may be caused by the English proficiency level of the writers or by other factors.

(77)

成績 全部都 strict A 後
result all PRT strict A after
'All of the results are graded A'

(78)

再 同 媽媽 hi tea.
Again with mother hi tea
'Hi tea with mother again.'

(79)

行 左 一個 MODEL ART既GALLERY
walk PFV one CL model art GEN gallery
'(I) have visited a model art gallery.'

(80)

我地 就 散 ban
We PFV leave ban
'We have left.'

The above example are considered to be typing mistakes, regardless of whether the writers have noticed or not. 'Strict' has a very similar pronunciation to 'straight'; according to the context, 'straight' is the right word to use. 'Hi tea' is supposed to be written as 'high tea', although it may be seen as an abbreviation instead of an error. However, 'hi' can mean 'hello'; therefore, 'hi tea' is considered to be an error here. In general, 'model art' does not exist and considering the spelling is pretty similar to 'modern', 'modern art' is therefore assumed to be the right choice. The literal meaning of '散ban' is 'to leave', but 'ban' is not the right word; instead 'band' is the right word to use here. This phrase comes from 'band' meaning a group of people joining together to play music. When the 'band' is disbanded, '散band' is the phrase used in Cantonese. However, the

urban meaning of '散band' is 'to leave' or 'dismiss' in Cantonese. These 'errors' have to be investigated further in order to find out the reasons behind them.

Fourthly, an exclamative example was found, which is quite popular in CMC. 'Zzzz' means 'sleep'.

(81)

故 延至 24:30 才 Zzzz
Therefore till 24:30 just Zzzz
'Therefore (I) sleep at 24:30.'

Fifthly, duplication is used for enhancement. Three examples were found.

(82)

下午 玩 GUNGUN
Afternoon play gun gun
'In the afternoon, (we) play gun.'

(83)

我地 影 左 好多 相 但系 都好 SWEET SWEET
We take PFV many photo, but also very sweet sweet
'We have taken many photos which are very sweet.'

(84)

我地 兩個 走前 的 QQ 相
We two CL before GEN QQ photo
'These are the cute photos which were taken before we left.'

Lastly, 'o' is inserted as a part of the Cantonese character. There are many characters in Cantonese that consist of 'o' or '口' on the side of the words such as '嘅', '㗎', '嘞', '㗎', '啫', etc.

These characters are mainly used as particles in Cantonese. It is assumed that 'o' has been inserted due to laziness or convenience in typing. This is because a special program has to be installed in order to produce these words. The normal input methods such as Cangjie or Quick do not offer these characters.

There are many features of English that can be found in the present data, such as relexicalization, shortening and many others mentioned above. Also, there are some examples of typing mistakes or errors that were found in the present data. However, these errors cannot be analyzed by the applied theories.

6. Discussion & Conclusion

This chapter concludes this paper by answering the research questions based on the data analysis. The data was extracted from ten blogs written by Hong Kong people. A total of 100 entries were collected. A summary of the syntactic structure in the context of code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs and the limitations of the theories will be presented, followed by a discussion of the features of English in the Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs. The implications of the current study are then noted, with particular focus on methodological issues in the. At the end, the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research will be discussed.

6.1 The syntactic structure of code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs

The first research question set out to investigate the English parts of speech of code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs. There are several English elements that can be found in the data; namely, nouns or noun phrases, verbs or verb phrases, adjectives or adjectival phrases, adverbs, interjections, prepositions or prepositional phrases, conjunctions and clauses. Chapter 4 illustrated the discourse patterns and the possible features which can be found in the data. The first section showed the examples based on the theories chosen. Those theories are the Lemma Congruence Model by Myers-Scotton (1993a) and one category of the typology of code-switching by Muysken (2000), namely 'alternation'. Examples were categorized based on these three categories. The second section showed the different parts of speech from among the English elements and four selected parts of speech –nouns, verbs, adjectives and prepositions – were discussed in detail. According to the analysis, nouns are the most popular part of speech in which English is used in the Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs.

There is only one similarity between the syntactic structures of Cantonese, English and code-alternation, which is that nouns or noun phrases always appear after verbs or verb phrases. Many differences were discovered. Firstly, the particle '的' always appears before nouns or noun phrases of English. Secondly, the plural markers of Cantonese were indicated by classifiers or quantifiers and inserted before the nouns or noun phrases. Thirdly, Cantonese was used in several particles to indicate the tenses and inserted after the verbs of English. Also, modal verbs of Cantonese were found inserted before the English verbs. Fourthly, the temporal phrases of English and Cantonese can be placed at the beginning of the sentence. In English, this cannot be

placed in the middle of the sentence, but in Cantonese it can. On the other hand, the timing phrases cannot be placed at the end of the sentence in Cantonese, but they can in English. Fifthly, among the ten bloggers, Cantonese degree markers tend to be used to enhance the English adjectives or adjectival phrases. Lastly, Cantonese prepositions do not reflect the location or position, but rather localizers are used.

In Chapter 4.3 the limitations to applying these theories were discussed. There are several cases which cannot be explained by the LCM such as verbs which contain tense markers - 'surprised' - or nouns with plural markers - 'songs'. Therefore, 'alternation' is adopted. However, there are still some issues which cannot be supported by the theories, such as relexicalizations and irregular English verbs. It has been observed that there is a change of word class in the context of code-alternations. Three types of changes were discovered which are adjective to noun, noun to verb and noun to adjective.

6.2 Features of English in Cantonese-English code-alternation

The last research question aimed to investigate the features of English in the Cantonese-English code-alternation in Hong Kong blogs. The features mentioned in Table 2 have been found in the present data and were discussed in Chapter 5. As well as the mentioned features, some additional features were found. These include extensions of emoticons or smileys, and additional extensions in morpheme-by-morpheme translation and shortenings. For emoticons or smileys, besides the traditional ones, English or Cantonese elements were inserted into the emoticons or smileys in order to provide more intensive icons for emotional expression. Morpheme by morpheme translation is normally translated in one word traditionally, but in this case was extended to more than a word or even a clause. Shortenings were not only employed for numbers or English elements but also symbols. Secondly, non-existent Cantonese words were replaced by English elements based on the pronunciation of Cantonese. 'English' words were created. Furthermore, creativity and errors were shown in this chapter. Also, the usage of sign, duplication and the usage of 'o' were discussed.

6.3 Implications

This brings us to consider whether the features and definition of code-alternation should be further developed. First of all, the definition of code-alternation is not clear as English elements can be inserted at less than a lexical level. For example, a single morpheme of English can be

inserted into a Cantonese sentence. In this case, should this English element be considered as code-alternation or not? Secondly, many new English features can be found in the present study such as the non-existent Chinese characters (hea or chur). Due to the unclear definition of code-alternation, these features should be reconsidered to ascertain whether they are to be grouped as Cantonese or English. It is proposed that an adequate study of CMC code-alternation should take different features or elements into consideration as well as their functions and purposes for an in-depth analysis. In addition, the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of the target participants may affect the results. Therefore, in researching the code-alternation, these elements should be taken into account. Secondly, the code-alternation theories, i.e. LCM and the typology of code-switching by Muysken used in the present study, cannot explain all of the cases. These theories should be developed further in order to analyze the data.

6.4 Limitations

There are a few limitations to this study. Firstly, the data were chosen only when English elements were inserted into Cantonese sentences. In fact, the data size is very small in an academic sense, and thus did not lead to a substantial findings. Secondly, due to not being in Hong Kong personally, the surveys were sent through emails and some follow-up questions could not be asked. Thirdly, some data could not be categorized as the theories could not explain them.

6.5 Suggestions for further research

In light of the findings from the present study, the following areas are suggested for further research:

- 1) It would be interesting to find out whether the conversion in word-formation also occurs in other languages besides Cantonese-English CA.
- 2) The usage of Cantonese particles in code-alternation with the English language were not discussed in detail. Therefore, an investigation on the usage of Cantonese particles within the code-alternation would also be an interesting topic.
- 3) The differences in the code-alternation patterns compared with their original languages is an interesting topic. This could be further investigated to identify the specific patterns of the target languages and code-alternations, and to compare similarities and differences.

Although many studies have been done on code-alternations, the theories and definitions are sweeping. Scholars should consider developing these further in order to be able to analyze every single element that can be found in the data of code-alternation. Social and linguistic backgrounds can also alter the results. When analyzing the data, these factors should be taken into account.

Word count: 22,197

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8. Appendices

Appendix 1

1. Age

☐ 18 or below

☐ 18-25

☐ 25-35

☐ 35-45

☐ 45 or above

2. Gender

☐ Female

☐ Male

3. Place of birth:

4. Place of domicile:

5. Mother tongue(s):

6. Second language(s):

7. Profession:

8. Education level

☐ Secondary school / high school

☐ College

☐ University or above

☐ Other: _____

9. Language Proficiency

English: ☐ none, ☐ basic, ☐ intermediate, ☐ good, ☐ fluent

Cantonese : ☐ none, ☐ basic, ☐ intermediate, ☐ good, ☐ fluent

Mandarin: ☐ none, ☐ basic, ☐ intermediate, ☐ good, ☐ fluent

10. How often do you use English, Cantonese, Mandarin and other languages per day?

English: ___%

Cantonese: ___%

Mandarin: ___%

Others: ___%

11. How important is English for you in: (1= not important - 5 =very important)

	1	2	3	4	5
Profession/ Job					
Daily Life					

12. Why do you think English is important for your profession?

13. Why do you think English is important for your daily life?

14. Which of the following input methods do you use most frequently when you are typing your blog? (Multiple answers are possible)

☐ English (QWERTY keyboard)

☐ English (Handwriting)

☐ Chinese (Cangjie)

☐ Chinese (Quick)

☐ Chinese (Q9)

☐ Chinese (Pinyin)

☐ Chinese (Handwriting)

☐ Others: _____

15. Why do you choose this input method/these methods rather than others in your blog communication?

16. When you communicate with others through the internet or other media, do you use English exclusively?

☐ Yes

☐ No

17. If your answer to Q. 16 is no, why?

☐ It is faster and more convenient to type in Chinese

☐ I do not know the English words/ spellings

☐ That is the way I communicate with others

☐ It is more formal and more people can read my blog

☐ Others: _____

18. When you communicate with others through the internet or other media, do you use Chinese exclusively?

☐ Yes

☐ No

19. If your answer to Q. 18 is no, why?

☐ It is faster and more convenient to type in English

☐ I do not know how to type Chinese characters

☐ That is the way I communicate with others

☐ It is trendy and cool/ Because other people write their blogs like this

☐ Other: _____

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