



**URDU ENGLISH CODE SWITCHING AND CODE MIXING IN INDIA. A CASE
STUDY OF THE USE OF URDU HINDI AT PHRASES AND CLAUSES LEVELS IN
INDIAN HINGLISH (HINDI ENGLISH)**

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Abstract

Social and communicative significance of code switching and code mixing has been well researched by sociolinguists worldwide; this paper aims to discuss how code switching and code mixing affect the languages in contact. The study sets out to investigate Urdu-English code switching and mixing at different levels with the basic aim to understand about how influence of English is generating a new variety of Hindi/ Urdu English language. The study sets out to investigate Urdu-English code switching at phrase and clause level. This paper suggests that variations and changes in a language are an integral part of bilingualism and multilingualism. All the present data shows that the occurrences of various Urdu phrases and clauses impose no ungrammatical effect on the construction of English syntax.

Keywords: *code switching, code mixing, linguistic patterns, grammatical constraints, structural factors*



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Introduction

This paper centres on the variations in English language due to Hindi/Urdu-English code switching in India and shows the significant role of the Hindi/Urdu language in the formation of Hinglish. English and Hindi have been the official languages in India since independence in 1947 (Bhatia & Ritchie 2006a). Hindi mainly spoken in the north-west and north-central parts of India whereas English is spoken by the educated elite and has become 'the language of modern intellectual communication' (Bhatia & Ritchie 2006a: 784). It has also become dominant in domains such as education, science and technology, government, law and media, leading to what is referred to as 'the Englishization of Indian languages' (Bhatia & Ritchie 2006a: 791).

Now a day's English has become a global language. According to Bamgbose, (2001:357) English is recognised as the dominating language in the world as globalisation comes to be universally accepted in political and academic discourse. The development of 'globalisation' has been associated with the dominance of the English language (Bottery 2000:6). English is used all over the world by millions of native and non-native speakers because of its dominant position. According to Crystal (2003:65), there are approximately 430 million L2 users and 330 million L1 users. So the non-native speakers use English more than the natives ones. However, these figures exclude learners of English, and Crystal suggests there may be as many as one billion of them. Being an international language, it is used almost in all the countries of the world. When people started using English in non-native contexts because of its growing popularity, it developed as a transplanted language. According to Kachru (1986:30): A language may be considered transplanted if it is used by a significant numbers of speakers in social, cultural and geographical contexts different from the contexts in which it was originally used a transplanted language is cut off from its traditional roots and begins to function in new surroundings, in new roles and new contexts.

Non-native Varieties of English

Kachru (1978) was among the first to identify and delineate boundaries of a nativized variety of English in South Asia, which he terms as South Asian English (SAE). Kachru (1996) regarded SAE as an additional linguistic arm in the culture of identity. He believes that 'nativization must be seen as the result of those productive linguistic innovations which are determined by the localized function of a second language variety, the culture of conversation and commutative strategies in new situations and transfer from local languages' (Kachru 1986: 21-2). With this development, there was a gradual recognition and acknowledgement of the new and non-native varieties of English, e.g. Sudanic English, Indian English, Chicano English, American English, Sri Lankan English etc. The term 'New varieties' of English' implies that there are more or less recognizable varieties of spoken and/or written by groups of people'. (Platt et al. 1984:2) A new variety does not develop in isolation but it depends on the communicative needs of those who speak and write it. Such a variety is considered an interference variety because there is a clear linguistic and cultural interference from the first language and culture of the users.

When a language is used in a different cultural context and social situation, several changes take place in its phonological, morphological, lexicon and syntactic level. A language so widely used has its own grammatical and linguistic system through which it conveys its distinction of meanings. These linguistic characteristics are usually transparent in its sound

system, vocabulary and sentence construction. The non-native speakers develop a completely new range of expression to fulfil the communicative needs. Since the user of the non-native variety is bilingual, creativity is manifested in different kinds of mixing, switching, alteration and trans creation of codes. When two languages come in contact, it results in “ingeniousness”.

Urdu English code switching, code mixing and Indian English

The languages of India belong to several language families, the major ones being spoken is Indo-Aryan languages and on second, it comes to the Dravidian languages. Other languages spoken in India belong to the Austro Asiatic, Sino-Tibetan, and a few other minor language families and isolates. More than three millennia of language contact has led to significant mutual influence among the four predominant language families in mainland India and South Asia.

The Constitution of India does not give any language the status of national language. It designates the official language of the Government of India as Standard Hindi written in the Devanagari script, as well as English. The Eighth Schedule of the Indian Constitution lists 22 languages, which have been referred to as *scheduled* languages and given recognition, status and official encouragement. In addition, the Government of India has awarded the distinction of *classical language* to Tamil, Sanskrit, Kannada, Telugu, Malayalam and Odia.

India has 22 official languages. According to Census of India, the total number of mother tongues spoken in India is 1652. However, only around 150 languages have a sizable speaking population. However, figures from other sources vary, primarily due to differences in definition of the terms "language" and "dialect". The 2001 Census recorded 30 languages, which were spoken by more than a million native speakers and 122, which were spoken by more than 10,000 people. Two contact languages have played an important role in the history of India: Persian and English. Persian was the court language during the Mughal period in India. It reigned as an administrative language for several centuries until the era of British colonization. Until now, English is an important language in India. It is used in higher education and in some areas of the Indian government. Hindi, the most widely spoken language in India today, serves as the *lingua franca* across much of North and Central India.

Literature Review

English enjoys a very prestigious status in India. Its prevalence and power in India is growing very much. For many Indians, English has become not only a “practical necessity”, but also “the language of opportunity, social prestige, power, success as well as social superiority”. Kachru (1997:227) pointed at the ‘ideological, cultural and elitist power of English’. Such

power is vividly seen in India where people tend to switch from Urdu and Hindi to English to create special effect. It is the most important language of literacy in the country. In the hierarchy of linguistic prestige, Urdu and Hindi is placed lower only than English. Urdu-English code switching is a common characteristic of educated bilinguals. Code switching occurs when two languages come in contact: 'the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent' (Poplack 1980:581). This sociolinguistic phenomenon makes a great contribution in the creation of new and non-native varieties of English. When two languages come into contact, not only the phonological features but lexical items and syntactic patterns also manage to filter across from one language to another. English is a non-native context. Different changes can be observed in its phonology, vocabulary, and grammar and now it is recognized as a distinct variety of English i.e. Hinglish. Non-native varieties of English are an important aspect of language change and these varieties have emerged because of code switching and code mixing. According to Trudgill (1986: 1), 'the languages that are in contact with each other socially may become changed linguistically, as a result of being in contact psychologically, in the competence of individual speaker'.

Hinglish has assumed a linguistic and cultural identity of its own. This identity manifests itself throughout the language at the word level, the phrase level and the sentence level. It is the natural consequence of its regular contact with the Urdu/Hindi language. A large number of borrowings from Urdu/Hindi and the regional languages have entered in Hinglish (Baumgardner 1993). Certain lexical items may show a shift from their original Standard British English usage to Urduized meaning (Talaat 1993). In comparison with the borrowing in syntax and morphology, lexical items have the highest ease of borrowing and seem most likely to occur (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Romaine, 1995). Such a vocabulary items in all the new varieties of English are largely drawn from the areas that are significantly different to the geo-social and cultural context of British English (Fernado 2003). The code-switching data in this paper focuses on the use of Hindi/Urdu phrases and clauses in the English language and shows that its occurrence imposes no ungrammatical effect on the structure of English syntax. The data has been collected from the following printed Indian English newspaper and magazines:

Code switching mainly has been divided into three main categories. They are:

- (A) Inter-sentential switching,
- (B) Intra-sentential switching, and
- (C) Tag-switching

- (A) Inter-sentential switching occurs outside the sentence or the clause level (i.e. at sentence or clause boundaries). It is sometimes called "extra-sentential" switching. Example: Mai to yah hu, what happened? (I am here, what happened?)
- (B) Intra-sentential code switching, or code mixing when the switch takes place within one sentence. Example: Mai kyakahrahahu, he never bothered about it. (What I am saying, he never bothered about it)
- (C) Tag switching is the switching of either a tag phrase or a word, or both, from one language to another, (common in intra-sentential switches). Anything except this, bakika order upar se ayahai. (Anything except this rest of the order is from upstairs.)

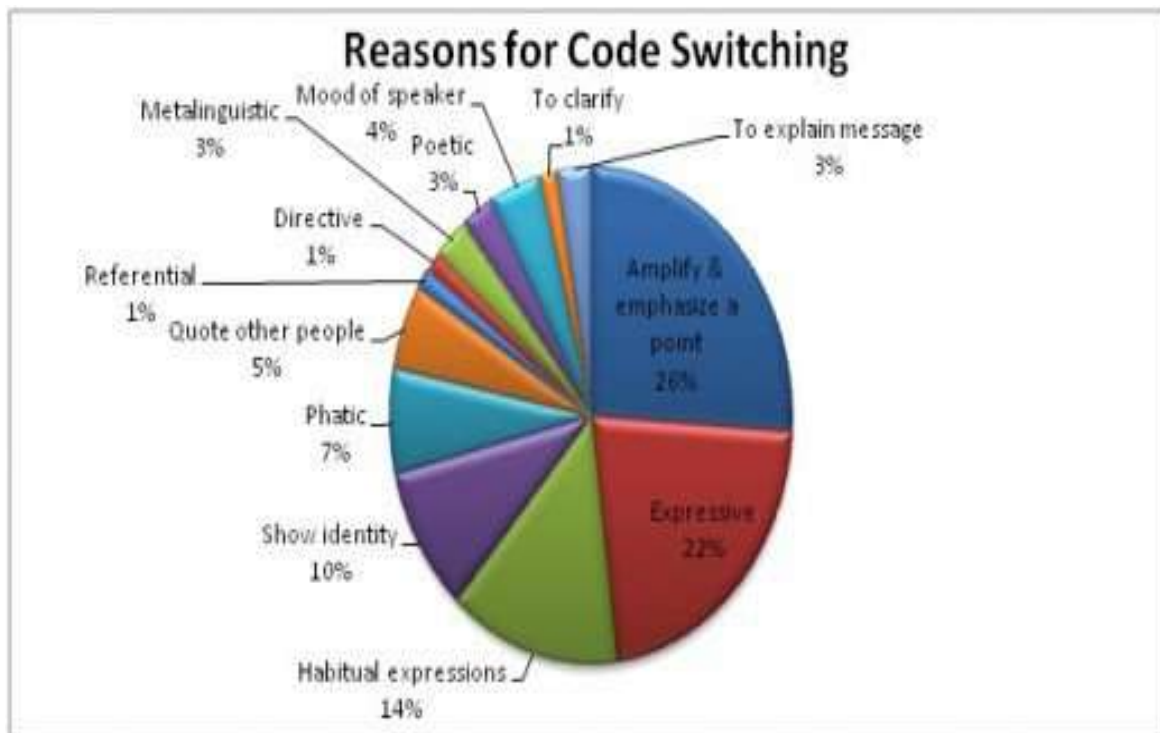
Most code-switching studies primarily focus on intra-sentential switching, as it creates many hybrid grammar structures that require explanation. The other types involve utterances that simply follow the grammar of one language or the other. Intra-sentential switching can be alter national or insertional. In alter national code switching; a new grammar emerges that is a combination of the grammars of the two languages involved. Insertional code switching involves "the insertion of elements from one language into the morphosyntactic frame of the other.

Objectives of the study

There are a number of possible reasons for switching from one language to another, and these will now be considered, as presented by Crystal (1987). The first of these is the notion that a speaker who may not be able to express him/herself in one language switches to the other to compensate for the deficiency. As a result, the speaker may be triggered into speaking in the other language for a while. This type of code switching tends to occur when the speaker is upset, tired or distracted in some manner. Secondly, switching commonly occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular social group. Rapport is established between the speaker and the listener when the listener responds with a similar switch. This type of switching may also be used to exclude others from a conversation who do not speak the second language. An example of such a situation may be two people in an elevator in a language other than English. Others in the elevator who do not speak the same language would be excluded from the conversation and a degree of comfort would exist amongst the speakers in the knowledge that not all those present in the elevator are listening to their conversation.

As Skiba (1997) comments, code switching is not a language interference, on the basis that it supplements speech. Where it is used due to an inability of expression, code switching

provides continuity in speech rather than presenting an interference in language. The socio-linguistic benefits have also been identified as a means of communicating solidarity, or affiliation to a particular social group, whereby code switching should be viewed from the perspective of providing a linguistic advantage rather than an obstruction to communication. Further, code switching allows a speaker to convey attitude and other emotive using a method available to those who are bilingual and again serves to advantage the speaker, much like bolding or underlining in a text document to emphasize points. Utilizing the second language, then, allows speakers to increase the impact of their speech and use it in an effective manner. In some situations, code switching done deliberately to exclude a person from a conversation. It is seen as a sign of solidarity within a group, and it is assumed that all speakers in a conversation must be bilingual in order for code switching to occur. Bilinguals do not usually translate from the weaker language to the stronger one. Code switching is used most often when a word does not "come". Code switching can be used in a variety of degrees, whether it is used at home with family and friends, or used with superiors at the workplace.



Method

Sociolinguistics is a wide area of the study of functions and variations in a language. This is a subject of problem-oriented social science. Its methods of research and investigations are similar to those of other social sciences. The data were collected from two sets of public resources that are recordings of free-flowing conversations in radio and chats on Facebook.

In the following section, we will analyse the intra-sentential code switching in Hinglish at the level of phrase.

Noun phrase

A noun phrase is a word or group of words, which acts as the subject, complement or object of a clause, or as the object of a preposition. A noun phrase always has an obligatory head noun and optional modifier and qualifier.

For example in the Urdu phrase.

Pila ghar sale hone walahai. (The yellow house is for sale) – Noun Phrase as subject

Kya hum log is house ko buy karsaktehai (Should we buy the yellow house?) NP as Direct Object

Ahmad is yellow house me rahtahai (Ahmad lives in the yellow house) NP as Object of Preposition

Ali ne ekchotebacheko candy diya (Ali gave the little boy a candy) NP as Indirect Object

Verb phrase

A verb phrase is a word or a group of words that does not have a subject and a predicate of its own and does the work of a verb. In Urdu language, auxiliaries occur after the main verb in contrast with English where auxiliaries occur before the main verb. Urdu verb phrases occur very rarely in Pakistani English because they have to undergo a complex morphological change as compared to noun phrases. However, sometimes an Urdu verbal phrase is also inserted in English syntax. Here is an example of the use of an Urdu verb phrase: *Wahteji se mall kitarafjarahithi*

Adjective Phrase

A word or a group of words that does the work of an adjective is called an adjective phrase. Adjective phrases are usually formed from an intensifier that is optional, followed by the head (H) that is often an adjective. In Indian English, Urdu adjective phrases may occur as a predicate adjective or inside the noun phrase.

For example in the Urdu phrase: *AiseBaharkakhana healthy nahihotahai* (Eating out is usually not very healthy)

Prepositional phrase

Urdu has a postposition instead of English preposition, which differs in the way that it precedes objects. In typical Urdu prepositional phrases, preposition comes at the end. An Urdu postposition phrase is syntactically inserted in English syntax in the following example: Both of them unhurt "Khuda key fazalsey" (By the grace of God) It is very interesting to note

that the Urdu postposition phrase occurs at the same position where its English equivalent could have been.

Inter-clausal code switching

As mentioned earlier, code-switching occurring at the sentence level is called inter-sentential code switching. The term “inter-clausal code-switching” is used to refer to switches occurring at the clause boundaries. In the present data, switched Urdu clauses can include a coordinated clause, a subordinate clause or a clause/phrase introduced by an English adverb. Urdu clauses that are coordinated with an English clause through the use of coordinating conjunction are classified as coordinated clauses. Urdu subordinate clauses are also used with main English clause.

Co-ordinated Clauses

In English, co-ordinated clauses are joined by English as well as Urdu conjunctions. However Urdu conjunctions do not occur quite frequently. A conjunction that often conjoins the English clauses to the Urdu adjacent clauses is “and”. Here is an example of the use of the English coordinating conjunction:

Why don't we all go together to Karolbagh? *Ali keshaddiki shopping bhihojayegi* (There will be shopping of Ali's wedding)and we can have fun also.

As can be seen in the above example, there is switching here back and forth between English and Urdu. An Urdu clause is embedded in English and English is taken up again.

Subordinated clauses

Urdu subordinated clauses are also used in English, which is a very important aspect of inter-sentential code switching. The subordinating conjunction is not always in the language of the clause that it introduces. Both Urdu and English subordinating conjunctions are used to join main and subordinated clauses. We can classify this section to two main broad categories:

(A) Urdu subordinate clauses with an English main clause

(B) English subordinate clauses with a Urdu main clause

Example: *Hum logo ne apartment kosafkardiya* (We finished cleaning our apartment) We is the subject and finished is the verb

Adverb clause

As we have seen through the above examples that the noun clause acts as a noun in complex sentences, in the same way the function of an adverb clause is that of an adverb in complex sentences. In the following example, an Urdu adverb conditional clause has been embedded in the English sentence. However, the Urdu subordinate clause precedes the English main

clause. The subordinating conjunction is in Urdu, whereas the clause that follows it is in English:

Example: Whether you like it or not, Apkoabhi bed pejanahoga (Appasandkareyanakare you have to go to bed now.)

English subordinate clauses with Urdu main clause:

In some cases, English clause is subordinate to an Urdu main clause. In the following example the English noun clause is joined with the Urdu main clause through the English subordinating conjunction “that”.

Mujheshikayathai that we are not making history. (I have a complaint that ap koi history nahibanarahehai)

Conclusion

The data and examples presented in this paper demonstrate that code-switching affects English at the phrase and clause level and English has its unique features. This paper has shown the variations in English syntax when it is used in a non-native context. The grammatical usage of Urdu language on English is visible here in the above-mentioned examples. Some linguists are of the opinion that there is no language that has not been under influence of another language. English is no exception in this regard. Several changes are taking place in the English language. Isolated languages are rarely met in the global village. It is also proved bilingualism or multilingualism is a characteristic feature of modern society.

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