



LONDON COLLEGE[®]
 UNITED of KNOWLEDGE

International Journal of Applied Language Studies and Culture

Volume 3 Issue 1, June 2020.



Published by



LONDON COLLEGE[®]
 UNITED of KNOWLEDGE
 UNIVERSITY OF KENT

MEMBER OF:



Institutional Member

ISSN 2631-8946 (Printed)
ISSN 2631-8954 (Online)

**THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF
APPLIED LANGUAGE STUDIES AND CULTURE
(IJALSC)**



Volume 3 • Issue 1 • June 2020

International Journal of Applied Language Studies and Culture

About us

In order to be an effective communicator in today's interconnected world, beside being technologically savvy there is also a need to be aware of how language shapes different social realities. Learning a foreign language, teaching foreign languages and intercultural communication are only few of the domains that one should take into account when discussing applied language studies.

After carefully reviewing existing journals of applied language studies, our institution saw an opportunity to add to the existing body of publications by establishing a journal where researchers will be able to express their unique approaches towards applied language topics by following the concepts of post-positivistic and cultural criticism approach.

Mission

The International Journal of Applied Language and Cultural Studies is published by London College of United Knowledge. It is an inclusive academic journal that will support researchers by offering them a platform where they deliver and discuss concepts from the field of applied language studies. The journal aims to be an integral part of researcher's path toward academic progress.

Editorial Board

Our editorial board is formed of University Professors from different parts of the world. Working closely with the editorial board will yield the way for more objective quality assurance of the whole publication process. This distinguished board will function as an integral part of the London College UK's vision for supporting global academic community in the field of applied language studies.

Access

The London College of United Knowledge Journal will be Open Access Peer-reviewed publication. The present journal is part of longterm development plan of London College UK and as such will be the focal point of its overall strategic growth. Consequently, Londong College UK will make sure that the longevity of the journal will be followed by easy access and constant support for authors.

Focus and Scope

The purpose of the Journal is to publish articles relevant to field of Applied Language and Cultural Studies.

The field of Linguistics includes Applied Linguistics, Language Teaching, Computational Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Historical Linguistics, Psycholinguistics, Language Acquisition, Sociolinguistics, Bilingualism, Language and Gender, Language Variation and Change, Speech Science, Perception, Theoretical Linguistics, Morphology, Phonology, Phonetics, Pragmatics, Semantics and Syntax. The field of Cultural studies includes Cultural studies, Humanities and Social science.

The editorial team will consider academically vigorous papers and will welcome Editorials, Letters to the Publisher, Research Articles, Case Studies, Reflective Essays, Review Articles, Research Briefs, Policy Briefs, Conference Proceeding and /or Abstracts, Commentaries, Viewpoints and other work which are of scientific value and interest.

Community

London College UK will support the Journal by organizing academic conferences where published works will be presented and discussed. In addition, these conferences are valuable opportunity for all researchers and attendees to discuss the latest matters relating to language teaching and culture.

Director and founder

Mr. Alfred Irshaid, Jordan

Editor-in-Chief

Dr. Isa Spahiu, Faculty of English Language, AAB College, Prishtina-Kosova

Chief of technical support

Dr. Lazar Stošić, Institute of management and knowledge, External associate coordinator for Serbia, Skopje, Macedonia, President of The Association for the Development of Science, Engineering and Education, Serbia

Editorial Advisory Board

Dr Hasan Boynukara, Namık Kemal University as the head of English Language and Literature, Turkey

Dr. Valentina Gulevska, University “St. Kliment Ohridski”, Faculty of Education, Bitola, Macedonia

Dr. Łukasz Tomczyk, Pedagogical University of Cracow, Poland

Dr. Bledar Toska, Department of foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities, University of Vlora, Albania

Dr. Alla Belousova, Don State Technical University, Russian Federation

International Editorial Board members

Dr. Abrosimova Larisa, Institute of Philology, Journalism and Intercultural Communication, Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

Dr. Sklyarova Natalia, Institute of Philology, Journalism and Intercultural Communication, Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

Dr. Gushchina Lyudmila, Institute of Philology, Journalism and Intercultural Communication, Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

Dr. Elena Stakanova, Institute of Philology, Journalism and Intercultural Communication, Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

Dr. Reza Kafipour, Department of English, Paramedical School Shiraz University of Medical Sciences Meshkinfam Street, Shiraz, Iran

Dr. Edita Kamberi Spahiu, Lecturer at International Balkan University, Macedonia

Dr. Marwa Essam Eldin Fahmy, College of Foreign Languages & Translation, MISR University for Science & Technology, Egypt

Dr Mohammad Etedali (Finland)

Mr. Troy Blankenship (USA)

Dr. Jaroslav Veteška, Faculty of Education, Czech Rep.

James Pearce PhDc (U.K.)

Carla E Burton M.Ed. (Belize)

Dr. Miroslav Krystoň, Faculty of education, Matej Bel University, Slovakia

Tinatin (Tinna) Goletiani (Georgia)

Acheme Oklobia Odeh, Girne American University, University Drive, Turkey

Content

THE PLACE OCCUPIED IN ALBANIAN BY SCIENTIFIC TERMS SOURCED FROM GREEK

Antela Voulis.....1-3

INFERCING FAKE WORDS' MEANING BY MOROCCAN EFL LEARNERS

Fatima Zahra EL MALAKI.....5-10

DEDICATED TO LANGUAGE VARIATIONS

SashkaJovanovska.....11-16

THE PLACE OCCUPIED IN ALBANIAN BY SCIENTIFIC TERMS SOURCED FROM GREEK

Antela Voulis

PhDc, Academy of Albanological Studies, Tirana, Albania

E-mail: antelavoulis@yahoo.com

Abstract. Greek is a language that has given a considerable amount of words and terms to other languages. Lexicon enrichment is more pronounced in the terminologies of the various fields of science and technology, which operate in the general terminology lexicon as organized, connected and co-conditioned systems in accordance with the systems concepts of the fields of responsibility. From this point of view the terminological lexicon is distinguished for its more organized character than the non-terminological lexicon. Studying the terminology lexicon of different areas of knowledge has taken the form of a study method to discover the real nature of the terminology of the respective language, as well as to systematize and refine it further. For the purpose of this purpose, terminology has been developed for various languages, which are based on certain scientific criteria. But the rapid development of science and technology requires the repeated reassessment of the terms created. Based on current publications, dictionaries and studies on terminology as well as the close lexical links between neighboring languages, the desire and motivation for a specific work on Greek-sourced terminology in Albanian arose.

Keywords: *greek, terminology, language, science.*

© 2020 IJALSC. All rights reserved.

1. INTRODUCTION

Linguist Eqrem Çabej, in his linguistic studies of Albanian-Greek relations, stated: “The influence of Greek on the Albanian language has long been seen by linguists. However, there is a lack of research to address this topic systematically, which is an important chapter in the history of the Albanian language, and would also be relevant to Greek history.”

According to lexicologist Jani Thomai, “The Dictionary of Today’s Albanian Language”, Tirana, 1980 (with about 41,000 words, about 7,000 phraseological units and over 180,000 meanings), the collective work of a group of lexicographers of the Institute of Linguistics and Literature is the first medium type national explanatory dictionary. Compiling such a dictionary was a pressing demand for our national culture, school, life and practice of our time. It is at the same time the fulfillment of one of the brightest dreams of the native speakers of the mother tongue, who have been waiting to see in such a work the chief treasure of lexical, phraseological and

semantic richness of the Albanian language. In the search for beautiful folk words and expressions every diligent and loving speaker of the mother tongue has been guided by a constant desire to find this precious visitor summed up in a complete, systematic, well-explained book, for so the values and beauties of these means of expression would come to light together. In this lexicographic overview all this creativity of the mind and spirit of the people themselves, their ancient history and culture would be protected. At the same time, this glossary was supposed to reflect the level of development of the standard national language, to provide the lexical-semantic norm, and even to help to further refine and embed it ...

Unlike Albanian lexicography, which has a history of about 400 years, Greek lexicography has a history of 3,000 years, with a fund of hundreds of thousands of dictionaries. According to the linguist George Babiniotis, today’s Greek, born directly from ancient Greek, contains about 100,000 words and 300,000 meanings.

But Greek is richer in terminology as a language than Albanian, not just for word count. According to linguist Walter Memisha, “today’s international status of Greek and Albanian are not equivalent; that of Greek is predominant, first, because it is the language of a people and of a culture that have defined trends in European development and beyond”.

Corresponding Author

PhDc, Academy of Albanological Studies, Tirana, Albania

E-mail: antelavoulis@yahoo.com



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY). The article is published with Open Access at www.alscjournal.com

2. THE STATE OF THE GREEK BORROWINGS IN ALBANIAN

The state of the Greek borrowings in Albanian in the explanatory dictionaries is reflected in all bilingual dictionaries where Albanian is the first language (also Albanian-Greek). These dictionaries were compiled after 1972 and especially after 1980, when the "Dictionary of Modern Albanian Language" was also compiled. Macrostructures and microstructures for the Albanian word are based on this dictionary. This means that even the Greek borrowings that have become part of the Albanian lexicon of our day reflected in this dictionary are also reflected in the bilingual dictionaries where Albanian is the first language. This is indirectly illustrated by the preface of each work, which asserts that the drafters first relied on the "Dictionary of Modern Albanian Language", compiled by the Institute of Linguistics and Literature at the Academy of Sciences of Albania, published in Tirana on 1980.

Of particular importance for this paper was the identification of the terminological lexicon in terms of quantity and composition. Nowadays in Greek the terms sourced from Greek constitute the predominant part of the entire lexicon borrowed from this language. This lexicon is very broad in quantity as it serves to express endless concepts of many areas of knowledge. If we look at the lexical overview of scientific terminology sourced from Greek, we can say that it is divided into:

- a) the lexicon of basic terms;
- b) the lexicon of general terms;
- b) the vocabulary of terms in the relevant fields.
- c) full vocabulary of terms.

a) The lexicon of basic terms sourced from Greek is reflected in the explanatory dictionaries of various types. Depending on the size of the dictionary or its purpose, the terms sourced from the Greek occupy a narrower or wider place in these dictionaries. For example, the terms sourced from Greek take little place in the explanatory vocabulary "The Dictionary of Today's Albanian Language" 1980. Here we consider terms that express narrow concepts and constitute the basic terminology lexicon sourced from Greek. These are terms that name some of the major areas of science and their main branches such as: agronomy, anatomy, anthropology, anthropologist, astronomy, archeology, architecture, ballistics, biophysics, biochemistry, biology, botany, ethnography, economics, electricity, pharmacy, philosophy, physics, physiology, grammar, geodesy, geophysics, geography, geology,

geometry, gynecology, history, cardiology, chemistry, cinematography, surgery, morphology, logic, mathematics, mechanics, meteorology, metrics, music, mythology, music paleontology, pathology, pediatrics, psychology, rhetoric, syntax, stylistics, theater, technique, typography, topography, zoology etc.

Other terms reflected in the "Dictionary of Albanian Language", Tirana, 1980, are terms that denote state (agony), notions (categories), methods (chemotherapy), chemical elements (arsenic, nitrogen, chlorine), part designations. body (nerve), geographical indications (cave, parallel), animals (tiger, panther), plants (tomato, leech), tools, apparatus, instruments (stethoscope, thermometer, telescope, seismograph), health status, disease (gangrene, schizophrenia, celestial bodies, properties (energy), geometrical bodies (cylinder, cone), metals (titanium, amalgam), etc.

In the "Dictionary of the present-day Albanian language" Tirana, 1980, no terms that refer to the more specific scientific fields or to some specific sub-branches of these fields are reflected, such as: arithmology, astrobiology, astrophysics, astrometry, biodynamics, biophenomenology, biocybernetics, biomagnetism, biomathematics, biomechanics, biometeorology, bioontology, Byzantology, bromatology, dendrology, dioptrics, neuropathology, noetics, ophthalmology, organogenesis, orometry, palynology, papyrology, speleography, splenology, telematics, telematics, telematics.

b) The above terms along with many other more specialized terms of the scientific fields and their sub-branches are reflected in the general terms lexicon, which is part of the basic terms that express the basic concepts of the systems and conceptual subsystems of the fields. different knowledge, consists mainly of terms separated by selection from different terminological subsystems of knowledge domains. Due largely to elaborate and standardized terminology, this lexicon is a more homogeneous, more systematic, and more reliable measure. The lexicon of general terms sourced from the Greek is almost fully reflected in polytechnic dictionaries, as a lexicon of a broad field of knowledge or as a comprehensive lexicon, as a technical vocabulary of a broad field, such as the medical dictionary. In this way, the more the field of knowledge narrows, the more broadly and comprehensively the terminological lexicon of the field is represented.

c) The terminological vocabulary of particular fields of science is identified within

the boundaries set in accordance with the conceptual system of the field. The main feature of this lexicon is that each term corresponds to the corresponding concept. Since in a language it is not uncommon for a concept to be expressed by several signs or some concepts to be expressed by a sign, then to identify terms in such a system, where each term must respond to only one concept, one must always start with the concept. In this way, concepts become the basis of identifying system terms.

d) The complete lexicon of terms sourced from Greek consists of the lexicon of all terminological subsystems of the scientific fields and is very extensive. As such it is presented in the terminology dictionaries of the narrow fields of knowledge, in accordance with the place that each term occupies in the totality of systemic links to other terms.

3. CONCLUSION

Greek is a language that has given a considerable amount of words and terms to other languages. Lexicon enrichment is more pronounced in the terminologies of the various fields of science and technology, which operate in the general terminology lexicon as organized, connected and co-conditioned systems in accordance with the systems concepts of the fields of responsibility. From this point of view the terminological lexicon is distinguished for its more organized character than the non-terminological lexicon. Studying the terminology lexicon of different areas of knowledge has taken the form of a study method to discover the real nature of the terminology of the respective language, as well as to systematize and refine it further. For the purpose of this purpose, terminology has been developed for various languages, which are based on certain scientific criteria. But the rapid development of science and technology requires the repeated reassessment of the terms created. Studying Greek-sourced terminology as part of technical-scientific terminology helps us to distinguish not only the features of the Greek-sourced terms but also their lively language in all its subsystems.

REFERENCE

- Çabej, E. (2008). Introduction to the History of the Albanian Language, Volume One, Tirana.
 Thomai, J. (2008). Lexicology of Albanian Language, Tirana.
 Babinioti, J. (G.Bambiniotis), <https://www.tovima.gr/2014/02/28/opinions/yparxei-idanikos-omilitis-tis-glwssas/>, February 28, 2014.

- Memisha, V. (2011). Studies on the Albanian Word, Tirana.
 Duro, A. (2007). The Term and the Word in Albanian, Tirana.

INFERENCE OF FAKE WORDS' MEANING BY MOROCCAN EFL LEARNERS

Fatima Zahra EL MALAKI, Applied Linguistics Research Group, Mohammed V University, Faculty of Education, Rabat, Morocco
E-mail: malakifatimazahra@gmail.com

Abstract. Do Moroccan EFL learners depend on the context to infer the meaning of unknown words occurring in sentences? This study investigates the way intermediate and advanced learners infer the meaning of fake words. To this end, the subjects took a test consisting of 60 items with three multiple choices. Subjects were asked to provide appropriate, inappropriate meanings of the unknown word or none of the choices without using dictionaries. The Chi-2 tests were adopted to determine whether there is a) a statistically significant difference between the three categories and b) a statistically significant difference between intermediate and advanced learners' inferencing results. The findings demonstrate that the context along with the lexical knowledge of the L2 learners play the most important role in understanding vocabulary.

Keywords: *mental lexicon, lexical inferencing, frame, context, stored meaning.*

© 2020 IJALSC. All rights reserved.

1. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary knowledge and development are central to language comprehension. Children acquire vocabulary words and their meanings in L1 through oral and daily exposure to words in language context. In L2 however, the process of vocabulary acquisition knows a more formal method as it is usually encouraged through reading and written texts become a major form of exposure to new words. When learners are exposed to new words, they usually make guesses or inferences about their contextual meaning. The process of identifying a new word in a context is then related to the useful cues of the word and surrounding text that taps on the reader's previous knowledge to generate an informed guess. Readers then go through trials of accepting and rejecting possible meanings to arrive at the appropriate meaning.

2. CONTEXT IN COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

Context is not a new object of study in linguistics. It has long been considered an essential factor in the interpretation of

linguistic expressions. As early as the 1930s, Firth had already begun working on linguistic corpora, and pointed out that "the complete meaning of a word is always contextual, and no study of meaning apart from a complete context can be taken seriously" (Firth, 1935, p. 37). As a result, context became the focus of most linguistic trends in the late 1970s.

Lately, cognitive linguistics has made a point of integrating context into meaning. As a matter of fact, its object of study is not language as an abstract entity, but language to mean, i.e. language in use, and it is quite obvious that real language use must necessarily involve context.

3. FRAME KNOWLEDGE / CONTEXT

Linguistic context has well known effects on the recognition of spoken and written utterances and the interpretation of words. Sometimes a sentence requires only a single representation of its meaning when a well-defined and clear framework is provided. Unknown words might serve as a recall cue for a specific framework. Hence, the interpretation of words is affected by the linguistic context since this latter does not only enable the listener to select appropriate sense of ambiguous or unknown words but also leads to representations of more specific referents. Accordingly, it suggests an aspect for a word's meaning that seems relevant to the context.

Corresponding Author

Fatima Zahra EL MALAKI, Mohammed V University, Faculty of Education, Rabat, Morocco

E-mail: malakifatimazahra@gmail.com



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY). The article is published with Open Access at www.alscjournal.com

4. MENTAL LEXICON

Scholars agree that little is actually known about the mental lexicon (Aitchison, 2003; Channell, 1988; McCarthy, 1990) and all definitions and descriptions provided to reveal its nature that is based on metaphors (Peppard, 2007). Mental lexicon could be defined as “a person’s mental store of words, their meaning and associations” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 327).

Starting with the premise that the mental representation of lexical meaning has ready access to lexical representation, the mind contains lexical entries that provide meaning to the word. According to some theorists, there are three theories of lexical entries generated about the meaning of words. First, the sense of words consists of a structured set of semantic features (Schaeffer & Wallace, 1970; Smith, Shoben, & Rips, 1974). Second, the mental lexicon takes a form of semantic network or a combination of network and features (Anderson, 1976; Anderson & Bower, 1973; Collins & Quillian, 1969; Rumelhart, Lindsay, & Norman, 1972). These two theories prioritize the decomposition of meaning. Third, suggests there are no semantic representations of words, only a vast set of rules of inference or meaning forms (Fodor, Fodor, & Garrett, 1975; Fodor, 1977, Ch.5; Kintsch, 1974).

5. LEXICAL INFERENCE

Carton (1971) explains inferencing as using attributes and contexts that are familiar in recognizing what is not familiar. Inferencing is based on processing the phonology of words based on context and general knowledge. Moreover, inferencing could be defined as the higher order of comprehension of a given context. Besides the cues in the sentence, the listener needs to contextualize it to understand the meaning. Lexical meaning is not approached as the definable but rather as a set of cognitive relations. In this respect, Sternberg (1987) devised a framework to infer meaning from contextual cues based on selective encoding (determining what information is relevant), selective combination (combining different information from different cues to construct a meaningful whole), and selective comparison (associating the new information with what one already knows).

In this regard, learners use a set of strategies that enable them to arrive at an appropriate meaning to a lexical item. These

strategies are divided into four categories; form focused strategies, meaning focused strategies, evaluative strategies, and monitoring strategies.

As far as form focused strategies are concerned, learners often tend to analyze a word using their knowledge of grammar, suffix, prefix, punctuation. They also attempt to infer the meaning of the target word with other similar words, this is referred to as association. Using textual clues and guessing the meaning of the target word is a meaning focused strategy that leads to successful inferencing. Paraphrasing and translating part of the text that contains target words depend on using meaning as well. As for evaluative strategies, L2 inferencers might make inquiry by questioning their inferences, confirm or disconfirm their inferences by using the information provided in the text, or make evaluative comments about the target word. L2 inferencers might depend on monitoring strategies by making inferences about the failure or the difficulty of the target word, postponing inferencing until another time (suspending judgement), or discarding old inference and attempting a new one (reattempting). Those who succeed in lexical inferencing usually employ a conceptual framework by appropriately using their background knowledge and textual clues that come from the target words and its surrounding context (Oxford, 2011). Thus, they consider both surface meaning and implied meaning to infer the meaning of the word. Successful inferencers, then, are those who make use of the appropriate strategy in the convenient time. They tend to have a deeper knowledge of the contextual cues and use of the wider context. They use their background knowledge including grammatical knowledge and knowledge about the context. Indeed, both successful and unsuccessful learners use inferencing and predicting strategies, but only successful learners modify their predictions. For unsuccessful learners, they lack good monitoring of their strategies «strategy orchestration».

Successful inferencers often build a broader conceptual framework by making appropriate use of their background knowledge and the context surrounding the target words. As a matter of fact, appropriate use of linguistic and background knowledge is essential for successful inferencing as it provides a conceptual framework that helps inferencers fill the gaps in the textual meaning. It creates a “perceptual filter” (Kintsch, 1998, p. 94)

that helps distinguish relevant from irrelevant information and if needed, to suppress the irrelevant information.

There are some factors that influence lexical inferencing such as text factor which refers to how difficult the text is, the importance of the text, and the class that attracts inferencing attempts (nouns, verb...). Furthermore, failing to infer meaning might be due to the lack of adequate textual cues; clear contextual cues are critical to word guessability. Also, poor comprehension to the surrounding words might result in such failure. Hastrup (1991) claims that L2 proficiency is a decisive factor in lexical inferencing since pre-existing lexical knowledge influences vocabulary inferring.

6. THE STUDY

6.1. Design

The previous section sheds light on characteristics of successful and unsuccessful inferencers. Successful and unsuccessful inferencers use inferencing and predicting strategies, but only successful learners modify their predictions based on the available clues (Carton, 1971). In this respect, learners might have a vast list of inferencing or lexical entries that provide meaning to words that are already stored in the mental lexicon. However, if there are no lexical entries but a vast list of inferencing, subjects should reject all the choices in the same way. With this line of thought, this study is based on one research hypothesis and two null hypotheses:

RH: There are lexical entries triggered by context to infer the meaning.

NH1: There is no significant difference between the 3 categories

NH2: There is no significant difference between intermediate and advanced learners' inferencing results

When the mental lexicon is poor the inferential strategies assign meanings to words, which entails that there are cognitive processes that assign the « appropriateness » in communicative contexts.

In order to test these hypotheses, fake words were inserted in a specific context that would draw participants to depend on clues so as to find the appropriate meaning. Participants then had three choices of the unreal word: a) appropriate choice to the context, b) inappropriate choices, and c) 'none of these' choices provide a margin to reject all

the choices. The following is an example of the test question:

(21) You have to visit the beest to cure the toothache.

{a. car b. manager c. trainer
d. dentist e. none of these}

a, b, and c are distractors that do not match the context of the sentence. d, however is a cue that fits into the context of the sentence. If the priority is given to 'none of these', this would be an indication that comprehension depends on stored lexical meanings only. But if more importance is given to the appropriate word this would probably be an evidence that meaning of words are triggered by a specific context. This will be more elaborated in the discussion of the results.

6.2. Instrument and Sample

The data were collected from two groups of Moroccan EFL learners. The first group was an intermediate level in an English language center composed of 30 subjects. The second was an advanced group of 30 subjects. The levels were defined by the placement test designed by the center. The instrument used for this study is a multiple choices task based on 40 sentences and 20 sentences which were added as distractors.

13. He is **panfering** a white T-shirt and blue trousers.

{a. classifying b. printing c. wearing
d. writing e. none of these}.

These distractors were ordinary sentences in which only one of the five options was correct and appropriate to the context. The aim of these is to test learners' knowledge of the familiar existing words and thus examine the subjects' performance. The test as such will not be misleading as the subjects will encounter known words along with fake ones while answering the test items. The following example was implemented in the test as distracting sentence:

30. I saw a very good **position** advertised in the newspaper.

{a. job b. occupation c. work
d. office e. none of these

This instrument supported the objective of the study, which aimed at finding answers to the following questions:

- Will subjects choose appropriate answers for a fake word though they do not know it?

- Is there any significant difference between the frequencies of the three

categories?

- Is there any significant difference between the two levels?

6.3. Results and Discussion

As mentioned earlier, the 20 distractors were intended to examine the subjects' performance in the test. Needless to say, the performance of the two groups should be statistically significant, given the difference of their level.

An independent-sample t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the test of intermediate and advanced levels. Surprisingly, there was no significant difference in scores for intermediate ($M= 12.23$, $SD=3.25$) and advanced subjects [$M= 12.43$, $SD=3.56$; $t(58)=-.22$, $p=.82$]. This might be related to the choice of distractors that might not be very challenging for these levels or maybe the strategies used are cognitively education-independent.

Indeed, it is worth mentioning that the 'none of these' option was chosen when advanced subjects did not recognize the word ($M= 6.13$) opposed to ($M= 1.43$). inappropriate choice. The first choice, as such, revealed their hesitation to choose a word they are not sure if it is a synonym to the test item. Intermediate subjects, however, opted for inappropriate answers ($M= 8.80$) rather than relying on their stored knowledge and choosing 'none of these' option ($M= 1.74$).

Regarding test items, their answers were classified into three categories: a) one 'appropriate' which is a fake word, a) one category of 'inappropriate' choices that includes three items, and c) 'none of these'. The frequencies of each category were marked for each subject and the total was calculated for two study levels. The following table summarizes the results:

Table 1: frequencies by category and study level.

Level	Appropriate	Inappropriate	None	Total
Intermediate	748	311	151	1210
Advanced	773	221	202	1196
Total	1521	532	353	2406

As can be noted, the frequency of appropriate answers (1521) is twice the number of the inappropriate answers (532), and much higher than the frequency of no

answer (353). This confirms our research hypothesis suggesting that meaning of words depends on the context.

A one-way chi-square statistic suggests that the difference between the two levels is indeed significant at a very high degree of probability (2: 22.9255; df: 2; $p< .000$). That is to say, this difference cannot be a result of chance except to a very low degree of probability. Thus, the null hypothesis disconfirmed the fact that there is no significant difference between the three categories.

To test the second null hypothesis a two-way chi-square was conducted in order to reveal the difference between the levels. Two ways table sorts the data according to two categorical variables. We want to test the hypothesis that there is no relationship between these two categorical variables (H_0). Comparing the intermediate and the advanced levels from the sample data via the two-way chi-square indicates that there is no significant association between the two. Therefore, the second null hypothesis is rejected.

In these results, the figures that need some comments are those obtained for appropriate and inappropriate answers. With the high frequency of appropriate answers, it might be claimed that the participants use a pragmatic interpretation in order to assign a specific meaning based on a specific structure of a pragmatic context. The 'appropriateness' of the word then is assigned according to the communicative context. Thus, there is no connection between the memory representation of one word to the presentation of another without a framed context. Obviously, the word 'dog' is directly related to 'bark' and 'table' to 'chair'. Still, there is a frame that allows assigning the most appropriate word. Therefore, words do not exist in isolation to the context but rather there exist concepts to which the words refer. Words association is hence related to the referents since they are not associated in isolation but rather retrieved as a concept from the schemata. Subjects chose the appropriate words instead of opting for no choice. This confirms the hypothesis that underlines the existence of lexical entries that are triggered context to infer the meaning. Not only the relevant schema is activated, but also the most appropriate word is retrieved depending on the cues that lie in the text. The context in the sentences was manipulated in the sense that the tasks set up intended to direct the participants' attention towards a particular word.

The discrepancy between the T-test and

Chi-2 results might be explained by the use of inferencing only in contexts where the learner has never encountered the word. For the distracters, as an example, advanced learners tend to choose no answer rather than choosing an answer that they are not sure about. This entails that advanced learners depend on the stored knowledge when introduced to familiar words but make use of inferencing when encountering a new word. Intermediate learners; however, tend to choose inappropriate answers as far as the distracters are concerned. This suggests that intermediate learners depend on inferencing while encountering both familiar and unknown words.

With both levels, context happens to be an essential tool in lexical inferencing as it provides more clues to build a framework to depend on while building a representation to find the meaning of words.

7. CONCLUSION

The mental lexicon is a complex structure organized in terms of phonology, semantics, syntax, among other levels. This inquiry confirms the hypothesis which underlines the existence of lexical entries that are triggered the context to infer the meaning. The subjects gave priority to appropriateness instead of none of the choices, even if the vocabulary task they were given was not an ordinary one. In other words, some items were added as distractors. The L2 learners retrieved the most appropriate word depending on the cues provided by the context.

The intermediate and advanced L2 learners use their inferential strategies to find out meanings of new words from the context. Successful inferencing depends heavily on the learners' background knowledge and the context surrounding the target words.

Implications:

Since students of advanced level were more likely to opt for inferencing the correct meaning than intermediate students did, students could be trained to infer the meaning of unknown words. This should go hand in hand with building appropriate context to tease learners' cognition. Teaching vocabulary then must rely on strategies that promote learners' interest in inferencing. Indeed, vocabulary should not be taught in isolation from context as most of vocabulary knowledge is acquired through reading. Thus, the vocabulary

inferencing training will be established in a favorable learning context.

List of Abbreviations:

L2	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
EFL	English as Foreign Language
RH	Research Hypothesis
NH	Null Hypothesis

REFERENCES

- Aitchison, J. (2003). *Words in the mind: an introduction to the mental lexicon*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Anderson, A. (1983). *Semantic and social-pragmatic aspects of meaning in task - oriented dialogue*. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Glasgow.
- Anderson, J.R. (1976). *Language, memory, and thought*. Hillsdale, NJ.: Erlbaum.
- Anderson, J. R., & Bower, G.H. (1973). *Human associative memory*. Washington, D.C.: Winston.
- Collins. A. M., & Quillian, M. R. (1969). Retrieval time from semantic memory. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, R, 240-247.
- Fodor, J. D. (1977). *Semantics: Theories of meaning in generative grammar*. New York: Crowell.
- Fodor, J. D., Fodor, J. A., & Garrett, M. F. (1975). The psychological unreality of semantic representations. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 4, 515-531.
- Glass, A.L., & Holyoak, K.J. (1974/5). Alternative conceptions of semantic memory. *Cognition*, 3,31>339.
- Kmetsch. W. (1974). *The representation of meaning in memory*. Hillsdale. N.J.: Erlbaum.
- Peppard, J. (2007). *Exploring the relationship between word-association and learners' lexical development*. Retrieved December 31, 2010, from http://www.cels.bham.ac.uk/resources/essays/Peppard_Mod_2.pdf
- Rumelhart, D. E., Lindsay, P. H., & Norman. D. A. (1972). A process model for long-term memory. In E. Tulving & W. Donaldson (Eds.) *Organization and memory*. New York: Academic Press.
- Richards, C. and Schmidt, R. (2002) *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (3rd edition). London: Longman.
- Schaeffer, B., & Wallace, R. (1970). The comparison of word meanings. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*. 86,134-152.
- Smith, E.E., Shoben. E.J., & Rips, L.J. (1974). Structure and process in semantic memory: a featural model for semantic decisions. *Psychological Reviews*, 81, 214-241.
- Firth, J R. (1935). *The Technique of Semantics*. Transactions of the Philological Society, 36-72 (Reprinted in Firth (1957) Papers in Linguistics. London: Oxford University Press, 7-33).

DEDICATED TO LANGUAGE VARIATIONS

PhD Sashka Jovanovska, North Macedonia

E-mail: jovanovskasaska@gmail.com

Abstract. We use languages for different purposes in everyday life. Most people use more than one language, and they may be considered as bilingual (speaking two languages) or multilingual (speaking more than two languages). In simple terms, as Wardhaugh elaborates, language may be defined as a code or system that is used by societies to communicate with other people. This system might be the same for two people or totally different, and therefore they are somehow forced to cooperate by working out their common code. Any changes in languages or speech are conditioned by communities and their culture. Sociolinguistics examines relationship between language and societies, and also deals with phenomena such as pidgins and creoles which are strictly bound with this science itself.

Keywords: *pidgin, creole, lingua franca, language.*

© 2020 IJALSC. All rights reserved.

1. INTRODUCTION

Pidgins, creoles, and lingua franca are often considered as unnatural and forgotten languages (even Wardhaugh calls them marginal) because researchers know very little about their origins and themselves, whereas, it should be highlighted that they are a key feature in understanding languages and many people do use such languages on a daily basis. There is feasibility that without them some people could never communicate with others or have a chance to learn another language. Moreover, it is said that these languages are prejudiced, used by poorer and darker members of society, and most importantly that they are not separate languages but only derivations of systems.

Certain scholars use terms such “as ‘degenerate offshoots’, ‘linguistics dodos’, and ‘special hybrids’” to describe pidgins and creoles, yet more and more of them start thinking about their prominence as it occurred that they are fundamental matters invaluable for people who use them as a necessity for everyday living and markers of their own identity. Due to pidgins and creoles people are aware of constant changes in languages and attractiveness of exploiting and using them (Wardhaugh 2010: 53-54).

1.1. Pidgins

A pidgin is called a ‘contact language’

because it does not have native speakers and basically it is a first language to no one. It forms as a consequence “of a multilingual situation in which those who wish to communicate must find ... a simple language system” (Wardhaugh 2010: 57-58). However, it is not possible because each person uses different language and the only solution is to find a new, common language for everybody. Therefore, people have to improvise, adapt, and overcome a linguistic barrier by creating a pidgin – a new code, system to communicate verbally. Worth mentioning is that pidgins are produced in a specific situation when there is no other possibility to communicate and the need for this communication is really high. Moreover, it often happens that speakers of one language dominate speakers of other languages in social and economic context. As a general rule dominant languages are those highly codified so pidgins may be treated as an easier and simplified version of a normal language, for instance characteristics of a dominant language such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation are reduced and simplified to meet the requirements of the group (Wardhaugh 2010: 58-59).

Holmes, on the other hand, tries to present the other definition of pidgins. They are compared to reduced languages with the result of being a product of contact between a group of people who do not share a common language. They become languages in a situation when people have need for verbal communication, for example for trade, but it has to be remembered that people do not learn mother tongues of any person in the group, perhaps, for social reasons such as lack of trust or close contact. For instance on slave plantations West African people were separated from others who could speak the same language “to reduce the risk of plotting

Corresponding Author

PhD Sashka Jovanovska, North Macedonia

E-mail: jovanovskasaska@gmail.com



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY). The article is published with Open Access at www.alscjournal.com

to escape or rebel” (Holmes 2013: 85). In that situation people created a pidgin language which was based on bosses’ language and working people’s languages. A similar situation is presented with the example of traders who travelled to different countries for business and had to adjust their language to communicate with Americans, Indians, Chinese, Spanish, etc. Some scholars believe that the term ‘pidgin’ was used in communication between traders, derived from the very word ‘pidjom’ from Hebrew, and meant ‘trade or exchange’ (Holmes 2013: 85-86).

According to Waldhaugh, a pidgin may be created on the condition of three or more languages (one of them being dominant to others) because in a situation in which there are only two languages involved there might be a struggle for dominance. A perfect example are English and French, in which the fight won inferior language but after more than two centuries of co-existence. In the case of three or more languages, with one being dominant, the other inferior languages play a salient role in the development of a pidgin. Speakers of these ‘weak’ languages have to communicate with each other but also with speakers of a dominant language. In order to do this they need to produce their own rules based on process of simplification of a dominant language as all speakers are separated from each other because of language differences (Waldhaugh 2010: 58).

Another point about pidgins is connected with a structure of this artificially created language. Speakers of different languages have to combine their efforts to agree on rules of pronunciation, terminology, and grammar, and sometimes there may occur additional features which are unique only for newly created variety of languages. However, Holmes argues that while a certain group speaks prestigious language and other group uses local or minor language those prestigious endorse a pidgin with more words and expressions, whereas local ones have more impact on grammatical structure of a pidgin.

Languages like pidgins do not have many functions, they are rather restricted, and “tend to have a simplified structure and a small vocabulary compared with fully developed languages” (Holmes 2013: 87). For example, pacific pidgins have only five vowels, short words without inflections, and no tenses or markers of gender either. Moreover, when English is compared to Tok Pisin on the basis of verb forms, it is easy to notice the process of simplification: English ‘I go’, Tok Pisin ‘mi’

or English ‘they go’, Tok Pisin ‘ol’. However, pidgins tend to minimise grammatical signals which is helpful for the speaker but, on the other hand, bothers a listener. Nevertheless, they are very difficult to learn as they are full of irregularities, and what is interesting one word in a pidgin language may refer to many things, for example “in Cameroon Pidgin English the word ‘water’ can mean ‘lake’, ‘river’, ‘spring’, ‘tear’, or ‘water’” (Holmes 2013: 87-88).

The most common yet false image of pidgins is widely discussed by people all over the world, not only researchers. Usually they are portrayed as a ‘bad’ version of a standard or highly developed language or even called a ‘baby-talk’ language because of very simplified forms of words which are difficult to understand and divine their meaning. But after all, it has to be acknowledged that pidgins originate in the middle of a hard situation in which speakers need to manage to produce a language and also know how to use it correctly. As Holmes notices, even sometimes pidgins are described as jargons and negatively evaluated as Broken English. People, especially Europeans, “consider pidgins to be a debased form of their own language” because many terms used in pidgin languages come from European languages (Holmes 2013: 88). Therefore, speakers are almost sure that they are able to guess the meaning of the given words, and in that way various misunderstandings occur which may have serious consequences, for instance in Tok Pisin the word ‘baksait’ means back whereas hearing this term a listener instantly think of a word ‘backside’ meaning something totally different, in this case ‘bottom, butt’. Consequently, people who do not know a certain language should not guess the meaning of terms or pretend to understand the message somebody tries to convey. By simplifying a dominant language they will not start using a pidgin. To speak and understand someone correctly it is necessary to learn a certain language even if it seems easy (Holmes 2013: 88-89).

The very surprising yet interesting thing about pidgins is their life span as they have a short life. As it was said above pidgins are produced in a specific multilingual situation and used for a special goal. Once they develop to help speakers to communicate “they disappear when the function disappears” (Holmes 2013: 89). For instance, a pidgin which is used for communication between two groups of traders disappears by the time trade between these

groups dies out. There is also a feasibility that even if trade increases it is more likely for one group to learn the other group's language, and consequently a pidgin or a need to create a common language disappears. Nevertheless, there is still a chance for a pidgin to develop into a highly developed language or a creole (Holmes 2013; 89).

Recently, some linguists point out the importance of a process called pidginization, as opposed to creolization, in which a language is simplified, a word structure together with a grammatical structure is reduced to a minimum, pronunciation is adjusted to speakers. Additionally, there are not many functions for which pidgins can be used (books are not written in pidgins) and there are a great number of borrowings from a dominant language. With so many changes in this process a pidgin still requires some kind of innovativeness and creativity (Wardhaugh 2010: 59).

All in all, to distinguish pidgins from other languages it is enough to have in mind three identifying characteristics. Initially, pidgins are "used in restricted domains and functions" (Holmes 2013: 89). Secondly, their grammatical structure is simplified and based on dominant languages. Lastly, pidgin languages have rather low prestige and thus they attract negative attitudes, particularly from foreigners. However, although pidgins are perceived as limited and perhaps too simplistic, they still play an essential role in changing and developing languages all over the world (89).

1.2. Creoles

A creole can be defined as an extended version of a pidgin which has native speakers. Children learn creole languages as their first language and use it in various domains of life. Creoles are created when a new generation of speakers appear and, as Aitchison argues, "when pidgins become mother tongues" so a creole may be treated as a common and somehow natural language (Wardhaugh 2010: 59). Hence, there seems to be an endless consideration on in what situation a pidgin can be actually a creole. Therefore, a creole may be named like this when it originates from the original pidgin which develops in a fully-fledged language. Many researchers believe that various pidgins are in fact creoles, for example Tok Pisin, which was aforementioned as a pidgin, is acquired as a creole because many speakers learn it as their

first language and it is developed to meet their linguistic requirements. Moreover, there is a possibility for some languages such as West African pidgins or Nigerian Pidgin English to exist as both pidgins and creoles. In this case, speakers of those languages may use them only as a second language in an extended version or only as a first language. The first option is more probable in urban areas "in which there is likely to be considerable contact among speakers of different languages" (Wardhaugh 2010: 59).

Although some scholars claim that certain languages may be considered as both pidgins and creoles, they do not share the same characteristics, have different functions, grammatical structures, and even attitudes which are demonstrated towards them. Thus, a creole is based on a developed pidgin with evolved vocabulary and structure aiming at showing various meanings and functions of a first language. It has a complex relationship with a standard language from which it arose and not every creole has its pidgin ancestor. For instance, speakers using local varieties of languages rather than prestigious ones speak nonstandard form of languages which may be mixed randomly. That is why, pidgin English is related to Standard English and Haitian Creole is associated with Standard French (Wardhaugh 2010: 59).

Creoles have different structure from pidgins, and grammar is definitely more complex which is underestimated by foreigners. Words contain affixes and inflections due to which creole languages are able to stress meanings of tenses, for instance in Rover River Creole the past tense is expressed with the word 'bin': 'im bin megim ginu' meaning 'he made a canoe' while the present form of a tense is as follows: 'im megim ginu' (Holmes 2013: 90). Other characteristic focus on phonology in which, similarly to English language, there is a morphophonemic variation. It describes phonological correlation between terms which are in a close relation, for example "the first vowel in words 'type' and 'typical', and the different sounds of the 'plural' ending in 'cats', 'dogs', and 'boxes'" (Wardhaugh 2010: 66).

Additionally, in creoles transitive verbs may be distinguished from intransitive ones and speakers have ability to form embedded clauses such as relative clauses. Particles are frequently used and it is not complicated to stress a negation by using, for instance "a simple negative particle 'no' as in the English-based Krio – 'i no tu had' [meaning] 'It's not

too hard” (Wardhaugh 2010: 67).

Many creolists also point out that creole languages use the exact syntactic methods as slightly different standard languages. When it comes to vocabulary, more terms and expressions are similar to a standard language but still they are limited and presented in a condensed form which results in often having different shapes. Sometimes speakers use reduplication or repetition of words to reduce a risk of misunderstanding or confusion, for example Tok Pisin uses a pair like ‘talk’ meaning ‘talk’ and ‘talktalk’ meaning ‘chatter’ or ‘cry’ meaning ‘cry’ and ‘crycry’ meaning ‘cry continually’. But there are many terms rather of complicated encoding like ‘gras bilong pisin’ meaning ‘moustache’ and surprisingly, a “creole may draw on the vocabulary resources of more than one language” (Wardhaugh 2010: 67).

In addition, Aitchison argues that people speak creole languages faster than pidgins and notices that they do not speak them word by word. As creoles are constantly changing and developing, new terms are reduced in form, for example ‘man bilong pait’ (man of fight) is used as ‘paitman’ (fighter). Also, there are many technical borrowings from English language.

The salient point is addressed to creolization, a process in which a pidgin’s structure becomes more regular and as a consequence a pidgin is transformed into a creole. When words have regular structure it is easier to learn and understand these forms and it is clearly visible in the example of Tok Pisin and English – the adjective ‘bik’ means ‘big, large’ whereas the verb is formulated by adding ‘im’, so ‘bikim’ means ‘to enlarge, to make large’. Following this rule, if a speaker knows that the term hot in Tok Pisin is ‘hat’, there is no doubt that he is able to create a verb ‘to heat’ or ‘to make hot’ by adding the aforementioned affix ‘im’, so ‘hatim’ is the searched word (Holmes 2013: 91).

The process also includes growth of grammatical and sentence structures, regularities in pronunciation, expansion in the number of functions in which a creole can be used, and evolution of a stable and sensible system for constantly increasing terminology and expressions. Moreover, creoles were formed due to a procedure of second language acquisition in unique conditions and children had an ability to help with the process of regularization of grammatical structures.

Although attitude towards creoles mirrors that negative one to pidgins by

foreigners, speakers of creole languages seem to appreciate them. The aforementioned Tok Pisin (a perfect example of a pidgin, an expanded pidgin, and a creole language at once) “has status and prestige”. Inhabitants of Papua New Guinea “recognise its usefulness as a means of communication with a wide range of influential people as well as in getting a decent job” (Holmes 2013: 94). Tok Pisin is even used during business meetings of one of companies though all members speak other common language (94).

Worth remembering is that although creoles sometimes seem similar to pidgins, they are more complicated, have more functions and different structures. Still, they both undergo changes yet for creoles certain changes are slower because of complexity of structures. Moreover, there is a feasibility that without pidgins creoles may not exist. Pidgins have a linguistic and social background whereas creoles have only historical one but on the condition that they have arisen from pidgins. However, some creoles may become a common language in certain areas used in town, in church, at work, or at home, and even in that kind of a situation a creole may become a lingua franca (Holmes 2013: 93).

1.3. Lingua Francas

Lingua franca, as Samarin believes, is a very intriguing phenomenon as it may be described by a variety of terms such as a trade language (Swahili), a contact language (Greek koine), an international language (English or French), an auxiliary language (Esperanto), or even a mixed one (Michif).

The reason, or more likely the consequence, for so many kinds of lingua francas “is population migration (forced or voluntary)”, or trade purposes. A lingua franca, then, might be defined as a language used for communication between speakers who have different mother tongues. The difference between a lingua franca and pidgins and creoles is that lingua francas usually use existing, standard languages which were earlier established as official languages for certain countries. However, sometimes, especially in multilingual societies where people use many different languages and accents, lingua francas are so helpful as they may eventually replace minor or local languages (Wardhaugh 2010: 55).

Throughout the centuries there were many lingua francas including Vulgar Latin or Sabir. However, this term was first introduced

by Italians in 17th century, used for trade, and it means ‘Frankish language’. Now, the most widespread and known lingua franca in the world is English language. It is used in many various situations, for instance in business, travel, or trade (Khodorkovsky). Speakers use languages differently and depending on their abilities to use them English serves either as a mother tongue, a second language, or a foreign one. Therefore, for example Italian, Spanish, Polish, and English scientists having a debate on a new vaccine use English to communicate and understand each other. Some researchers claim that this common language for all aforementioned scientists is different from the standard version of English and they call it ‘Englishe’. Its form is slightly changed and even if people are able to communicate freely, they often make mistakes while speaking spontaneously, and that is why a lingua franca will never be acknowledged as a ‘pure’ English. Consequently, Jenkins argues that there is an European variety of English, called ‘Euro-English’, which may serve as an European Lingua Franca in the distant future. There is not much data about it as the language is in its early stage of development. Yet, English “is likely to be a kind of European-English hybrid which, as it develops, will look increasingly to continental Europe rather than to the UK or the US for its norms of correctness and appropriateness” (Jenkins). This fact is based on a relationship and interaction among non-native speakers of English language who show that, for instance pronunciation may cause intelligibility problems (even if speakers present a high level of language proficiency).

As mentioned above, English as a lingua franca can be used in various everyday situations. The best example of its use, different from universal ones including business, trade, or tourism, may be education, strictly speaking an Erasmus programme in which students have a chance to study abroad. English, then, is the only language due to which students communicate with other students, teachers, and also inhabitants of a chosen country. English as a lingua franca is the only possible way to achieve goals and overcome problems by students. Although there may be attempts to learn a language of a country students live in, using a lingua franca is more practical and should prevent misunderstandings. Moreover, more students admit that they do not mind if other students make mistakes as long as they understand a message. Yet, it has to be highlighted that due to accents of non-native students a problem of intelligibility occur. As a

result, they improve their comprehension skills and are aware of other varieties of English language. Duran also notices that non-native speakers do not use prestigious terminology while speaking with other non-native speakers. Interestingly, “English is being shaped at least as much by its non-native speakers as by its native speakers” (Duran 2016: 181). Despite the fact that native speakers are the ones who correct mistakes made by non-natives, in most conversations native speakers are not involved. All in all, lingua francas are helpful in raising awareness about language changes and perceiving languages as useful ones by speakers.

CONCLUSION

Despite the fact that studies on pidgins, creoles, and lingua franca are underestimated, they are very useful for people who do not share the same language yet and would like to participate actively in various everyday activities. Those languages help speakers to find their own way of communication and understanding of people from all over the world. Moreover, the way in people interact with each other shows changes in languages – how people pronounce words, what grammatical structure they use, and what kind of vocabulary they produce depending on a situation they are in. Languages are constantly changing, ones are born, and the other ones die out because people do not need to use them anymore, but it happens also that they are reborn in slightly changed form. The relationship between languages and societies (speakers) is that both phenomena including structure, culture and history are extremely complicated hence incredibly fascinating. In simple terms, people are influenced by languages and vice versa. Because of this on-going process languages are in constant development as well as people are (Holmes 2013; Wardhaugh 2010).

REFERENCES

- Duran, D. (2016). *Use of lingua franca in student mobility: A study of Turkish Erasmus students*. pp. 178-183
- Holmes J. (2013). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Fourth Edition. Routledge Publishing. pp. 82-99, 439-450
- Jenkins J. & Seidlhofer B. (2001). *Be proud of your lingua franca*. 19 Apr 2001. <https://www.theguardian.com/education/2001/apr/19/tefl4>
- Khodorkovsky M. (2013). *How is English Used as a Lingua Franca Today?* 19 Aug 2013. <https://>

- www.altalang.com/beyond-words/how-is-english-used-as-a-lingua-franca-today/
- Large, A. (1985). *The Artificial Language Movement*. Oxford & New York: Blackwell
- Lefebvre, Claire (1998). *Creole Genesis and the Acquisition of Grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Mackey, W. F., Ornstein, J. (eds.) (1979). *Sociolinguistic Studies in Language Contact*. The Hague/ New York/Paris: Mouton
- Maxwell, D. (1989a). "Principles for Constructing Planned Languages." Schubert (ed.), 101-120— (1989b): "Esperantology." *Language Problems and Language Planning* 13: 60-62
- Wardhaugh R. (2010). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Sixth Edition, Blackwell Publishing. pp. 1, 53-83, 409-412



LONDON COLLEGE[®]
UNITED *of* KNOWLEDGE

www.LondonCollegeUK.com

KUWAIT

SUBAH AL SALEM - BLOCK 2
BAVARIA TOWERS
TOWER A
TEL: +965 222 73 767
MOB: +965 500 20 510

HEAD OFFICE

LEVEL 18 - 40 BANK STREET
CANARY WHARF
LONDON E14 5NR
TEL: +44 203 608 6081
MOB: +44 203 608 6033

- 📍 London College of United Knowledge
- 📧 @lcollegeuk
- 📞 lcollegeuk
- ☎ 0096550020510

