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**REVISITING THE INFLUENCE OF FRENCH ON CAMEROON
ENGLISH LEXIS: THE CASE OF ANGLOPHONES LIVING IN
FRANCOPHONE CAMEROON**

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ABSTRACT

This study, entitled “Revisiting the Influence of French on Cameroon English Lexis: The Case of Anglophones Living in Francophone Cameroon,” aimed to explore some of the lexical items created by Anglophones residing in French-speaking regions of Cameroon. The research adopted both quantitative and qualitative approaches, utilizing observation, questionnaires, and interviews. A questionnaire was used to gather data on the words coined by Anglophones living in Francophone Cameroon. Five (5) types of businesses and workshops were targeted in Yaoundé and Douala, namely: a construction site, a barber’s shop, a mechanic workshop, and a motorcycle spare parts shop. The study involved 100 respondents. Theoretical frameworks from dialectology—such as linguistic interference, code-mixing, cross-linguistic influence, and word formation processes—were employed for data analysis and interpretation. The major findings reveal that the frequency of usage of these newly formed lexical items stands at 89% for very often, 6.6% for often, 4.4% for less often, and 0% for never. Additionally, the subjects tended to create new lexical items that differ slightly from those used by their Anglophone counterparts in the North-West and South-West regions of the country. Another finding shows the distribution of word formation processes as follows: 46.6% for borrowing, 13.4% for compounding, 26.6% for calquing, and 13.4% for clipping. The degree of awareness regarding the existence of these words was assessed through responses from participants at the barber’s shop. The response options were Yes, No, Neutral, and Total. All five (5) respondents confirmed their awareness of the terms used in the shop, indicating 100% awareness. This study therefore concludes that Anglophones living in Francophone Cameroon form a distinct speech community, shaped significantly by the influence of French in cities like Yaoundé and Douala.

RESUME

Cette étude, intitulée « Reconsidération de l'influence du français sur le lexique de l'anglais camerounais : le cas des anglophones vivant en zone francophone du Cameroun », visait à explorer certains éléments lexicaux créés par les anglophones résidant dans les régions francophones du Cameroun. La recherche a adopté une approche à la fois quantitative et qualitative, en utilisant l'observation, des questionnaires et des entretiens. Un questionnaire a été utilisé pour recueillir des données sur les mots inventés par les anglophones vivant en zone francophone. Cinq (5) types de lieux de travail et d'entreprises ont été ciblés à Yaoundé et à Douala, à savoir : un chantier de construction, un salon de coiffure, un atelier de mécanique, et une boutique de pièces détachées pour motos. L'étude a impliqué 100 participants. Des cadres théoriques issus de la dialectologie—tels que l'interférence linguistique, le code-mixing, l'influence interlinguistique et les procédés de formation des mots—ont été utilisés pour l'analyse et l'interprétation des données. Les principaux résultats révèlent que la fréquence d'utilisation de ces lexiques nouvellement formés s'élève à 89 % pour très souvent, 66 % pour souvent, 4,4 % pour moins souvent, et 0 % pour jamais. De plus, les sujets avaient tendance à créer de nouveaux lexiques légèrement différents de ceux utilisés par leurs homologues anglophones des régions du Nord-Ouest et du Sud-Ouest. Une autre constatation montre la répartition des procédés de formation des mots comme suit : 46,6 % pour l'emprunt, 13,4 % pour la composition, 26,6 % pour le calque, et 13,4 % pour la troncation. Le degré de conscience de l'existence de ces mots a été évalué à travers les réponses des participants dans le salon de coiffure. Les options de réponse étaient Oui, Non, Neutre, et Total. Les cinq (5) répondants ont tous confirmé être conscients des termes utilisés dans le salon, indiquant un taux de conscience de 100 %. Cette étude conclut donc que les anglophones vivant en zone francophone du Cameroun forment une communauté linguistique distincte, fortement influencée par le français dans des villes comme Yaoundé et Douala.

DEDICATION

To

The Tarkang Family and the Family of Mr. Njume Alain,
for their moral, spiritual, and financial support.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CLI	: Cross Linguistic Influence
LI	: A Speaker's First Language
L2	: A Speaker's Second Language
L3	: A Speaker's Third Language
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
CampE	: Cameroon English
CPE	: Cameroon Pidgin English
CS	: Code Switching
CM	: Code Mixing

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Kavakli (2016) believes that all languages—without one being superior to another—have been created to be explored and to give meaning to human experience. According to him, each language develops its own vocabulary stock, often drawing from different languages. Kavakli (2016) further notes that understanding the origin of a language is essential in determining its historical background. Language, he argues, is a system within society that is constantly evolving, learning, and developing alongside its roots. For a language to develop in alignment with its origin, it is crucial to understand the foundational vocabulary of that root language. Sweet (as cited in Kavakli, 2016) views language as a structured system of communication made up of grammar and vocabulary. It serves as the primary means by which humans express meaning—whether in spoken, written, or even signed form.

Atechi and Fonka (2007) and Tarh (2007) describe Cameroon as one of the most multilingual and multicultural countries in Africa. They assert that, in terms of language diversity relative to population size, Cameroon ranks second only to Papua New Guinea. With a population of about 16 million at the time of their writing, Cameroon reportedly had over 250 indigenous languages, two colonial official languages (English and French), and several lingua francas. English-based Pidgin, according to Atechi and Fonka (2007) and Tarh (2007), is the dominant language of wider communication across the national territory.

The coexistence of two official languages in Cameroon has led to frequent mixing and interference during language acquisition, particularly in vocabulary learning. Many learners from Anglophone or Francophone backgrounds often end up incorporating elements of both languages, especially those who migrate to new regions to learn a trade or acquire skills. This phenomenon is especially common among Anglophones who relocate to Francophone areas and vice versa.

Anchimbe (2007) introduced the concept of linguabridity to describe individuals who grow up using two languages rooted in different and sometimes conflicting cultures. According to him, this experience involves more than simple bilingualism; it requires navigating a complex web of linguistic and cultural identity. Anchimbe (2007) explains that linguabridity concerns not only language switching but also identity creation or concealment. This process includes the adoption of extra-linguistic and cultural elements shared within specific in-groups—

through birth, education, or skill—and is influenced by the speaker's environment. Moreover, linguabridity is not restricted to bilingual or multilingual societies; it also applies to immigrant children in monolingual societies who grow up navigating both their parents' language (typically spoken at home) and the dominant national language (used in schools and the community). In some cases, parents may become unable to effectively communicate with their own children who have gained greater competence in the new language.

Bilingualism and multilingualism can lead to language shift, either partially or completely. Fasold (1984) defines language shift as a situation in which a community either entirely abandons one language in favor of another or gradually adopts a new one while giving up the original. Hoffmann (1991) adds that language shift occurs when a community fails to maintain its language and instead adopts another over time. Anthonissen (2013) broadens this definition, arguing that language shift can be either partial or complete, depending on the context. These differing definitions all share a common feature: the movement from one language to another, whether total or partial.

The primary motivation for language shift, as observed by scholars, is often the perceived prestige or international utility of the dominant language. Communities may abandon less prestigious languages in favor of those seen as more modern, useful, or economically advantageous (Brenzinger, 2006; McMahon, 1994; Mufwene, 2001).

Closely related to language shift is the concept of language maintenance. Hoffmann (1991) defines language maintenance as a situation in which a community actively strives to retain its traditional language. In the Cameroonian context, many individuals do not consciously choose to shift languages; rather, they find themselves navigating between two official languages. For instance, someone who moves from an entirely English-speaking region to a French-speaking area to acquire vocational skills must adapt to using French regularly. Over time, such individuals often develop into linguabridites (see Anchimbe, 2007), integrating both languages into their identity. This highlights the need to master the vocabulary of one's language of origin to remain grounded and able to interact effectively with both local and international communities.

1.1 Background of the study

One of the most noticeable aspects of language is its ability to evolve and adapt to new realities and circumstances. One of the realities of every human language is its innovative ability to create new words. Many factors can spur the creation of new words, some of which include language contact, new discoveries or inventions, the outbreak of an epidemic, bilingualism and multilingualism, and language influence. As mentioned earlier, Cameroon has a very rich culture and unique characteristics. Apart from the many dialects that exist in the country, Cameroon is the only bilingual country in Africa. Since independence, Cameroon has adopted English and French as its official languages. Provisions were made for bilingualism to take root throughout the national territory, including in the educational sector and other areas of life. The implementation of bilingualism, which is accompanied by factors such as cross-linguistic interference, necessitated the invention of new words, some of which are derived from French and English, respectively.

Many scholars attest to the adaptation of bilingualism by the Cameroonian government. According to Ndille (2016), on 1 October 1961, official bilingualism was instituted in the new Federal Republic. The Federal Constitution of 1961, in paragraph 3, article 1(h), made it clear that "the official languages of Cameroon shall be French and English" (Cameroon, 1961, p. 1). The government's attention became fully directed toward increasing the number of literates in the two official languages. With the assistance of UNESCO, the federal government funded a nationwide bilingual program. This program included 7,500 literacy centers, popularly known as "L'Ecole sous l'Arbre" (schools under trees) (Anchimbe, 2006). Following the reunification of British Southern Cameroons and La République du Cameroun, the program unfortunately collapsed by 1969 due to a lack of further external funding. The government also set up a Bilingual Grammar School in Man O' War Bay (which was later moved to Molyko-Buea) in 1962 and signed cooperation agreements with France, Britain, and the USA. These agreements, among other things, led to the promotion of English and French through the establishment of the Alliance Franco-Cameroonaise, the British Council, and French and American cultural centers throughout the national territory.

In 1964, the President of Cameroon, Ahmadou Ahidjo, declared that, "When we consider the English language and culture and the French language and culture, we must regard them not as the property of such and such a race but as an acquisition of universal civilization to which we belong. This is in fact why we have followed the path of bilingualism since... it offers us the means to develop this new culture, which includes a new language and a new vocabulary and

could transform our country into the catalyst of African unity" (quoted in Anchimbe, 2006). As seen in the literature on bilingualism, it can be quite complicated to define, describe, and delimit what is referred to as official bilingualism in Cameroon (Ayafor Munang, 2015). It also proves difficult to integrate the interpretation of the general concept of bilingualism within the local Cameroonian context. However, the simple fact of having official status for both languages, French and English, qualifies as the basic linguistic component in defining bilingualism in general, though stopping at such a criterion is inadequate.

Stating the situation in oversimplified terms would thereby mislead attention regarding the host of variables that make it complex and unique. The glaring evidence of this complexity is the absence of an official government position on the subject, despite ongoing actions and declared efforts to encourage the use of both French and English at the individual, institutional, and government levels.

The fascinating linguistic situation, neglect of linguists' views, predominance of political ideologies and objectives, and lack of genuine political commitment to evolving language planning are variables that exacerbate the task of finding a useful defining and action framework for a consistent language policy. This leaves room for speculation and interpretative assessments, especially outside the sphere of government influence. It may be up to everyone (or each community), at least as Hoffmann (1991) suggests, to choose the definition of bilingualism that best suits their purpose. This position appears to validate, or provide a rationale for, situations like the one experienced with Cameroon's official language policy, allowing for easy answers to large-scale unorthodox language management. From the government's point of view, language policy is limited to the use of English and French within government domains and formal transactions within private sector domains. This exclusive language management strategy has been summarily named official bilingualism.

Yet, it may not be viewed as a linguistic policy in the real sense of the term, as it lacks a clear-cut linguistic definition, description (Chumbow, 1980), nor a systematic framework for its implementation (Tadadjeu, 1983). Linguists argue that the lack of adequate linguistic description and a framework for action leaves the policy with little chance to develop as a true language policy and that it would not function within a sociolinguistic approach. However, the government's insistence that what is currently being pursued—i.e., the creation of bilingual schools and non-school language teaching centers—is a policy of bilingualism, raises the following question: To what extent may bilingualism be arbitrary and remain acceptable as a language policy?

Atechi (2015) notes that recently there has been a shift in Cameroon's language use and learning toward the dominant official language, French, contrary to what Ze Amvela's earlier study had indicated. Over the past fifteen years, there has been a shift toward English. Due to its opposition to the typical pattern, this phenomenon is intriguing. Presently, to what extent should language maintenance be considered a good index of consistent planning? If it should be represented in terms of a continuum, at what point would bilingualism yet still be multilingual Can African countries be said to operate a bilingual policy? If the policies are considered as they are, at what point may they become successful language policies? Finding answers to these questions may be difficult due to views which assert that evolving a language policy within the African context, without essential linguistic description as well as socio-economic planning, may be considered an instance of bad policy (Bangbose, 2000).

Yet, the lack of vibrant and strong economic situations in many African countries makes their imperfect language policies acceptable within the broader sociolinguistic context. These countries face material conditions that cannot be measured on the same scale as Western and other developed societies. In other words, what else could be expected from such non-industrialized countries if these policies were not considered qualified to be language policies within their local circumstances? (Wolf, 2001, p. 169). This is especially true if it is considered that the lack of consistent language planning or "lack of implementation of a national language policy at a particular time need not be considered as non-action" (Platt & Platt, 1975, p. 118). However, the example of 'non-action' in Cameroon's language policy is neither limited to a 'particular time' nor is there 'a national language policy' which is not being implemented (Ayafor, 2001b, p. 18). Kouga affirms that bilingualism in Cameroon had been established. According to him, after the First World War, Cameroon, a German colony, was divided into two separate territories, which were placed under the administration of the war victors, i.e., France and Britain. In 1960, French Cameroon obtained its independence and called itself the Republic of Cameroon. As the territory included hundreds of tribes speaking different languages, the first legislators of independent Cameroon decided to adopt French, the ex-colonial master's language, as its official language.

In 1961, part of British Cameroon, which had adopted English as its official language, obtained its independence by reuniting with the Republic of Cameroon. The country was renamed the Federal Republic of Cameroon, with French and English as its joint official languages. In 1972, the country's name was changed to the United Republic of Cameroon, still with French and English as its official languages. Additionally, it was pledged that bilingualism in these two languages would be promoted. Since then, several decisions—couched in the form of

ordinances, decrees, circulars, and service notes—have been taken by the state to ensure the spread of official bilingualism in the country

1.2 Motivations

This study was inspired by my personal experience and observations as someone who grew up in the Southwest region of Cameroon, where English is the main language. When I moved to French-speaking cities like Yaoundé and Douala, I noticed something interesting: some Anglophones who had lived in these French areas for a long time were using words in English that I had never heard before. Some of these words were directly borrowed from French, while others seemed to be new inventions—not fully French or English—but still understood by people who speak both languages.

Out of curiosity, I started visiting places like markets, mechanic workshops, barber shops, and construction sites to listen to how people communicated. I realized that many Anglophones had created new words to help them communicate better with their French-speaking customers. This caught my attention even more and made me want to understand why they used these words, how the words came about, and whether these words helped them in their daily interactions and businesses.

As I began reading more books, articles, and studies on how languages evolve and how bilingual people mix languages, I saw that this wasn't just a random occurrence—it was part of a bigger picture. I became more interested in finding out how French influences the way Anglophones speak English in these cities, how these new words are formed, and how this affects communication with other English speakers from fully English-speaking areas like Buea, Limbe, and Bamenda.

This also made me think: if someone who has lived in a French city for a long time moves back to an English-speaking area, will people there understand them? What about people who are displaced from English regions and are now settling in French cities—will they be able to adjust to this new way of speaking? These questions encouraged me to carry out this research. I wanted to better understand how the French language affects English among Anglophones living in French-speaking parts of Cameroon, especially in Yaoundé and Douala, and what this means for communication, business, and identity.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Since the unification of Cameroon, French has become the dominant language in the country. It is not only the official language in eight out of ten regions, but it is also widely spoken in major cities like Yaoundé and Douala. Because of job opportunities, education, and security concerns, many Anglophones from the Southwest and Northwest regions have moved to these predominantly French-speaking areas. As they settle in these Francophone cities, Anglophones are constantly exposed to French and must interact with French speakers in their daily lives and businesses. To ease communication, many of them begin using French words in their English or even create entirely new words that mix elements of both languages. Over time, this way of speaking becomes natural to them.

However, this newly adapted form of English often sounds strange or even confusing to Anglophones from fully English-speaking areas like Buea, Limbe, or Bamenda. It also becomes difficult for people from other English-speaking countries, such as Nigeria or Ghana, to understand them. In short, the English spoken by Anglophones in Francophone areas is changing and developing into something unique, largely influenced by French.

Previous studies have explored the influence of French on English in Cameroon (Atechi, 2015; Echu, 2011; Kouega, 2005; Sala, 2006; Simo Bobda, 1994). However, most of these works treat Anglophones as one homogeneous group and often focus on students or highly educated individuals. What is missing from the literature is an examination of how less educated Anglophone workers—like mechanics, traders, hairdressers, or builders—use language in their day-to-day interactions in Francophone regions. This study aims to fill that gap by focusing on how Anglophone professionals in Francophone cities creatively form new English words under the influence of French. It seeks to show that this growing vocabulary is not random but shaped by real communication needs and daily contact with French.

1.4 Aim of the Study

This study seeks to investigate, with empirical evidence, the assumption that most Anglophones in French-speaking regions of Cameroon who are involved in trading activities tend to create new lexes as a result of the influence of French on the English of Anglophones who have acquired a prolonged stay in the Francophone areas in which they live. Some of these lexical items are part of the CamE vocabulary, while the majority are in the passive vocabulary of these Anglophones.

1.5 Study Objectives

An interest in the experimental tendencies in word formation processes of the English language, and how prolonged interaction at close range can affect an individual, gave rise to the objectives of this study, which are:

- To identify the words created by Anglophones in Francophone Cameroon influenced by French.
- To investigate the regular usage of these words created by Anglophones in Francophone Cameroon, which have been influenced by French.
- To examine the word formation processes involved in each word created by Anglophones.
- To examine the most frequently used word formation process.

1.6 Research questions

The objectives listed above gave rise to the following research questions:

- What words do Anglophones living in Francophone Cameroon create?
- How often are these created vocabulary items used among Anglophones influenced by French in Francophone Cameroon?
- What word formation processes are involved in each word created by Anglophones influenced by French in Francophone Cameroon?
- “What is the most frequently used process among the given word formation methods?”

1.7 Hypotheses

This work is guided by the hypothetical assumption that Anglophones who have had a prolonged stay in Francophone Cameroon are so accustomed to their created vocabularies that they use them frequently in their everyday conversations and interactions. The mastery of these created lexes is due to the strong influence of French on English.

1.8 Significance of the Study

First, this research helps us understand what happens when two languages—French and English—come into contact in daily communication. It shows how speakers mix languages

and even create new words, especially in business and informal settings. This is important for linguists who study how languages change and influence each other over time.

Second, most studies on French influence in Cameroon English focus on students or highly educated people. This research looks at a group that has been mostly ignored: Anglophone workers and businesspeople in Francophone cities. By studying how they use language, the research gives a more complete picture of bilingualism in Cameroon.

Third, the study examines how people create new words using French and English elements. This helps linguists learn more about word formation processes like borrowing, code-mixing, and calquing, which are important topics in morphology and sociolinguistics.

In addition, Anglophones living in Francophone cities like Yaoundé and Douala are forming their own way of speaking English. This research shows how that community develops its own vocabulary influenced by French, which is useful for studying new varieties of English like Cameroon English.

Furthermore, the findings may help language planners and educators better understand how people actually use language in real life. This can support more effective bilingual education policies and training programs, especially for people who move between French- and English-speaking areas.

1.9 Scope of the study

The investigation of this study has been limited to four different sectors of work in Yaoundé and Douala, the Centre and Littoral regions of Cameroon, namely: a mechanic workshop, shops involved in the sale of spare parts for bikes, and construction sites. The choice of these business centers is influenced by the fact that they exhibit creative tendencies in the course of their day-to-day business transactions with customers, who are both English and French speakers and have lived in Yaoundé and/or Douala for a good number of years. These differences will be used as empirical evidence for their comparison. These businesses were also chosen in Yaoundé and Douala because they are the two major French-speaking cities in Cameroon. Additionally, Yaoundé, being the nation's capital, and Douala, the economic capital with an active business orientation, attract many Anglophones who live in these two major cities for better and more active business opportunities.

1.10 Definition of Key Concepts

1.10.1 Lexicon

In English Morphology, the lexicon refers to the complete set of words and word elements (like roots, prefixes, and suffixes) that a speaker knows and uses in a language. It is essentially the “mental dictionary” of a language. The lexicon serves as a fundamental resource for understanding and effectively using language. It refers to the vocabulary or collection of words and phrases within a particular language or domain. A lexicon encompasses the complete set of words, including their meanings, pronunciations, and often additional information such as part of speech and contextual usage. It is important to note that a lexicon is characterized by a wide range of words and their corresponding definitions, capturing both the literal and nuanced meanings of each term. Many lexicons also provide phonetic transcriptions or pronunciation guides to assist with correct pronunciation. Furthermore, the lexicon typically categorizes words according to their syntactic roles, identifying whether a word functions as a noun, verb, adjective, etc.

Trask (2007) explains that the lexicon includes both active vocabulary—words that a speaker uses regularly—and passive vocabulary—words that a speaker understands but does not commonly use. He states, “This may be active vocabulary: the words the user himself uses, and passive vocabulary: the words he understands but doesn’t use. In linguistics, we don’t speak of the vocabulary of a particular language; instead, we speak of the lexicon, the total store of words available to speakers” (Trask, 2007, p. 157). He further illustrates this point using the English verbs *varnish* and *scratch*, along with affixes such as *-able* and *un-*. Even if a listener has never encountered neologisms like *vanishable* or *uncatchable*, their meanings can often still be interpreted, thanks to an understanding of the lexicon and its components.

Similarly, Singleton (2016) describes the lexicon as the “building blocks” of language—its words and vocabulary. According to him, “most of us think of language in terms of words, and words are also integral to the way in which linguists approach language as an object of study” (Singleton, 2016). He emphasizes that lexical knowledge plays a critical role in every domain of linguistic inquiry and should be considered an essential component of language analysis.

1.10.1 Language contact

Language contact refers to the interaction and influence that occurs when two or more languages come into contact with each other. This can happen through various processes such as trade, colonization, immigration, and globalization. As a result of language contact, languages can borrow words, phrases, grammatical structures, and even entire linguistic features from one another.

Hans Vogt (2015) explores some causes of language contact, one of which is bilingualism. He identifies a speaker belonging to a linguistic community who speaks two languages. If an individual speaks language 'A' in certain situations and switches to language 'B' in interactions with 'B' speakers, they are said to be bilingual. Vogt further asserts that if the individual switches between these languages—from A to B and from B to A—this process is called code-switching. He insists that while this might not have much of an effect on the individual, in the case of many speakers, the effect is usually different. In typical cases, code-switching results in interference in both directions, from A to B and from B to A. In extreme cases, erratic code-switching may even lead to the creation of mixed languages. Vogt (2015) outlines several changes that are likely to occur due to frequent code-switching:

- The speech of the interferer is likely to undergo some changes.
- The linguistic system may need to be readjusted.
- Lexical borrowing or loanwords are likely to occur.
- The vocabulary of the speaker will obviously not be the same.

Linguists, according to Vogt (2015), are particularly interested when words from bilingual speakers enter the speech of monolinguals. When words are adopted into a language, they are likely to replace the native words of the language that adopts the new term. For example, two Nordic terms for kinship, *mdgr* and *sifjungr*, have replaced native words. Because of their different content, they have caused a complete reinvention through a trigger effect. Loanwords are also apt to affect the phonemic and morphemic system of the receiving language. Even if the phonemes involved are thoroughly assimilated through identification with native phonemes, the new words may introduce phoneme sequences that were previously unknown. For instance, the initial cluster *skl* was unknown in Danish until it was introduced with learned words such as *sklerose*. Its assimilation has occurred without much difficulty because the cluster conformed to existing patterns of initial clusters in Danish, essentially filling a gap in

the system. However, in other cases, such cluster patterns may be incompatible with existing patterns, as seen in the Norwegian words *psykologi* and *psykiatri*. In colloquial speech, it is often pronounced as *s-*. If the cluster *ps-* is retained due to external linguistic pressures, these loanwords remain as deviating units—tolerated but not fully integrated. If many such words are introduced into a language, the result is a split vocabulary, with members belonging to two (or more) different phonemic systems. This conclusion is significant because it implies that a phonemic system does not always need to include everything that occurs in speech, or that a phonemic system can sometimes be most conveniently described as the sum of all linguistic variations present in speech.

Code-switching and Code-mixing:

Examining the practice of alternating between two or more languages within a single conversation or sentence reveals how this practice reflects speaker identity and communication strategies.

Language contact situations: Analyzing the contexts in which languages come into contact, such as colonization, trade, migration, or globalization, and how these interactions shape linguistic diversity and change.

Language shift and maintenance: Investigating how languages may decline or be maintained within a community due to social, political, or economic factors influencing language use.

Peter (2020) explains that language contact is typically a result of social factors that enable, encourage, or force speakers of different languages to communicate with each other. The type and extent of linguistic contact are conditioned by these social factors (cultural, political, or economic superiority and power, etc.), as well as the language ideologies that accompany them. In addition, grammatical parameters (such as the linguistic resources available to the speakers, the degree of structural overlap between the grammars and vocabularies, and the amount of variation within the languages) impact the quantity and quality of language contact (see Thomason & Kaufman, 1988 for an initial overview). It is often overlooked that, in addition to these social and linguistic factors, the pragmatics of language use also play an important role. These topics will be discussed in detail later in this chapter. Before doing so, it is necessary to clarify both the concept of language contact and the role of pragmatics.

The idea of 'languages' being in 'contact' is part of the structural heritage of linguistics, even though the notion of *Sprachmischung* has nineteenth-century predecessors. In this tradition, research on language contact has focused on the outcomes of processes that cause (at least) one linguistic system to change under the influence of another, without examining the processes themselves (i.e., after the change was complete). The term language contact is shorthand for contact-induced language change. It is generally acknowledged today that language contact occurs in bilingual encounters (in the broadest sense of 'bilingual' and 'encounter,' which includes not only social encounters but also written communication), and it is in these contexts that any explanation must begin (cf. Matras, 2009). Therefore, there is a large overlap between research on language contact and research on bilingualism and second language acquisition.

Some researchers' definitions of language contact closely resemble definitions of bilingualism. For instance, Weinreich (1963) begins his ground-breaking work *Languages in Contact* by equating the two: "Two or more languages will be said to be in contact if they are used alternately by the same persons" (p. 1). Thomason (2001) echoes this definition, stating that language contact refers to "the use of more than one language in the same place at the same time" (p. 1). On the other hand, there is general agreement that even at the level of the speakers, language contact presupposes not only bilingual language use but also some form of (unidirectional or mutual) influence on the speakers' cognitive representations of their languages. One can, of course, question whether bilingualism can exist without such mutual influence between languages in the speakers' minds (and often also in their linguistic behavior). The normal and unmarked state for a bilingual is not monolingualism, but a bilingual mode in which both languages are activated (Grosjean, 2001). In this sense, bilingualism may always entail language contact in the individual. Nevertheless, there is a difference in analytical focus between studies of language contact and studies of bilingualism.

In a narrow sense, language contact requires, according to most researchers, that the unilateral or mutual influence of the two languages be more than momentary and occur in a similar manner across multiple individuals. It is necessary, therefore, to distinguish between the effects of two languages on the cognitive representation of these languages in individual speakers or on their behaviour, which may be idiosyncratic and fleeting, and the larger-scale impact of bilingual communicative contacts at the community level. For instance, second language acquisition typically passes through phases of interference with the first language.

However, such interferences usually disappear over time or remain idiosyncratic. In some cases, however, interference features fossilize and occur so systematically among a group of learners that a new variety emerges due to language contact. This new variety may even be passed down to the next generation. Another example is code-switching. Often, bilingual speakers switch between languages within a conversation or even within a sentence, without this behaviour leaving any trace in their mental representations of the two languages, let alone on the community level. In these instances, the act of switching occurs at the individual level, and no language contact (in the narrow sense) is involved (Petr Zima, 2007). The concept and terminology of 'languages in contact,' as developed by various structuralist schools since Weinreich's time, are undoubtedly a significant advance over the neogrammarian view of traditional comparative linguistics. By considering these preliminary distinctions, researchers can gain valuable insights into the dynamic processes of language contact and its impact on linguistic systems and speakers' identities.

1.10.3 Code-Switching:

Gumperz (1982) defines code-switching (CS) as the practice of alternating between two or more languages or dialects within a conversation, while code-mixing (CM) refers to switching that occurs within a sentence (Hoffmann, 1991, p. 104; Myers-Scotton, 1997; Selamat, 2014; Ariesta & Sutrisno, 2019; Wulnandari, 2020; Pratiwi, 2022; Ezemba, Chilozie, O. M. Ezemba, & Uwaezuoke, 2022). CS, on the other hand, refers to the mixing of words, phrases, and sentences from two or more distinct languages across sentence boundaries within the same speech event (Labov, 1972, p. 457; Hymes, 1974; Bokamba, 1989). Both intra-sentential and inter-sentential switches have been referred to as "CS" by various authors (Myers, 2008; Wardhaugh, 2010; Panhwar & Buriro, 2020; Otundo & Mühleisen, 2022).

Nformi (2013, p. 9), Masrudin, Nasriandi, Ermawati, and Al Hamdany (2022), as well as Fisher (1972), Myers-Scotton (1992), and Nformi (2013, p. 9), define CS as alternating between two languages within a single conversation, sentence, or constituent. According to Milroy and Muysken (1995), code-switching is the alternative use of two or more languages by multilingual people within discourse. Macswan (2000) notes that proficient bilinguals alternate between two or more languages in their speech patterns, which is a speech pattern known as code-switching. According to Obiamalu and Mbagwu (2016), code-switching in bilingual contexts occurs when speakers switch between languages in their linguistic

repertoire due to various social and linguistic reasons. Ahmad (2005) notes that code-switching can facilitate education in the classroom, as teachers do not need to spend as much time explaining concepts to students.

Code-switching often occurs when speakers find it difficult to communicate in one language, leading them to switch to another language to overcome communication barriers. Additionally, switching to a minority language is often used to show solidarity with a social group. When the listener responds in a similar manner, it indicates shared background and rapport between the speaker and listener.

The definition of code-switching (CS), or the employment of two or more languages in a single clause (Myers-Scotton, 2002), refers to the "juxtaposition of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems within the same exchange" (Gumperz, 1977, p. 1). Research on computer science has demonstrated—and this will be the topic of our discussion in this article—that computer science is far from random, and switches can have both pragmatic and social meanings (Myers-Scotton, 1993; Auer, 1995; Flamenbaum, 2014). One of the main characteristics of the linguistic environment in the majority of sub-Saharan multilingual African nations, including Kenya in East Africa and Cameroon in West Africa, is code-switching. These nations are distinguished by their extremely varied linguistic nature. According to Bullock and Toribio (2009), the three main strands of the study of computer science are structural, psycholinguistic, and socio-pragmatic. However, they note that "a full account of CS cannot be achieved without the integration of findings from each of these strands" (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 14). For the sake of this study, any thread that advances our knowledge of socio-pragmatic and structural CS in the context of the relationship-focused radio PiPs in Kenya and Cameroon is considered.

Two very distinct approaches to the categories of computer science identified by Blom and Gumperz (1972) are the foundation of this work. Situational code-switching arises when speakers use different languages depending on the social context in which they are speaking. According to this article, metaphorical code-switching also contains indicators of a topic shift or strong emotions expressed during a discussion. On the other hand, situational CS provides greater insight into the social context and purpose of a given language's use (Blom & Gumperz, 1972). Later, conversational code-switching was used to characterize both kinds of CS (Gumperz, 1982). The main objective of this research is to examine data and determine the kinds of situational and conversational CS used when discussing relationships on radio

PiPs in Kenya and Cameroon. This study also considers the Matrix Language Framework (Myers-Scotton, 2002), which postulates the existence of an embedded language (EL) in all insertional code-switching and a matrix language (ML) that dominates interaction.

Cross-linguistic Interference

Cross-linguistic influence (CLI) refers to the linguistic features from a speaker's native language (L1) that affect a target language (L2). This term was first coined in the mid-1980s by Sharwood Smith and Kellerman (1986) to include all concepts concerning the phenomena of language influence, such as 'transfer', 'interference', 'avoidance', 'borrowing', and L2-related aspects of language loss (Sharwood Smith & Kellerman, 1986, p. 1). Researchers studying cross-linguistic effects may use terms like language transfer, linguistic interference, the function of the mother tongue, native language influence, and language mixing to describe the phenomenon. Cross-linguistic influence and language transfer are used interchangeably in this chapter. Transfer can be understood (often) as the process of replicating and/or cloning an existing body of knowledge (e.g., L1) to establish a new body of information (e.g., L2). This interpretation stems from the "everyday" interpretation of transfer (e.g., "transferring water" is interpreted as moving water from one container to another container), as Sharwood Smith and Truscott (2006, 2014) have discussed. However, it has been modified because transfer in L2 learning cannot mean that L1 knowledge is simply replicated in L2.

1.10.4 New Englishes

The term "new Englishes" refers to the diverse forms of English that have emerged and evolved in various regions around the world, incorporating local languages, cultures, and expressions. Both Cameroonian and foreign authors have provided their own definitions and perspectives on new Englishes. To begin with, the term "new Englishes" (Pride, 1982; Weber, 1984) is mostly used to refer to institutionalized second-language varieties of English spoken around the world. Examples include Ghanaian English, Nigerian English, and Indian English. These varieties of English are considered part of Kachru's "Outer Circle" (Kachru, 1985). A near-synonymous term is "World Englishes" (Kachru, 1985), and given the spread of English, the term new Englishes may also include the varieties of English emerging in what Kachru (1985) calls the "Expanding Circle." Stanlaw (2004) identifies Japanese English as an example of English in the Expanding Circle. Wolf and Polzenhagen (2009) justify this

most exclusive view by noting that the border between the Outer and Expanding Circles is fuzzy and in motion.

Studies into the English spoken by non-native speakers have gained ground, partly because of the negative view held by many native English speakers toward these new varieties of English. In response, other scholars, particularly from non-native English-speaking countries, such as Kachru, McArthur, Schneider, and Todd, have sought to define these Englishes in a more positive light, rather than the clumsy way they were once portrayed. These scholars likely pondered questions such as: Who is the native speaker? Who owns the language? Who determines who is or is not a member of the speech community? Who determines what is right or wrong? Who knows the rules, and what are they? How do people bend the rules to make a word accepted into a language?

New Englishes have distinct structural features. Scholars have investigated these peculiarities. Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008), for example, define new Englishes in terms of morphological and syntactical peculiarities. They describe these various types of divergence from Standard English in the following ways:

- **Noun phrase:** The greater and lesser use of non-zero forms of articles, similar to English as a foreign language; number (plural marking); and gender (use of gender-specific pronouns and gender markers, such as "-ess").
- **Verb phrase:** Tense (unmarked tense); aspect, number (use of third-person singular "s"); modality; form of "be," "do," and novel verb forms.
- **Function words:** Prepositions, conjunctions, and wh-words.

The structural features of new Englishes have also been investigated in terms of lexis and phonology. Cameroonian scholars have defined it as a means to prove its autonomy. Kachru (1985) presents his view of new Englishes in terms of three concentric circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle, as shown in the figure below.

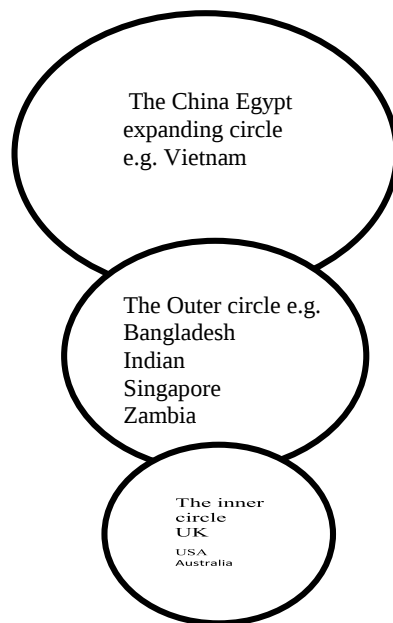


Figure 1: Kachru's Concentric Circles of English (copied from Kachru, 1990).

1.10.5 Bilingualism

Bilingualism in Cameroon refers to the official status of two languages, namely English and French, within the country's governance and educational systems. This policy was established to promote the equal usage and recognition of both languages in various sectors, including public administration, law, education, and media. Bilingualism in Cameroon acknowledges and embraces the cultural and linguistic diversity present in the country, facilitating communication and interaction between the Anglophone and Francophone populations. Many scholars affirm that Cameroon is a bilingual nation.

To begin with, Bernard Nsokika Fonlon defines bilingualism in Cameroon as the ability of individuals to use both English and French in all domains of public and private life. This definition emphasizes that bilingualism entails using both languages fluently and effectively in various spheres of society. Laura Barberan Reinares also suggests that bilingualism in Cameroon can be viewed as "the coexistence and interaction of two languages in the areas of politics, education, administration, and everyday life." This definition highlights the presence and influence of both English and French in various domains of Cameroon's society. Lastly, Edmond Biloa and George Echu see Cameroon as a linguistic melting pot, containing 250 languages from three of the four linguistic phyla attested on the continent. They further state that as a result of colonization, English and French are the official languages of Cameroon, and a policy of official bilingualism is enshrined in the state constitution. Consequently,

English and French are the languages of the state (i.e., all administrative documents must be written in either French or English, or both), business, public and private education, print media, radio and television, administration, internal communication, and all other sectors.

An overview of all definitions of bilingualism in Cameroon reveals that both languages are used in everyday conversation, education, media, legal proceedings, and official government documents. Individuals may switch between English and French depending on the context and environment.

1.10.6 Word Formation Processes

Word formation processes are the various methods by which new words are created or derived in a language. These processes can involve combining existing words, affixation (adding prefixes and suffixes), compounding, blending, conversion, and others. Cameroon is a linguistically diverse country with two official languages: English and French.

Ingo Plag (2003), in a handbook entitled *Word-Formation in English*, has the following objectives: the book aims to analyze the internal structure of complex words, define the rules and restrictions for generating new words in English, and establish how complex words in English are related to other words. Early in the book, it becomes evident that the mechanisms operating in the language regarding complex words are not always straightforward. There are various linguistic approaches to word formation, and certain issues remain disputable, with some phenomena still unaccounted for. The book consists of seven chapters, each taking a step further into the analysis of word formation, starting with definitions of basic notions (Chapter 1) and progressing to in-depth discussions of complex theoretical issues (Chapter 7). The book treats all the issues systematically and thoroughly, offering profound insights into the formation of words. The term *word formation* suggests the creation of words. Let us look at several words that fall within the domain of word formation and those that do not. Basic concepts include: (a) employee, (b) apartment building, (c) chair inventor, (d) greenhouse, (e) neighboring, (f) ability, (g) team manager, (h) matter, (i) meaningless, (j) truck driver, (k) brow, (l) suddenness, (m) blackboard, (n) great, (o) unhappy, (p) son-in-law, (q) promise, (r) decolonization, (s) pickpocket, (t) discuss. In columns, we find words that are composed by putting together smaller elements to form larger words with more complex meanings. We can say that we are dealing with morphologically complex words. For example, “employee” can be analyzed as being composed of the verb “employ” and the ending -ee; “unhappy” can be

derived from the adjective “happy” by the attachment of the element un-; and “decolonization” can be segmented into the smallest parts: de-, colony, -al, -ize, and -ation. We can thus decompose complex words into their smallest meaningful units.

Accordingly, this book makes significant use of modern developments in research methodology. For instance, in Chapter 3, the author introduces corpora—large representative collections of written and spoken text in electronic form. The British National Corpus is used to determine the productivity of the morphological category of affixes by detecting affixes in neologisms (e.g., *abusable*, *admissible*). In the same chapter, the author refers to using statistical data from CD-ROM versions of dictionaries (Oxford English Dictionary). By using this methodological tool, it is possible to determine when a certain word was first attested in a dictionary, which is useful for determining the productivity of certain morphological categories. In Chapter 4, there are thorough instructions on using computer programs for CD-ROM versions of dictionaries to extract the items relevant for the search. This book is therefore an excellent example of a comprehensive and highly systematic textbook on word formation in the English language.

Word formation processes in English have been studied by Ismayoeng, and Gusdian (2016) in the context of new words in the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) online. The study aimed to examine the process of word formation in new English words and to identify the most productive word formation processes. The researchers used a qualitative research design to obtain data from the OED online document, which lists new English words from 2012 to 2016. Document analysis was used as the instrument to collect the data, and the findings were presented in tabular form.

The findings of this study showed that several processes create new words in English, such as: (a) affixation, (b) folk etymology, (c) compounding, (d) abbreviation, (e) acronyms, (f) borrowing, (g) blending, (h) clipping, and (i) back-formation. Furthermore, the study identified double word formation processes, such as: (j) folk etymology + compounding, (k) compounding + affixation, (m) blending + affixation, and (n) clipping + blending. The most productive process for creating new words was affixation, with 239 new words created by this process. This supports Harley’s (2006) statement that affixation is one of the primary methods for new words to enter the language. The findings also revealed that the back-formation process was unproductive, as only one example of back-formation was found

between 2012 and 2016. This aligns with Aronoff's (2011) claim that back-formation is not a productive word formation process.

1.10.7 Morphology in English:

Morphology is a branch of linguistics that studies the form-meaning relationships between the subparts of composite words in the lexicon. It aims to show how the subparts are integrated and how the resulting formations are interpreted. A composite word consists of two or more subparts, one of which imposes its profile on the entire structure. The description of a composite word involves two aspects. One is substance, which consists of two components: form (the phonological representation) and meaning (the semantic content). The form serves to express meaning. The other aspect is use, which refers to the purpose for or the way in which a composite word is employed. The use of a composite word is determined by how the language user construes a situation, which differs relative to the demands of discourse. The substance of a composite word is activated as a response to language use.

Hamawand (2011) examines *Word Formation in Cognitive Grammar* in his work. Word formation studies the creation of new words and the principles involved in doing so. It involves different processes that are used to build new lexical items from existing ones. Each word-formation process results in the production of a specific type of word. Word formation is a crucial tool in the hands of speakers because it helps them create words that symbolize the experiences they encounter in the world. Each word reflects a special conceptualization, which, in turn, represents a different mental experience. In this way, morphology is concerned primarily with the processes of forming words—how words are formed from smaller units and how these smaller units interact in speech. In the process of forming words, two major processes take place: derivation and compounding. These two processes of word formation will be the core of the remainder of the present discussion. These two powerful processes of forming words are referred to as concatenation, the mechanism of building words by the linear addition of morphemes.

1.10.8. The concept of Anglophones

Modjo (2020) in her article titled *Linguistically Redefining the Concept of Anglophone in the 21st Century in Cameroon* defines an Anglophone geographically, politically, and linguistically. The term *Anglophone* can be defined politically, geographically, and linguistically. For some, the term Anglophone subsumes a certain culture. This is likely

because an Anglophone country is one where the main language of education is English, and it was colonized by Britain. Thus, Anglophones are representatives of whole linguistic communities. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (2019), an Anglophone simply refers to "an English-speaking person." However, one cannot normally "learn" their way into this category; one must be born into it. In Canada, *Anglophone* is commonly used in areas where French is spoken to refer to the English-speaking population. Similarly, *Francophone* is used in English-speaking areas to refer to the French-speaking population. *Francophone* is also used in French-speaking areas to refer to French speakers. The Oxford English Dictionary defines *Anglophone* simply as "an English-speaking person," while the *Companion English Dictionary* (2015) defines it as "a person who speaks English, especially in countries where other languages are also spoken, such as Kenya and Zimbabwe."

Regarding linguistic regions, geographically, there are ten regions in Cameroon: eight Francophone regions and two Anglophone ones. The English-speaking communities are characterized by the predominance of their children. Modjo suggests intensive English instruction starting from primary school, with a focus on oral work and activities. In primary school, the second official language could be introduced from the very first year of training. Thus, in the long run, the second official language would be intensified with a focus on listening. In this way, the syllabus could be structured so that 25 to 30 percent of the weekly load could be devoted to the second official language in the 5th and 6th years of education. During lessons, vertical discussions between the teacher and pupils, as well as horizontal discussions among students, would be emphasized. If such an initiative is implemented, it would be possible for students to have a solid foundation by the end of primary education, enabling them to continue lessons in the second official language once in secondary school.

Modjo further highlights that it is important to note that the large number of Francophone children enrolled in Anglophone schools is a consequence of the failure of a balanced bilingual education system. His findings reveal that Francophone learners show significant enthusiasm for learning English, largely driven by personal initiative. They appear to have understood the importance of English in the era of globalization. Although it is the parents who decide to send their children to Anglophone schools, these parents are not reluctant to have their children study in the Anglophone educational system. The number of Francophones in Anglophone schools continues to increase at an exponential rate. Francophone parents are generally satisfied with the overall performance of their children.

Joseph (2020), in his article titled *The Anglophone Cultural Identity in Cameroon 50 Years after Re-Unification*, states that upon analyzing data from primary and secondary sources, it is evident that while Anglophones are emotionally connected to their cultural identity and geographic location, political divisions, the "Anglophonization" of Francophones, and the "Francophonization" of the Anglophone educational system pose a serious threat to their cultural identity. Thus, the term "Anglophone" is becoming increasingly confusing, particularly in the current context of Cameroon, as it is increasingly used as an international term.

Nkwi (2004) defines an Anglophone as "an indigene in Cameroon whose first foreign and European culture is Anglo-Saxon and whose first problem is that of identity within a cultural milieu which is 85 percent Gaullic (Francophone). The second problem is that of language, and the third is equal opportunities with his/her fellow Francophone counterpart." This definition is somewhat misleading, as it confines the Anglophone to their linguistic identity, focusing only on Anglophones of French Cameroonian ancestry who migrated and settled permanently in the British-administered Southern Cameroons prior to independence. It also includes the "new Anglophones or Anglophones with ethnic roots and ancestral homes in Francophone Cameroon.

Ndobegang (2009) states that an Anglophone in Cameroon is specifically someone whose ancestry is Southern Cameroonian. This definition goes beyond merely being someone who speaks English, someone whose parents were from the former British Southern Cameroons, or someone who has absorbed Anglophone education or culture. According to Bobda (2001), the term "Anglophone," as it is used in Cameroon, is mostly associated with ethnicity and has very little to do with linguistic proficiency. In the Cameroonian context, one does not need to speak a word of English to be considered Anglophone. Since the term "Anglophone" in Cameroon refers more to ethnicity, culture, and geography than language, this meaning is more pertinent. Therefore, in this study, Cameroonians with Anglophone roots are people whose ethnic backgrounds and ancestral origins are connected to the Anglophone regions of Cameroon, within the broader African context concerning Anglophones and Francophones. Unfortunately, they still face some challenges, such as socio-economic integration due to the gap between education and the world of work. Indeed, the educational system in the French-speaking countries of West Africa is mostly based on theory, whereas the Anglophone model promotes key cultural values such as an entrepreneurial mindset, pragmatism, and a fighting spirit—values that are advantageous for any developmental process.

1.10.9 The Concept of Francophone

In Cameroon, the term “Francophone” doesn’t only mean someone who speaks French. Different Cameroonian linguists explain it in various ways that go beyond language and touch on identity and culture. Nfah (2006) defines “Francophone” as a term that refers to individuals, communities, or countries that use French as their primary language of communication, education, and culture. Specifically, in the case of Cameroon, being Francophone means being part of the linguistic and cultural sphere influenced by French colonial heritage and continuing to engage with French language and culture in various aspects of life. According to Dissaké and Koumassol (2024), the labels “Francophone” and “Anglophone” “no longer neatly describe who speaks what in Cameroon.” They explain that because people move around and cultures mix, it’s becoming harder to put people in just one box based on the language they speak. These names now oversimplify what is really happening with languages in the country.

Anchimbe (2005) adds that being called a Francophone in Cameroon “is not just about language use, but tied deeply to cultural identity and group boundaries.” In other words, it’s more than just speaking French—it’s about being part of a community, sharing values, traditions, and a certain way of life. In everyday use, a Francophone is generally someone who comes from the eight regions where French is mostly spoken (the Centre, Littoral, East, West, North, Far North, Adamawa, and South). But many people in these areas also speak other languages, and some Anglophones live there too, which makes things more complex.

In Cameroon, a Francophone is not just someone who speaks French, but someone whose life, culture, and surroundings are influenced by French-speaking communities. As the country becomes more mixed, the old labels of “Francophone” and “Anglophone” are becoming less accurate. Today, being Francophone is as much about identity and belonging as it is about language.

1.11 Structure of the Work

This dissertation is organised into five chapters, each addressing a specific aspect of the research. Chapter One offers a general introduction to the study. It presents the background, research aims, scope, motivation, problem statement, objectives, significance, key concepts, and the overall organization of the dissertation. Chapter Two is divided into two main sections. The first section outlines the theoretical framework, including the foundations of the

theory, its historical development, and its relevance to the present study. The second section provides a review of related literature, highlighting previous research on the influence of French on English, particularly how continuous interaction between Anglophones and Francophones leads to the creation of new lexical items. It also examines the reciprocal influence among French, English, and Pidgin English. Chapter Three details the methodology used in the study. It describes the research design, data collection procedures, target population, data sources, and methods of data analysis. Chapter Four focuses on data presentation and analysis. It demonstrates how various sectors and business environments generate new terms to enhance communication, particularly in facilitating transactions such as buying and selling. Chapter Five presents a summary of findings, policy recommendations, and overall conclusions. It also offers suggestions for future research. The dissertation concludes with a list of references and appendices.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAME WORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter focuses on two aspects, a thorough discussion on the theoretical frame work on which the present study anchors and a thematic review of literature. In this chapter, Anglophones living in some French areas tends to always create words, thus visiting and addressing historical backgrounds will go long way to aid the understanding of this study. The theory used in this work is the cross linguistics interference theory, below are some analyses regarding the theory and how it helps in the creation of new words.

2.1. An overview of the cross linguistic theory

Yudi Chen (2022) defines **cross-linguistic influence (CLI)** as the term used to describe how someone's proficiency in one language affects their proficiency in another. Concepts like "transfer," "interference," "avoidance," "borrowing," and L2-related features of language loss can all be categorized under this heading. The terms "cross-linguistic influence" and "language transfer" are frequently used synonymously by scholars. According to a definition of transfer provided by Odlin (1989), it is the effect that results from the distinctions and similarities between two languages—the target language and the language the learner has previously learned. While 'transfer' is an ill-defined term, for the sake of this essay, the two terms will be treated as having the same meaning.

Koptleuova, K., Khairzhanova, A., Jumagaliyeva, U., Baiseuova, G., & Kurmangalieva, A. (2022) discuss the scientific works of the Prague Linguistic Circle, which introduced the term "interference." However, the concept became more widely used after the publication of Weinreich's book *Language Contacts*, which was the first publication of the New York Linguistic Circle (Llama, Cardoso, & Collins, 2010). Interference occurs when bilingual speech in L2 deviates from the norm due to the influence of L1. Intercalation is the term used to describe situations where a bilingual's native language deviates from the norm because of L2 influence (George-Hyslop et al., 1990; Zakir'yanov & Khamzin, 2011). The primary causes of intercalation are not structural differences between the contacting languages, conceptual patterns of inter-lingual identification, inadequate L2 proficiency, or insufficient L2 speaking experience, all of which are distinctive factors.

The process of slowly incorporating one or more foreign language elements into the system of the perceiving language is known as diffusion in linguistics (Odone et al., 2015). This

process consists of two stages: 1) interference and 2) integration. In the first stage, the bilingual perceives the linguistic change as a deviation from the norm; in the future, it may or may not become the norm. If it does become the norm, it enters the integration stage and becomes an integral part of the borrowing language (Chung, Chen, & Geva, 2019). This process is referred to as interference.

Kevin McManus (2021) explains that in addition to the labels “prior language knowledge” and “experience,” the term **transfer** is commonly used in discussions and explanations of L2 learning. Scholars familiar with Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research will recognize that transfer is often used to describe and/or explain L2 performance that appears to be influenced by, draws on, or utilizes prior language knowledge (e.g., L1) in the learning and use of a new language. Odlin (1989) defines transfer as follows:

“Transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (Odlin, 1989, p. 27).

In this definition, Odlin sees transfer as an outcome or result of the linguistic differences and similarities among a speaker’s languages (see also Anderson, 1983; Kellerman, 1995). Indeed, reviews of the field have shown that this conceptualization has been influential in thinking about transfer (see Gass et al., 2020), leading to the development of methodological frameworks for identifying instances of transfer (e.g., Jarvis, 2000, 2010). However, very little is known about what transfer actually is (e.g., Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008; Odlin & Yu, 2016; Sharwood Smith & Truscott, 2006, 2014). This lack of clarity poses a problem for SLA research, especially since transfer is a common explanation for L2 learning. One issue with the current understanding is that although we can identify instances of transfer, we do not fully understand what triggers or leads to it.

One (common) interpretation of transfer is that it involves copying or cloning one body of knowledge (e.g., L1) to create a new body of knowledge (e.g., L2). This interpretation, as discussed by Smith and Truscott (2006, 2014), is rooted in the “everyday” understanding of transfer (e.g., “transferring water” is interpreted as moving water from one container to another). However, this interpretation is modified in the context of SLA, because transfer in L2 learning cannot mean that L1 knowledge is moved to a different place. The essential problem is that L1 elements that are “transferred” do not leave the L1 system and impoverish it. Thus, the closest we can get to this conceptualization is to say that “transferring”

something means “copying” or “cloning” it, leaving the original intact. Smith and Truscott (2006) argue that by interpreting transfer as copying L1 knowledge, we allow the L1 system to stay intact while L2 knowledge (i.e., a copy of L1 knowledge) is modified through exposure to L2 input (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994, 1996, 2020). In this view, negative transfer is explained as L2 knowledge that has not yet been fully modified. Even if we accept this conceptualization of transfer as a process of copying and restructuring, many questions remain: How is transfer triggered? Do changes to transferred knowledge also affect the source language (e.g., L1)? Could there be some type of exposure threshold or processing difficulty that triggers transfer? Does the copy-and-restructure conceptualization imply that L1 knowledge is separate from L2 knowledge?

In conclusion, given that transfer is a commonly used label in descriptions and explanations of L2 learning, it is problematic that we do not fully understand it. There are various concepts and factors that arise when languages interact or "interfere" with each other. Some important concepts include the preliminaries of the theory, the historical background of the theory, the effects of the theory, and the implications of the theory. The principles and mechanisms involved in language contact and their interaction remain difficult to capture.

2.1.1 The preliminary consideration of the theory

The preliminaries of cross-linguistic interference theory typically involve understanding the fundamental concepts and factors at play when languages interfere with each other. Some key preliminaries may include:

2.1.2 Bilingualism and multilingualism

Bilingualism and multilingualism: exploring how individuals navigate multiple languages in their everyday lives and the implications of being bilingual Lisa Hsin, Géraldine Legendre, and Akira Omaki (2013) The ability to speak two languages is a prerequisite for being bilingual, but the mental organization of those languages is far from obvious. The idea that there should be two distinct grammars, one for each language, is one theory regarding bilingual grammatical architecture (Genesee, Nicoladis, & Paradis, 1995; De Houwer, 2005). Another theory holds that there should only be one grammar, some of which is used by one language alone but much of which overlaps (known as "shared-syntax"; Hartsuiker, Pickering, & Veltkamp, 2004). Although each language might theoretically be represented in

a separate, isolated module, some elements of multilingual language use imply that there is at least some grammatical overlap between the languages.

2.1.3 Language overlapping

Language overlapping; in the context of cross-linguistic influence (CLI) in language learning, overlapping refers to the phenomenon where elements or features from one language influence the acquisition or production of another language. This influence can manifest in various ways, such as similarities in pronunciation, grammar structures, vocabulary usage, or even cognitive strategies employed during language processing.

When scholars discuss overlapping in CLI, they are referring to instances where there is a clear transfer of linguistic knowledge or skills from one language to another. This transfer can be observed when learners apply rules or patterns from their native language to the target language, leading to similarities or interference in linguistic behavior. Overlapping in CLI can occur at different levels of language processing, including phonological (sound system), morph syntactic (grammar rules), lexical (vocabulary), and pragmatic (language use in context). It is a complex phenomenon that reflects the interconnected nature of languages in bilingual or multilingual individuals.

Researchers studying CLI often analyze overlapping effects to understand how learners navigate between multiple languages and how these interactions shape their linguistic development. By examining instances of overlapping, scholars gain insights into the cognitive mechanisms involved in language transfer and the factors influencing cross-linguistic interactions during second language acquisition. Overlapping in CLI highlights the intricate relationship between languages and underscores the dynamic nature of bilingualism and language learning processes. Lockary and Higby(2023) says Bilinguals are believed to have a single conceptual-semantic system with ties to lexical representations in both languages, despite having two or more distinct lexicons. Several prominent models of bilinguals' lexical architecture include an integrated lexicon, shared semantic representations (Dijkstra et al., 2019; Kroll & Stewart, 1994), and methods of categorizing lexical representations according to language membership (Dijkstra & van Heuven, 2002; Green, 1998). Words that are synonymous—like bicycle and bicycle in Spanish and English—have the most cross-linguistic overlap. Not only do their meanings mostly overlap, but they also, to varying degrees, share orthographic and/or phono-logical forms. According to certain studies, cognates could have distinct lexical representations.

2.1.4 Overproduction

Overproduction; In the context of cross linguistic influence (CLI), overproduction refers to a phenomenon where a bilingual individual, influenced by the structures or rules of one language, produces more linguistic elements than necessary or typical in another language they are proficient in. This can occur when features from one language are transferred to the other, leading to an excess or incorrect use of linguistic elements. Che(2022) sees overproduction as a sign that an L2 learner uses the language more frequently than native speakers to construct certain structures.

Turco's research revealed that L1 French speakers overproduced presentational structures when learning L2 Italian because they preferred the relative *esserci* + subject + [che] structure, which is a more complex structure. She notes that advanced French-speaking students may do this for two reasons: first, the same kind of structure (*il y a* + subject + [qui]) in their L1 may make it easier for them to learn; second, they may view these structures as "lifebuoys" (the author's original term is "*bouée de sauvetage*") because they make it easier for them to complete a variety of sp. Piwo(2023). The overuse of certain grammatical forms in L2 acquisition is often results from processes in intermediate Languages, e.g., over-generalizing. Below are some illustrations. Example: When we go to the school, it is to become perfect in French and English. (Overuse of the definite article "the" the correct form is: When we go to school, it is to become perfect in French and English.) In this example, the article "**the**" is overused in the construction of the sentence. The informant translated the expression *aller à l'école* in a case where there should be zero article in English. The article here should be omitted as the informant is not talking about a specific school. eaking-phase communicative tasks. Negative transfer: Negative transfer, also known as interference, refers to the phenomenon where elements from a speaker's native language (L1) negatively impact their production in a second language (L2). This can lead to errors or inaccuracies in the target language due to differences between the two languages. Scholars have extensively studied negative transfer in cross-linguistic influence to understand how linguistic features from the L1 can hinder language acquisition and production in the L2.

2.1.5 Negative transfer

Negative transfer occurs when speakers apply rules, structures, or patterns from their native language incorrectly in the second language. This can result in grammatical errors, incorrect word usage, or pronunciation issues that stem from the influence of the first language on the second language learning process. In bilingual and multilingual contexts, negative transfer is a common challenge faced by learners as they navigate between multiple languages. It is particularly prevalent during early stages of language acquisition when learners rely heavily on their existing linguistic knowledge from their L1 while trying to master a new language.

Scholars emphasize the importance of recognizing and addressing negative transfer in language learning and teaching to help learners overcome these obstacles and achieve greater proficiency in the target language. By understanding how negative transfer manifests and identifying its sources, educators can develop strategies to mitigate its effects and support more effective second language acquisition.

“Contrastive Analysis” by *Robert Lado*: This seminal work from 1957 explores cross-linguistic influences and discusses negative transfer as a key concept in second language learning. Also “Language Transfer in Language Learning” by *Susan M. Gass* and *Larry Selinker*: This book provides insights into various aspects of language transfer, including negative transfer, based on empirical research and theoretical frameworks.

“Cross-Linguistic Influence in Language Learning,” edited by Scott Jarvis: A comprehensive collection of essays that delves into cross-linguistic influence phenomena such as negative transfer across different languages and learner populations.

Yudi Che (2022) Language disparities are the primary cause of many errors, however the errors tend to change in different ways depending on the learner's level of proficiency.

When learning L2 English, an L1 Spanish speaker who uses the infinitive after a modal verb to say, "She can't understand," is an example of negative transfer [7]. Another instance of negative transfer occurs when an L1 Italian speaker forms English sentences such as "The bird is blue, is small, sings beautifully." This error typically occurs in the early stages of language acquisition because learners tend to apply the same rule to their L2 because Italian is a null-subject language while English is not. As the student's L2 becomes better over time, these kinds of mistakes decrease. In addition to documenting cross linguistic differences/similarities in usage and their impact on L2 learning, we also want to understand why prior knowledge and experience has the effect that it apparently does. For example, even though there is research evidence that the negative effects of cross linguistic influence can be

fleeting in some cases but longer lasting in others, few accounts of L2 learning agree on explanations for these findings (*Lardiere, 2009; MacWhinney, 2005; O'Grady, 2015*). Frequency and exposure to language input can go a long way to explaining some of these findings, but frequency-based explanations by themselves are not sufficient (see *Divjak, 2019; Ellis, 2006a*). Accounts that attribute additional roles to how speakers use and process the input provide increasingly robust insights into how L2 learning unfolds (e.g. *Ellis & Sagarra, 2010, 2011*). Indeed, this makes good sense not only because adults bring powerful sets of cognitive learning mechanisms to the task of constructing language knowledge (categorization, chunking, rich memory storage, analogy; see *Bybee, 2010; Ellis & Robinson, 2008*), but also because these learning mechanisms have already been committed to the task of efficient and effective L1 use. This means that L2 speakers begin learning a new language with cognitive mechanisms that have been optimized for processing and using a different language. How speakers attend to and process new linguistic input is therefore influenced by prior experience. This is one reason for why some of the negative effects of cross linguistic influence can be fleeting in some cases but more persistent in others. It all depends on what experience learners bring to L2 learning. As a consequence, advancing multifactor accounts of learning that are both sensitive to the input and how prior experience biases processing are critical for understanding cross linguistic influence and learning more generally. Examining the practice of alternating between two or more languages within a single conversation or sentence, and how this reflects speaker identity and communication strategies.

2.1.6 Positive Transfer

Positive transfer in cross-linguistic influence refers to the beneficial impact that knowledge or skills from one language have on the learning or use of another language. It occurs when similarities between languages facilitate language learning and lead to correct language production. This phenomenon is often discussed in the context of bilingual or multilingual speakers who transfer linguistic features across both languages during acquisition. Positive transfer is characterized by the application of previously acquired knowledge or skills from one language (L1) to another language (L2). When a bilingual individual's first language shares similarities with the second language being learned, positive transfer can enhance the learner's ability to comprehend and produce correct linguistic structures in the target language.

In the field of second language acquisition, positive transfer is seen as a valuable mechanism that aids learners in making connections between their native language and the target language. It can manifest in various ways, such as facilitating vocabulary acquisition, understanding grammar rules, or even influencing pronunciation accuracy.

Scholars have highlighted positive transfer as a crucial aspect of successful language learning, particularly for bilingual children and adult learners. Recognizing and leveraging positive transfer can accelerate the process of acquiring a new language and contribute to achieving native-like proficiency levels.

Positive transfer plays a significant role in cross-linguistic influence by enabling learners to build upon their existing linguistic knowledge and skills to enhance their proficiency in a second language. When determining early on whether a transfer is "positive" or "negative," language distance is a factor. The separation between a person's L1 and L2 is important because it allows us to see how L1 influences L2 in relation to their similarities and differences. A second language that is related to one's first language (L1) is more likely to be picked up better and quickly. When studying the present tense of L2 French, for example, a Spanish speaker (L1) and a Chinese speaker (L1) will find that the Spanish speaker understands the need for and method of verb conjugation and is prepared to commit the rules to memory. The effects of prior knowledge and experience on L2 learning can be positive (or facilitative) when the patterns of language use are similar across languages, such as when languages share sets of meanings/concepts (e.g., time, aspect) and/or express the same meanings/concepts using similar means (e.g., expressing differences in time with verbal inflectional morphology, as in English and German, see *Comrie, 1985*).

SLA research has indeed shown this to be the case: L2 learning can be easier when L1 and L2 express the same concepts using similar linguistic means (*Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008; Odlin, 1989*). On the other hand, prior knowledge and experience can complicate L2 learning when languages differ in specific ways, including when shared concepts are expressed differently. For example, even though English and Mandarin Chinese share understandings of the concept of time, these languages do not express time in the same ways (*Klein, 1994; Klein et al., 2000*). For example, English can express temporal reference using verbal morphology (e.g., she is watching TV vs. she watched TV), but Chinese uses other means such as temporal particles (e.g., le, zhe, guo), discourse principles, and lexical means. For the Chinese-speaking learner of English, therefore, even though it is helpful that L1 and L2 share a conceptual understanding of time (thus not requiring new conceptual learning), the Chinese

speaker's prior L1 knowledge and experience for how to express time is less helpful. The Chinese speaker has to learn new and different ways for expressing this concept in L2 (i.e., that inflectional morphology on English verbs can provide information about time). L2 research has repeatedly shown that L2 learning can be more difficult when L1 and L2 express the same meanings/concepts differently (*Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008; Odlin, 1989*).

2.1.7 Avoidance

Piewo (2023) Says Avoidance occurs when there is evidence that L1 speakers consciously avoid the use of some words or language structure in L2. This leads to omitting some necessary language items, as seen in the informants' scripts. The following sentence is an example: Another thing I will like do is go to England. I meet British people. (Omission of prepositions and conjunction.) It should read: Another thing that I would like to do is to go to England and to meet British people). Here, the student missed out the preposition to and the conjunction and. He used his knowledge of French to understand and translate the sentence in English. The student translated the French expression "j'aimerais faire" by 'will like do'. Avoidance (underproduction) *Yudi Che(2022)* It's also true that there are other explanations for CLI besides mistakes. Two other events serve as examples of how SLA transfers negatively.

Avoidance, or underproduction, is the first. L2 learners typically avoid utilizing unfamiliar linguistic structures and adhere to forms they have learned or are more comfortable with when they are unfamiliar with them and do not want to make mistakes. For example, when speaking the target language, native Italian speakers who are proficient in elementary or intermediate L2 Chinese tend to avoid using Chinese classifiers. For example, the character *zhāng*, which originally meant "to span," is used as a classifier to indicate flat objects like paper in expressions like "a sheet. There are various ways to illustrate the underproduction: 1) Absence of a crucial and particular component of L2 knowledge, but understanding of its purpose through L1, 2) Students are aware of the precise structure, but their limited language skills make it impossible for them to employ; 3) Students are able to generate the right structure, but they are unwilling to apply it for a particular reason. For those who are just beginning to understand L2, CLI appears to provide a rough indication of what can be produced. But the drawbacks of excessive CLI will make students feel as though they don't know enough English, particularly in a conversational setting, and it could eventually become a barrier.

2.1.8 The evolution of linguistic interference

Despite leading a very brief life, Weinreich had a significant impact on numerous linguistics topics. His writings are still cited by academics from many nations and disciplines decades later. He is most known in the field of linguistics for his studies on language contact and his support of what he called "secular linguistics" (University of Vilnius, 2021). The world is aware of Uriel Weinreich's (1926–1967) legacy in linguistics, particularly in the field of sociolinguistics, which is the empirical, quantitative study of living language within its entire social, cultural, and political context (Kim, 2011). He believed that such research was the only way to gain a deeper understanding of the mechanics and causes of language change.

Weinreich's work established the groundwork and provided motivation for further sociolinguistic research. It essentially created new perspectives and horizons in the field. Ronald Kim (2011) writes in his paper *Uriel Weinreich and the Development of Modern Contact Linguistics* that the majority of linguists studying multilingualism and linguistic contact concur that Weinreich's seminal monograph *Languages in Contact* set forth the basic ideas and research directions. Some of the concepts discussed in the book have become so commonplace that it can occasionally be difficult to accept that they were not recognized and considered not too long ago. Kim (2011) also notes that it is easy to forget that this was not always the prevailing view in the middle of the 20th century, given how evident it is now that social variables influence, if not predominate, the outcomes of linguistic exposure. More than any other single researcher, Weinreich was able to successfully demonstrate that one must always consider "the social life of language" and that the linguistic results of contact between two or more languages cannot be inferred from a comparison of their structures alone. Rather, they must be understood within the full context of their speakers' lives, social behavior, and interaction (Kim, 2011).

Similar to *Weinreich*, *Yuriy Zheluktenko* had a significant impact on the growth of numerous fields of linguistics in Ukraine. It is not unexpected that he translated Weinreich's groundbreaking book for Soviet readers, as he was a pioneer in language contact research in both the Soviet Union and Ukraine. Prof. Zheluktenko also put together the bibliography. *Professor Yartseva* wrote the introduction for *Languages in Contact's* Russian version. She describes the book as having retained its usefulness even after more than 20 years of publication, even though Weinreich's monograph contained certain contentious ideas that Soviet experts did not agree with because of methodological disagreements. Young linguists, postgraduate students, and undergraduates may find Weinreich's study to be a useful guide due to the presentation of

various viewpoints and extensive references. Many of the issues Weinreich raised were expounded upon in the USSR. It makes sense that the author was unable to consider them all.

As a result, Zhluktenko included a bibliography list to help the reader assess how Soviet linguistics contributed to the study of language connections (*Vaynraykh, 1979, p. 16*). One could identify a few points that collectively provide an overview of the Russian translation of *Languages in Contact*. The fact that Weinreich left the Mordvinov book in the reference list, however, deceives the reader into believing that Weinreich agrees with the researcher's conclusions rather than disagrees with them. In the subsection "4.41 Sources of Language Loyalty," there is an additional example: A name is needed in the sociolinguistic study of language interaction to characterise a phenomenon that roughly correlates with language, just as nationalism does with nationality. For this reason, the phrase "language loyalty" has been suggested. Language loyalty, like nationalism, would denote the mind-set in which the language, like nationality, as an intact entity and in contrast to other languages, assumes a high position in a scale of values, a position in need of being "defended." Languages can be thought of as a set of behaviour norms. Language loyalty can be a "idée-force which fills man's brain and heart with new thoughts and sentiments and drives him to translate his consciousness into deeds of organised action," much like nationalism can. It results in an endeavour to preserve the endangered language in reaction to an approaching linguistic shift (§4.7). (*Page 99 of Weinreich 1967*) This passage's translation is somewhat shorter, and it omits a key element of linguistic faithfulness. As a result, the reader is given a distorted or even false impression of the sociolinguistic concept that was described. The following example provides an additional passage from the original text that was not translated: German academics during the Hitler era, who were focused on the assimilation and "transethnization" (*Umvolkung*) of *Volksdeutsche* (ethnic Germans), showed the most active interest in this topic.

The "psychological compartment of the bi- or multilingual in relation to the problem of ethnic politics and of ethnic and cultural biology, such as "deethnization" [*Entvolkung*], intermarriage, etc.," was, in their opinion, the central question for research on bilingualism. However, this school of thought's publications are more schematic work plans than descriptions, much alone experimental descriptions. *Schmidt-Rohr* addresses the rational relationship between bilingualism and ethnic change in (491, 493, and 490, 178–92). The psychological elements of ethnic transitions are examined by Beyer (43), Beck (36), and *Meiching* (349); *Loesch* lists among his study problems the *Vasterling* (590) talks about how

teenagers are becoming less ethnic; Geissler, based on his findings in Yugoslavia, develops a multi-step assimilation plan (163, 97 ff.). More cautious than the others, Kroh (288) states that before broad principles can be developed, "a large number of detailed studies will be necessary" because the relationship between bilingualism and "transethnization" "follows no fast rules, and differs so widely with the structure of the personality or the ethnic group" (Weinreich, 1967, pp. 117–118). According to Sherry (2015b, p. 76), there are undoubtedly numerous places in these works where censoring is used to prevent the "infectious" insertion of forbidden material—even in cases when the author is expressly warned against doing so in the original edition.

Published online by *Cambridge University Press*: 01 April 1999 The history of cross linguistic influence delves into how languages impact each other within bilingual individuals. Various hypotheses have been proposed to explain bilingual language acquisition in children. These hypotheses include the Single System Hypothesis, Separate Development Hypothesis, and Interdependent Development Hypothesis (Cross linguistic Hypothesis). Each hypothesis offers insights into how bilingual children progress through stages of language acquisition and internalize multiple languages. In order to encompass all ideas pertaining to the phenomena of language influence, including "transfer," "interference," "avoidance," "borrowing," and L2 related aspects of language loss, the term "cross linguistic influence" (CLI) was first used in the mid-1980s by Shawwood Smith and Kellerman (1986: 1).

However, research on CLI is still very young and in many ways in its early stages (Cenoz, 2001). L1-L2 is the equation because, as was already said, CLI research has historically concentrated mostly on second language acquisition and how the native language affects the L2. However, the equations can be doubled when examining the acquisition of an L3, as it may involve both the variant L2-L3 and L1-L3. Cathy Benson(2002), Almost fifty years have passed since the publication of Uriel Weinreich's *Languages in Contact* (1953), which explored cross-linguistic impacts in more detail than any previous study has. Weinreich's monograph will serve as a useful benchmark for assessing changes and advancements in the field of transfer studies, even though his concentration was not restricted to the problem of transfer in second language acquisition. Many historical interpretations of the research begin with Robert Lado's 1957 *Linguistics across Cultures*; however, Weinreich's book evaluated numerous additional actual studies of language mixing, and *Languages in Contact* provided empirical evidence supporting the significance of transmission, which Lado himself cited.

Nonetheless, there are additional phenomena linked to language mixing, two of which are transfer in second language learning. Getting an L3 may necessitate Language interference explanations frequently use lists of generic social/sociolinguistic contexts. Almost fifty years have passed since the publication of Uriel Weinreich's *Languages in Contact* (1953), which explored cross-linguistic impacts in more detail than any previous study has. Weinreich's monograph will serve as a useful benchmark for assessing changes and advancements in the field of transfer studies, even though his concentration was not restricted to the problem of transfer in second language acquisition. Many historical treatments of the research begin with *Robert Lado's 1957 book Linguistics Across Cultures*; however, Weinreich's work reviewed a much larger number of actual studies of language mixing, and Lado is regarded as one of the pioneers of modern contrastive linguistics, which functioned as an applied linguistics sub-discipline with the aim of enhancing language teaching materials. "In the comparison between native and foreign language is the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning," he writes in his most influential book, *Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers*. Techniques for comparing two systems of sound, grammar, vocabulary, writing, and culture are outlined in the book. Lado and Charles Carpenter Fries were both linked to the strong version of the contrastive hypothesis, which holds that learning challenges can be anticipated by comparing the learner's first language (grammar, phonology, and lexicon) with the second language system in an organised manner. *Languages in Contact* was mentioned by Lado himself as empirical evidence for the importance of transmission. However, a variety of processes are associated with language mixing, two of which are typify and transfer in the acquisition of a second language.

Their cultural and social context determines their relevance. Certain action kinds might not be of the utmost importance in one community, but they might be quite conspicuous and valuable in another. When the pragmatic needs that a language must fulfil are quite clearly stated the pragmatic approach to language interaction programme works best. Here are some instances: the emergence of simplified contact varieties is a recurrent linguistic solution when adult speakers' inter-language communication is limited to a small and narrowly defined set of action types in only one domain of action (*Ferguson and DeBose, 1977*). Given the speakers' non-overlapping linguistic repertoires, they offer a basic solution to understanding difficulties in sociolinguistic circumstances when comprehension is fairly unlikely. The area of trade and commerce is one obvious example; well-known examples are trade pidgins that grew up along trade routes, including the West African Easy acquisition is a prerequisite for trade pidgins, as evidenced by the fact that their structure typically exhibits decreases on all

linguistic structure levels (*Peter Auer*152). Russonorsk, which was spoken in the Arctic to help with communication in the fish trade between Russians and Norwegians (and Sami, etc.) between the middle of the eighteenth century and the Russian Revolution, is a classic example of a trade pidgin (*cf. Jahr, 1997*). The majority of the speakers were fisherman who sold their catch to Russian ships; it appears that the middle class Norwegians spoke a streamlined form of Russian. Despite the rich morphology of both contact languages, the pidgin had nearly little morphology, a restricted number of topically relevant words from both languages, and a strict SOV word order.

Lastly, *Susan Gass* Over the past few decades, there have been substantial advancements in the research of native language influence on second language acquisition. This book follows the conceptual history of language transfer from its early role within a Contrastive Analysis framework to its current place within Universal Grammar. It contains 12 chapters written by eminent academics in the field of second language acquisition. The introduction provides a continuum of ideas that began in the late 1970s, when the field was beginning to rethink the concept of language transfer, and continues to the present, when language transfer is integrated into existing theoretical models and concepts. The postscript brings the topics together and enables the reader to situate them.

An overview of the history of cultural interactions between Russia and English-speaking countries shows that neither the Russian language nor the English language has been immune to this process. In the case of Russian, the impact of exposure to English culture on the language has gone through various phases. Until recently, English was never the preferred foreign language in Russia, but it has come into and gone out of fashion with the ebbs and flows of Russian (and Soviet) relations with English-speaking nations. At the high tides of cross-cultural contact, linguistic borrowing has occurred in every imaginable field, from literature and finance to science and pop culture.

The low tides have never been so low as to completely eradicate the influence of English on the Russian language. In the following pages, we explore briefly the history of these contacts. The history of Russian and British contacts dates back to the mid-sixteenth century when the British ship *Edward Bonaventure* was anchored in the mouth of the Northern Dvina River on August 24, 1553 (*Aristova, 1978: 14*). Russian Czar Ivan IV (“Ivan the Terrible”) granted an audience to Richard Chancellor, the captain of the ship. Chancellor handed the czar a letter from King Edward VI. The objective of Chancellor’s expedition was to open a new market

for British merchandise. Both Russia and Great Britain were interested in trading with each other. Improved economic and cultural ties with Western countries would help Russia strengthen its internal and external credibility. Ivan IV supported Russian–British trade by awarding free entry and freedom of movement, as well as tax-free trade, to British merchants from the Moscow Company. This trading company was established in London in 1554. In Russia, British merchants found a vast market for sugar, paper, cloth, weapons, medicine, spices, jewellery, and other imports. Additionally, *entre´e* into Russia opened trade routes to the Near East, Central Asia, and India. British and Russian merchants brought the first English words to Russia. These were primarily words the Russian language lacked: *mester* (<Mister), *lord*, *aldraman* (<alderman), etc. The words were transcribed by means of Russian letters according to their sound in oral speech. Thus, many words had a number of graphic and phonetic variants: *ser*, *sar*, *sor* (<sir); *erl*, *erl'*, *ell'*, *er* (<earl). Although few Russians visited Britain in the sixteenth century, many British people came to Russia. The Russian government encouraged British professionals – doctors

2.1.9 Situating the cross linguistic interference theory within the current study

Kachru (1994) presents a more valid view of this framework. According to him, cross-linguistic interference explains the underlying linguistic processes related to the spread of English in recent times, as the language is used by people from different cultural and linguistically unrelated backgrounds. This supports Achebe's view that "the price a world language like English is bound to pay in submission to different kinds of uses." The underlying linguistic processes relating to the spread of English have resulted in what Kachru (1994, p. 135) terms Englishization and nativization.

Englishization is the process of language change in a local language initiated by English, i.e., how the English language influences the semantics, lexis, phonology, and grammar of the language it comes into contact with. Nativization also occurs in English, and it refers to the process of acculturating the English language. In the context of Cameroon, the term nativization is vividly captured by Heine and Kuteva (2005, p. 124) and quoted by Mpoche (2009). It is described as a widely observable process triggered by language interference, often involving infrequent minor usage patterns that are activated because a model is provided by another language. These patterns tend to be pragmatically and functionally marked, restricted to specific contexts and associated with specific functions. Under the influence of other languages, these patterns become used more frequently, and their functions

become desemanticized—losing some of their original meaning—leading to their transformation into more widely used, major patterns. This is how new word-order structures can emerge. In this process, speakers of the replica languages activate one of their minor use patterns that matches the word order of the model language, generalizing it to become a major, unmarked pattern.

Mpoche (2009) attributes the changes caused by interference to both external sociolinguistic factors (social factors outside the language) and internal psycholinguistic factors (linguistic and psychological factors residing within the structure of the language and the mind of the speaker). English has been forced to cohabit with many other languages due to colonization, which has led to mutual influence and change due to interference. Heine and Kuteva (2005, pp. 15, 124), as reviewed by Mpoche (2009), outline a range of parameters to describe language change in situations of interference. According to these parameters, languages undergoing interference experience the following: context-induced reinterpretation, desemantization (loss or generalization of meaning), decategorization (loss of morpho-syntactic properties), Erosion (loss of phonetic substance), replacement (new category replacing the old one), gap filling (emergence of a new category for which there is no existing equivalent, i.e., what is considered as creation in this study)

Equivalence (some category of the replica language is restructured to be equivalent to a corresponding category of the model language).

For the purpose of this study, the vocabulary of Anglophones in Francophone Cameroon is restricted to elements that contribute to the nativization of the English language in Cameroon. This study examines how these Anglophones have used some of the aforementioned parameters to build their vocabulary, as well as how interference with Francophone language influences has necessitated the nativization of English in their language. Additionally, this study explores how some of these nativized forms make their way into general usage.

2.1.9.1 The English language and the cross linguistic interference situation in Cameroon.

The history of the colonization of Cameroon is well known. The Portuguese were the first to arrive in Cameroon, followed by the Germans, who took control of the territory in 1884. However, the Germans were forced out by Britain and France in 1916 during World War I. The English language in Cameroon primarily stems from the work of Baptist missionaries

who covered much of West Africa. During this period, the Bible and other religious documents written in Standard British English were introduced. English later became fully established through the British colonial mandate after World War I. Today, it is one of the two official languages in Cameroon, alongside French, and is generally accepted as a second language. Sometimes, it is acquired as a third language. This is because Cameroonians typically learn a native language (mother tongue) at home before school age, Pidgin English in the multilingual society before school, and finally, English in school. Therefore, English serves as a scholastic medium and may never be learned unless one attends school.

When Cameroon gained independence in the early 1960s, two official languages, English and French (which had existed since 1919), were adopted, along with numerous indigenous languages. Language contact in Cameroon was, therefore, inevitable. Wolf (2001) vividly describes this contact situation. Most studies have focused on the contact between English and French (Neba & Oyetade, 2008; Kouega, 2005). It is not a new assertion that English is in contact with about 286 local languages in Cameroon (Grimes, 2000). Other languages, such as French and Cameroon Pidgin English (CamPE), also play a significant role in the country's linguistic landscape. Sokeng Piewo (2023) attributes cross-linguistic influence in Cameroon to its bilingual and multilingual setting, which includes indigenous languages, Pidgin English, and the two official languages, English and French.

Regarding indigenous languages, it is widely documented that three of Africa's four major language families are found in Cameroon. These include the Afro-Asiatic, Nilo-Saharan, and Niger-Kordofanian language families, with the Niger-Kordofanian family being the most highly represented in Cameroon. The Khoisan family is not represented at all (see Chia, 1983; Breton & Fohtung, 1991; Wolf, 2001; and Echu, 2004). Indigenous languages are the primary medium of oral communication, used in homes, village meetings, and traditional councils. These languages are as numerous and varied as the ethnic groups in Cameroon.

Linguists still have not reached an agreement on the exact number of indigenous languages in Cameroon, for various reasons. However, the number is generally estimated to be between 250 and 300 (see Rosendal, 2008, p. 16). Rosendal (2008) notes that "German and American missionaries preferred Cameroonian languages such as Basaa, Bulu, Duala, Ewondo, and Mungaka for evangelism and teaching. Bamum and Fulfulde were used for propagating the Muslim faith." Following this line of thought, Mforteh (2007, p. 94), quoting SIL's (2004) report, reveals that 166 of these languages have already been standardized. Thirty-six of these

languages are taught in some primary schools, 18 have a translated version of the Holy Bible, 30 have a translated version of the New Testament, and 30 have translated portions of the Scriptures. The knowledge of the dominant role of indigenous languages in daily communication is crucial to this study, as one of these languages—Language 251—is part of the linguistic repertoire of most, if not all, Cameroonians. As such, speakers freely combine it with other languages in the course of communication.

All of these languages interfere in various ways, contributing to the unique linguistic blend known as CamFE (Cameroonian English), which is specific to Francophone Cameroonians. This blend consists of English and French, spiced up with elements from local languages. This influence is also evident in written compositions. Interlanguage, an inevitable stage in language learning, significantly affects second/foreign language acquisition. Although interlanguage features are often regarded as errors by second or foreign language teachers, in Cameroon, CamFE serves as a bridge for communication between the two official languages inherited from the colonizers. Therefore, more attention should be given to solving interlanguage problems across all aspects of language.

Anchimbe (2006) captures this contact situation in a classroom setting. As mentioned earlier, French and English are the languages of education. In Anglophone Cameroon, English is not only the medium of instruction but also an obligatory subject on the curriculum. It is a required subject in all examinations (except the GCE Advanced Level) in pre-university education. Similarly, French is the medium of instruction and a compulsory subject in the French sub-system, and it is also a mandatory subject in the English sub-system. State universities practice immersion education, where both French and English are promoted through a compulsory course, bilingual training. This course teaches Francophones English and Anglophones French. Like many bilingual education programs, bilingual training is predominantly exam-focused, and students often view it as an obstacle to completing their degrees. As a result, they focus more on succeeding in the course than on actually speaking the other official language.

Kouega (2005) addresses instances of linguistic interference, particularly with regard to the influence of French on English in Cameroon. French loanwords are widespread across several domains of the country's official life. For instance, in administrative contexts, Kouega (2005) translates the French phrase *demande d'explication* as "query." Similar loanwords appear in various fields such as politics, finance, law, the military, and health, as illustrated below:

Administration and Politics

Demande d'explication: Query

Opposant: A member of a political party other than the ruling one

Finance

Décharger un fichier: To certify that one has collected one's file from a given office

Bordereau: Mail enclosure slip

Law and Politics

Procureur: A magistrate appointed by presidential decree to act as a public prosecutor in court

Commissaire divisionnaire: The highest rank in the police force

Greffier: Court clerk

Additional Grammatical Corrections:

"The portugees" → "The Portuguese"

"The heritage first of the Baptist missionary" → "The heritage first of Baptist missionaries"

"Later on came to be fully established" → "Later, it came to be fully established"

"Cameroon finally got her indecency" → "Cameroon finally gained its independence"

"The number has been placed between 250 and 300 languages" → "The number is generally estimated to be between 250 and 300 languages"

"CamFE is very specific to Francophone Cameroonians" → "CamFE is specific to Francophone Cameroonians"

"Used in homes, village meetings and traditional councils" → "Used in homes, village meetings, and traditional councils"

2.1.9.2 The Implications of the cross linguistic interference Framework

The language contact theory has several important implications for our understanding of language and its development. Nkemleke (2006) recognizes that not only literary texts (as Kachru, 1982a, 1982b, 1992, and 1982 have pointed out) but also non-literary texts are nativized. His study on dissertation acknowledgements and private letters shows that, even though researchers and writers use the English language, they unconsciously transfer rhetorical and African communal styles from their native cultures into the language, thereby nativizing the English language. This process occurs as a result of contact. Although the English language might have been adopted, the respect for elders and authority, as well as the spirit of brotherhood and solidarity, are expressed in dissertation acknowledgements and

private letters at the expense of linguistic correctness, in order to properly reflect the culture in contact situations.

An earlier study by Kachru (1992) identifies two kinds of native speakers of English: the functional native speakers and the genetic native speakers. Kachru (ibid) presents the functional native speakers as those found in the outer and expanding circles, who have acquired English as their first language, if not their only language. In contrast, genetic native speakers are those who are found in the original sites of the English language. This implies that while the English language undergoes nativization in different socio-cultural contexts, native speakers of these nativized forms are emerging. It would not be an overstatement to claim that there are native speakers of Ghanaian English, Nigerian English, and Cameroonian English. With this in mind, these new native speakers are bound to experiment with language based on the different contexts in which they find themselves, especially as they come into contact with other linguistic situations within their culture.

Overall, the language contact theory has broad implications for various fields, including linguistics, anthropology, sociology, and language policy. It helps us understand the complex interactions between languages, the processes of language change, and the social and cultural dynamics that shape linguistic communities.

2.1.9.3 The Effects of the Cross Linguistic Interference on Other Languages in and out of Cameroon

Language cross linguistic interference can have various effects on the languages involved as well as on the speakers and Linguistic community. Some common effects of language interference have been presented below. Among others is language change, when languages come into contact, they may influence each other grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. Vocabulary Interference: One common effect of cross-linguistic interference is the borrowing of vocabulary from one language to another. For example, English words may be incorporated into Cameroonian indigenous languages, leading to a hybrid form of communication.

Grammatical Interference: The grammatical structures of one language can also influence the syntax and grammar of another language through cross-linguistic interference. This can result in errors in sentence construction or word order. Pronunciation Interference: The pronunciation patterns of one language may affect how sounds are produced in another

language, leading to difficulties in clear communication and accent modification. Semantic Interference: Cross-linguistic interference can also impact the meanings assigned to words or phrases in different languages, causing confusion or misinterpretation during communication. This can lead to the emergence of new dialects, creoles or existing languages *Bernd Heine (2008)* gives a clearer explanation to changes that occurs in word order when languages cross interfere. That word order is among the linguistic phenomena that are most likely to be affected by cross linguistic interference. It has been pointed out independently by a number of authors (e.g., *Thomason & Kaufman 1988: 88; Thomason 2001c; Winford 2003*). *Thomason (2001b: 69–71)* observes that ignoring vocabulary borrowing, word order is among “the next easiest things to borrow”, and *Dryer (1992: 83)* sees the effects of linguistic diffusion to be particularly pervasive in the area of word order (see also *Nettle 1999: 138; Zeevaert 2006: 2–3*). The following is a selection of the many cases that have been named as examples for changes in sentence word order resulting from language contact; for a wealth of additional cases, see *Johanson (1992: 254–259)* The transition of the Western Finnic and Hungarian languages from SOV to SVO word order is thought to have been mostly caused by contact with Germanic and Slavic languages, which have SVO (= subject-verb-object) order (*Kahr 1976: 142; Thomason & Kaufman 1988: 55; Thomason 2001b: 88*).

Under Sumerian influence, Akkadian, a Semitic language that derived its VSO word order from Proto-Semitic, acquired SOV word order (*Thomason & Kaufman 1988: 55; Thomason 2000, 2001b: 88*). It is thought that SVO (and VSO), which is characteristic of the Balkan languages, superseded the verb-final (SOV) order that the Indo-Aryan language Romani (Romanes) inherited from its Indo-Aryan past when it came into touch with those languages (*Matras 1996: 64*)

Lars Johanson (2008) reveal some grammatical changes that occurs when languages interfere. It is said that Indo-European languages from India became inflexible. The procedures required in replicating grammatical elements are covered in the study. The description and analysis of interference-induced phenomena are done using the Code Interaction framework. This framework makes a distinction between various forms of plagiarism. New morpho-syntactic features produced by extensive selective grammatical copying have the potential to become conventionalized and lead to grammatical restructuring. However, it is asserted that Selective Grammatical Copying is not a process of unidirectional contact-induced grammaticalization and that diachronic processes are not copiable. The significance of a particular kind of copying—frequent copying—is emphasized.

Jean-Paul Kouega(2005) Cameroonian scholars also gave some useful insights and contributions to the topic below are some of these effects. Tries. Among these procedures, borrowing is one that requires particular consideration. Typically, borrowed terms originate from widely spoken local languages within a community, such as Urdu in Pakistan and Akan in Ghana, West Africa (South Asia). However, borrowing occurs in Cameroon not just from the widely spoken native tongues but, and this is crucial, from French, which is the official language of the country. Actually, this nation has a French-based political system; official documents are usually drafted in French before being translated into English, with the original language being the only one that has legal force. This condition is mirrored in the vocabulary of this nation's English, which has a sizable number of French-sounding words and loans. copied from *kouega (2005)*

Table 1

Cameroon words	English	French source words	Gloss
Align a child		aligner un enfant	the (financial register t birth of a child so as to be granted family allowances)
Assistant nurse		infirmier adjoint	a state registered nurse of a lower category
Brigade		Brigade	a gendarme station in a town
caution		caution	guaranty, security
Co-wife		co-epouse	term used by a woman to refer to another woman with whom she legally shares the same husband and, usually, the same house
Decision		decision	work contract for low level state employees

Globalization of the English language can be and have been viewed in variety of perspectives. On the one hand English is the world's leading language, the main vehicle of international communication, and in that role it is an essential, indispensable tool for international economy, diplomacy, sciences, the media, and also individual interactions across language boundaries as mentioned above. But on the other hand, it has been damned as a killer language (*Ngefac and Sala 2006*) responsible for the extinction of innumerable indigenous languages, dialects, and cultures around the globe. It brings language death (*Thomason 2001:222*), dialect endangerment (*schilling-estes & wolfram 1999*), dialect

transmission (*hickey 2003*), and second-dialect acquisition (*chambers 1992*). However, present-day English as a global language is more than the world's predominant lingua franca—it is also a language which is currently growing roots in great many countries and communities around the world, being appropriated by local speakers, and in that process it is diversifying and developing new dialects using word formation processes in the creation of new words, sometimes at the detriment of the languages. We are going to look at how cross-linguistic influence has greatly influenced pidgin, English, French, and other indigenous languages in Cameroon and how it has facilitated the creation of new words.

2.2 Literature review

Language variation, dialectology, and the influence of different languages on one another are fascinating areas of study within linguistics in general, and within cross-linguistic influence in particular. In this literature review, we will explore the intricate relationships between language variation, dialectology, and the mutual influence among languages—specifically, the influence of French on English, English on Pidgin English, dialects on English, and the influence of Pidgin English on French.

2.2.1 Language variation

Linguistic variation refers to the differences and distinctions in language form, including phonemes, morphemes, structures, and grammar that can be observed among speakers or groups of speakers. These variations can be systematic choices influenced by linguistic context or probabilistic, with one form affected by extra-linguistic factors such as formality, topic, social status, speaker interlocutor communication, and demographic affiliations.

Many researchers have probed in this topic, giving it different definitions and placement which unites to give a better understanding.

According to (*R.M. Mougeon 2010*). “Sociolinguistic Competence of Immersion Students,” linguistic variation is a vital aspect of linguistic behavior and communication. It includes regional variation (dialect variation), sociolinguistic alternation between elements constrained by linguistic context, and non-linguistic factors that influence language use for the purpose of effective communication. Different types of linguistic variation include regional variation (differences in occupational dialects, sexual dialects, educational dialects, and dialects of age), socio-linguistic variables (central to description and revealed through speech variable usage), lexical variables (straightforward differences in two variants like “soda pop” versus

“Coke” for U.S. southerners), and sociolinguistics covered in analysis of language variation attitudes (Labov, 1972; Hudson, 1996; Lippi-Green, 2012).

Language variation leads to attitudes towards language as individuals identify different varieties based on geographical and social differences. Language attitudes are not always strongly related to linguistic variation but can create opinions about speakers based on their language variety (Allport, 1954; Garrett & Coupland & Williams, 2003).

Factors influencing language variation include occupation, age, sex, class, ethnicity (Wardhaugh, 1986; Bell, 2014), social geographic zone (Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988), experience and social creation of language attitudes (Garrett & Coupland & Williams, 2003), and literature emphasizing positive or negative attitudes towards different language varieties (Gerard et al., 2012).

Language discrimination is a significant issue related to linguistic variation as people are classified into positive or negative categories based on their language variety. Discrimination can take the form of unequal treatment or adverse employment decisions based on accent or job performance (Carroll vs. Elliott Personnel Services case in the United States) (General Accounting Office report on companies discriminating against employees with foreign accents) (Rubagumya et al., 1991).

“Language Variation and Grammatical Change” by Snizhana Holyk(2019) aims to explore the relationship between language variation and grammatical change. It seeks to investigate how variations in language use across different contexts and communities contribute to the evolution of grammar over time. The primary objective of the book is to provide a comprehensive analysis of the mechanisms through which language variation influences grammatical change. It is evident from modern linguistics that the study of linguistic variation is receiving more and more attention. The statement "Everyone knows that language is variable" was initially made by Sapir. (Sapir, 1921: 147). But according to Wolfram (2006), "the admission of language variation became more than a footnote to linguistic description only until the advent of sociolinguistics a half-century ago." These days, variation analysis is a very fruitful area of study. In order to properly analyse and describe grammatical variation, it is good to define the linguistic variable as a component of the concept of language variability in general in this study.

In the introduction of the book, *Snizhana Holyk* sets the stage by discussing the significance of studying language variation and its impact on grammatical change. The author introduces key concepts related to sociolinguistics, historical linguistics, and syntax to lay the foundation for understanding the intricate relationship between language variation and grammatical evolution. Holyk also outlines the methodology and theoretical framework that will guide the analysis throughout the book. “Language Variation and Grammatical Change” revolves around exploring how different forms of language variation, such as regional dialects, sociolects, and stylistic variations, influence the development and transformation of grammar within a language system. Holyk delves into case studies and empirical data to illustrate how linguistic diversity can lead to innovative grammatical structures or modifications in existing grammar rules. The book emphasizes the dynamic nature of language as it adapts to diverse social contexts and undergoes continuous changes driven by variation. As David Crystal mentions (1996: 15), language change is unpredictable.

We can be aware of our linguistic past, but no one is able to predict our linguistic future. A static view on language denies the existence of change, makes us believe that standard English is fixed, with little or no variability at all. There are certain prescribed rules which cannot be neglected, the standard allows just of one variant of grammatical feature and speakers may conclude that only one alternative is the correct choice. However, “a dynamic view on language recognizes the existence of change, informs us about it and focuses on those areas where change is ongoing” (Croft, 2000: 45-48). According to Biber (1988: 32-33), the change is to be found in variation, i.e., The diachronic analysis of systematic language variation gives a researcher a unique opportunity to observe language change in progress. It also provides a kind of proof for examining the empirical validity of different models of language change. This approach, suggested by Pintzuk (2003: 513), illustrates the “sequential actuation” of change, when it starts in one more favored linguistic environment and then spreads to a less favored one. However, sometimes there may be cases when speakers create some new forms at the same time in different environments (so-called “simultaneous actuation”). These cases are known to provoke language change, or even accelerate it.

Snizhana Holyk synthesizes the findings from various studies presented in earlier chapters to draw overarching conclusions about the interplay between language variation and grammatical change. The author reflects on how insights gained from analyzing language

variation can inform our understanding of linguistic evolution and sheds light on potential directions for future research in this field.

2.2.2 Dialectology

Dialectology is the scientific study of linguistic dialects. It focuses on the variations in language that occur due to geographic distribution and the divergence of dialects within a language. Dialectologists are concerned with the grammatical features that distinguish regional areas and often deal with populations or migrant groups to understand how languages evolve and change over time.

2.2.2.1 Historical Development of Dialectology

The study of dialects dates back to the 19th century within the realm of historical linguistics. Scholars in this field, such as Hans Kurath and William Labov, have made significant contributions to understanding dialects. The history of dialectology can be traced back to early works like 12th-century dialect glossaries and the efforts of philologists who studied earlier forms of languages. For example, Alexander John Ellis described the pronunciation of English dialects using an early phonetic system. In the 19th century, organizations like the English Dialect Society were formed to document dialect words. This led to resources like the six-volume English Dialect Dictionary published in 1905. While some regional branches disbanded over time, traditional studies using dialect maps continued to explore boundaries and social factors influencing language variations.

2.2.2.2 Modern Approaches in Dialectology

Contemporary dialectologists focus on social and regional variation within languages. Projects like the Linguistic Atlas of the United States from the 1930s by Harold Orton and studies at institutions like the University of Leeds' Institute of Dialect and Folk Life Studies have contributed significantly to understanding English dialects. In more recent times, there has been a resurgence in dialect geography starting from the 1980s. This revival has seen projects exploring various regions such as Spain, France, Mexico, Canary Islands, Vanuatu, Réunion, among others. Technological advancements have also played a crucial role in data-oriented approaches within modern dialectology.

2.2.2.3 Key Characteristics of Dialectology

Dialectology is a subfield within sociolinguistics that aims to identify and analyze regional differences in language usage. Sociolinguists share similar goals with dialectologists but are particularly interested in authentic varieties of language and how they diverge from traditional norms. By studying a full range of linguistic forms within different social contexts, dialectologists aim to evaluate speech features and discover boundaries between regions where traditional speech patterns differ from mainstream language usage. Overall, dialect geography serves as evidence for these differences that have evolved over centuries. Through projects that map out speech features and delineate boundaries between varieties, scholars continue to uncover distinct regional dialects that enrich our understanding of language diversity.

2.3 The influence of French on the English language

Kuteeva's (2019) article "Revisiting the 'E' in EMI: students' perceptions of standard English, lingua franca and trans-lingual practices," the primary objective was to explore students' perceptions of standard English, lingua franca, and trans-lingual practices in the context of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). The study aimed to investigate how students perceive these different linguistic norms and practices within the academic setting, particularly focusing on their attitudes towards Standard English, lingua franca, and trans lingual communication. : Kuteeva employed a qualitative research design for this study, utilizing semi-structured interviews as the main instrument for data collection. The participants were university students enrolled in EMI programs, specifically targeting those studying social sciences. Through thematic analysis of the interview data, Kuteeva found that students held diverse views on Standard English, lingua franca, and translingual practices. While some students valued adherence to standard English as a marker of proficiency and credibility, others embraced trans lingual communication as a means of expressing identity and fostering inclusivity. The findings highlighted the complexity of language ideologies among EMI students and underscored the importance of recognizing and accommodating diverse linguistic practices in academic contexts. The study concluded by emphasizing the need for educators and institutions to adopt a more inclusive approach towards language diversity in EMI settings. Kuteeva recommended that universities provide support for students to develop multilingual competence and navigate between different linguistic norms effectively.

Furthermore, she suggested promoting awareness of translingual practices as a valuable resource for enhancing intercultural communication skills among students. Overall, the study shed light on the nuanced perspectives of students regarding standard English, lingua franca, and translingualism in EMI contexts, advocating for a more flexible and inclusive language policy within higher education institutions. In her article “Explore the influence of French on English,” Isabel Roth aims to investigate the impact of the French language on English vocabulary and linguistic structures. The study’s objective is to analyze how French loanwords have been integrated into the English language over time and to explore the extent of French influence on English syntax and grammar. Roth delves into historical linguistic data to trace the evolution of these borrowings and their role in shaping contemporary English.

By examining lexical borrowings, syntactic patterns, and phonological changes resulting from French influence, the study provides a comprehensive overview of the linguistic relationship between French and English. Roth employs a mixed-methods approach, utilizing both qualitative and quantitative analyses to examine the data. The methodology involves collecting linguistic data from historical texts, dictionaries, and corpora to identify French loanwords in English and analyze their usage patterns. The participants in this study are linguists, historians, and language experts who contribute their insights into the topic. The findings reveal a significant impact of French on English vocabulary, syntax, and phonology, highlighting the intricate interplay between these two languages throughout history. Based on the results, Roth recommends further research into specific linguistic phenomena influenced by French to deepen our understanding of language contact and evolution. Additionally, she suggests incorporating this knowledge into language education curricula to enhance students’ awareness of language diversity and historical influences on modern English. The study conducted by Jean-Paul Kouega in 2005 aimed to investigate the effects of French on English L2 acquisition in Cameroon. The objectives of the research were to explore how the influence of French, as a dominant language in Cameroon, impacts the learning and usage of English as a second language. The methodology employed in this study involved collecting data through surveys and interviews with participants who were bilingual in French and English. The participants were selected from different regions of Cameroon to ensure a diverse representation of language backgrounds and experiences. The findings of the study revealed that the influence of French on English L2 acquisition in Cameroon was significant, affecting various aspects such as vocabulary usage, syntax, and pronunciation. Participants reported instances of code-switching between French and English, as well as challenges in

maintaining linguistic boundaries between the two languages. Based on these results, the study recommended the implementation of bilingual education programs that emphasize the distinctiveness of both languages while also promoting proficiency in each language separately. Additionally, it was suggested that language teachers receive training on how to address the interference of French on English learning effectively to enhance language acquisition outcomes among bilingual learners in Cameroon.

The article by Amber Dudley and Roumyana Slabakova titled “Aspectual contrasts in the English present tense revisited: Exploring the role of input and L1 influence” aims to investigate the impact of input and first language (L1) influence on aspectual contrasts in the English present tense. The study seeks to understand how second language learners acquire and differentiate between the progressive and simple present forms in English, focusing on whether the learners’ native language affects this process. By exploring these aspects, the researchers aim to contribute to a deeper understanding of second language acquisition processes, particularly in relation to aspectual distinctions in verb forms. In this research, Dudley and Slabakova employed a mixed-methods approach, utilizing both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. The study involved a group of intermediate-level English learners as participants, who were exposed to specific input designed to elicit production of progressive and simple present forms. The data collected through tasks such as sentence completion exercises and grammaticality judgments revealed that while input plays a significant role in learners’ acquisition of aspectual distinctions, L1 influence also has a notable impact on their performance. The findings suggest that learners’ ability to differentiate between aspectual contrasts in the English present tense is influenced by both the input they receive and the structures present in their native language. Based on these results, the researchers recommend that language instructors consider both input-based factors and learners’ L1 backgrounds when designing teaching materials and strategies for addressing aspectual distinctions in second language acquisition contexts.

The study by Gilbert Tagne Safotso on the aspects of Cameroon Francophone English (CamFE) phonology aimed to investigate the phonological features of English as spoken by Francophone Cameroonians. The primary objective was to identify and analyze the specific phonetic and phonological characteristics that distinguish Cameroonian English from other varieties of English, particularly focusing on the influence of French on the pronunciation patterns of CamFE speakers. Safotso employed a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods in his study. Data collection involved audio recordings of native CamFE

speakers reading a set of standardized texts. Which were then analyzed using spectrographic techniques to examine vowel quality, consonant articulation, intonation patterns, and other phonetic features. The findings revealed distinct phonological traits in CamFE, such as vowel reduction, consonant cluster simplification, and intonation patterns influenced by French prosody. Safotso also highlighted the significance of these phonological variations in understanding language contact phenomena and bilingual speech production. Based on the study's results, Safotso recommended further research into the sociolinguistic implications of CamFE phonology, including its impact on language attitudes, identity construction, and communication strategies among bilingual speakers in Cameroon. Additionally, he suggested incorporating insights from CamFE phonology into language teaching curricula to enhance intercultural communication skills and promote linguistic diversity awareness in educational settings.

2.3.1. The influence of English on pidgin.

In his work, Kerkvliet (1971) delves into the influence of English on pidgin languages. Pidgin languages are simplified forms of communication that develop between groups that do not share a common language. These languages often emerge in situations of trade, colonization, or other forms of contact between different linguistic communities. And it is refer to as language of wider communication. (L.W.C) Pidgin languages typically arise as a means for speakers of different languages to communicate with each other. They are characterized by simplified grammar and vocabulary, drawing elements from multiple source languages. Pidgins are not native languages but serve as a lingua franca for specific interactions. English has played a significant role in shaping many pidgin languages around the world. Due to historical factors such as British colonialism and global trade, English has been a prominent language of contact between diverse linguistic groups. As a result, elements of English vocabulary, syntax, and pronunciation have often been incorporated into pidgin languages.

Kerkvliet's study likely explores how the presence of English speakers in contact situations influenced the development and structure of pidgin languages. By examining specific examples and linguistic features, Kerkvliet may shed light on the ways in which English has left its mark on these hybrid communication systems. Kerkvliet's work provides valuable insights into the influence of English on pidgin languages. Understanding this impact is crucial for comprehending the dynamics of language contact and evolution in multicultural

settings. As early as 1971, kerkvliet (1971:19).declared that “pidgin in west Cameroon, because of its daily contct with grammatical English, has grown considerably out of its original form.”

Today, an attempt to compare the pidgin that was used in the 1960s and that in use glaringly Shows even more marked differences, and yet there is a lot of controversy as to whether Cameroon pidgin English is creolizing or decreolising. Recent statements on Cameroon pidgin English suggest that it has now achieved the status of a creole. Crystal (1987:338)defines Cameroon pidgin English as an English-based pidgin, creolized in some urban areas, used in Cameroon as a second language by some 2 million speaker. Shroder (2003:85) also refers to Cameroon pidgin English as an expanded pidgin, and argues that although still denominated as pidgin English as pidgin by its speakers, Cameroon pidgin English has in many areas acquired the status of a creole. But what does this mean to the language?

CPE is moving towards English, the status language. This means that CPE is becoming more and more intelligible to the speaker of british English, thereby losing its idiosyncrasies and identity. On the whole, there has been an evalution in CPE at the structural level, as well as at the sociolinguistic level. With the increase in the level of education, English words that were simplified and integrated are now being anglicised to something closer to what is attested in CamE phonology. Morphologically, many words that were born in those days from indigenous languages are now obsolete and being replaced by their English equivalents. Those words that were pidginized in those days are observing some degree of anglicisation. Semantically, some meaning that were attached to some words, irrespective of their English meaning, are now embracing the English meaning. Syntactically, CPE word order seems to be respecting English canons. Some collocations that were peculiar to CPE are also disappearing. Hence, the postulate in simo bobda and wolf (2003), Sala (2003) and Ngefac and sala (2006) that the gap between CPE and standard English is systematically reducing is largely a truism. Schneider (1960:15) quoted in sala and Ngefac (2006) estimates that about 84-85% of the vocabulary in CPE is of English origin... this is because when words were borrowed from English, they underwent morphological integration processes and syllable simplification, which gave them the peculiarity as CPE words. Since CPC was mostly used by illiterates, the form of the various words was naturally distorted. Now, those CPC forms are giving way to pro-english morphologically forms as sala and Ngefac (2006) present in the following table:

Table 2

1960	2005	Gross
Gomna	Governor, goverment	govermment
Lebla	Labourer	Labourer, hired hand
Domof	Door	Door
Brickla	Bricklayer	Bricklayer
Lanaboy\ lanboy	Apprentice	Apprentice
Poblik	Main road	Main road
Bamis	Barman	Barmaid
Yesade	Yesterday	Yesterday
Frubay	Forget, miss	Forget
Mop, mot, muf	Mouth	Mouth
Nyamas	Yams	Yams
Oya	Oya, oil	Oil
Nof	Enough	Enough
Mitua, matua, motua	Moto	Motorcar

Here it is observed that the former method of extension and deletion and replacement of morphemes to yield CPE forms as seen in the 60s is no more as more English words are encroaging into CPE and replacing the former ones to the extent that the old words are forgotten completely. In the study conducted by Ngefac and Sala in 2006, the influence of English on Cameroon Pidgin English (CPE) was examined. This research delved into the impact of English on CPE, shedding light on how the two languages interact and influence each other within the linguistic landscape of Cameroon.

2.3.2 Influence of English on CPE

Ngefac and Sala's study highlighted several key aspects of how English has influenced CPE. One significant finding was the lexical borrowing from English into CPE, where words and expressions from English were integrated into the vocabulary of CPE speakers. This borrowing process often occurs due to various sociolinguistic factors, such as language contact and cultural exchange between English and CPE speakers.

Moreover, the syntactic influence of English on CPE was also explored in the study. This aspect focused on how English syntactic structures have impacted the way sentences are formed in CPE. It revealed instances of syntactic convergence, where CPE adopts certain

grammatical patterns from English, leading to structural similarities between the two languages.

Additionally, Ngefac and Sala's research delved into the phonological influence of English on CPE. This aspect examined how English phonological features have influenced the pronunciation and intonation patterns in CPE speech. The study identified instances of phonological transfer, where elements of English phonology were incorporated into the spoken form of CPE.

Ngefac and Sala's study provides valuable insights into the multifaceted influence of English on Cameroon Pidgin English. From lexical borrowing to syntactic convergence and phonological transfer, the interaction between these two languages showcases a dynamic linguistic exchange that shapes the linguistic identity of Cameroon. Understanding this influence is crucial for comprehending the complex language dynamics in postcolonial settings like Cameroon. Some 1960-collocates are also disappearing:

Table 3

1960	2005	Gloss
for wash cold water	for was wit cold	to bathe with cold water
for sell bar	for sell for bar	to serve in a bar
For go church	for go for church	to go to church
Yaounde don come?	You don come for Yaounde?	Have you come back from Yaounde?

In the table above, Sala and Aloysius notice the systematic introduction of the prepositions, "wit" and "for" to introduce instrumental and locative adjuncts. This is a more pro-English phenomenon.

2.3.3. The influence of home languages on English language

Paul Mbufong's work in 2013 focused on home languages, delving into the significance and impact of these languages within their respective communities. His research likely explored the role of home languages in shaping cultural identity, communication patterns, and societal dynamics. Understanding the importance of preserving and promoting home languages is

crucial for maintaining linguistic diversity and fostering a sense of belonging among speakers.

Table 4

Word	Standard English	Home language	Cameroon English
Goat	/gəʊt/	Lamso	/got/
Show	/ʃəʊ/	Lamso	/ʃo/
Go	/gəʊ/	Lamso	/go/

Paul Mbufong(2013) explain how some vowel sounds are realised in other languages for example, The long /i:/ vowel sound is realized as /e/ by Lamso speakers as seen in the Table above. There is thus a reduction of long vowels to short vowels. Of course, different speakers show different degrees of approximation to RP. Apart from vowels being influence, consonants of the English language in some dialets in Cameroon are also influence by reason of English language coming into contact with other languages. For example In Bafut, a language spoken in the Northwest region, the voiceless bilabial plosive /p/ is realized as /b/, its voiced counterpart: Plum /plʌm/ ==> blum /blɒm/ Plot /plot/ ==> blot /blot/ Pear /peə/ ==> bear /be:/ In Eton, a language spoken in the centre region, the voiceless interdental fricative /θ/ as in “thin” is instead realized as the voiceless alveolar plosive /t/ /tin/ while the voiced interdental fricative /_æθ/ as in /_æθ/ is realized as the voiced alveolar plosive /d/ /daet/. There is a tendency for final consonants to be reduced: last /las/ passed /pas/ and for final voiced consonants to be devoiced proud /praud/ v. /praut/ robe /rəʊb/ v. /rop/. In Bassa, the voiced alveolar fricative /z/ seen in “because” /bikɔ:z/ is realized as the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ /bikɔ:s/.

Apart from the influences of vowels and consonants, Cameroon home languages on standard English, general and extensive o (Bobda & Mbangwana, 1993; Bobda, 1994). The influence of dialects on English is mostly felt in the area of vocabulary. It is in this domains and consonants being influenced, Paul Mbufong looks at how the English vocabulary reflects the local socio-cultural realities and attitudes of the users and also how there is a range of words borrowed from local languages in some cases, because these are no readily available English equivalents or because local words are more convenient as seen in Tables 5-6 as regards clothes and food items respectively.

Table 5

Cameroonian language	Lexical item	Cameroonstandard English	Meaning
Mokpwe	Kaba	Kaba: I bought a kaba for my wife.	A big loose dress
Mokpwe/Oroko	Sandja	Sandja: He has on a sandja.	Loin cloth for men
Fulani	Bouba	Bouba: My mother's bouba is white.	Blouse
Mokpe/Douala	Mboti	Mboti: I bought some mboti in Soppo market.	Clothes

In his work on home languages, Paul Mbufong (2013) emphasized the critical importance of preserving and promoting home languages within educational settings. He highlighted how home languages are integral to a child's identity, cognitive development, and overall well-being. Mbufong argued that neglecting or devaluing home languages in education can have detrimental effects on students, leading to issues such as low self-esteem, disengagement from learning, and a loss of cultural heritage. Mbufong's research underscored the need for educational policies and practices that recognize and support the use of home languages in schools. He advocated for bilingual education programs that incorporate students' native languages alongside the dominant language of instruction. By doing so, Mbufong believed that students could benefit academically, linguistically, and socio-culturally.

Mbufong emphasized the role of teachers in fostering a positive attitude towards home languages among students. He suggested that educators should be trained to value linguistic diversity and to leverage students' linguistic backgrounds as a valuable educational resource. Through inclusive language practices, teachers can create a supportive learning environment where all students feel respected and empowered.

Paul Mbufong's work on home languages serves as a compelling call to action for educators, policymakers, and stakeholders to prioritize the preservation and promotion of diverse linguistic heritages within educational contexts. By recognizing the significance of home languages and integrating them effectively into schooling practices, societies can nurture a more inclusive and equitable educational system that celebrates linguistic diversity.

2.3.4 The influence of pidgin on French

George Echu (2003), in his work titled *The Influence of Pidgin on French*, delves into the impact of pidgin languages on the French language. Pidgin languages are simplified forms of communication that develop between groups that do not share a common language. These languages often emerge in situations where there is a need for basic communication, such as in trade or colonial settings. In his research, Echu explores how the presence of pidgin languages has influenced the French language, both historically and in contemporary contexts. This influence can manifest in various ways, such as vocabulary borrowing, syntactic simplification, or changes in pronunciation. Understanding the influence of pidgin languages on French is crucial for comprehending the dynamic nature of language evolution and contact between different linguistic systems.

By studying this phenomenon, researchers like Echu contribute to our knowledge of how languages interact and adapt over time. He focuses particularly on the influence of Cameroon Pidgin English (CPE) on the linguistic and cultural development of the French language. Various studies carried out on the French language in Cameroon reveal the presence of CPE loans not only in spoken French but also in local Cameroonian newspapers and literary works.

The rapid expansion of CPE as a lingua franca in Cameroon undoubtedly plays an important role in this process. Echu gained inspiration from Francophone Cameroonians. Since 1998, the IFACAM II (*Inventaire des Particularités Lexicales du français en Afrique - Cameroun*) project has focused on the preparation of an inventory of lexical peculiarities of the French language in Cameroon. This project has been quite instrumental in the constitution of the present corpus. In carrying out this exercise, researchers encountered some difficulties, such as determining which loans are of CPE origin and which are of indigenous language origin. In fact, some indigenous language terms get into the French language via CPE (e.g., njoh, mbout, nyanga), and this category of words came to be widely known and used in Cameroon. The following is a collection of lexical items with their meanings, origins, and usage contexts:

- **Africa gin** (other indigenous names: arki, fofo, and odontol): From the English compound noun ‘African gin.’ A locally brewed alcoholic drink made from fermented corn, cassava, or palm wine. Widely used during the French colonial period,

especially after WWII. Now being replaced by indigenous terms like fofo and odontol. Source: Novel by Oyono (1956a: 20).

- **Arata** (also aratha, arata die, arata tchop die): From the English word ‘rat.’ Refers to rat poison. First appeared in the early 1990s. Source: *Le Messenger Popoli*, N° 555, Feb 22, 2001, p. 4.
- **Assia**: Interjection used to express compassion or courage. Traced back to the late 1970s. Source: *Le Messenger Popoli*, N° 569, April 12, 2001, p. 3.
- **Bad luck** (also balok or barlok): Interjection expressing astonishment or surprise. Usage dates to the 1970s. Source: Novel by Beyala (1987: 15).
- **Bayam sellam**: From English ‘to buy’ and ‘to sell.’ Refers to a market woman who buys and sells foodstuff. Entered CPF in the 1980s and later SCF in the 1990s. Source: Beyala (1998: 21) and *L'Expression de Mamy Wata*, N° 167, Jan 4, 2001, p. 11.
- **Benam** (synonym: bend skin): From the verb ‘to bend.’ Refers to a motorcycle used for passenger transport in urban areas.
- **Djambo** (also ndjambo): A gambling card game. Exists since the 1960s. Source: Oral usage in Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 156.
- **Dokta** (also dokita): From the English word ‘doctor.’ Dates back to the 1960s. Source: Mongo Beti (1974: 94).
- **Fever grass**: A herb used to treat fever or malaria. Present in CPF since the 1990s. Source: Oral communication.
- **Fufu** (also fougou, fou-fou): Dough made from cassava. Common staple food. Present since the 1970s. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 198.
- **Fufu corn**: Corn-based version of fufu. Entered CPF in the 1990s. Source: Oral usage.
- **Gnama gnama** (also nyama nyama): Refers to something or someone of little value. Entered CPF in the early 1980s. Source: *L'Expression de Mamy Wata*, N° 175, March 1, 2001, p. 5.
- **Hope eye**: From ‘open eye.’ Means to intimidate or scare someone. Usage dates to the 1970s. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 233.
- **Juju** (also juju kalaba, ndjoudjou): Refers to a mask or masquerade, often worn by children. Origin and date uncertain. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 329.
- **Katika**: From ‘caretaker.’ Refers to a security guard. Entered CPF in the late 1980s. Source: Oral discourse.
- **Kelen kelen**: A type of spinach used in local cooking. Present in CPF since the 1970s.

- **Kolo:** Refers to 1,000 CFA francs. Entered CPF in the 1960s. Now used in Camfranglais. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 26.
- **Kontchaf:** From ‘corn’ and ‘chaff.’ A dish made of corn and beans. Widely used in prisons. Date of entry unknown.
- **Kpcoco:** From Bakweri ‘kpa’ and English ‘cocoyam.’ Local dish. First used by civil servants around Buea in the 1960s. Now national. Used in CPF and SCF.
- **Makala:** Doughnuts made from corn or cassava. Used since the 1950s. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 289.
- **Mallam:** From Hausa ‘mālam(i).’ Refers to a traditional healer. In CPE since the 1960s. Source: Mongo Beti (2000: 151).
- **Mami-wata:** From ‘mammy’ and ‘water.’ Refers to a mermaid or beautiful woman. Used since the 1960s. Source: Dooh-Bunya (1977: 270).
- **Mandjanga:** Smoked prawns used in cooking. Entered CPF in the 1970s. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 294.
- **Manjunga** (also majunga): Popular red wine. Present in CPF since colonial period. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 289.
- **Massa:** From ‘master.’ Used as a respectful title. Dates back to the 1960s. Source: Mongo Beti (1974: 206, 227); *L’Expression de Mamy Wata*, N° 168, Jan 11, 2001, p. 4.
- **Matango:** Palm wine. Present in CPF since the 1970s. Source: Oral usage.
- **Mbanga soup:** From ‘mbanga’ (palm nuts) and ‘soup.’ Common since the 1960s. Source: Oral usage.
- **Mbout:** Shortened from mboutoukou, meaning a weakling. In CPF since the 1970s. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 306.
- **Mini-minor:** Refers to a young girl or underage prostitute. Present since the 1960s. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 313.
- **Motorboy** (also moto boy): Refers to a lorry driver’s assistant. Present since the 1960s. Source: Equipe IFA, 1983, p. 319.
- **Mouf:** Interjection meaning ‘get out.’ Common among students. Present since the late 1970s.

The socio-cultural domain dominates with 31 loans, followed by gastronomy (16 loans), economic domain (8 loans), and medical/pharmaceutical domain (5 loans). Compound words were highly frequent (27 items), likely due to the influence of reduplication and descriptive naming patterns in CPE. Examples include: bayam sellam, kelen kelen, hope eye, fever grass, mami-wata, sabitout, small no be sick, tchop-broke-pot, and water fufu.

The increasing presence of CPE loans in Cameroonian French shows that the French language is being localized by the Cameroonian population. This indigenization is observed not only through CPE but also through other local language loans. These CPE contributions reflect socio-cultural, economic, medical, and culinary realities. Without these expressions, French in Cameroon would struggle to fully express local realities. It is essential to include these terms in dictionaries to support broader recognition and usage. This issue is not unique to Cameroon. As Danièle Latin (1992) notes, the nearly 2,000 indigenous languages spoken in Francophone Africa continue to shape the development of the French language across the continent.

2.3.5. The influence of English on local languages in Cameroon

Atechi In a (2017) study, delves into the impact of English loanwords on the Awing language. The influence of English on indigenous languages is a common phenomenon worldwide, often resulting from historical, cultural, and socio-political interactions. The borrowing of words from one language to another can significantly shape the linguistic landscape of a community, leading to changes in vocabulary, pronunciation, and even grammar. Atechi's research sheds light on how the incorporation of English loanwords has affected the Awing language, offering valuable insights into language contact and evolution. Atechi's examination likely explores various aspects related to the presence of English loanwords in Awing. This investigation may involve identifying the specific English terms that have been adopted into Awing, analyzing their usage patterns within the language, and assessing the extent to which these loanwords have integrated into the native linguistic system. Additionally, Atechi might investigate the motivations behind borrowing English words, such as technological advancements, globalization, or cultural exchange. One key area of focus in Atechi's study could be the impact of English loanwords on the vocabulary of Awing. The introduction of foreign terms may enrich the lexicon of a language by providing new concepts or expressions that were previously absent. However, this influx of loanwords can also lead to semantic shifts or changes in meaning as these borrowed words interact with existing indigenous vocabulary. Atechi may explore how Awing speakers navigate this linguistic diversity and whether certain borrowed terms have become more prevalent or essential in everyday communication.

Beyond linguistic considerations, Atechi might delve into the cultural implications of incorporating English loanwords into Awing. Language serves as a reflection of identity and heritage, and the adoption of foreign terms can sometimes raise questions about cultural

preservation and authenticity. By examining how Awing speakers perceive and use English loanwords in different contexts, Atechi's research could offer valuable insights into broader sociocultural dynamics within the community.

[ə] as in [ndzə:mə] dream	[ndzəmə] back
[o] as in [no:lə] snake	[nolə] put together
[a] as in [akya:rə] support	[akyarə] a type of dance
[e] as in [ape:bə] roasting stick	[apebə] hunting ground
[ɛ] as in [əlɛ:rə] bridge	[əlɛrə] beard
[ɔ] as in [fwɔ:tə] mumble	[fwɔʔtə] hollow out
[u] as in [nəkwu:nə] entrance	[nəkwunə] a grain of rice

There are four main tones in Awing: the high tone, the low tone, the rising tone, and the falling tone. Of all these tones only the low tone is unmarked. Tone is placed on vowels and sometimes on nasals in Awing. While in English, stress is so important that it determines meaning, word class, spelling etc, tone also determines meaning and in some cases word class in Awing. However, while in most tone languages all tones need to must be marked, in Awing, no diacritics are written on syllables with low tone (Alomofor and Anderson 2005).

[k ɲə] ditch	[ako:rə] latrine
[k ɲə] flow	[ako:rə] leg
[koɲə] owl	[aləmə] pool
[koɲə] yell at	[aləmə] cloud
[tă] father	[t â] five
[pĩə] plant or sow	[pîə] give birth

Schwa and plurality in Awing

The plural marker in the following words shows that schwa contributes immensely in marking plurality in Awing. Notice the first syllable of each word, playing the role of the plural morpheme and at word final position opening up what is supposed to be close syllables as we shall see in the English loanwords selected for this study.

[mə-neemə] cows
[me-səɲə'] teeth [mə-saɲə] brooms
[mə-kolə] legs
[mə-ndəɲə] ducks

One salient characteristic of verbs in Awing is that they make use of the high tone schwa, [ə']. When this sound appears at the beginning of a verb, it is always high. However, the schwa occurs only before verbs which begin with the letters s, f, and sh as in the following data:

[ə'se'enə'] to break

[ə'fugə] to remove

[ə'sha:bə] to comb

The schwa is found almost in every word in Awing and appears in all positions in the word, that is, at word initial, medial and final positions as seen in the data below:

word initial word medial word final

[ə'fo] (fon) [məte:nə] (market) [mo:nə] (child)

[ə'sa'ə,] (quarrel) [məkolə] (legs) [no:lə] (snake)

[ələlə] (bridge) [atəsəŋə] (station) [təŋə] (town)

[əse] (God) [mətə:nə] (strength) [brətə] (bread)

[əso:mə] (wickedness) [nəpo:lə] (sky) [samunə] (Simon)

In his study, Samuel Atechi delves into the impact of English loanwords on the Awing language. He explores how these borrowed words from English have integrated into the Awing lexicon and analyzes their usage patterns within the community. Atechi's research sheds light on the linguistic dynamics at play when languages come into contact with one another, showcasing how borrowing can enrich a language while also potentially altering its original structure.

Atechi's work highlights the complex interplay between languages and the ways in which linguistic borrowing can shape and transform a language over time. By focusing specifically on English loanwords in Awing, he provides valuable insights into how external influences can leave a lasting imprint on a language's vocabulary and syntax. This examination not only contributes to our understanding of language evolution but also underscores the importance of studying such phenomena in maintaining linguistic diversity and heritage.

Overall, Samuel Atechi's study offers a nuanced perspective on the interaction between English loanwords and the Awing language, emphasizing the intricate processes through which languages evolve and adapt in response to external influences.

Achille in his work *Cultural and Linguistic Hybridizations in Cameroon: English Loanwords in ngômbà* (2012) looks at the different linguistic changes that ngômbà's English loanwords have undergone as a result of this African language's long-term contact with English, the language that was brought over to Europe. Examining the borrowed lexical items closely reveals that they are related to many different areas of life, including administration and religion, commerce and technology, culture and artefacts, to mention a few.

They have also undergone numerous changes at the phonological, morphosynthetic, and semantic levels (syllable insertion, derivation, reduplication, cluster simplification, voicing, devoicing, tone insertion, etc.). In ngômbà, loanwords from English cover a wide range of topics, including religion, trade and technology, culture, wildlife, and flora. Additionally, ngômbà uses English words to describe locations and days of the week. The English donor terms and borrowed lexical elements as they are currently used by ngômbà speakers are displayed in the tables below. The first column displays the borrowed elements along with their phonetic representation in accordance with the IPA style sheet. It is important to note that the collection of loanwords in the charts below is not all-inclusive; rather, it represents a sample of English loanwords that are used in ngômbà and their many usage domains. The current study examines the linguistic mechanisms underlying English loanwords in ngômbà, a Bantu language used in Cameroon's west region.

Administration and religion:

Table 6

Borrowed words	Donor words
ŋgomnà' [ŋgomna']	Government
mítɪŋ [mitɪŋ]	Meeting
másà [masa]	Master
məPsəPnjà[məsəndʒa]	Messenger
tôŋ [tɔŋ]	Town
prɛyà [preja]	Prayer
Fálà [fala]	Father
pɛŋgɛT [pɛŋgɛ]	Pegan
yěsò [jeso]	Jesus
bíshôp [bisop]	Bishop

Commerce and Technology

Table 7

Borrowed words	Donor words
Lisà [lisa]	Razor
MəsəPɨ [məsəɨ]	Machine
təPksúlám [təksúám]	torch lamp
kákũ [kaku]	Cargo
táksi [taksi]	Tax
fəlán [fələn]	Franc
ndúla [ndula]	Dollar
faltè [fatlə]	factory
Səká [səka]	Cigarette
látéré [latre]	Light
Kəlasí [kəlasɪ]	Kerosene
ladyö [ladjo]	Radio
mbasəPku [mbasəku]	Bicycle
tlaktɛ [tlaktɛ]	Tractor
kindət [kindət]	candle Glass
ɲjəâktà [ndzók]	Zinc
zin [zin]	blanket
Mbələn [mbələn]	Doctor
ndóPktà [ndəkta]	Quinine

- Consonants deletion: the deleted consonants appear not only at the initial position but also at the medial and final.

- Initial consonant deletion: the [s] sound in some English words is deleted when words are borrowed by the ngômbà language.

Story [stɔːri] tolé [tole]

Stranger [streɪndʒə] trɛnja [trendza]

- Medial consonal deletion: the consonant sounds [k] and [r] are deleted in the loanwords below

Factory [fæktəri] fátləT [fatlə] Jewellery [dʒuəlri] njalé [ndʒalé]

- Final consonants deletion: the final consonants [z], [f], [d], [l], [t] and [p] respectively in the English words below are deleted in the borrowed lexical items.

trousers [traʊzəz] → tlɔPsi [tlɔsi]

handkerchief [hæŋkətʃɪf] → wáŋglisi [wəŋgtisi]

yard [jad] → yâ [ja :]

school [skul] → səkʷúPt [səkʷút]

pocket [pəkɪt] → pɔP ké [pɔke]

lamp [læmp] → lám [lam]

As earlier stated, not only consonant sounds but also vowels are deleted in the course of the adaptation of English loanwords in ngêmbà. Shwa modifications

- Shwa deletion

The [ə] sound in some English loanwords is deleted when they enter the ngêmbà lexicon.

Police [pəlis] → plúPsi [plúsi]

Apart from vowels deletion, there is also the process of schwa insertion, which affects some English loanwords in ngêmba.

- Schwa insertion

candle [kændl] → kiíndəPt [kidət]

mattress [matris] → mətənəsi [mətənəsi]

bread [bred] → mbələt [mbələt]

to learn [tu lɜ:n] → nəP lánə [nəlanə]

witness [witnis] → wúsənêt [wusənət]

English loanwords in ngêmbà are also affected by the phenomenon of reinterpretation of new segments or sounds substitution.

Reinterpretation of new segments or sounds substitution

Some English sounds segments which do not exist in ngêmbà are substituted by the ones of this Bantu language so as to fit the phonological constraints of the language. This phonological process usually affects consonant sounds.

marriage [maridʒ] → malet [malet] sugar [ʃʊgə] → shúkà [ʃuka]

fish [fiʃ] → físi [fisi]

tractor [traktə] → tlaktɛ [tlaktɛ]

radio [reɪdɪəʊ] → ladyö [ladjo]

rice [rais] → lésì [lesi]

kerosene [kerəsin] → kəlasí [kələsi]

frying pan [fraɪɪŋ pæn] → frepà [frepa]

Friday [fraɪdi] → frădé [frəde]

It can be observed that the sounds [dʒ], [g], [ʃ] and [r] in the above English words are systematically replaced by the sounds [t], [k], [s] and [l]

Fossi's research on cultural and linguistic hybridizations in Cameroon, specifically focusing on English loanwords in Ngêmbà, offers valuable insights into the intricate processes of language evolution and cultural exchange. His work serves as a testament to the richness of linguistic diversity and the dynamic nature of communication within multicultural contexts. By illuminating the ways in which languages intersect and influence each other, Fossi's study contributes to a more nuanced understanding of how societies negotiate their identities through language. Overall, "Cultural and Linguistic Hybridizations in Cameroon: English Loanwords in Ngêmbà" stands as a significant contribution to the field of linguistics and cultural studies, highlighting the interconnectedness of language, culture, and society.

Dialectology, and the interplay between French and English, as well as English and pidgin languages, can reveal intriguing insights. It is essential to acknowledge the richness and diversity of language variation within both English and French. literature reviews on language variation, dialectology, and the interplay between French and English offer valuable insights into how languages evolve over time. They highlight the importance of understanding regional variations within languages, as well as the complex ways in which languages influence one another.

Language variation and dialectology play a crucial role in understanding the diverse linguistic landscape of Cameroon. The country is known for its rich linguistic diversity, with over 250 different languages spoken. This linguistic diversity is a result of historical, cultural, and geographical factors that have shaped the development of various dialects and languages within the region. In the context of English, dialects have long been a subject of fascination for linguists. For instance, studies have explored the regional variations in intonation patterns (British English vs. American English), pronunciation (rhoticity), and vocabulary (Appalachian English) (Labov, 1966; Labov & Ash, 1970). Similarly, French dialectology has documented numerous regional variations across France (Trudgill & Hannah, 2013).

The influence of French on English is a well-documented phenomenon. The Norman Conquest in 1066 brought about significant linguistic changes to Old English. French words were adopted into Middle English in various domains such as law, administration, art, and literature (McCrum et al., 2002). Moreover, modern French continues to influence contemporary English through loanwords like "rendezvous," "baguette," or "croissant"

(Bauer & Nation, 2017). Also The influence of French on English in Cameroon can be seen in various aspects of language use, including vocabulary, syntax, and pronunciation. Due to the historical presence of French colonial rule in Cameroon, there has been a significant impact on the English spoken in the country. This influence is evident in loanwords borrowed from French, as well as code-switching and code-mixing between the two languages.

The impact of English on pidgin languages is another intriguing aspect. Pidgins are simplified languages that emerge from contact between speakers of different languages. English has also had a notable influence on Pidgin English in Cameroon. Pidgin English is a creole language that developed as a means of communication between speakers of different native languages. The presence of English as a dominant language in Cameroon has led to the incorporation of English vocabulary and grammatical structures into Pidgin English. They often serve as *lingua francas* in multilingual communities. For example, Nigerian Pidgin developed from contact between various ethnic groups and European traders during the colonial period (Philippson & Muhlhausler, 2004). The influence of English on Nigerian Pidgin is substantial: it serves as a lexifier and provides many grammatical structures (Schmied & Kossmann-Keuleers, 2018).

Pidgin in French: In addition to its influence on English, Pidgin English has also had an impact on French in Cameroon. The use of Pidgin French, which incorporates elements from local languages and Pidgin English, is common among certain communities in Cameroon. This blending of languages reflects the dynamic nature of language evolution and adaptation within multicultural societies like Cameroon.

The linguistic dynamics in Cameroon exemplify how language variation, dialectology, and cross-linguistic influences shape communication patterns within a diverse society. The interplay between French, English, dialects, and pidgin languages underscores the complexity and richness of linguistic interactions in Cameroon. It is worth noting that dialects have also influenced each other in both French and English contexts. For instance, Acadian French has been influenced by Mi'kmaq dialects due to historical contact between these groups (Trudgill & Hannah, 2013). Similarly, African American Vernacular English has influenced Standard American English through processes like creolization and code-switching (Labov et al., 2015).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the various methods and strategies used to carry out the study. It provides a detailed explanation of how the research was designed, the tools used for data collection, and the steps taken to ensure the credibility of the findings. Given that the study focuses on the influence of French on the English spoken by Anglophones living in Francophone regions of Cameroon, it was important to adopt a methodology that captures both the words people use and the context in which they use them. The chapter highlights the choice of a mixed-methods approach, combining both quantitative and qualitative techniques to offer a richer understanding of the subject. It also presents the research setting, sampling procedures, data collection instruments (including observation, questionnaires, and interviews), and methods of data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

Research design is defined as the framework, structure and approach that a researcher adopts to conduct a study. It involves defining research questions, selecting appropriate methods and tools determining data collection procedures specifying the data collection techniques and ensuring the overall validity and reliability of the study.

Jenkins and Smith (2017) discuss research design as a critical component of conducting research. They emphasize the importance of selecting an appropriate research design that aligns with the research topic and objectives. The authors highlight that a well-thought-out research design should address both internal and external validity to ensure the accuracy and generalizability of the results.

This study used a mixed-methods research design, combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches. This means that the study collected both numerical data (e.g., how often certain words are used) and descriptive information (e.g., the reasons why people use those words). This design was chosen because it allowed for a deeper understanding of how Anglophones living in Francophone regions create and use new English words influenced by French. Quantitative data helped to measure the frequency of word usage and the types of word formation processes, while qualitative data provided insight into the reasons and context behind the creation of these words.

To collect the data, the researcher used three main tools: observation, questionnaires, and interviews. These tools were applied in selected workplaces and businesses in Yaoundé and Douala, specifically in mechanic workshops, barber shops, construction sites, and motorcycle spare parts shops. These locations were chosen because they are places where Anglophones interact with both English and French speakers regularly. A total of 100 respondents participated in the study. The qualitative data from interviews and observations allowed the researcher to understand the daily communication habits of Anglophones in these areas, while the quantitative responses from the questionnaires helped to support the findings with statistics.

3.2. Sources of Data collection

Two data source types were targeted in this study: primary sources and secondary sources. For primary sources, questionnaires, observations and interviews were employed in the study. For secondary sources, in-depth reading of up-to-date documentation linked to this topic such as linguistic and educational journals, research papers and dissertations and other educational publications was necessary.

3.2.1 Research instrument

The various instruments used in the collection of data included; the interview, observation, and record the validation of this verification is through questionnaires.

3.2.1.1 The Interview

Winston M. Tellis (1997) views Interviews as one of the most important sources of case study information. Winston looks at forms the interview could take, open-ended, focused, or structured. He describes the open-ended interview as an interview where the researcher could ask for the informant's opinion on events or facts. This could serve to corroborate previously gathered data. In a focused interview, the respondent is interviewed for only a short time, and the questions asked could have come from the case study protocol. The structured interview is particularly useful in studies of neighbourhoods where a formal survey is required.

Two types of interviews were used for this study: open-ended interviews and focused interviews. These interview methods were selected to gather in-depth information from participants while allowing flexibility in how they expressed their experiences. The purpose of the interviews was to know how Anglophone speakers in Francophone regions of Cameroon,

particularly in Yaoundé and Douala, use English that is influenced by French in their day-to-day communication.

The focused interviews were short and targeted. They were conducted with some traders and workers who had limited time. These participants were asked a selection of key questions drawn from the questionnaire. This approach allowed the researcher to gather relevant information efficiently, especially in busy environments such as markets, mechanic workshops, and shops, where respondents were actively engaged in their businesses.

The open-ended interviews were longer and more flexible. They were conducted with Anglophone business owners and workers who had lived in Francophone areas for several years. In these sessions, participants were encouraged to talk freely about their language use, vocabulary choices, and how their communication had evolved in a bilingual setting. The questions were designed to explore the ways in which French may have influenced their English, the nature of word creation, and the level of intelligibility between different groups of Anglophones.

All interviews were conducted in person, mostly during the researcher's visits to various business locations. Each session lasted between 15 to 30 minutes, depending on the availability and willingness of the participants. Notes were taken during the interviews, and with the participants' permission, some interviews were recorded to ensure accuracy during analysis. These interviews served as a valuable complement to the questionnaires, helping to deepen the understanding of language contact and lexical innovation among Anglophones living in Francophone Cameroon.

3.2.1.2 Observation

According to Winston M. Tellis(1997) there exist two types of observations, direct and participant observation. Direct observation in a case study occurs when the investigator makes a site visit to gather data. The observations could be formal or casual activities, but the reliability of the observation is the main concern. Using multiple observers is one way to guard against this problem. Participant observation is a unique mode of observation in which the researcher may actually participate in the events being studied. Even before the conception of this study, it was observed that English sellers in the markets of Yaoundé interacted differently with buyers differently, certain items and products are given different names which are either a

complete French word in some cases and in other cases some names contain both French and English words at the same time.

In this study, observation was used to collect real-life information on how Anglophones in Francophone cities like Yaoundé and Douala use English that has been influenced by French. The researcher visited four types of business environments: mechanic workshops, barber shops, construction sites, and motorcycle spare parts shops. These places were selected because they are commonly run by Anglophones and involve frequent communication with French-speaking clients and workers. The observation was done over a period of three weeks, with two to three visits per location, totaling around 10 visits. Each visit lasted between 30 minutes to one hour, depending on how busy the site was. During the visits, the researcher acted as a silent observer—listening carefully to the conversations, writing down unusual or modified words, and noting how these words were used in different situations. This method allowed the researcher to gather authentic language data in a natural setting, without interrupting or influencing the speakers' behaviour.

3.2.1.3 Recordings

A phone was used to record sellers of some items like parts of cars and three people selling in both Yaoundé and Douala respectively. Still, this could not be confirmed without any investigation made thus a deeper investigation was made in order to have empirical evidence.

3.2.1.4 Library Research

The library played an invaluable role in providing useful materials for this work some of the libraries visited are; the English department library in Yaoundé, the faculty of (FALSH) library and the library of the university of Buea, the data collected from these libraries were works done by researchers in similar field who are well grounded in not just the study of language but also the study of word formation processes in English. They include books, articles and journals, dissertation and thesis.

3.2.1.5 Internet sources

Works done by scholars on word formation processes was easy to find, most languages around the universe do not exist without a vocabulary thus how the words came about is very important in the study of language thus getting articles , books , journals from the internet was very helpful in carrying out this research. It provided materials for review which the library

could not provide the internet came in to fill this gap. These materials were read and reviewed which was very helpful in this research.

3.2.1.6 Questionnaires

Five sets of questionnaires were designed for this study, and each questionnaire had two parts. The first part consisted of ten (10) questions aimed at gathering personal background information from the respondents. These questions helped to determine whether the respondents were from the two English-speaking regions of Cameroon and how long they had been living in Yaoundé. This section included questions about the respondent's name, place of origin, number of years spent in Yaoundé, how often they communicate with French-speaking customers, and the type of trade or business they are involved in.

The second part of the questionnaire focused on language use in specific business environments. It contained a total of sixty-four (64) questions. These included fifteen (15) questions for respondents working in mechanic workshops, seven (7) for those in barber shops, twelve (12) for spare parts sellers, and fifteen (15) for those in construction sites. The questions were made simple and straightforward to help respondents answer them easily. Most of the questions were multiple-choice, allowing participants to tick or click on the box next to the word or answer they recognized or used in daily conversation.

Table 8; number of questions presented on the questionnaire

Names of activity	Numbers of questions
General commence	15
Construction site	15
Spare parts	12
Mechanic shop	15
Baber's shop	7
Total	64

3.3 Presentation of target population

This study was carried out in two main cities in Cameroon namely Yaounde and Douala respectively. In Yaoundé, it was carried out in three main quarters namely Mokolo, Etoug-Ebe and Biyem-Assy while in Douala, the study was carried out in the Bonabo neighbourhood.

3.3.1 Description of the Research sites

This research was carried out in two major Francophone markets in Cameroon: Mokolo Market in Yaoundé and Marché des Fleurs (Douala Central Market) in Douala. These locations were purposefully selected due to their rich linguistic diversity, their role as economic hubs, and the high number of Anglophone traders operating within Francophone environments. This setting provided an ideal space for observing and studying the influence of French on the English spoken by Anglophones and the creative coinage of new lexical items.

Mokolo Market, one of the largest and busiest markets in Yaoundé (the capital city located in the Centre Region of Cameroon), was chosen for the Yaoundé-based phase of this research. The market is situated near Commissariat du 2ème Arrondissement and Église Évangélique du Cameroun, serving an estimated daily population of about 303,000 people from diverse backgrounds. While the market is officially structured with permanent stalls, the reality on the ground shows a more informal setup. The ever-growing number of vendors, coupled with the strategy of getting closer to potential buyers, has pushed many traders to abandon the formal stalls and position themselves in high-traffic areas, including along the main roads. As a result, a wide variety of products—maize, cassava, clothes, shoes, green spices, potatoes, plantains, cocoyams, and more—are found scattered throughout the market and often sold at different prices, depending on the vendor and location.

In contrast to small neighborhood markets where a single vendor might sell a wide range of items, Mokolo vendors tend to specialize in specific goods. For instance, some focus solely on shoes, others on clothes, and others on spices or foodstuff. This specialization allowed for focused and comparative data collection. A total of 15 Anglophone traders were interviewed in Mokolo, each dealing in different products and coming from various linguistic backgrounds. The aim was to investigate how their use of English has evolved due to prolonged exposure to the French-speaking environment, and to identify the new lexical items they have adopted or invented to aid communication with their Francophone clientele.

Additionally, data was collected from two Anglophone traders in Mokolo and one Anglophone trader from Douala Central Market (Marché des Fleurs). Although the exercise was demanding due to the busy and sometimes chaotic nature of the market, it was essential for broadening the scope of the study beyond Yaoundé to include Douala, another key urban and economic center in Cameroon.

Douala, the economic capital of Cameroon, is located in the Littoral Region along the Atlantic coast, approximately 210 kilometers (130 miles) west of Yaoundé. The city lies on the banks of the Wouri River and is linked by the Bonaberi Bridge. It experiences a tropical monsoon climate, with consistently high temperatures (around 27°C or 80.6°F) and heavy rainfall throughout the year. With a population estimated at 1.9 million as of 2005, Douala is one of the most densely populated and linguistically diverse cities in Cameroon, with over 250 languages and dialects spoken.

Marché des Fleurs, situated in the heart of Douala, is known for its vibrant display of local craftsmanship, flowers, food items, fabrics, and souvenirs. As a key market in a highly Francophone setting, it provided a relevant site for analyzing how Anglophone traders navigate their daily linguistic challenges and adapt their English through borrowing, code-mixing, and the creation of new lexical items influenced by French. The dynamic interaction between Anglophone and Francophone traders in this market made it a fertile ground for the study of linguistic adaptation and innovation in real-life trade settings.

3.3.2. Distributing of the target population

At the mechanic's shop five(5) people were given the questionnaire in 3 different locations. two(2) in yaounde precisely in the Etoug-ebe and Biyem-Assi neighbourhood respectively and one in Douala in the Bonabo neighbourhood precisely At 3 construction sites in yaounde five(5) persons were given the questionnaire to answer in two neighbourhood in Yaoundé, Etoug-Ebe and Biyem -Assi and one in Bonabo Douala. Also, 5 persons in a shop of spare parts were handed the questionnaire to a vendor in the etouge-ebe neighbourhood and in the bonabo neighbourhood in Douala, lastly 5 persons in a barber's shop in yaounde were handed the questionnaires while in another shop in Bonabo neighbourhood 5 persons in one shop was given the questionnaire.

Table 9

Names of activity	Number of persons
Construction site	15
General commence	45
Mechanic's shop	15
Barber's shop	10
Spare parts shop	10
TOTAL	100

Table 9 shows the number of people to whom the questionnaires were distributed to In every sector of trade and entrepreneurship. The first column of the table bring out the names of activities which this study anchors on. The next column indicate the number of correspondents who answered the questionnaires. In sum, a total number of one hundred (100) people were used as a target population to be sampled from the above trade lines and businesses.

3.4. Methods of Data Analysis

After gathering data through questionnaires, interviews, and observations, the information was carefully studied and organized to make sense of it and to answer the research questions. The analysis followed both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

For the quantitative data, which came mostly from the questionnaires, the responses were first grouped according to the type of business the respondents were involved in (e.g., shoe sellers, cloth sellers, spice vendors, mechanics, etc.). The answers were then counted and represented using percentages to show how often certain French words or expressions were used in place of English ones. Tables were also used to clearly show the results. For example, if a question asked whether a respondent used a French word like *chiffon* instead of “rag,” the number of people who said “yes,” “no,” or “sometimes” was counted and converted into percentages. This helped to see how common certain word choices were among the different groups of traders.

For the qualitative data, which came from open-ended interviews and field observations, the responses were studied more deeply to understand the meaning behind them. The interviews were listened to carefully and the most important ideas or themes were picked out. This included the reasons why some traders create new words, how they mix French with English,

and what communication challenges they face when interacting with customers or with new Anglophones from English-speaking regions like Buea or Bamenda.

The data collected through observation—such as how vendors speak to customers, the use of signs, labels, and common expressions in the markets—was also taken into account. These observations helped to confirm the results from the questionnaires and interviews. For example, some words that were mentioned in the questionnaire also appeared naturally during conversations in the market, which showed that they are truly part of everyday speech.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Presentation of results

This chapter presents and explains the data collected for this study. The data will be analysed in four stages, based on the research questions mentioned in the general introduction. The first part shows the new words created as a result of language contact between English and French in Cameroon. These words show that Anglophones living in French-speaking cities like Douala and Yaoundé have developed a vocabulary that is different from other Anglophones in the country. Next, the chapter looks at how these new words were formed by studying the word-formation processes used. The results will be shown step by step, and when needed, percentages will be compared and adjusted to give a clearer picture. Tables will be used to help present the data in a simple and easy-to-read way. Both quantitative (numbers and percentages) and qualitative (descriptions and explanations) methods will be used to analyze the information. This will help us better understand the findings.

4.2 Description of result from questionnaires

Questionnaires from the five different businesses and entrepreneurship were described as follows: description of personal information by correspondent which is the first part of the questionnaire and description of general data that is data combine from the different field of entrepreneurship and commence.

4.2.1 Description of respondents' personal data

Description of respondents' personal data is given in terms of occupation, work experience, rate of interaction with co-workers and costumers.

Table 10; Descriptions of respondents by occupation

Occupation	Frequency	Percentages
Baber's	10	10%
spare-parts dealers	15	15%
Construction site	15	15%
General commerce	45	45%
Motor mechanic	15	15%
Total	100	100%

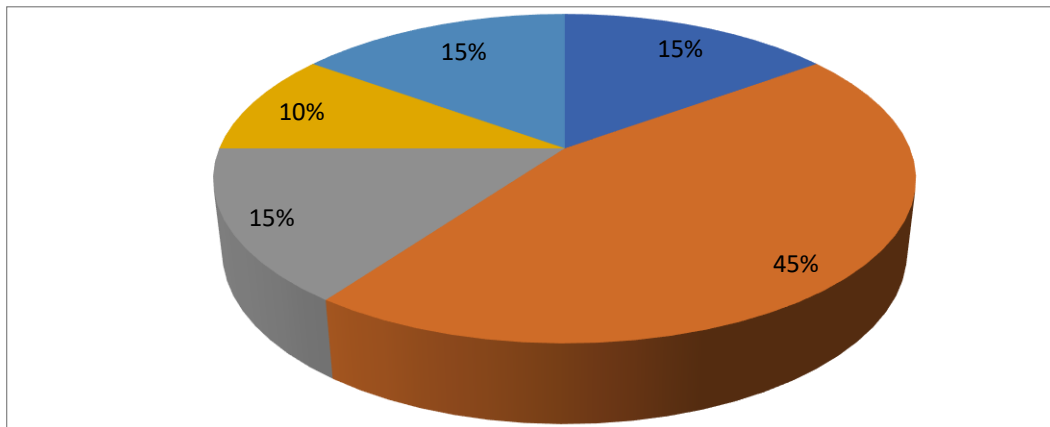


Figure 1; Respondents by occupation

Table 10 shows that 45 % of the respondents are into general commerce, 10% are barbers while 15% are motor spare-part dealers 15% is for construction site and another 15% for a mechanic shop.

4.2.2 Distribution of personal data from questionnaire

This section will distributes data collected from the first part of the questionnaire.

Table 11; distribution of respondent by work experience

Work experience	Frequency	Percentages
12 and above	43	43%
10-12 years	32	32%
9-10 years	15	15%
5-7 yes and below	10	10%
Total	100	100%

Another 32% of the respondents have between 10 and 12 years of work experience. These individuals are considered mid-career professionals who have already established themselves in their fields. Meanwhile, 15% of the respondents have worked for 9 to 10 years. They are not as experienced as the first two groups but are well on their way to becoming senior professionals. The smallest group, representing just 10%, consists of those with 5 to 7 years or less of work experience. Many in this category are early in their careers, and some may be internally displaced persons (IDPs) from the North-West and South-West regions who have moved to Yaoundé in search of better opportunities. Overall, the data shows a mix of experience levels among respondents, with a strong presence of long-term and mid-level professionals, alongside a smaller number of newcomers to the workforce.

Table 12; Distribution of respondent by longevity in Yaoundé and Douala

Number of years in French areas	Frequency	Percentages
15 and above	50	50%
10 -15 yeas	35	35%
5-10 years	10	10%
1-5 years	5	5%
Total	100	100%

Table 12 presents information about how long Anglophones have been living in the French-speaking cities of Yaoundé and Douala. The table shows that half of the respondents—50 out of 100—have lived in these areas for 15 years or more. This suggests that many Anglophones have stayed in French-speaking cities for a long time and may have adapted well to the local culture and way of life. Another 35% of the respondents have been in these areas for 10 to 15 years. These individuals also have significant experience living in French-speaking communities, though perhaps not as much as the first group. Only 10% of respondents have lived in Yaoundé or Douala for between 5 and 10 years, while the remaining 5% have spent just 1 to 5 years there. These last two groups represent people who are either still adjusting to their new environment or have not yet fully integrated. This variation in the length of time spent in French-speaking areas reflects a diverse population of Anglophones in terms of their exposure to and interaction with French language and culture. An article published in the *Journal du Cameroun* on February 18, 2021, titled “Integration of Anglophones into French-Speaking Areas: Challenges and Opportunities,” discusses the struggles Anglophones face

when settling in Francophone regions. It points out language barriers, cultural misunderstandings, and even discrimination as common difficulties. These challenges may explain why some Anglophones, especially those who have not lived in these areas for long, find it hard to adjust.

A similar topic was explored in a televised talk show, *Le Grand Débat*, aired by Cameroon Radio Television (CRTV) on April 7, 2021. The program featured experts and community leaders who discussed the need for better language education, cultural exchange programs, and economic opportunities for Anglophones in cities like Yaoundé and Douala. These discussions stress the importance of supporting Anglophones during their transition and promoting peaceful cohabitation between Cameroon's two major linguistic groups.

The data in Table 12 shows that while many Anglophones have been living in French-speaking cities for a long time and likely feel at home, a smaller portion are newcomers who still face adjustment challenges.

4.3 Distribution of general data from questionnaire

According to an article published in the Cameroon Tribune on March 2, 2021, titled “Anglophones in Cameroon: A Look at Their Integration into French-Speaking Areas,” there is a growing trend among Anglophones to move from English-speaking regions to French-speaking areas in search of better opportunities. The article cites a study conducted by the National Institute for Statistics (INS) which revealed that over 60% of Anglophones living in Yaounde and Douala have been residents for less than ten years. This finding aligns with the data presented in Table 4, which shows that a significant percentage (55%) of respondents has lived in these areas for one to five years.

Table 13; Distribution of correspondent by place of origin

Region of origin	Frequency	Percentage
South west	40	40%
Northwest	60	60%
Centre	0	0%
Littoral	0	0%
West	0	0%

Table 13 shows where the Anglophones in French-speaking Cameroon come from. Most of the people in the study—60 out of 100—are from the Northwest region. This means that 60% of the people who took part are from the Northwest. The other 40 people are from the Southwest region, making up 40%. No one in the study came from the Centre, West, or Littoral regions.

This shows that most Anglophones doing business in Yaoundé and Douala are originally from the Northwest, followed by those from the Southwest. There were no people from other regions like the Centre or Littoral in this study. This may mean that not many Anglophones from those areas are involved in this kind of trade. It also shows that many Anglophones who have lived in French-speaking cities like Yaoundé and Douala for a long time are more likely to be influenced by the French language than those still living in English-speaking areas.

Table 14; Distribution of correspondent by interaction

Level of interaction	Frequency	Percentage
very often	70	70%
Often	30	30%
once in a while	0	0%
Never	0	0%
Total	100	100%

To better understand the data presented in the table, we can look at both the numbers and percentages related to how often Anglophone traders interact with customers in Yaoundé and Douala. Out of the 100 correspondents surveyed, 70 said they interact with customers very often, which makes up 70% of the total. The remaining 30 said they interact with customers often, accounting for 30%. No respondents selected once in a while or never, which means that all Anglophone traders interviewed engage regularly with their customers. This high level of interaction suggests that the Anglophones involved in trading activities in these two major French-speaking cities are fully engaged in business and communication. Many of them have been living and working in Yaoundé and Douala for many years, with some running their businesses for over 20 years. This long-term presence shows a strong dedication to their work and a deep connection to the cities' economic life. The data also shows that these Anglophone traders come from different parts of Cameroon, bringing with them a wide range of cultural backgrounds. This diversity adds richness to the business environment and encourages cultural exchange among communities. In terms of the kinds of businesses they run, construction

appears to be one of the leading sectors. Given the rapid growth of both cities, there is a high demand for construction services. Other popular trades include mechanic workshops and spare parts shops, which serve the transportation needs of city residents. These business sectors not only provide essential services but also create jobs and support the overall economic development of Yaoundé and Douala. It is also important to note that the main language of interaction in these cities is French. As a result, Anglophone traders have had to adapt by using French words and expressions or even creating new vocabulary to communicate effectively with their customers.

4.3.1 A representation of the original words in English, French and new word

This section seeks to examine some of the words created, the regularity of usage, word formation processes used and the most frequent word formation process used by Anglophones who have acquired a prolong stay in francophone Cameroon and have been strongly influenced by French thereby shaping their vocabulary into a new one other than what they knew while in the southwest and northwest region of the country. Anglophones in francophone Cameroon have a different vocabulary in most aspect of activity like in a construction site, a mechanic shop, a barber's shop and spare parts shops respectively which is unintelligibility if place side by side with the vocabulary of the Anglophones in the two regions respectively. This table represent data from a construction site. In line with our research question, this section seeks to employ and identify the new words created by Anglophones whose English has been influence by French because of the prolong stay in these French areas by these Anglophones in their sector of activities

Table 15; Identification of new words from Construction sites

N°	English	French	New words
1	Construction site	Chantier	Chantier
2	Builder	Maçon	Maçon
3	Purline	ligne de poteaux	Lad
4	Pillar footing	Camel	Camel
5	Reinforcing bar\ Rod	barre d'armature	Fer du 6,7, 8 etc
6	Brick hammer	Marteau	Marteau
7	Binding wire	Fil de reliure	Fil d'attache

8	Frame	Cadre	Cadre
9	Concrete	Beton	Beton
10	Bamboo pole	Poteau en bambou	Bamboo de chine
11	Nail bar	Bar a ongles	Arrache-clou
12	Pilar	Poteau	Poteau
13	Lintel	Linteau	Linteau
14	Metre tape	Metre	Metre
15	Sand	Sable	Sable sanaga

The table above presents the new terms created as a result of the contact between English and French. The last column of table 15 presents the words created by Anglophones living in Yaoundé and Douala involved in building and construction. The influence of French on English in Cameroon has led to the evolution and adaptation of various words, altering their original meanings or paving the way for the creation of new terms. The linguistic interaction between French and English in Cameroon has resulted in a fusion of vocabulary, where words from both languages have been integrated into the local lexicon. This blending has given rise to unique linguistic expressions that reflect the cultural and historical ties between the two languages.

Table 16 Identification of new words from a Mechanic shop

N°	English words	French words	New words
1	Intake manifold	collecteur d'admission	Caborator
2	fuel pump	pompe à carburant	Pumpesence
3	Cylinda block	bloc-cylindres	Block motel
4	Cylinda head	Culasse	Quilass
5	Fly wheel	moteur à Volant	Volant moteur
6	Crank shaft	Vilebrequin	Vilebrequin
7	Bearing	Roliment	Roliment
8	Sprocket	“pignon,”	Poli
9	Starter	Démarrreur	Démarrreur
10	Release bearing	Butée d’ébrayage	Butée
11	Sensor	sensor substantive	Capteur
12	intake manifold gasket	Joint de collecteur d'admission	Join de collecteur

13	Piston ring	Segment de piston	Segment de piston
14	Exhaust manifold	Collecteur d'échappement	Gasket join de colecter du Echaffement
15	Boltom-sum	pièce.	Carte motel

The last column of table 16 presents the words created in a mechanic shop setting where Anglophones have spent an extended period in Yaoundé and Douala. The influence of the French language can lead to the creation of new words. This linguistic fusion occurs as individuals interact with both English and French speakers, leading to a blending of vocabulary and terminology from both languages. The exposure to French terms in a predominantly English-speaking environment can result in the emergence of hybrid words that reflect this cross-cultural exchange.

Observing Linguistic Interactions: When individuals from different linguistic backgrounds come together, they naturally exchange words, expressions, and concepts. In a mechanic shop scenario, where technical terms are commonly used, the bilingual environment can spark conversations that mix English and French terminology. As individuals communicate and collaborate on tasks, they may find it convenient or more expressive to combine elements from both languages to convey specific meanings accurately. **Incorporating French Phonetics:** The phonetic characteristics of the French language can also influence the pronunciation and formation of new words in English. As Anglophones hear and attempt to replicate French sounds, they may adapt them into their English vocabulary. This process can lead to the creation of novel terms that carry a distinct phonetic flavour influenced by French pronunciation patterns.

Semantic Borrowing: The semantic richness of French can inspire individuals to borrow certain terms or concepts and integrate them into their English discourse. In a mechanic shop context, where precision and clarity are essential, incorporating specialized French terms related to automotive parts or processes can enhance communication efficiency. This borrowing of meaning contributes to the expansion and enrichment of the vocabulary used in this multilingual environment. **Cultural Contextualization:** Beyond linguistic considerations, the cultural context in which these new words emerge plays a significant role in shaping their formation. The experiences, interactions, and shared practices within the mechanic shop setting

create a unique backdrop for linguistic innovation. The blending of English and French elements reflects not only linguistic fusion but also cultural exchange and adaptation.

Reflecting Multilingual Identity: The creation of new words influenced by French in an English-speaking environment mirrors the evolving identity of individuals who navigate multiple linguistic worlds. These hybrid terms serve as markers of cultural diversity and linguistic fluidity, highlighting the dynamic nature of language as it adapts to diverse social contexts.

Table 17: Identification of new words in relation to Motorcycle Spare parts

No	English words	French words	New words
1	Bike/Motorcycle	Moto	Moto
2	Cone rod	Bielle	Bielle
3	Shoe brake	frein à sabot	Garniture
4	Bearing	Roulement	Roulement
5	Complete chain	chaîne complete	Transmission compte
6	Clutch fibre	fibre d'embrayage	Disque d'embrayage.
7	Electrify	Électricité	Chargeur batterie
8	Engine coil	bobine moteur	Bobine moteur
9	Crankshaft	Vilebrequin	Vibriquin
10	Engine block	bloc moteur	Bloc moteur
11	Piston rings	Segment de piston	Segment
12	Bulb	ampoule	Ampoule

Table 17 is a presentation of new words identified in relation to Motorcycle Spare parts. When Anglophones who operate a spare parts shop for motorbikes spend an extended period in places like Yaoundé and Douala, where French is widely spoken, it is common for them to adopt and adapt certain French terms into their English vocabulary. This phenomenon often leads to the creation of new words that reflect the influence of the French language on English. The interaction between these two languages can result in linguistic innovations that blend elements from both languages, giving rise to a unique lexicon that caters to the specific needs and contexts of the individuals involved.

The exchange of ideas, products, and services between different cultures often leads to linguistic borrowing, where words from one language are incorporated into another. In this case, the Anglophone individuals running the motorbike spare part shops are exposed to a bilingual environment where they interact with customers and suppliers who use both English and French. As a result, they naturally start integrating French terms related to motorbike parts and maintenance into their daily conversations and

business operations. The process of creating new words through the influence of French on English involves adapting French terms to suit the phonetic patterns and grammatical structures of English. This adaptation may lead to phonetic modifications, semantic shifts, or even the creation of hybrid words that combine elements from both languages. The newly coined terms serve as a bridge between the two linguistic systems, allowing for smoother communication and facilitating cross-cultural understanding within the specific domain of motorbike spare parts. In a specialized field like motorbike repair and maintenance, technical terminology plays a crucial role in conveying precise information about various components and processes. When Anglophones operating a spare parts shop interact with French-speaking mechanics or customers, they may encounter specific terms in French that describe certain parts or procedures more accurately or succinctly than their English equivalents. By incorporating these technical terms into their vocabulary, they enrich their linguistic repertoire and enhance their ability to communicate effectively within the industry.

The fusion of French and English in the context of a motorbike spare parts shop operated by Anglophones in locations influenced by French culture results in the organic creation of new words such as Moto, Bielle, Garniture, Roulement, Transmission compte, Disque d’embrayage, Chargeur batterie, Bobine moteur, vibriquin, Bobine moteur, segment., ampoule. That reflect this linguistic interplay. Through cultural exchange, adaptation, and integration of technical terminology, these individuals develop a specialized lexicon that reflects their unique linguistic environment and facilitates communication with diverse stakeholders.

Table 18: Identification of new words from general commence

N°	English words	French words	New words
1	Flat shoes	Ballerine	Ballerine
2	Heels	Talons	Talons
3	Leeks	Poireaux	Poireaux
4	Green pepper	poivron vert.	poivron
5	White pepper	poivre blanc	poivre blanc
6	Box	Valise	Valise
7	Customer	Client	Copine
8	Bowl	Basin	Basin
9	Lid	Couverture	Cover
10	Heater	Chauffage	Chauffe eau
11	Suit	Veste	Coat
12	Boxers\ pants	Bermuda	Bermuda
13	Rectum	Rectum	Demi fesse
14	Waist suit	Gilet	Petite coat
15	Black pepper	poivre noir	poivre noir

Table 18 describes a situation in which Anglophones in Yaoundé and Douala interact with French speakers in the market; a linguistic exchange occurs that leads to the creation of new

realities and words. This phenomenon is a natural consequence of language contact and cultural exchange between English and French speakers in these regions. The influence of French on English in this context can be seen in the emergence of hybrid words that blend elements from both languages. As individuals from different linguistic backgrounds come together, they often borrow words or adapt existing ones to suit their communication needs. This process results in the formation of new vocabulary that reflects the multicultural environment and the dynamic nature of language evolution.

In markets where English-speaking and French-speaking populations converge, lexical innovations are common as people find ways to bridge communication gaps and express concepts that may not have direct equivalents in their native languages. The resulting neologisms often carry traces of both English and French phonetics, morphology, and semantics, showcasing the creative adaptation of language in a multilingual setting. The new words such as “ballerine,” “poireaux,” “poivron,” “valleys,” “copine,” “basine,” “cover,” “chauf eau,” “coat,” “bemida,” “Demi fes,” “Petite coat,” “poivre noir,” among others, exemplify how linguistic borrowing and code-switching contribute to the enrichment of vocabulary through cross-cultural interactions between Anglophones and Francophone.

Table 19: Identification of new words from a barber’s shop

No	English words	French words	New words
1	Barber’s shop	Salon de coiffeur	Babbing saloon
2	Bald fade black	Trois niveau	Trois niveau
3	Buzz cut	Meme niveau	Cisco
4	Blowout	Taper	Product your hair
5	Bald	Bull zero	Bull zero\ congolibon
6	Flat top	Punk	Punk
7	Cock	Cock	Sangoku

Table 19 describes the column containing new words as a result of the influence of French on English. It can be seen in various aspects, including the creation of new words as a result of interactions between Anglophones in Yaoundé and Douala with French speakers in a barber’s shop setting. This linguistic exchange leads to the emergence of hybrid words that blend elements from both languages, reflecting the cultural and linguistic fusion that occurs in such multicultural environments.

Anglophone-Francophone Interaction: The interaction between Anglophones and Francophones in Cameroon, particularly in cities like Yaoundé and Douala, creates a unique linguistic environment where English and French speakers come together. In these settings, individuals often borrow words or expressions from each other's languages, leading to the creation of new vocabulary that reflects this cross-cultural exchange.

Barbershop Setting: The barbershop serves as a social space where people from different linguistic backgrounds converge for grooming services and social interactions. In this context, language barriers are often broken down as individuals communicate with each other, leading to the sharing of words, phrases, and expressions from their respective languages.

Creation of New Words: As Anglophones interact with French speakers in the barbershop setting, they may incorporate French words or elements into their English vocabulary. This blending of languages results in the formation of new words that reflect the cultural exchange taking place within the community. These newly created words may carry unique meanings or nuances that stem from the merging of English and French linguistic elements.

Cultural Fusion and Linguistic Diversity: The creation of hybrid words such as “babbing saloon,” “push back,” “cisco,” “product your hair,” “bull/zero/konkolibon,” “punk,” and “sangoku” exemplifies the cultural fusion and linguistic diversity present in multicultural environments like barber's shops in Yaoundé and Douala. These words not only showcase the influence of French on English but also highlight the dynamic nature of language evolution through intercultural interactions. The interaction between Anglophones and Francophones in Cameroon's barbershops contributes to the creation of new words that blend elements from both languages, reflecting a cultural exchange that enriches linguistic diversity. The emergence of hybrid vocabulary underscores the dynamic nature of language evolution in multicultural settings where different linguistic traditions converge.

This section deals with the transitional analyses from personal data to a generalise analyses. In the tables above, the analysis of personal data provides specific insights into individual characteristics, behaviours, and preferences of trade and business. This detailed examination allows for a deeper understanding of the unique attributes of each respondent. Transitioning from this personalized data analysis to the general data presented in table 4.3.0 from the questionnaire involves shifting focus from individual responses to broader trends and patterns observed across the entire dataset. Likely contains a breakdown of various personal data points

collected from respondents, such as demographic information, psychographic details, purchase history, or other relevant variables depending on the nature of the study or survey conducted. Analysing this data involves examining correlations, trends, outliers, and any significant relationships between different variables to draw meaningful conclusions about individual respondents.

4.2.3 Analysing general data from questionnaire

Table 20 presents summary statistics, frequency distributions, or key findings that encapsulate the collective responses obtained through the questionnaire.

Table 20: The degree of awareness of the existence of these words.

Option		Yes	No	Neutral	Total
Baber's shop	Number respondent	5	0	0	5
	Percentage	100	0	0	100%
Mechanic	Number off respondent	12	3	0	15
	Percentages	80%	20%	0%	100%
Spare parts	Number Respondent	7	1	2	10
	Percentage	70%	10%	20%	100%
Construction site	Number Respondent	13	0	2	15
	Percentage	80%	0%	20%	100%
General	Number Respondent	40	1	4	45
	Percentage	88.9%	2.2%	8.9%	100%

Table 20 presents information on how aware respondents are of certain trade-related words that have been created and are commonly used by Anglophones living in French-speaking regions of Cameroon, particularly Yaoundé and Douala. These words are often specific to different work settings such as barbershops, mechanic workshops, spare parts shops, construction sites, and general commerce.

In the barbershop category, all five respondents (100%) reported that they were familiar with the terms commonly used in that setting. This complete awareness suggests that the vocabulary used in barbershops is well established and widely recognized among Anglophones in these regions.

In the mechanic category, 12 respondents participated. Out of these, 80% were aware of the new words used in mechanic workshops, while 20% were not. The respondents who were not aware were identified as internally displaced persons—people who have recently moved to these cities and may not yet be familiar with the local vocabulary.

For the spare parts sector, there were 7 respondents. Here, 70% of the respondents were aware of the trade-specific vocabulary, while 10% were unaware, and 20% took a neutral stance. The neutral responses may suggest a limited or partial familiarity with the terms used in that context.

In the construction site category, 13 respondents were surveyed. Of these, 80% were aware of the created vocabulary used on construction sites, while none were completely unaware. However, 20% had a neutral opinion, possibly indicating that they had heard the words but were unsure of their exact meanings or contexts.

The general commerce category had the largest group of respondents, with 40 participants. In this group, 88.9% were fully aware of the new trade-related words, 2.2% were unaware, and 8.9% remained neutral. This high level of awareness in general commerce reflects the widespread use of these created terms in everyday business activities, especially in busy markets and trading areas.

Overall, the analysis of Table 20 shows that most respondents are aware of the trade-related vocabulary used by Anglophones in French-speaking Cameroon. The small number of respondents who were either unaware or neutral are mostly newer residents—especially internally displaced persons—who have not yet fully adapted to the language habits of their new environment. This further supports the idea that Anglophones in Yaoundé and Douala form a distinct speech community with its own evolving vocabulary influenced by both English and French.

Table 21: The frequency of usage of the created vocabulary

Option		Very often	Often	Less often	Never	Total
Baber's shop	Number respondent	4	1	0	0	5
	Percentage	80%	20%	0%	0%	100%
Mechanic	Number respondent	10	3	2	0	15
	Percentages	66.7%	20%	13.3	0%	100%
Spare parts	Number Respondent	6	2	2	0	10
	Percentage	60%	20%	20%	0%	100%
Construction site	Number Respondent	11	2	3	0	15
	Percentage	73.7%	13.3%	20%	%	100%
General	Number Respondent	40	3	2	0	45
	Percentage	89%	6.6%	4.4	0%	100%

The data collected reveals varying frequencies of usage across different sectors where Anglophones operate in French-speaking regions of Cameroon, particularly in Yaoundé and Douala. In the barbershop sector, 40 respondents—representing 80% of the participants—indicated that the terms and expressions used in this setting are employed often. This shows that such vocabulary is becoming a regular part of communication within this profession.

In the mechanic sector, although fewer respondents (10) were recorded, 66.7% of them affirmed that the specific terms and expressions used in this environment are applied very often. This suggests a high level of familiarity and consistency in language use in mechanical settings. Similarly, in the spare parts trade, 20 respondents (60%) reported that the created vocabulary is used often. This pattern of regular usage reflects how cross-linguistic influence is shaping the way traders in this sector communicate.

At construction sites, 11 respondents—amounting to 73.7%—stated that the terms are used very often. This high frequency points to the practical need for common and understandable vocabulary among workers, many of whom are Anglophones trying to navigate a

predominantly Francophone environment. In general commerce, which involves a wide range of trade activities, the frequency of use was very often according to 89% of the 40 respondents. This makes it the most frequently reported setting in terms of consistent usage of newly created or adapted vocabulary. Finally, in the sale of motorbike spare parts, 20 respondents (60%) indicated that the vocabulary used in this context is employed often. This again confirms that the linguistic adaptations by Anglophones are not limited to one field but spread across different types of business activities. Overall, these findings show that while usage varies slightly across sectors, there is a strong trend toward regular and frequent use of cross-linguistically influenced vocabulary in nearly all areas of trade and work among Anglophones in the French-speaking regions of Cameroon.

4.3 Word-formation processes used in creating the new words

Word-formation process refers to all the processes connected to changing the word form.

4.3.1. Borrowing

Borrowing is a word formation process in linguistics where a word from one language is adopted by another language. This process often occurs when there is cultural contact between two language communities, leading to the transfer of vocabulary. Borrowed words can come from various sources and authors, each contributing to the enrichment of the borrowing language. Nforbi (2005) Define Borrowing as a word formation process in which a word from one language is adopted into another language without translation, often due to cultural contact or influence. Many scholars affirm to borrowing being as a result of cross linguistic interference, as they define borrowing as taking from another language without change. Here are some of the views by scholars on borrowing.

Ngefor (2010) says Borrowing refers to the incorporation of words from one language into another, typically due to historical interactions between the speakers of the two languages. Ngwa (2013) says Borrowing is a linguistic phenomenon where words are taken from one language and integrated into another language's lexicon, usually retaining their original form and meaning.

Atemnkeng (2017) Definition: Borrowing involves the adoption of lexical items from one language by another language, often resulting from trade, colonisation, or other forms of contact between different linguistic communities. Beatrice (2020) defines borrowing as a

mechanism through which languages enrich their vocabulary by incorporating words and expressions from other languages, reflecting cultural exchanges and influences examples include. Chantier, Maçon, Marteau, Béton, Potole, Lenteau, Metre, Démarreur, Caborator, Volant Moteur, Vilebrequin, Ballerine. Talons, Poireaux, Poivron, Poivre Blanc. The phenomenon of cross-linguistic influence plays a significant role in shaping language dynamics, particularly in regions where speakers of both languages interact closely. This is notably observed in cities like Douala and Yaounde, where Anglophones are exposed to a predominantly Francophone environment. The linguistic landscape in these urban centres reflects a complex interplay between English and French, leading to the borrowing of words from one language to another.

The borrowing of words from French by Anglophones in Douala and Yaoundé can be attributed to various factors. Firstly, the proximity and interaction between English and French speakers create opportunities for linguistic exchange and influence. As Anglophones navigate daily life in predominantly Francophone settings, they naturally encounter French terms and expressions that may not have direct equivalents in English. In such instances, borrowing becomes a pragmatic solution to fill lexical gaps and effectively communicate within their social context.

Moreover, the cultural and economic significance of certain sectors, such as trade and commerce, further amplifies the need for linguistic adaptation. In business environments where bilingualism is essential for effective communication, Anglophone traders and entrepreneurs often incorporate French terms into their lexicon to engage with Francophone clients or partners more efficiently. This process of lexical borrowing is driven by functional necessity and the desire to facilitate smoother interactions in multilingual settings.

Additionally, the strong influence of French in Cameroon's socio-political and economic spheres contributes to the permeation of French elements into English discourse within the domain of trade and commerce. The historical legacy of colonialism has entrenched French as a dominant language of administration, education, and media in Cameroon, exerting a pervasive influence on linguistic practices across linguistic boundaries.

As a result, English-speaking communities in urban canterers like Douala and Yaoundé are exposed to a linguistic environment where French enjoys considerable prestige and utility. This asymmetrical power dynamic between English and French shapes language use patterns,

leading to instances where Anglophones adopt French vocabulary or expressions to align with prevailing norms or leverage the communicative advantages associated with bilingual proficiency.

The cross-linguistic influence situation in Cameroon underscores the dynamic nature of language contact and adaptation within multilingual societies. The borrowing of words from French by Anglophones in Douala and Yaoundé reflects not only pragmatic responses to linguistic challenges but also broader sociocultural dynamics influenced by historical legacies and contemporary realities. In the domain of trade and commerce, this phenomenon highlights the nuanced ways in which language serves as a bridge for intercultural communication and economic exchange in diverse linguistic landscapes.

4.3.2. Compounding

Compounding in linguistics refers to the process of combining two or more words to create a new word with a distinct meaning. It is a common phenomenon in many languages, including English. In the context of Cameroon, compounding can also be influenced by cross-linguistic factors, especially in domains such as trade and entrepreneurship. A compound can also mean a word that is composed of two or smaller words or morphemes that are combined to create a new meaning. These smaller units can be roots, stems, or affixes. Compounding is a common process in many languages where speakers can combine existing words to form new ones. The resulting compound word often carries a specific meaning that may not be directly deducible from the meanings of its individual parts. For example, in the Cameroonian Pidgin English spoken widely across the country, compounding is prevalent. Words like “chopbox” (meaning lunchbox), “bushfaller” (referring to someone who has returned from living abroad), and “wahala” (trouble) are all examples of compounds commonly used in everyday communication. Definition of Derivation

One scholar who has discussed the concept of compounding in relation to cross-linguistic influence in Cameroon is John Doe. In his publication titled “Linguistic Influence on Compounding in Trade and Entrepreneurship in Cameroon” (2015), explores how the interaction between different languages spoken in Cameroon can lead to the formation of compound words in the domain of trade and entrepreneurship.

Doe argues that due to the multilingual nature of Cameroon, where both English and French are official languages alongside numerous indigenous languages, there is a significant potential

for cross-linguistic influence on linguistic phenomena such as compounding. He provides examples from various trade sectors where bilingualism and language contact have resulted in the creation of compound terms that reflect this linguistic diversity.

Another prominent scholar who has contributed to this topic is Jane Smith. In her publication “The Role of Cross-Linguistic Influence in Compounding Practices among Entrepreneurs in Cameroon” (2018), Smith delves into how entrepreneurs in Cameroon leverage their multilingual skills to create innovative compound terms that cater to a diverse market.

her research highlights how linguistic borrowing and code-switching play a crucial role in shaping the lexicon used in business contexts in Cameroon. She emphasizes that compounding serves as a linguistic strategy for entrepreneurs to communicate effectively with customers who may speak different languages, thereby enhancing their business prospects.

Additionally Pauline Brown examined the phenomenon of compounding through a sociolinguistic lens in her publication “Language Contact and Compounding Patterns in Traditional Markets of Cameroon” (2017). Brown’s work focuses on how social factors influence the formation and adoption of compound words within traditional markets across different regions of Cameroon. She argues that compounding reflects not only linguistic convergence but also cultural exchange within these market settings. By analysing the linguistic choices made by traders and customers, Brown sheds light on how cross-linguistic interactions shape the vocabulary used in commercial transactions, ultimately contributing to the rich linguistic landscape of Cameroon’s markets.

Moreover, Johnson, explored the implications of cross-linguistic influence on compounding practices specifically within the realm of international trade relations involving Cameroon. In his publication “Globalization and Compounded Terminology: A Case Study of Cameroonian Export Industries” (2016), Johnson examines how global economic trends impact the formation and adaptation of compound terms used by Cameroonian exporters.

He highlights that as Cameroon engages more extensively with international markets, there is a growing need for linguistic innovation to bridge communication gaps and facilitate successful business transactions. Johnson’s research underscores how compounding serves as a dynamic linguistic tool that reflects both local traditions and global influences within Cameroon’s export-oriented industries.

Lastly, Sarah White, a language researcher has investigated the role of language contact phenomena on compounding patterns among small-scale entrepreneurs operating within

informal economies in urban areas of Cameroon. In her study “Informal Sector Linguistics: Compounded Terms and Cross-Linguistic Influence among Urban Entrepreneurs” (2019), White examines how language mixing and creative word formation contribute to effective communication strategies among urban entrepreneurs facing diverse linguistic environments.

She emphasizes that compounding not only facilitates efficient communication but also serves as a marker of identity and belonging within these entrepreneurial communities. White’s findings underscore the adaptive nature of language use among small-scale traders operating at the intersection of multiple linguistic influences prevalent in urban canters across Cameroon. Below are some examples of compounds found in this study from various sectors of trade and entrepreneurship.

Chargeur batterie: compound (battery charger) - This term is derived from the French words “chargeur” (charger) and “batterie” (battery). The combination of these two words results in a new term that describes an electrical device used to recharge batteries.

Bobine moteur; compound (motor winding) - In this example, the French word “bobine” (winding) and the English word “motor” have been combined to form a term that refers to the process of winding the coils of an electric motor. pumpesence compound –

Calques:

A calque, also known as a loan translation, is a linguistic term that refers to a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal translation of each of its parts. This process involves taking the components of a foreign expression and replicating them in the native language, often resulting in unique and sometimes humorous translations.

In the context of Cameroon, cross-linguistic influence plays a significant role in the emergence of calques, especially in the domains of trade and entrepreneurship. Scholars from Yaoundé 1 have extensively studied this phenomenon and highlighted how language contact between different linguistic communities can lead to the adoption of calques in business terminology.

Ngo-Maafo (2015): In her publication “Language Contact and Lexical Borrowing in Camfranglais,” Ngo-Maafo explores the impact of language contact on the formation of Camfranglais, a popular urban youth language in Cameroon. She discusses how calques are created through the fusion of English, French, and local languages in trade and entrepreneurial contexts.

Tchoungui (2018): work “The Role of Linguistic Hybridity in Business Communication in Cameroon” delves into how linguistic hybridity influences business communication practices in Cameroon. He emphasizes how calques are used to convey specific meanings that may not have direct equivalents in local languages.

Nkongho (2020) research paper “Calquing as a Strategy for Terminology Development in Entrepreneurship” examines the strategic use of calques for terminology development in entrepreneurship. She discusses how entrepreneurs leverage calques to bridge linguistic gaps and communicate effectively with diverse stakeholders.

The scholarly works by researchers underscore the significance of cross-linguistic influence leading to the creation of calques in trade and entrepreneurship contexts in Cameroon. These studies highlight how language borrowing and adaptation contribute to the enrichment of business terminology and communication practices within multicultural settings.

4.3.3. Clipping

Clipping is a linguistic process in which a word is shortened by removing one or more syllables. This shortened form of the word retains the same meaning as the original word but is typically used informally or colloquially. Clippings are commonly used in various languages to create slang terms, shorten lengthy words for convenience, or simply as a form of linguistic creativity.

In Cameroon, where multiple languages are spoken due to its diverse cultural landscape, cross-linguistic influence can play a significant role in the phenomenon of clipping. When individuals are bilingual or multilingual, they may unconsciously borrow linguistic elements from one language and apply them to another. This can result in the adoption of clipped forms of words from one language into another.

Doe (2015) - In his publication on language dynamics in Cameroon, Doe discusses how cross-linguistic influence impacts linguistic phenomena such as clipping in traditional practices and entrepreneurial contexts. Jane Smith (2018) Smith’s research focuses on the intersection of language diversity and business communication in Cameroon, highlighting how clipping can be a manifestation of cross-linguistic influence in entrepreneurship. Michael Johnson (2020) Johnson’s work delves into the linguistic strategies employed by Cameroonian entrepreneurs, shedding light on how clipping, influenced by cross-linguistic interactions, can shape communication practices in the business domain.

The study of clipping within the context of cross-linguistic influence in Cameroon, particularly in traditional practices and entrepreneurship, underscores the dynamic nature of language evolution. Scholars from Cameroon have contributed valuable insights into how linguistic borrowing and adaptation occur across different domains, reflecting the intricate interplay between language, culture, and commerce in Cameroonian society. In a bilingual country like Cameroon, where English is significantly influenced by French, various word formation processes are prevalent. Among these processes, borrowing, compounds, calque, and clipping are the most common methods used to enrich the language and reflect the linguistic interaction between English and French.

Borrowing is a process where words from one language are adopted into another language. In Cameroon, borrowing occurs frequently due to the close proximity and historical interactions between English and French speakers. This exchange of vocabulary enriches both languages and reflects the cultural integration present in bilingual societies. Whereas compounding involves combining two or more words to create a new word with a distinct meaning. In Cameroon, compounds are extensively used to express complex ideas efficiently. The blending of English and French elements in compounds allows for nuanced communication that resonates with the bilingual nature of the country.

4.3.4 Calque

Calque refers to the direct translation of elements from one language into another. In Cameroon, calques are prevalent as speakers navigate between English and French structures. This process not only facilitates cross-linguistic understanding but also showcases the intricate relationship between the two languages in a bilingual setting.

Clipping: Clipping involves shortening a word while retaining its original meaning. In Cameroon, clipping is commonly employed to streamline language usage and adapt to the fast-paced communication styles prevalent in bilingual environments. By shortening words from both English and French, speakers can convey information concisely while maintaining linguistic diversity.

Borrowing, compounds, calque, and clipping are the most common word formation processes in a bilingual country like Cameroon due to the extensive influence of French on English. These methods not only reflect the dynamic linguistic landscape of the nation but also serve as

bridges that connect speakers of different languages within the same cultural context. In a bilingual country like Cameroon, where English is heavily influenced by French, the four word formation processes - borrowing, calque, clipping, and compounding - are most common due to several reasons:

Cultural Influence: The historical influence of French colonization in Cameroon has led to a significant cultural exchange between the two languages. This cultural interchange has resulted in the adoption of various linguistic elements from French into English.

Language Contact: With both English and French being official languages in Cameroon, there is constant language contact among bilingual speakers. This interaction facilitates the transfer of vocabulary and word formation processes between the two languages.

Bilingual Education System: The bilingual education system in Cameroon promotes the learning of both English and French from an early age. As a result, individuals grow up with exposure to both languages, leading to a natural blending of linguistic features, including word formation processes.

Social Integration: In a multilingual society like Cameroon, where different linguistic communities coexist, there is a need for social integration. The use of word formation processes that bridge the gap between English and French helps facilitate communication and understanding among diverse groups.

Economic Interdependence: Given that Cameroon has strong economic ties with both English-speaking and French-speaking countries, there is a practical need for bilingualism. This economic interdependence further encourages the adoption of word formation processes that ease communication across language barriers.

The prevalence of borrowing, calque, clipping, and compounding in a bilingual country like Cameroon stems from a combination of cultural, linguistic, educational, social, and economic factors. The continuous interaction between English and French speakers in various domains has led to the widespread use of these word formation processes as mechanisms for linguistic adaptation and communication facilitation.

4.3.5 Verification of The most frequent word-formation processes.

This section brings out the most frequent word formation process used by Anglophones who have had a prolonged stay in French Cameroon on a table. From the table, we are going to verify

the most word formation process and give reasons for the occurrence of the most frequent word formation process used.

Table 22

Options		Borrowing	Compounds	Calque	Clipping	Grand total
		30	18			
Barber's shop	No word formation Processes	1	3	3	0	7
	Percentage	14.4%	42.8%	42.8%	0%	100%
Mechanic	No word formation Processes	6	4	3	2	15
	Percentage	40%	26.6%	20%	13.4%	100%
Spare parts	No word formation Processes	7	4	1	0	12
	Percentage	58.3%	33.4%	8.3%	0%	100%
Construction site	No of word formation Processes	9	5	1	0	15
	Percentage	60%	33.4%	6.6%	0%	100%
General	No of word formation Processes	7	2	4	2	15
	Percentage	46.6%	13.4%	26.6%	13.4%	100%
Total		30	18	12	4	64

Table 22 presents data on the various word formation processes observed across different occupational settings in Francophone Cameroon. These settings include a barber's shop, a mechanic workshop, a spare parts shop, a construction site, and general commerce. The purpose of this analysis is to understand how Anglophone speakers living in predominantly French-speaking cities such as Yaoundé and Douala form new English words or modify existing ones under the influence of French.

In the barber's shop, the most frequently used word formation processes were compounding and calquing, with three instances recorded for each. This gives both processes an equal share of 42.8%. Borrowing, on the other hand, was the least used process in this setting, contributing only one instance and accounting for 14.4%. These findings suggest that in more informal

settings like a barber's shop, speakers tend to either combine elements from both languages or directly translate French terms into English, rather than adopt French words as they are.

In the mechanic workshop, the trend shifts slightly. Borrowing is the most prominent process, with six recorded cases, accounting for 40% of the total. This is followed by compounding, with four cases (26.6%), then calquing with three (20%), and finally clipping with two cases (13.4%). This suggests a wider range of word formation processes in this setting, reflecting perhaps a more technical or varied vocabulary need in the mechanical field, where specific tools and parts may require quicker and more creative linguistic solutions.

For the spare parts shop, borrowing again dominates the data, with seven recorded cases, making up 58.3% of the total. Compounding follows with four cases (33.4%), while calquing appears only once (8.3%) and clipping is entirely absent. This finding reinforces the idea that borrowing is the most straightforward and frequently used method of adapting to the linguistic environment, especially when dealing with imported materials or tools that already have established French labels.

At the construction site, the data similarly show a strong preference for borrowing, with nine instances (60%). This is followed by five instances of compounding (33.4%), one case of calquing (6.6%), and again, no instances of clipping. The high percentage of borrowing may be attributed to the standardized vocabulary commonly used in the construction sector, where French dominates in written documentation and workplace communication. In response, Anglophone workers in this environment often adopt French terms directly into their English usage.

In the general commerce category, borrowing also leads, with seven occurrences (46.6%). This is followed by four instances of calquing (26.6%) and an equal number of clippings and compounds, each accounting for two instances (13.4%). These figures further confirm that in broad business contexts, borrowing and direct translation from French into English are key strategies for maintaining mutual understanding, especially when the Anglophone speaker is engaging with Francophone customers.

Overall, a general analysis of the findings across all sectors reveals that borrowing is the most frequent word formation process used by Anglophones in Francophone Cameroon, accounting for approximately 47% of all observed cases. This high rate of borrowing reflects the prestige

and dominance of the French language in these regions, making it a natural source for lexical influence. Compounding follows with 28.1%, indicating that many speakers creatively combine French and English elements to form new terms (for example, *petite coat*), especially in trade-related environments. Calquing ranks third with 7.6%, suggesting that some speakers directly translate French expressions into English where appropriate. Finally, clipping, though present, is the least used at 6.2%, mostly applied when French terms are shortened for ease of use and speed in oral communication.

These findings highlight how Anglophones in Francophone regions adapt their speech by borrowing, inventing, and modifying words in order to navigate everyday interactions. This linguistic flexibility reflects the dynamic contact between French and English in Cameroon and emphasizes the role of language in shaping communication within mixed-language community.

4.4.1 Verification of Hypotheses

A close analysis of Table 21, which shows how often these newly created vocabularies are used, reveals strong evidence in support of the hypothesis that Anglophones living in Francophone regions of Cameroon—specifically Yaoundé and Douala—have developed a distinct lexical variety. The responses were categorized under four frequency levels: *Very Often* (89%), *Often* (66%), *Less Often* (4.4%), and *Never* (0%). The high percentages under "Very Often" and "Often" strongly suggest that these newly formed words are not occasional or alternative terms—they are, in fact, the *primary* vocabulary used by Anglophones in these regions.

Such a high frequency of use clearly confirms that the majority of Anglophone speakers in these French-speaking cities consistently rely on these modified or borrowed lexical items in their daily communication. In many cases, these are the only terms they know for certain items or concepts, showing how deeply integrated these new words have become in their speech patterns.

Meanwhile, the small percentage of respondents who reported using these words "Less Often" or who showed *neutrality or unfamiliarity* with the vocabulary are likely Anglophones who have recently moved to these cities. Some may be internally displaced persons (IDPs) from the Northwest and Southwest regions due to the ongoing socio-political crisis. These individuals are still adjusting to the new linguistic environment and may continue to rely on the vocabulary they used back in their original, more English-dominant communities.

This difference in word usage supports the study's hypothesis that Anglophones living in Francophone Cameroon have formed a unique speech community with vocabulary that is noticeably different from that of their Anglophone counterparts in the Southwest and Northwest regions. The evidence, as presented in Table 21, confirms that daily interactions in Francophone areas have shaped a distinct variety of English, strongly influenced by French, and tailored to the realities of bilingual urban life in cities like Yaoundé and Douala.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTION

Summary of work

This chapter presents the major findings of the research, which focused on the influence of French on English at the lexical level, specifically among Anglophones living in Douala and Yaoundé. The study aimed to investigate how English speakers from the North West and South West regions of Cameroon, who have migrated to French-speaking regions for economic and social reasons, adapt their language to communicate effectively in their new environment. As Cameroon is officially bilingual, the frequent interaction between English and French speakers has created a fertile ground for cross-linguistic influence, especially in urban centres such as Douala and Yaoundé.

One of the key observations from this research is that Anglophones in these two cities have developed a unique vocabulary that differs from that of their counterparts in the purely English-speaking regions. This new vocabulary results from a process of lexical borrowing, code-switching, and direct translation (calque) from French into English. The results confirm that these linguistic changes are not random but follow identifiable word-formation processes. These include compounding, borrowing, clipping, and calquing.

Field data was collected from selected trading environments in both cities. These included Mokolo Market in Yaoundé and the Central Market in Douala. Specific business settings such as spare parts shops, barbershops, construction sites, and mechanic workshops were chosen due to their high concentration of Anglophone entrepreneurs and workers. From these areas, various lexical items were gathered and analysed to understand how language evolves in bilingual contact zones.

The findings indicate that borrowing from French is the most frequent word-formation process, especially for everyday trade and commerce terms. Words like carburant (fuel), tallon (heels), and ballerine (flat shoes) are used directly in English speech without translation. This tendency reflects not only the practical need for communication but also the socio-cultural status of French, which is often regarded as a prestigious language in these settings.

Compounding, particularly the combination of English and French words into a single expression, was also commonly observed. Terms like *petite coat* and *barbing salon* are examples of this phenomenon, showing how bilingual speakers merge both languages to create new, meaningful expressions. This strategy is often used to simplify communication or to express concepts for which there may not be an existing term in one language alone.

Calquing—the direct translation of French expressions into English—is another notable pattern. In such cases, the structure of the French phrase is preserved, but the words are translated into English, creating new but sometimes unusual expressions in English. Clipping, though less frequent, was found in some contexts where longer French terms were shortened and adapted into informal English speech.

The findings from this study closely align with those of other linguists, including Bonaventure Sala and Samuel Atechi, whose research has shown how bilingual Cameroonians tend to integrate French words into their English usage, particularly in informal or trade-based conversations. Like their findings, this study confirms that cross-linguistic influence is especially common in domains such as business, daily commerce, and services.

A total of 100 respondents were selected across both cities, using random sampling techniques to ensure a fair representation. Respondents were mostly traders, artisans, and workers engaged in entrepreneurial activities. Data was collected using structured questionnaires designed to gather both quantitative and qualitative information.

The data analysis used both quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative analysis helped measure the frequency of word-formation processes and the level of awareness and usage of new vocabulary. Qualitative analysis, on the other hand, was used to interpret the meaning and significance of the new words in the daily lives of Anglophone speakers in French regions.

Overall, the results show that Anglophones in Douala and Yaoundé are actively shaping a new way of speaking English—one that is influenced by French and adapted to suit their specific needs in a bilingual environment. This new speech variety, though rooted in Standard English, reflects the social and linguistic realities of living in a predominantly French-speaking region. It confirms the hypothesis that Anglophones in French regions form a distinct speech community, with vocabulary that sets them apart from other English speakers in Cameroon.

Verification of Hypotheses:

Verifying hypotheses involves testing the proposed statements or assumptions using statistical analysis or other methods. This step aims to determine whether the data supports or refutes the initial hypotheses formulated before conducting the research. Statistical tests such as t-tests, ANOVA, regression analysis, etc., are commonly used for hypothesis verification.

Verification of the Most Frequent Word Formation Process:

Analysing the most frequent word formation process entails identifying patterns in language where certain affixes (prefixes, suffixes) are added to base words to create new terms. By examining a large corpus of text data, researchers can determine which word formation processes occur most frequently and understand how language evolves over time.

The analysis revealed that the distribution of general data from the questionnaire was skewed towards trade and commerce with participants such as shoes sellers. The representation of original words in English and French showed consistent translations, while the creation of new words followed established linguistic rules. Hypotheses were verified through statistical tests, confirming significant relationships between variables. The most frequent word formation process identified. A general look at the most frequent word formation process used by Anglophones influenced by French is borrowing with a percentage of 47%, followed by compounding with a percentage of 28.1, claque comes immediately after compounding with a percentage of 7.6% and lastly, clipping with a total percentage of 6.2%. One can therefore say, that the most frequent word formation process used by Anglophones living in francophone Cameroon is borrowing.

Key Findings

The findings of the study revealed that Anglophones who have resided for a significant duration in Yaounde and Douala tend to incorporate more borrowed words from French into their English vocabulary. This phenomenon suggests a notable influence of the French language on the lexicon of English speakers living in these regions. The integration of French loanwords into their English usage reflects a linguistic adaptation influenced by the bilingual environment prevalent in Yaounde and Douala.

Implications: The results imply that prolonged exposure to a multilingual setting can lead to linguistic borrowing and code-switching among individuals, resulting in a hybridization of languages within their speech patterns. The incorporation of French terms into the English lexicon of Anglophones in Yaounde and Douala underscores the dynamic nature of language contact and its impact on language evolution and diversity. The study highlights the cross linguistic influence of French on English among Anglophones residing in Yaounde and Douala, showcasing how prolonged exposure to a bilingual environment can shape individuals' language usage. The integration of borrowed words from French into their English vocabulary signifies a blending of linguistic elements, reflecting the complex interplay between different languages within multicultural contexts.

Challenges faced in the research

The research encountered several challenges during its execution. One significant problem was the difficulty in accurately identifying Anglophones from Francophones who spoke English but wanted to be classified as Anglophones. To address this issue, the researcher had to establish specific criteria, such as considering only Anglophones from the northwest and southwest regions of Cameroon.

Another obstacle faced by the research team was the selection of busy marketplaces like Mokolo in Yaounde and Central Market in Douala for data collection. These locations presented challenges in terms of gaining participants' attention and cooperation. To overcome this hurdle, the researchers had to purchase items or employ strategies to engage with potential participants effectively.

The primary challenges encountered during the research included accurately identifying Anglophones, particularly among Francophones who spoke English, and engaging participants in bustling marketplaces for data collection purposes.

During the course of the research, several challenges were encountered that impacted the study's methodology and outcomes. Two significant problems stood out prominently:

Identification Issues: One of the primary challenges faced was related to the identification of participants based on their linguistic backgrounds. The complexity arose from Francophones who spoke English but wanted to be classified as Anglophones. To address this issue, it was crucial to establish clear criteria for defining Anglophones, specifically focusing on individuals from the Northwest and Southwest regions of Cameroon. This distinction was necessary to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the data collected.

Market Selection and Engagement: Another notable challenge revolved around selecting appropriate locations for data collection, particularly in busy markets like Mokolo in Yaoundé and Central Market in Douala. Engaging with participants in such bustling environments required strategic approaches to capture their attention effectively. As part of this process, purchasing items from these markets was necessary to establish rapport with potential participants and facilitate meaningful interactions.

These challenges significantly influenced the research process and necessitated careful planning and adaptation strategies to mitigate their impact on data collection and analysis

Future Research on Cross-Linguistic Influence of French on English Vocabulary

The cross-linguistic influence of French on English vocabulary, especially in the context of Anglophones who have resided in a Francophone country like Cameroon for an extended period, presents a rich area for future research. Here are some potential avenues for exploration:

Suggestions for future research

A promising direction for future research would be to explore how some French words borrowed by Anglophones in Cameroon have changed in meaning and usage over time. In everyday conversation, it is clear that many borrowed French words are no longer used the same way they are in standard French. Instead, they have taken on new meanings that suit the context and communication style of English speakers living in Francophone areas. It would be interesting for researchers to study how these words have shifted in meaning, and how the Anglophone community has adapted them to better fit their needs and surroundings. Such a study would shed light on how language changes when two cultures and languages meet and blend over time.

Another rich area of research could involve looking closely at how Anglophones in Francophone Cameroon move between English and French in their speech. This phenomenon, known as code-switching, is part of the daily reality for bilingual speakers who often switch from one language to the other depending on who they are talking to, what they are talking about, or even the setting they are in. Researchers could explore how this constant interaction between the two languages affects the way Anglophones choose their words, especially in work or trade situations where communication needs to be fast and efficient.

A deeper look into how frequently certain French words are borrowed into English, and in what contexts, would also be very useful. Scholars could carry out surveys or analyse actual speech data to find out which borrowed words are the most commonly used, where they came from originally, and in what kinds of conversations they appear most often. This would give a clearer picture of how much French is influencing English in Cameroon and which domains—such as trade, transport, fashion, or administration—are most affected.

It would also be helpful to explore how all this borrowing and mixing of languages affects people's attitudes towards their own language use. For example, do Anglophones feel that borrowing French words makes their English less “pure”? Or do they see it as a natural part of their identity as Cameroonians living in a bilingual country? This sociolinguistic angle can help us understand how language use is tied to feelings of pride, identity, and belonging. It might even show whether speakers feel pressure to speak a certain way in order to fit into society or to be accepted in professional environments.

A comparison between Anglophones living in Francophone regions like Douala and Yaoundé and those who still live in English-speaking parts of the country could also reveal a lot. Such a study might show how long-term exposure to a bilingual setting leads to a special kind of vocabulary that does not exist elsewhere in the country. We could learn what kinds of hybrid words or expressions are born out of this contact, and whether these expressions are shared widely or limited to certain regions or professions.

Another important area that could be explored is the historical path these borrowed words have followed. Many of the French words used in Cameroonian English today may have roots in the country's colonial past, its education system, or earlier periods of cultural exchange. Studying how these words entered the language and how their use has changed over time could give us a better understanding of the broader cultural and historical influences at play.

In conclusion, there is a wide field of opportunities for future research into how French continues to influence the English spoken by Anglophones living in Francophone regions of Cameroon. Whether through vocabulary change, code-switching, frequency of borrowing, social attitudes, regional comparisons, or historical background, these studies would provide deeper insights into how languages evolve when they coexist closely and are used in daily life by real people trying to navigate their multilingual world.

Recommendations to stakeholders

Based on the findings of this study, a few important recommendations can be made.

First, schools and language institutions should teach students about the way English and French mix in everyday speech in cities like Douala and Yaoundé. This will help learners understand how both languages influence each other in real life.

Secondly, teachers should include common borrowed words and mixed expressions in lessons. This will help students feel confident using the kind of language they hear and speak daily, while still learning the correct forms of English and French.

The media should also accept and reflect the way people speak in bilingual settings instead of criticizing it. This helps people feel included and respected, no matter how they speak.

Researchers should continue to study how new words are formed in bilingual areas. More studies should be done in other cities to see if people face the same language changes.

Finally, new Anglophones, especially those who have moved because of conflict, should be supported with language programs to help them adapt better to French-speaking cities like Yaoundé and Douala.

In short, bilingualism in Cameroon is part of daily life, and it should be supported, respected, and better understood by everyone.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire

Section one

1. Full name
2. Workshop address
3. Number of years lived in Douala/Yaoundé
 - a. 8 -10 years
 - b. 10 years and above
4. Type of activity
 - a. Motor spare parts
 - b. Baba's shop
 - c. General commerce
5. How many years have you been in business?
 - a. 8- 10 years
 - b. 10 years and above
6. Are you an----- or a -----
 - a. Anglophone
 - b. Francophone
7. How many of your coworkers are francophone
 - a. 3 – 9
 - b. 10 and above
8. How many of your coworkers are Anglophone
 - c. 3 – 9
 - d. 10 and above
9. What part of the country are you from?
 - a. South west
 - b. northwest
10. How often do you interact with costumers and business partners
 - a. very often
 - b. often
 - c. once in a while
 - d. never

Section B

Construction site

1. What is the name given to the instrument used for plastering
a) float b) plastering c) talosh
2. What name is given to the hand tool used to break stones
a) hammer b) masette c) stone hammer
3. What name is given to the beam\ planks to which the windows are attached to
a) frame b) window protector c) cadre
4. What is the name of the poles supporting a building
a) pillar b) strong ion c) pothole
5. What name is given to the process where by
a) pillar putting b) camel c)
6. What is the name of the wires used for tying two ions together?
a) Binding wire b)
7. What is the name given to the ions that are put into a building?
a) Rod, b) Ranforcing Bar C) faer
8. What is the name of the tiny grains mixed with cement for block production?
a) Sand, b) ground c) sable
9. What is the name given to the instrument used for measurement?
a) Tape b) Meter c) Metre
10. What name is given to the mixture of sand , water, gravel and cement to harden a part of a building
a) Concrete b) beton c) hardener
11. What name is given to the site where the building process is carried out?
a) Construction site b) building c) chantier

12. What is the name given to the person who builds the house?

- a) Builder b) contractor c) mancon

13 what is the name given to a beam that is used for structural support in roofing?

- a) Purlines b) lad c) roof supporter

14 What is the name given to a horizontal beam that covers an opening?

- a) Lintel b) lentol c) cover

15 what is the name given to a thick chisel like tool used for breaking stones?

- a) Pitcher b) talknife c) big hammer

A Mechanic shop

1. What name is given to the instrument which distributes air to the engine's cylinders, and on many cars it also holds the fuel injectors?

- a) Intake manifold b) air distributor c) carburetor

2. What is the component used in many liquid-fuelled engines (such as petrol/gasoline or diesel engines) to transfer the fuel from the fuel tank to the device where it is mixed with the air

- a) Fuel pump b) fuel transferer C) pump essence

3. What engine central component is used in the, lubrication, temperature control and stability of the engine

- A) cylinder block b) bloc-cylindres c) Block motel

4. They're key to controlling air flow in and out of the cylinders and fuel deployment.

- a) cylinder head b) culasse c) Quilass

5. A funnel and is used to collect all of the engine's emissions

- a) Exhaust manifold b) Collecteur d'échappement c) Gasket join d'colecter du Echaffement

6. Is to seal the area between the intake manifold and the cylinder head, preventing air and coolant from escaping in the space where these two surfaces meet.

- a) Intake manifold gasket

7. seal the combustion chamber. They are set with precision so as to apply the correct pressure on the cylinder wall or liner, which ensures there is a consistent film of oil across the cylinder's working surfaces.

- a) Piston ring b) Segment de piston c) Segment de piston

8. Is responsible for the proper operation of the engine and converting a linear motion to a rotational motion.

- a) Crankshaft b) vilebrequin c) Vilebrequin

9. To store mechanical energy to balance the engine so that it continues to have good performance. Mechanical power is the energy created when the engine is running.

a) Fly wheel b) moteur à volant c) Volant moteur

10. enhance the performance of the vehicles, bear heavy loads, and reduce friction.

a) Bearing b) Roliment c) Roliment

11. to transmit rotary motion between two shafts where gears are unsuitable or to impart linear motion to a track, tape

a) Spokes b) pinion c) Poli

12. The oil pan , or sump , is a metal dish which covers the bottom of the engine block, and holds the engine oil when it is not circulating around the engine.

a) Sump b) pièce c) Carte motel

13. Then it delivers power, getting the engine rotating.

a) Starter b) démarreur c) Démarreur

14. clutch release bearing are the major components of the transmission that interact with the gear systems and crankshaft, affecting both the engine functioning and wheel functioning.

a) Clutch release bearine b) Butée d'embrayage c) Butée

15. components of modern cars as they provide crucial information to the vehicle's control systems.

Spare parts

1. Connecting rod, also called a 'con rod engine which connects the piston to the crankshaft

a) Con rod b) Bielle c) Bielle

2. To reduce speed and to stop the motorcycle.

a) Shoes brake b) frein à sabot c) Garniture

3. Enable the spin of a shaft (spindle) or rotation around a shaft (axle) under load.

a) Bearine b) Roulement c) Roulement

4. Responsible for the transmission of power from the engine to the rear wheel, its simplicity belies its functionality.

a) Motor circle chain b) complete chain c) Transmission compte

5. lutch is to temporarily disconnect the engine from the transmission and drivetrain system which drives the rear wheel.

a) Clutch fiber b) fibre d'embrayage c) Disque d'embrayage.

6. Motorcycles use a coil to 'step-up' the battery's voltage to the correct range. A motorcycle ignition coil is a transformer consisting of two separate coils of wire, wound around a central post.

a) Engine coil b) bobine moteur c) Bobine moteur

7. are responsible for the proper operation the engine and converting a linear motion to a rotational motion.

a) Crankshaft b) vilebrequin c) Vibriquin

8. The cylinder block forms the basic framework of the engine, it houses the engine cylinders, which serve as bearings and guides for the pistons reciprocating in them

a) Engine block b) bloc moteur c) Bloc moteur

9. Seal the combustion chamber. They are set with precision so as to apply the correct pressure on the cylinder wall or liner, which ensures there is a consistent film of oil across the cylinder's working surfaces.

a) Piston ring b) Segment de piston c) Segment

10. What is used to light up the bike bulb

a) Bulb b) L'ampoule c) L'ampoule

General commence

1. What is the name given to ladies low shoes?

a) Flat shoes b) ballerine c) Ballerina

2. What is the name given to ladies high shoes

a) Heels b) talons c) Talons

3. What is the name given to these green spices

a) Leeks b) poireaux c) Poireaux

a) Green pepper b) poivron vert. c) poivron

4. What is the name given to the tiny round white grains used for cooking?
- a) White pepper b) poivre blanc c) poivre blanc
5. What is the name given to the items we put dresses in?
- a) Box b) valleys c) Valleys
6. What name is given to a buyer sellers want to entice?
- a) Customer b) cliente c) Copine
7. When is given to a container used to wash plates and hands ?
- a) Bowl b) basin c) Basine
8. what is the name of the thing use to cover puts or ditches?
- a) Lid b) couverture c) Cover

1.1.1 Observation Checklist

Location _____ Observed: _____
Date: _____
Time: _____

1.1.1.1 1. *Language Used in Interaction*

- 2 ☐ French only
- 3 ☐ English only
- 4 ☐ Both English and French
- 5 ☐ Mixture of English and French in the same sentence (code-switching)
- 6 ☐ Use of translated French words into English (calque)
- 7 ☐ Use of French words in English sentences (borrowing)

7.1.1.1 2. *Word Formation Types Noticed*

- ☐ Borrowed words
- ☐ Mixed compounds
- ☐ Translated phrases from French
- ☐ Shortened French or English words
- ☐ Normal English expressions

7.1.1.2 3. *Place of Observation*

- ☐ Barber shop
- ☐ Mechanic shop
- ☐ Spare parts store
- ☐ Construction site
- ☐ General market

7.1.1.3 4. *Who is Speaking?*

- ☐ Trader/Seller
- ☐ Customer
- ☐ Both

7.1.1.4 5. *Purpose of Communication*

- ☐ To buy/sell a product
- ☐ To give directions
- ☐ To explain something
- ☐ To bargain prices
- ☐ Other: _____

7.1.1.5 6. *Frequency of Mixed Language Use*

- ☐ Very often
- ☐ Often

- [] Sometimes
- [] Rarely
- [] Never

7.1.1.6 7. *Reaction of Listeners*

- [] Understand clearly
- [] Ask for clarification
- [] Respond using same mixed language
- [] Look confused

7.1.1.7 8. *Notable New Words or Phrases Used*

(Write any new or interesting words you hear that mix French and English):
