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Cross-linguistic influence in English language production
An empirical investigation

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**We cannot do great things.
We can only do little things with great love**

Mother Teresa

**to
Afrim Halimi**

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ABSTRACT

As in most parts of the world, English is the main foreign language learned in Macedonia. The situation differs from other, maybe better known contexts, however, in that Albanian learners of English in Macedonia are normally bilingual to start with.

The goal of this study is to investigate language use among bilingual Albanian learners of English with a view to finding out what role English plays in their lives, how they learn the English language, and what their language behavior is when learning the third language.

This kind of study draws on both socio- and psycholinguistic theory and my attention was particularly concentrated on transfer phenomena at the lexical level. It can be said that the focus on lexical influence of the first and the second language upon English characterizes this study, among similar studies in the field of third language acquisition. The data were collected in classroom environments in the form of conversation and written texts from students, language background questionnaires and proficiency tests, classroom recordings, and interviews conducted with the English teachers. The results of the language background questionnaires and proficiency tests indicated that the students could be divided into two experimental groups, one constituted by 48 students with Low Bilingual proficiency and one comprising 67 students with High Bilingual proficiency, all at A2 on the Common European Frame of Reference, describing a pre-intermediate level of English.

The most notable relationship observed in this study was the effect of bilingualism on third language production. This finding answered the main research questions, demonstrating that proficiency and language typology affect L3 acquisition and production. Although not quantitatively significant, the trend found in this analysis does suggest the possibility of a beneficial effect that proficiency, the similarity between language typologies, attitude as well as motivation might have on L3 learning. These conclusions support the majority of current research in the field of L3 acquisition.

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ABBREVIATIONS

Alb	Albanian
BIA	Bilingual Interactive Activation
CLI	Cross-linguistic influence
Mac	Macedonian
Eng	English
HB	High Bilinguals
LB	Low Bilinguals
L1	first language
L2	second language
L3	third language
WEU	word elicitation unit

Abbreviations for grammatical features in the glosses:

1	1 st person
2	2 nd person
3	3 rd person
Acc	accusative
Agr	agreement
Admir	admirative
Aor	aorist
Adj	adjective
Cl	clitic
Dat	dative
Def.	definite
F	feminine
Imper	imperative
ii	influence index
Lit	literal
M	masculine
Mod	modality
N	neuter
Part	particle
Pres	Present
Sg	singular
Subj	subjunctive

General introduction and structure

0.1 Introduction

Research in third language acquisition is relatively new in the field of linguistics and has only begun within the last ten years. The study of the acquisition of a third language by bilingual speakers is even younger. The growing body of research on this issue shows relevant differences between second and third language acquisition and reveals specific characteristics of the process of third language acquisition. The use of English as a lingua franca has contributed to the spread of trilingualism i.e. Third Language Acquisition in many parts of the world.

The spread of English in Europe is growing rapidly due to political, economic, social and cultural changes. Different linguists have provided a variety of labels to categorize the use of English in different countries. Mac Arthur (1998:43) introduced a distinction between ESL (English as a Second Language) countries, where the language has an official status, EFL (English as a Foreign Language) countries where this is not the case, and ENL (English as a native language) countries. The sociolinguistic profile has been represented by Kachru (1992b) in terms of three circles: the 'inner circle' includes the native speakers of English (UK, USA Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zeland). The 'outer circle' includes speakers who use English as their second language in everyday communication, for instance administrators in former British colonies (India, Nigeria, etc). The 'expanding circle' refers to speakers who use English as a third language for specific purposes and learn it as a foreign language. This is the case in most less developed South Eastern European countries where English has been furthered deliberately. One of these countries is Macedonia, a former Yugoslav Republic, where English is of increasing significance in education and on the job market.

Macedonia, as a post communist country, has gone through a transition period which started, as in most Eastern European countries, at the beginning of the 1990s, and which is still going on in the Balkans. As a result of economic, technological, scientific, and cultural (in particular youth cultural) developments, the need to use languages of wider communication was felt very sharply, and the people of Macedonia have started to learn English in considerable numbers as a means of

relating meaningfully to the wider world. The teaching and learning of English as a foreign language has gained an unprecedented importance. English language studies constitute an increasingly prominent part in education. Not only are students in higher education required to study the English language, but many lower and middle schools have added English to their curricula, whether as enrichment or as a requirement.

As a result of historical and political developments Macedonia is a multiethnic and multilingual country and the languages spoken in Macedonia are: Macedonian, Albanian, Turkish, Serbian, Vlah (Aromanians). The official language of Macedonia is Macedonian and any other language that is spoken by at least 20 per cent of the population is also used as an official language, in addition to the Macedonian language and its Cyrillic alphabet.

Within this context, many ethnic groups learn their native language and the official language of the country (Macedonian) simultaneously or successively and then add English as their third language. One such group is the Albanians who represent the second largest ethnic group in Macedonia. The western part of Macedonia is inhabited by autochthonous Albanians, who learn Albanian as a first, Macedonian as a second and English as a third language.

This study has been carried out in an educational setting and has investigated the acquisition of English as a third language (L3) by Albanian/ Macedonian bilingual students in the university context. Albanians in Macedonia acquire Albanian as their native language and then, when they are around three years old, start to learn Macedonian as their second language either in kindergarten or through their Macedonian playmates who speak Macedonian. When they start to attend school, they learn English as their first foreign language. Throughout the acquisition of English as their third language, they encounter various language problems. The main issue of this study is to contribute to the understanding of problems in language learning encountered particularly by Albanian bilingual students. According to Larsen- Freeman (2000) attempts at understanding the process of learning will not be successful unless a researcher makes connections between learners, the language, and the social context in which languages are learned. As a

backdrop for this investigation I have therefore included information on when and how the use of English as a foreign language has been implemented in primary and secondary schools, public and private schools, as well as on the role of English in university curricula. In addition, my study will also include some elementary information about multilingualism in Macedonia. This study, then, is about the sociolinguistic factors and psycholinguistic processes that influence the acquisition of English as a third language in bilingual Albanian students in Macedonia.

0.2 Objectives of the present research

The goal of this study has been to investigate language use among bilingual Albanian learners of English with a view to finding out what role English plays in their lives, how they learn the English language, and how their language behavior when learning the third language can be characterized. The aim of this work is to examine cross-linguistic influence of L1 and L2 on L3 English production, rather than to compare the three language systems completely, as would be done in a purely contrastive analysis. The study explores trilingual processing and production phenomena and focuses on lexical production, for instance code-switching and lexico-semantic substitution within and across languages. A combination of both qualitative and quantitative data is used in order to gain access to a wide range of data. The qualitative data have been collected through translation and a word recognition task, classroom recordings from the students and interviews conducted with the instructors. The quantitative data have been collected through language placement tests, language background questionnaires and translation and word recognition tasks.

0.3 Overview

This paper aims at creating an understanding of third language acquisition with English as a third language. It is divided into seven main chapters. After the introductory part,

(1) the thesis first looks at the sociolinguistic situation of Albanians in Macedonia in order to establish the linguistic background of this community, and it gives background information regarding the two languages known by bilingual learners of English, Albanian and Macedonian.

(2) part two considers key concepts of theories on language acquisition study and focuses on second language acquisition, bilingualism and third language acquisition

(3) part three gives an overview of third language acquisition studies with a view to identifying factors that may influence language shift behavior,

(4) part four gives an overview of studies on multilingual lexicon and research in the field of cross-linguistic influence,

(5) part five explains the methodology used in this study,

(6) the empirical part presents and discusses the results of the study. The analysis uses written learner output to identify learners' transfer items from L1 or L2 in L3 production and is purely interested in the reasons which may have caused Cross-Linguistic Influence (CLI). The main aim of this study is to investigate the role of previously acquired languages, both the native and the second language, in third language acquisition.

(7) chapter seven discusses the results of this study and how they relate to previous findings presented in the review of literature.

0.4 Motivation

The reason I chose to investigate third language learning is that I am greatly interested in the way people learn a language in a multilingual context. My work as an English teacher has given me the opportunity to work with Albanian students who are mostly bilingual with Macedonian as their second language and learn English as a third language.

During classes, on many occasions students draw on their knowledge of their first and second language as they try to use their third language. This has often been evident in writing classes and has brought forth the idea of studying the influence of previously learned languages on English production.

Another observation has been that the degree of competence in the second language, also affected English production. Bilingual students whose L2 proficiency is high used their L2 consciously, while students with low L2 proficiency seemed to use their L2 unconsciously.

These observations have motivated me to conduct a study in the field of third language acquisition and to compare the results of my own with previous work done in this field.

CHAPTER ONE

Sociolinguistic profile of the study

1.1 Historical and political background

Macedonia is a South Eastern European (SEE) country located in the center of the Balkan Peninsula. It borders on Kosovo (the former Serbian autonomy) in the north, Serbia in the north east, Bulgaria in the east, Greece in the south and Albania in the west.

The Macedonian Republic was first proclaimed on 2 August 1944 as part of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Thereafter Yugoslavia's leader, Josip Broz Tito, encouraged the development of a Slavic Macedonian nation through an intensive period of state-building. This included in particular the refinement of the Macedonian language (which became the republic's official language) and of its alphabet. Macedonia was the fourth largest of the six republics within the Yugoslav Federation but the least developed. With the collapse of the federation, this small country of two million people declared its independence in the spring of 1992.

The declaration of independence, however, resurrected some old issues and questions concerning the identity of Macedonians, their historical claims and more importantly their position within the new state. The question whether Macedonians form a genuine ethnic group in their own right is disputed by virtually all of Macedonia's neighbors. Only Albania has recognized the existence of the Macedonian people and Macedonian independence (Macedonian Tribune 1993:1). Greece objected to Macedonia's right to the name, since Macedonia is also the name of a large northern province of Greece. Pettifer (1995) points out that the international recognition of the new country was delayed by Greece's objection. To compromise, most international organizations, such as the European Union or the European Broadcasting Union, have adopted the provisional reference "the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia". The UN has set up a negotiation process between Macedonia and Greece but the countries have yet to reach a settlement.

Despite the name dispute, the fact remains that three generations have grown up with a Macedonian identity and consider themselves as the largest group of the multi-ethnic Republic of Macedonia.

The most fundamental challenge facing Macedonia is finding a successful resolution to the ethnic tensions in its heterogeneous population. This is a particularly formidable challenge for Macedonia's Albanian population. There is a dispute concerning the size of the Albanian population in Macedonia. According to the census of 1991 by the Macedonian Statistical Office, Albanians comprised 21.73 per cent of the whole population. This census was boycotted by the Albanians, however, who claimed that the census was unfair because instructions explaining how to fill out the forms were written in Macedonian only and many Albanians living in rural places do not speak Macedonian. According to Unrepresented Nations and Peoples Organization (UNPO 1997:50) report, Albanians are the second largest population group in Macedonia who comprise about 40 per cent of Macedonia's population.

According to the latest census of 2002, provided by the Macedonian State Statistical Office (http://www.stat.gov.mk/pdf/kniga_13pdf; accessed 17 September, 2008) the total population amounted to 2 022 547 of which 64.18 per cent were Macedonians (1 297 981) and the rest Albanians, Turks, Roma, Serbs, Bosnians, Vlachs and others:

Ethnic minority groups	Total number	% share of total population
Macedonians	1 297 981	64.18
Albanians	509 083	25.17
Turks	77 959	3.85
Romans	53 879	2.66
Serbs	35 030	1.78
Bosnians	17 018	0.84
Vlachs	9 695	0.48
Others	20 993	1.04

Table 1.1: State Statistical Census of Macedonia in 2002

1.2 Albanian linguistic identity and language policy

Bilingual Albanian students (with first language Albanian and second language Macedonian) are the group investigated in this study. Therefore, the following questions are discussed in this chapter:

- who are the Albanian people of Macedonia,
- where are they situated,
- how much have they preserved of their national and language identity,
- and under which circumstances can the Albanians use the Albanian language in Macedonia.

1.2.1 Geographical location

Many scholars (Newmark, Hubbard & Prifti 1982:2) affirm that the Albanians are the oldest of the Balkan peoples and that their ancestors, the Illyrians, were in the Balkans centuries before the Slavs began to migrate into the area. The consensus of scholars at present is that the Illyrians were indigenous to the Balkans.

According to Newmark, et al (1982:6) the majority of Albanians identify themselves as 'shqiptarë' who speak the language called 'shqip', a word which is an adverb meaning '(to speak) clearly'. The speakers of Albanian in Italy and Sicily refer to themselves as 'arbereshë', and they call their language by the same name. As a linguistic group, the Arbëresh live in Calabria and in Palermo in Sicily. They are the descendants of refugees who left Albania after Scanderbeg in 1468. The Arbëresh have settled in Arbanasi, a suburb of Zadar on the Dalmatian coast of Croatia.

Evidence about Albanian language (Newmark, et al 1982) indicates that Albanian is spoken by approximately five million people. About two and a half million in the country of Albania and almost two million more in adjacent areas: a million and a half in the Republic of Kosovo (Former Yugoslav Social Autonomous Province of Kosovo, which later formed part of the Republic of Serbia), and half a million more in Macedonia and Montenegro. In addition, Newmark, et al (1982) indicate that there are estimated to be an additional third of a million identifiable Albanian speakers in southern Italy (80.000), in northern Greece (50.000) as well as

in small enclaves in Bulgaria (1000), the Ukraine (perhaps 5000), Romania, and Turkey. There are also some tens of thousand of Albanian speakers in the United States, mostly centered in and around the cities of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Detroit, and Chicago. Additionally, speakers of Albanian can be found elsewhere throughout the world, for example in places such as Scandinavia, Germany, the United Kingdom and Australia. A good number of Albanians outside of Albania are bilingual or trilingual.

Edith Durham, (1909) the British writer and traveler describes a journey throughout Albanian Highlands in her widely read book, *High Albania*, London 1909. She illustrates the character trait of the Albanians with a story from personal experience. While traveling in the early twentieth century she visited the mud hut of a poor mountaineer. She was greeted with courtly grace by her ragged host, who said to her: “We are poor. Bread, salt, and our hearts is all we can offer, but you are welcome to stay as long as you wish.”(1909: 12) A century earlier, another English author, the poet Lord Byron, visited Albania in 1809 and his impression was reflected in the letter he wrote to his mother on 12 November 1809 from Prevesa, “His name is Vasil. Like other Albanians he is brave, unquestionably loyal and honest... They have many shortcomings, but they are void of wickedness. I have not lost a thing here, and I have always been invited to have meals with them.” (Moore 1833:70)

In this regards, Newmark, et al (1982) describe the Albanians to have “a reputation for their sense of loyalty, as well as pride and honor.”(1982:5). This sense of honor, which is called ‘besa’, is rooted in the customs and traditions of Albanian society. A significant fact concerning Albanians is that they have managed to preserve their language, culture and ethnic identity despite their small number; in short to survive as a distinct ethnic group in the face of overwhelming odds.

1.2.2 The Albanian nationality in Macedonia

For thousands of years, Albanians have lived on their ancestral lands. Over the course of history, their land has been divided up among many states, Albania,

Kosovo, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece including what is now known as the Republic of Macedonia.

The north-western part of Macedonia was historically inhabited exclusively by the Albanian people and is still predominantly Albanian. According to Mullen and Ryan (1997) before the independence of Macedonia in 1992, the Albanians enjoyed wider constitutional rights in Yugoslavia. After 1992, Macedonia changed its constitution and the Macedonian government declared that Albanians are one of the minority populations in Macedonia and cannot make claims of equality as a people. This declaration was never accepted by the Albanians, and as the authors stated, "...the Albanians in Macedonia wish to be treated equally." (Mullen and Ryan 1997,p.41). Albanians faced serious discrimination in their access to political representation, they were under-represented in the civil service, had limited access to education, and were restricted in the right to use their native language.

In the newly formed Macedonia, Albanians lost even the limited recognition they had enjoyed in the former Yugoslavia. The relations between Macedonians and Albanians have remained tense since the country's independence (Kim, J. Macedonia: Country Background and conflict. CRS Report or Congress. Updated November 7, 2001.Web. Accessed 16.December 2010 <<http://www.fas.org/man/crs/RL30900.pdf>.) The tensions led to open clashes on several occasions during the 1990s, especially in the western cities of Tetovo and Gostivar. The long lasting open clashes resulted in military conflict in February 2001, organized by the Albanian National Liberation Army against the Macedonian state. The Albanian National Liberation Army demanded equal status for the Albanian language, much wider access to Albanian language secondary and higher education and for the right to be named as a co-nation of Macedonia, together with the Macedonians and not as an ethnic minority.

The strong international backing brought an end to the armed conflict and opened all party talks on inter-ethnic issues and the negotiations finally reached an agreement on key reform issues. The agreement was signed on August 13, 2001 between the Albanian representatives and the government of Macedonia, which was called 'Ohrid Frame Agreement' (OFA). According to Lamont (2010), the

agreement constituted a re-founding of the Macedonian state and included significant alternations to the Macedonian Constitution in order to redefine Macedonia as a civic state. This agreement names Macedonian as the official language of the country, but says that any language spoken by 20% of the population is also an official language.

1.2.3 The use of the Albanian language in Macedonia

The Albanian language today is spoken by a considerable number in the Balkans and beyond. According to Demiraj (2006), today Albanian is spoken by a population of about 6 500 000 native speakers in a compact ethno-linguistic area in the western Balkans. It comprises Albania; almost all of Kosovo; a broad band of northwestern Macedonia; the district of Medveda, Preshevo, and Bujanovac in southern Serbia; the southern and southwestern part of Montenegro; and the region of Chameria in northwestern Greece. Evidence from the use of Albanian as official language (Demiraj, 2006) indicates that Albanian is the official language of the Republic of Albania, one of the official languages in Kosovo (UN Administration) and since 2001 one of the official languages in Macedonia.

A key concern of the Albanian population in Macedonia has been the place of Albanian language use in the state. Friedman (2006) reviews research findings about the language use in Macedonia. His work indicates that prior to 1991, as today, Albanian had primary and secondary education, post-secondary teacher training, and academic departments at the University of Skopje. Although Albanians were guaranteed instruction in their mother tongue on primary and secondary school education, university education was available only in Macedonian. Turning to Friedman (2006), he claims that during the 1980s, support for the Albanian language education was curtailed and the Albanian teachers' college was closed in 1986. Because of these obstructions and the need of higher education in Albanian, in 1995, Albanian educational activists organized an Albanian-language university in Tetovo, a city in western Macedonia with a majority of Albanian-speaking inhabitants.

According to Cowan (2000), Albanian politicians have consistently campaigned to give Albanian a more prominent place as a language of instruction in

the educational system. After the peace deal of August 2001, the government passed laws that allowed greater use of the Albanian language, extended education and admitted Albanians into public service careers. Roudometof (2002) reviews the Framework agreement and states that "...the agreement included a proposal for constitutional amendment that would allow any language (other than the official Macedonian recognized in the constitution as the language of the state) spoken by at least 20% of the population to be an administrative language as well, in its respective alphabet." This amendment was aimed to providing the Albanians the guarantee that the Albanian language would be officially recognized.

The Framework agreement contains several major changes concerning linguistic rights, which in practice would have great impact for the Albanians. Concerning the state level, the framework agreement states that any language spoken by at least 20% of the total population is also an official language throughout the republic (The Constitutional Amendment Article 2 declares the language use spoken by at least 20% of the population in Macedonia, Official Gazette no. 101 of 13.08.2008). According to this amendment, Albanian would be the only language qualified as an official language, and may thus be used:

"in parliament; communication of citizens with the ministries; judicial proceedings; administrative proceedings; the Ombudsman; the electoral process; direct expression of citizens; application of police powers; in broadcasting; infrastructure facilities; local government; finance; economy; education and science; culture and other fields and institutions in accordance with the law."

(Article two in the amendment of language use, translated from the original Macedonian text into English)

With respect to local level, the Framework agreement grants a new right to Albanian speakers to use the Albanian language in official communication at local level with regional representatives of the central government, who must respond in Macedonian as well as in Albanian. With this amendment, the regional authorities are not obliged to respond in Albanian because Macedonian is the official language throughout the country, regardless of the number of its speakers in any municipality. Macedonian remains the sole language of the Republic's external relations.

Since 2001, as today (2010) the implementation of the Ohrid Framework agreement document had helped to somehow stabilize Macedonia. According to Bugajski (2010:84) the European commission report of 2009 had concluded that Skopje (the capital city of Macedonia) was given good remarks in the implementation of the Ohrid Framework agreement, with progress in language law, decentralization, and equitable representation for the Albanians.

1.3 Acquisition of English as a third language: a sociolinguistic profile

Macedonia is determined to be a member of the European family and for this reason, the importance of learning and teaching English is of a high significance. Oschlies (2007) perceptively states that in order to reach the goal of European orientation, Macedonia has incorporated better teaching of foreign languages (mainly English and German) and stated that these languages “have been neglected in the past.” (2007:517). According to the statistical data of the language teaching plan and program in primary education (Republic of Macedonia State Statistical Office <<http://www.stat.gov.mk/publikacii/1.4.10.01.pdf>> Web. Accessed: 13 December 2010), in the 1996-2004 curriculum, Macedonian was introduced from the forth class of the primary school (at the age of ten), while English was introduced from the fifth class of the primary school (at the age of eleven). The old structure of educational system in Macedonia consisted of eight years of primary education.

The current structure of the education system in Macedonia (Naceva and Mickovska 2007) consists of: preschool education (six month to six years of age); primary education (duration: nine years; ages six to fourteen) which encompasses two elementary school phases, the preparatory class (one to four) and the grades class (five to six). The secondary education duration is three, or four years; from age fourteen to eighteen, while the higher and university education duration is two, four, five, or six years from age eighteen.

The educational system in Macedonia is administered by the Ministry of Education and Science, and its bodies are: the Bureau for Education Development (before known as Pedagogical Institute of Macedonia), National Education

Inspectorate and the Pedagogical Council (<http://www.mon.gov.mk/conent&view>>). The Bureau for Education Development is responsible for curriculum development, for assessment and quality control, and for organizing and providing in-service teacher training for primary and secondary school teachers. The function of national Education Inspectorate is to ensure the implementation of law on education, while the Pedagogical Council is responsible for giving professional advice. The elements of the curricular structure, time-table and program structure of pre-school, primary school and secondary school levels are determined on the national level. In higher education, curricula for different faculties are determined by teacher's council.

Schools in Macedonia work with the new national curriculum introduced in 2004 which prescribes the teaching form for each subject. According to the national curriculum, foreign language teaching is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL) (Bureau for the Development of Education (2008. Concept of nine years primary education. Web. Accessed 11 December 2010

<[http://www.bro.gov.mk/docs/osnvno obrazovanie.pdf](http://www.bro.gov.mk/docs/osnvno_obrazovanie.pdf)>. in Macedonian and Albanian) and contains a strong emphasis on intercultural components of language teaching. For the purpose of this study, samples of the primary school and secondary (high school) from the national curriculum and syllabuses were selected, which represent the status of English language teaching in Macedonia.

The structure of the English language teaching syllabus for the primary and secondary school education contains the following information: the aims of the course, educational components with description of specific aims, examples, guidelines about didactic procedure, suggested learning materials, types of assessment and basic standards for the teachers, the classroom, the school and the equipment.

The quality of the English language teachers vary greatly in Macedonia. Most of the public school classrooms are teacher-centered, and there are few teachers who know how to provide interactive instruction. Professional development training for the English teachers is offered by various foreign agencies such as

USAID and the British Council, and recently a group of U.S. Peace Corps Volunteers has been engaged in further teacher's professional development.

Teaching materials used in primary, secondary, and higher education are textbooks from Great Britain and the United States and many teachers supplement the textbooks with materials copied from various sources. Based on my work as an English teacher, it can be said that when the teachers choose textbooks or supplementary materials, the linguistic background of the learners is not really considered. For example, the vocabulary learning materials are selected without considering the learners' meta-linguistic awareness and most of the teachers do not pay any attention to the relationship between the languages known by the students, which will contribute to better vocabulary learning.

1.3.1 The English language teaching in primary schools

The primary education program in Macedonia is nine-years. It was introduced in 2004 (World Data on Education, the Former Yugoslav republic of Macedonia, 6th Ed, 2007, Web. http://www.ibe.unesco.org/Countries/WDE/2006.Central_andEastern_Europe/TheFormer_Yugoslav_Rep.of_Macedonia.pdf Accessed: 16 December 2010) consists of two stages: grades I-V or classroom teaching and grades V-VIII, or subject teaching.

The table below shows the statistical data of the language teaching plan and program in primary education (Republic of Macedonia State Statistical Office <<http://www.stat.gov.mk/publikacii/1.4.10.01.pdf>> Web. Accessed: 13 December 2010) for the native languages of nationalities other than Macedonian (Albanian, Turkish and Serbian), learning Macedonian as a second language, and English, German or French as foreign languages.

Language	Class								
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
Native language learning (Albanian, Turkish or Serbian)	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Macedonian				■	■	■	■	■	■
English	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Second Foreign language (German, French)						■	■	■	■

Table 1.2 Statistical data of language teaching in primary education

The statistical data of the languages taught in the primary school shows that teaching of the Macedonian language, the official language of the country, is compulsory and Albanian pupils start to learn the language from the fourth grade. English, German and French are considered as foreign languages. From all languages, English enjoys an extra status, as it is the first foreign language learned and is a compulsory subject from the first grade (age six).

The national curriculum of the English language teaching in primary schools is introduced by Bureau for the Development of Education (2008) (Concept of nine years primary education. Web. Accessed 11 December 2010. <http://www.bro.gov.mk/doks/Iodd_nastavna_programa_MK-ALB_za_web.pdf>), which defines objectives for English language learning. The general objectives are to enable pupils to become acquainted with other cultures and their achievements as well as with the values of cultures and peoples around the world. The specific objectives differ according to the level of education i.e. the class they are attending. In all primary schools, pupils are placed by age, not by language ability. English language abilities in each class vary greatly and teachers try to find some middle ground of class ability.

The national curriculum for English teaching contains tables that show suggestions of planning the whole school year and the methodological/didactical proposals of teaching English as a foreign language. For the purposes of this study, I have selected and translated the specific requirements listed under the label 'Македонски јазик/ Gjuhë shqipe'. Accessed: 11 December 2010 from <http://www.bro.gov.mk/doks/Iodd_nastavna_programa_MK-ALB_osnovno_obrazovanie_zh_web.pdf>). The English language-teaching plan for young children of the first grade suggests the process of English teaching to be without textbooks, through games and drawings so that the children will find learning enjoyable.

Accordingly, the general objectives of teaching English language in accordance with the level of pupil's education in primary education are:

- a. to achieve a certain level of lexical knowledge focusing on the 'receptive' mode in learning English the teacher and other pupils in the classroom activities;
- b. to develop listening skills and understand simple stories;
- c. to develop oral expression skills in accordance with the age of the student (level of education);
- d. to read and understand simple short texts related to situations and events which include information of specific and global information;
- e. to write texts which obey the elementary rules of the written code, on the topics which are familiar to pupils;
- f. to establish relations between the pronunciation and graphic representation of words, and also recognize the English language sounds, rhythms and intonation patterns;
- g. increase the linguistic and sociolinguistic awareness which will enable the pupils to communicate in different situations;
- h. to get acquainted with the awareness of the cultural characteristics of the English speaking countries and nations.

The teaching plan is broken down into eight educational components such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, communicative models, grammar, vocabulary

and culture. These components are separately described with selected topics, specific aims, examples and guidelines about didactic procedures, for example:

Component 1. Lexical Units			
Aims	Contents	Examples	Activities and methods
Students should:			
Understand the value of the lexical units, be able to produce words and use them in accurate situation.	My family and relatives	Son, daughter, grandchild, grandson/nephew, granddaughter/niece.	Teachers interpret a text, dialogue or picture of the family members

This example is translated from the English language teaching plan in the national curriculum for primary school education, Bureau for the Development of Education (2008) in Albanian language (Retrieved 11 December 2010 from <http://www.bro.gov.mk/doks/Iodd_nastavna_programa_MK-ALB_za_web.pdf>.)

The teaching plan generally emphasizes that language work should be done in context, so that grammar, as far as possible, arises from a text and is developed by writing exercises.

As far as the linguistic skills are concerned, in the first years the focus should be on listening and speaking skills. Reading and simple writing in English language should not be introduced before grade three. The syllabus also suggests that both reading and writing, have to be introduced gradually and be related to the children's individual cognitive and personal development.

1.3.2 The English language teaching in secondary schools

Primary school graduates in Macedonia are obliged to attend secondary school education since 2007 ("Official Gazette of RM" No 49/2, Government of RM, Skopje April 18, 2007) which is free of charge. The foreign language is of a high interest in secondary education and the curriculum here prescribes compulsory,

elective and optional subjects. The compulsory subject (the English language) is planned to be taught three hours per week.

The table 1.3 shows statistical data of English and other international languages learned at the school year 2009/2010 (State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia 2009/2010. <[http:// www.stat.gov.mk/Publikacii/2.4.10.01 .pdf](http://www.stat.gov.mk/Publikacii/2.4.10.01.pdf)> accessed 13.12. 2010).

2009 / 2010	First foreign language (Compulsory)	Second foreign language (Elective)	Optional languages
English	84 579	4 235	79
French	8 071	21 814	58
German	687	18 895	260
Italian	-	1 016	592

Table 1.3 The statistical data of English language learners in secondary education

According to the statistical data of the secondary school year 2009/2010, English as a first foreign language was learned by **84 579** students, French was learned by 8 071, German 687 and the evidence shows no students learning Italian as a first foreign language. The statistical data show that English learners at the secondary school are by far the largest number compared to the other foreign language learners.

The English language teaching syllabus for secondary school (http://www.bro.gov.mk/doks/Iodd_nastavna_programa_MK-ALB_sredno_obrazovanie__za_web.pdf, accessed 12.12.2010) provides information about the content and methods of teaching English. It defines aims, goals, methods and materials as well as the content of the English language teaching. The general aim of English teaching is to enable the students to communicate in general educational context, vocational as well as in their further education as citizens of a democratic society.

Given the general aim, the students who have successfully completed the subject will be able to:

- a. to communicate in English in everyday situations and use the English language orally and in writing,
- b. to understand the English language and have improved their own production skills in varied situations;
- c. To broaden student's knowledge of the foreign language and to use it for learning and to gain an in-depth understanding of English language and culture.
- d. To be ready to continue with studies in the higher educational institutions and keep themselves up to date with the news in the world.
- e. To increase the awareness of the cultural characteristics of the English speaking countries and nations. (translated from the educational program of teaching English in secondary school (http://www.bro.gov.mk/doks/Iodd_nastavna_programa_MK-ALB_sredno_obrazovanie__za_web.pdf, accessed 14.12.2010))

The structure of the syllabus of the English language is broken down into a number of components and teaching notes are also given in the program. The components that are included in the program are listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary and culture. For example the speaking component is planned as follows:

Component 1. Speaking (Communication models)				
Contents	Specific aims	Examples	Didactical orientation	The correlation of the contents with other subjects
Expressing time	Inform the students about the concrete exercise of the component	6.20 It's twenty past six 6.20 It's six twenty 6.24 Its twenty four minutes past six	The exercises should correspond to the communication models of a given situation: student - student student – adult adult-adult employee- employee employer – employee employee – client through dialogs, role plays with or without audio-visual equipments.	The use of previously known languages and other subjects taught at school

This example is translated from the English language 'teaching plan' in the national curriculum for secondary school education, Bureau for the Development of Education (2008) in Albanian language (<http://www.bro.gov.mk/doks/Iodd_nastavna_programa_MK-ALB_za_web.pdf> Accessed 11 December 2010)

The vocabulary component is not specifically planned but it contains general information about the way the learners should enrich their English language vocabulary. According to the national plan the students should enrich their vocabulary through active communication to the daily requirements, they should use a bilingual dictionary (English and native language and vice versa) and learn professional English terms.

According to the national curriculum, after the completion of primary school education, the pupils should be able to communicate in English language, express themselves in written form and be familiar with the English speaking culture and people.

1.3.3 Acquiring English in tertiary education

Tertiary in Macedonia works in line with Bologna process with 3+2+3 pattern, which was adopted in 2003. The UNESCO report about Education in Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (2006) indicates that before the implementation of Bologna process in higher education, the undergraduate studies lasted four years, five years in case of professional studies and six years in the case of medicine. The second cycle programs offered master's degree lasting two years, while doctoral degree programs lasted three years to five years.

The English language studies in Macedonia are part of the Philological sciences and before the Bologna system was implemented, the studies of the first cycle lasted four years. Now, the first cycle of studies is reduced into three and all the universities in Macedonia face a great problem in this phase of transition from the old into the new system of study. For the purpose of this study I explored the curriculum of English studies at all public universities of Macedonia and the first impression I gained was that, linguistics courses dominate over literature to a great degree. It is also evident, that each university curriculum of English studies suggests the students spend some time in English speaking countries (UK or USA) in order to improve their English language speaking abilities.

Turning to the area of English as a Foreign Language, all English language departments offer English to the students as their ESP. The number of English language learners' information was acquired and compared with the number of other foreign languages (German, French and Italian) learned in tertiary education in Macedonia.

The ways in which English language learners were spread across five large universities is given in table 1.4, which shows the statistical data of the students

learning English for Specific Purposes (The State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia 2009/2010. in Web. <<http://www.stat.gov.mk/Publikacii/2.4.10.01.pdf>> accessed 13.12.2010).

<i>Universities</i>	<i>Number of English learners</i>	<i>Number of German learners</i>	<i>Number of French learners</i>	<i>Number of Italian learners</i>
S.U. in Skopje	700	265	127	349
S.U. of Tetova	324	246	-	-
SEEU in Tetova	576	118	36	-
S.U. in Bitola	256	66	20	-
S.U. in Stip	53	30	-	-
<i>Total number of learners</i>	1909	725	183	349

Table 1.4 Statistical data of English language learners in higher education

The statistical report for 2009/2010 provides information about the number of undergraduate students who receive English, German, French or Italian instructions at the State University in Skopje, State University in Tetova, South East European University in Tetova, State University in Bitola and State University in Stip.

With regard to the frequency of foreign languages learned, most of the undergraduate students learnt English as a foreign language with 1909 learners, whereas the other languages seem to be less popular among the undergraduate students in Macedonia, German was ranked after English with 725 learners, than Italian with 349 learners and French with 183 learners. Finally, this evidence clearly shows that in tertiary education English is the leading international language learning by the students in Macedonia.

1.4 Description of the two languages

Studies dealing with third language acquisition point out the relationships between the various language systems in the learners' mind. It is important to understand these relationships in order to comprehend the learning process in a bilingual learner acquiring a third language. In this study, a descriptive sketch of the three languages will be given in order to understand structural similarities and differences between them. This will help to understand the learning process and the English production of bilingual Albanian learners of English.

1.4.1 Descriptive sketch of Albanian language

This sketch is intended to provide a minimum of grammatical information that a reader might find useful in arriving at a reasonable understanding of this research study; it is not intended to be a general grammar of Albanian.

The Albanian language is a special branch within the Indo-European family of languages. Opinions vary concerning the exact origin of Albanian and many linguists believe that it is descended from a language that was spoken in the Balkans before the arrival of Latin speakers. Camaj (1984) has indicated that the earliest phase of research on Albanian language was connected with Illyrian, Thracian or Dacian, for which linguists and historians believe that Albanian is descended from one of these languages or it is a result of a mixture with elements from the three languages.

The written tradition of the Albanian language is rather short. In a study of sociolinguistics, Friedman (2006) points out that each of the Albanian communities, Catholics, Muslims, and Orthodox had developed their own literature independent of the others; each wrote in local Geg or Tosk using the alphabet appropriate to their religion: Arabic for the Muslims, Greek for the Orthodox and Latin for Catholics. Efforts at creating a unified Albanian standard began in the early nineteenth century. During 14-22 November 1908 a group of Albanian intellectuals met in a city which was then called Monastir and in the present day Bitola (a city in present-day Macedonia) for the purpose of deciding on a unified alphabet. They agreed that the Albanian language would be written in the Latin alphabet, and in this regard

Friedman rightly points out that: "this was a victory of linguistic unity over religious division" (2006:1877)

The Albanian language consists of two main dialects Geg, which is spoken in northern Albania, western Macedonia and Kosovo, while Tosk is spoken in southern Albania. Camaj (1984) reports the essential differences between Geg and Tosk are:

	<i>Geg</i>	<i>Tosk</i>
1.	The presence of nasal vowel:	The absence of nasal vowel
example:	zâ 'voice'	zë 'voice'
2.	The intervocalic n is retained	The intervocalic n is transformed into r
example:	zani 'the voice'	zëri 'the voice'
3.	The diphthong -ue- in Geg	corresponds to -ua- in Tosk
example:	grue 'woman'	grua 'women'
4.	Initial vo in Geg	corresponds to va in Tosk
example:	vorfër 'orphan'	varfër 'orphan'

Table 1.5 Differences between Geg and Tosk

Beside the phonological differences between Geg and Tosk, Camaj (1984) also indicates other differences too, particularly in morphology, e.g. the different forms of the future: in Geg **kam me shkue** (auxiliary verb **have** + infinitive) and in Tosk **do të shkoj** (I want + subjunctive) 'I will go'.

Concerning the model of standardization, there was a considerable opposition from the members of the Institute of Sciences in Tirana (the capital city of Albania), regarding the unified national Albanian language. Reference to Camaj (1984) reveals that in 1972 an administrative decision was made in Tirana that the unified national language would be based on the Tosk variant and was declared the unified Albanian language and as such was accepted as the common use.

The lexicon of Albanian is heavily influenced by contact languages (Jashar-Nasteva 1957). Based on much analytical research and also typological studies, the conclusion has been reached that continual contact with other people and languages has left its traces in Albanian vocabulary. Many words have been borrowed from Greek, Latin, Turkish and Slavic languages. Price (1998) has also expressed a similar view about Albanian lexis and reports that since the Albanian territory was ruled by Rome for five centuries the Latin influence was deeply marked. Camaj (1984) claims that borrowings in Albanian language were heavily from Latin, which were easily integrated and later changed their original forms according to the phonetic rules of Albanian. In order to confirm his claim, Camaj takes the example of the Albanian word *mbret* 'king' deriving from Latin *imperatorem*.

The Byzantine world, mainly through the Orthodox Church, influenced the Greek in Albanian and many other Balkan languages, which played an important part in the formation of the 'Balkan Sprachbund'. This term refers to the presence in Albanian, Macedonian, Bulgarian, Romanian and Greek not only of shared lexical items and parallel phraseology but of correspondences at the phonological and morphological level.

Price (1998) indicates that since the 5th-6th century onwards, when Slavs began to expand into the Balkans, the language was a subject of Slavonic loanwords. In his study, Price (1998) also states that from the 14th – 19th century, Albanian has been strongly influenced by Turkish as a result of a history of over five centuries of language contact.

According to Ködderitzsch and Görlach, (2002), in the twentieth century Albanian was characterized with the influence of English language. The authors report that these items have been supplemented through the influence of media, with items from slang, youth language, and various aspects of modern lifestyle.

In the last decades of the 20th century, a more tolerant attitude has prevailed since the language is so indebted lexically to foreign languages and cannot afford a large-scale purge for reasons of purism. Many Albanian dictionaries have been published in recent years. Besides the etymological dictionary which Gustav Meyer published in 1891, (including the words which he gathered in Skopje and Tetovo),

there are two other important dictionaries: *Fjalor fjalësh e shprehjesh të huaja* ‘dictionary of foreign words and phrases’, 1986, published by Mikel Ndreca in Prishtina, and *Fjalor i fjalëve të huaja* ‘Dictionary of foreign words’, 1988, published by the Institute of Albanology in Kosova, which indicate that some ninety percent of its vocabulary is of foreign origin.

1.4.1.1 Phonetics and phonology

The Albanian language has a large number of letters (36), and each consonant is always pronounced in exactly the same way, regardless of its position in a word. Present-day Standard Albanian has six vowels which can be short or long and are easy to pronounce with the exception of the vowel ‘ë’, which is called ‘schwa’ by the philologists. In comparison to the English vowel sound, it corresponds to the second syllable of the word ‘understand’. There are nine digraphs (Dh, Gj, Ll, Nj, Rr, Sh, Th, Xh, Zh) which may be capitalized by making both components capitals or only the first ones.

Newmark et al. (1982) observed that sound units represented can be roughly characterized as follows. In pronouncing the name letter, as in spelling a word out loud, vowels are pronounced with the value of the vowel they denote, while consonants are pronounced as a syllable beginning with the consonant phoneme followed by the sound represented by the letter ‘ë’. Table 1.6. provides a characterization of the Albanian letters with IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) symbols, similar English sounds followed with an Albanian word example and explanation of its meaning in English.

Letter	IPA symbol	Similar English sound	Example	Meaning in English
A a	/a/	father	anije	ship
B b	/b/	boy	babai	father
C c	/ts/	Tzar	copë	piece
Ç ç	/tʃ/	charm	çantë	bag
D d	/d/	door	derë	door
Dh dh	/ð/	they	dhomë	room

E e	/ɛ/	estuary	era	wind
Ë ë	/ə/	around	hëna	moon
F f	/f/	foot	flamur	flag
G g	/g/	ground	goca	girl
Gj gj	-	does not have an equivalent sound in English	më ng jes	morning
H h	/h/	hotel	hotel	hotel
I i	/i/	interest	interes i	interest
J j	/j/	yesterday	jeta	life
K k	/k/	come	këm ba	foot, leg
L l	/l/	little	lule	flower
Ll ll	/l/	Fall, call	llamba	lamp
M m	/m/	morning	motër	sister
N n	/n/	noon	nëna	mother
Nj nj	/ɲ/	new	një	one
O o	/o/	all, or	ora	hour
P p	/p/	party	punë	work
Q q	-	does not have an equivalent sound in English	qeni	dog
R r	/r/	remember	radio	radio
Rr rr	/r/	does not have an equivalent sound in English	kurrë	never
S s	/s/	sister	seminari	seminar
Sh sh	/ʃ/	shall	shumë	many
T t	/t/	table	tavolina	table
Th th	/θ/	thank you	thoni	speak
U u	/u/	cook, foot	ura	bridge
V v	/v/	very	vera	summer
X x	-	does not have an equivalent sound in English	xixë	spark
Xh xh	/dʒ/	joke	xhaxha	uncle
Y y	/y/	does not have an	ylli	star

		equivalent sound in English		
Z z	/z/	zoo, zero	zog ^u	bird
Zh zh	-	pleasure	zhurmë	noise

Table 1.6 The Albanian alphabet along with similar English sound inventory and examples

In studying the standard Albanian language Newmark et al. (1982) observed that accent in Albanian generally falls on the final syllable of stems, unless this syllable contains a schwa or the Albanian orthographic form *ë* in which case accent falls on the penultimate syllable. Most derivational suffixes are accent-sensitive. Most suffixes will bear secondary accents, for example: *pùnë* ‘work’, *pùnëtòr* ‘worker’.

Newmark et al. (1982) have also drawn attention to the fact that there are certain derivational suffixes ending in <a,e,o> and nearly all inflectional suffixes are accent-neutral; when added to a stem they do not change the position of the primary accent. Thus in their study, Newmark et al. conclude that word accent in Albanian remains invariant throughout the inflectional paradigm of a stem, for example: *mál* ‘mountain’, *male* ‘mountains’, *máleve* ‘of mountains’. In case of the definite article, which in Albanian is added to the end of the noun, is also accent-neutral. While in compound words, primary accent falls on the second member, for example: *zèmër* ‘heart’ + *gjërë* ‘broad’ = *zemërgjërë* ‘generous’. Phrase-accent falls on the final word in a phrase.

1.4.1.2 Grammar

Every Albanian word is constituted of one or more morphemes and is classified into various parts of speech, which will be briefly described in this study. Reference to Newmark et al. (1982) reveals that Albanian nouns and verbs consist of a single morpheme which in Albanian is called *rrënjë* ‘root’. In terms of grammatical function, the root acts as the central stem of the word to which affixes

may be attached, for example: *pun-o-j* ‘work’, *pun-ëtor* ‘employee’. These examples show that the root *punë* ‘work’ contributes as a core lexical meaning in these words. The work of Newman et al shows that morphemes that are attached to the words are affixes and when they create a new stems are derivational or word-forming. On the other hand, affixes which mark the syntactic function of a word are inflectional.

Albanian morphemes do not always appear in the same form, for example the form *kam* ‘have’ appears in three different forms of its conjugation: *kam-*, *ke-*, or *ka-*. These examples show that these are not different morphemes, but rather different allomorphs of the same morpheme. The table below shows the Albanian word formation with examples:

Word form	Example	Core Lexical meaning	New word formation
compounding	noun+noun	<i>hekur</i> ‘iron’ + <i>udhë</i> ‘way’	<i>Hekurudhë</i> ‘railway’
by suffix	forming abstract nouns	<i>kujtoj</i> ‘remember’+ <i>-im</i>	<i>kujtim</i> ‘memory’
by prefixing	preposition or adverb	<i>Në(n)</i> ‘below’ + <i>punës</i> ‘workning’	<i>Nëpunësi</i> ‘employee’

1.7 Inflection in Albanian

Albanian grammar is said to be complicated (Newmark et al. 1982). Hence a solid background is given below with models taken from the school-book *Gramatika e Gjuhës Shqipe* (Prishtinë, 2000) written by Bahri Beci, and other Albanian language scholars (Camaj 1984, Newmark et al. 1982).

(i) Nouns

a. have several forms which depend on gender, number, and case, and have a definite and indefinite form. Nouns are masculine or feminine and the neuter gender has almost disappeared. The work of Camaj (1984) indicates that the basic rule holds true that gender is known from the definite form. Albanian nouns are masculine which in the indefinite form end in a consonant e.g. *gjak* ‘blood’, stressed vowel e.g. *shi* ‘rain’, while most nouns ending in neutral vowel <ë> are feminine, e.g. *vajzë* ‘girl’.

b. Albanian nouns can be singular and plural. Camaj, points out

that indefinite masculine plural of nouns are formed by adding <e> to the singular, e.g. *mal* ‘mountain’- *mal-e* ‘mountains’, and indefinite feminine plurals by adding <a>, e.g. *vajzë* ‘girl’- *vajza* ‘girls’. Definite plurals are formed in both genders by adding <t> to the indefinite forms.

c. Every noun in Albanian has its definite form precisely as the English article ‘the’. The difference is that the definite article in Albanian, like in Macedonian, is post-positioned e.g. *vend-i* ‘the place’. The indefinite article is pre-positioned in the same way as the English article ‘a or an’, and has one single invariant form –një e.g. *një vend* ‘a place’.

d. In cases of grammatical categories such as forms of nouns and their grammatical functions, all nouns in Albanian are declined. The Albanian language distinguishes five cases: *emërore* ‘nominative’, *gjinore* ‘genitive’, *dhanore* ‘dative’, *kallzore* ‘accusative, and *rrjedhore* ‘ablative’. The declination of the noun *shkollë* ‘school’ is shown below as an example:

Indefinite	English	Albanian
Nominative	a school	një shkollë
Genitive	of a school	i/e një shkolle
Dative	to a school	një shkolle
Accusative	(with) a school	(me) një shkollë
Ablative	-----	(prej) një shkolle

Definite	English	Albanian
Nominative	the school	shkolla
Genitive	of the book	i/e shkollës
Dative	to the book	shkollës
Accusative	(with) the book	(me) shkollën
Ablative	-----	(prej) shkolle

(ii) **Adjectives**

a. generally follow the noun and are preceded by inflected article e.g. *i lumtur* ‘happy’. Adjectives agree with the noun in number, gender, and case, but do not change their form except in the feminine plural, e.g. *të lumtura* ‘happy’. The comparative degree of adjectives is formed by putting particles before the adjectives, e.g.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
<i>i mirë</i> 'good'	<i>më i mirë</i> 'better'	<i>shumë i mirë</i> 'the best'

(iii) **pronouns**

According to the explanations given in the school-book (Beci, 2000:116), based on the meaning and grammatical functions,

a. are classified into seven groups: personal (*unë* 'I', *ti* 'you', *ai* 'he', *ajo* 'she', *ne* 'we', *ju* 'you', *ata* (feminine) / *ato* (masculine) 'they'); reflexive (*vetja* 'himself/herself'), demonstrative (based on *ky/kjo* this /that), possessive (*imi* 'my', *i yti* 'yours', *i tij* 'his', *i saj* 'hers'), interrogative (*kush* 'who', *çka* 'what', *cili* 'which'), relative (*që* / *i cili* 'who/which'), indefinit (*dikush* 'someone', *gjithskush* 'everyone').

(iv) **Numerals**

Eric Hamp (1992) in the *Indo-European numerals*, highlights the main features of the numerals giving fuller coverage of the syntactic, morphologic and semantic classes. In his study, Hamp points out that cardinal elements (*numërorët themelor* 'the basic numerals') are the integers '1' to '10', *zet* '20'. Hamp, draws on Camaj's earlier work *Lehrbuch der albanischen Sprache*, Wiesbaden 1969, 36 – 39, and notes that, except for the 'teens, *e* serves as link for the numerals, e.g. *njëzet e tre* 'twentythree'. Numbers from 30 to 90, and however, revert to decimal form *tridhjetë* 'thirty'; (*një* 'one') *qind* 'hundred', (*një* 'one') *mijë* 'thousand'. Hamp concludes his study with the information that the category of numerals is defined lexically within the Albanian by lexeme (verb) *njeh* 'count'.

(v) **Verbs**

Albanian is very complex organizationally with many moods, tenses, and other forms. Campbell's study (1999) about the Albanian language, indicates that Albanian verb has two voices, six moods and eight tenses. Campbell emphasizes that only the indicative mood has all these tenses, the other moods – subjunctive, conditional, optative, admirative- have present and perfect tenses, to which the subjunctive and the admirative add an imperfect and pluperfect. The imperative

mood has the present form only. Here is a regular verb *unë jetoj* ‘I live’ in the first person singular in all eight tenses of the indicative:

Tense	Albanian	English
Present	<i>Unë jetoj</i>	I live
Imperfect	<i>Unë jetoja</i>	I used to live
Simple past	<i>Unë jetova</i>	I lived
Present perfect	<i>Unë kam jetuar</i>	I have lived
Past perfect	<i>Unë kisha jetuar</i>	I had lived
Pluperfect	<i>Unë pata jetuar</i>	I had lived
Future	<i>Unë do të jetoj</i>	I will live
Future perfect	<i>Unë do të kem jetuar</i>	I will have lived

Newmark et al. provide an in-depth look about the verbs in Albanian by pointing out that verbs in Albanian are “typically thought of as single words” (1982:23), but in Albanian one or more proclitics and auxiliaries may precede the main verb and the whole sequence is then still referred to as “the verb”, so that many conjugational forms of a verb are thus formed with proclitics and/or auxiliaries. The authors go on to give the examples (1982:23):

Future: **DO TË shkoj** ‘I shall go’
 Progressive: **PO shkoja** ‘I was going’
 Subjunctive: **TË shkoj** ‘that I go’
 Conditional: **DO TË shkoja** ‘I would go’
 Perfect: **KAM shkuar** ‘I have gone’
 Non-active Past Definite: **U lava** ‘I was washed’
 Infinitive: **PËR TË shkuar** ‘to go’
 Jussive: **LE TË shkojmë** ‘let’s go’
 Gerundive: **DUKE shkuar** ‘(while) going’

According to Newmark et.al, Albanian verbs, like English ones, distinguish three persons- **first** (- I/we), **second** (- you), **third** (-he, she, it, they), and two numbers, **singular** and **plural** (-we,you, they). The ending of a finite verb reflects the person and number of the subject of the verb, and the verb is said to be in the person and number of its subject. For example:

Unë punoj 'I work'
Ti punon 'You work'
Ai/ajo punon 'He/she works'
Ne punojmë 'We work'
Ju punoni 'You work'
Ata punojnë 'They work'

(Newmark et.al 1982 :117)

In Albanian, the second person plural forms may be used in addressing a single person, if the speaker wishes to express politeness, otherwise such use would be inappropriate to address a friend, relatives or children.

The dominant word order in Albanian is Subject Verb Object (SVO). According to the school-book *Gramatika e Gjuhës Shqipe* (Beci, 2000) written by Beci, the Albanian word order is usually as follows: noun + adjective + verb + object + adverb, complement, for example:

Një mësues i ri filloi punë dje në shkollën tonë
'A new teacher started work yesterday in our school'

1.4.2 Descriptive sketch of Macedonian

The Macedonian language, according to Hendriks (1976:1), is a contemporary language, which together with Serbo-Croat, Slovene and Bulgarian constitute the South-Slavic language group of the Indo-European family of languages. Considering the three languages, the author emphasizes that of these languages, Bulgarian is undoubtedly the most closely related language to Macedonian. Following Lunt (1952:6), Serbo-Croat, Slovene and Bulgarian may be called Eastern Balkan Slavic because of many structural features in common. He states that the common features of the above languages are due to internal or historic-linguistic factors, and linguistic and non-linguistic factors.

Hendriks (1976), reports that in the course of history, both Bulgarian and Macedonian have been profoundly influenced by surrounding non-Slavic Balkan languages such as Albanian, Arumanian, Greek, Rumanian and Turkish). In addition, Lunt states that Macedonian has very few phonemic, morphological or syntactic unique traits, but it has a peculiar combination of trait marks off a system which is different from those of all the

other Slavic languages. These peculiarities will be discussed in the latter in this study (section 1.5.4 Balkan *sprachbund*).

According to Hendriks (1976), Macedonian is spoken mainly in the Republic of Macedonia or Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM) which obtained its status of an official and separate language in 1944. Hendriks, also states that Macedonian is also spoken in Pirin Macedonia (western Bulgaria) by small minorities, and in Aegean Macedonia (in northern Greece). Hendriks (1976:1) notes that the number of speakers of Macedonian may be estimated at one million.

With regard to Macedonian dialects, Lunt (1952:5) points out that they shade into the neighboring Serbian dialects to the north and Bulgarian to the east, while a relatively homogenous group of dialects can be found to the west of the river Vardar, which was taken as the basis of the literary language.

Considering the extensive exchange among the Balkan languages in terms of vocabulary, Macedonian lexicon constitutes common loanwords from each of the component language families. On the basis of the linguistic material presented by Jashar O Nasteva (1998) Macedonian language consists of unusually large number of loanwords which have developed over the centuries of multilingual environment; that is a result of everyday, direct contact between the spoken languages.

According to Jashar O Nasteva (1998:183), the foreign lexical elements are mainly taken from Turkish and Greek, but also from Albanian and Aromanoc (particularly in stock-farming terminology). Based on the detailed analysis of phonetic, morphological and semantic adaption, the author states that foreign lexical elements are shown to be fully integrated into schemata of Macedonian language.

Synthesizing the consideration of lexical borrowings into Macedonian the author concludes that (i) the Macedonian language, and its dialects are developing in their mixed multilingual environment as dialect islands; (ii) they are enriched principally by intensive borrowings, which are constantly increasing depending on the region of the dialect and the neighboring languages such as Albanian and Turkish in the west, Serbian in the north, Bulgarian in the east and Greece in the south.

Beside the above described language influence on the lexicon of Macedonian language, Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006) describes the newest lexical layer of Macedonian

language which is mostly influenced from English borrowings. She emphasizes that the English borrowings are rapidly developing today in very different political, socio-economic and technological conditions and contexts.

1.4.2.1 Phonetics and phonology

The Macedonian alphabet, according to (Kramer 2003:1), is a form of the Cyrillic alphabet and in general letters correspond to a single sound so that words are pronounced as they are spelled. In this context, Lunt (1952:9) reports that the Macedonian alphabet is an adaptation of the Serbian type of Cyrillic. thirty one phonemes consisting of five vowels (*i e u o a*); four semi-vowels (*r j l t*); three nasal consonants (*m n ñ*); nine pairs of consonants with opposition of voicing including four pairs of stops (*p/b, t/d, k'ǵ, k/g*); three pairs of fricatives (*f/v, s/z, š/ž, č/ǵ*); and a non-paired voiceless fricative (*h*).

Table 1.4 Provides the Macedonian alphabet, with letter-for-letter equivalents along with similar English sounds and examples

Letter	Sound	Similar English sound	Example in Macedonian	Meaning in English
А а	/a/	father	мајка /majka/	mother
Б б	/b/	brother	брат /brat/	brother
В в	/v/	victory	воз /Voz/	train
Г г	/g/	great	голем /golem/	great
Д д	/d/	door	дедо /dedo/	grandfather
Ѓ ѓ	-	does not have an equivalent sound in English	ѓеврек /gjevrek/	sort of pretzel
Е е	/e/	men	есен /esen/	autmn
Ж ж	/ʒ/	pleasure	жена /zhena/	woman
З з	/z/	zebra	заштита /zashtita/	protection
С с	-	does not have an equivalent sound in English	сид /sid/	wall
И и	/i/	me	искра /iskra/	spark
Ј ј	/j/	young	јаболка /jabolka/	apple
К к	/k/	kindness	книга /kniga/	book

Л л	/l/	loop	лажица /lazhica/	spoon
Љ љ	/lj/	million	љубов /ljubov/	love
М м	/m/	mother	мајка /majka/	mother
Н н	/n/	night	нос /nos/	nouse
Њ њ	/nj/	lasagna	Њујорк /Njujork/	New York
О о	/o/	floor	ориз /oriz/	rise
П п	/p/	pot	паралела /paralela/	parallel
Р р	/r/	rest	река /reka/	river
С с	/s/	sun	сестра /sestra/	sister
Т т	/t/	tea	табла /tabla/	board
Ќ ќ	-	does not have an equivalent sound in English	ќелија /kĵelija/	Cell
У у	/u/	rule	уста /usta/	mouth
Ф ф	/f/	find	фабрика /fabrika/	factory
Х х	/h/	hair	хидроген /hidrogen/	hydrogen
Ц ц	/ts/	Tzar	црн /crn/	black
Ч ч	/tʃ/	chicken	чај /chaj/	Tea
Џ ѓ	/dʒ/	jungle	џемпер /dzhemper/	sweater
Ш ш	/ʃ/	sheet	шах /shah/	chess

Table 1.8 Macedonian language alphabet

Considering the prosodic features, reference to Lunt (1952) reveals that Macedonian has no phonemically long vowels. Phonetically, however, long vowels occur. The most common is when two like vowels occur together: /táa/ may be pronounced as /ta/. Phonetically long consonants represent two identical consonantal phonemes оттаму /ót:amu/ ‘from there’. Lunt states that “The word stress in Macedonian is non-phonemic” (1952: 35) and for the most part automatically determined: it falls on the third from last syllable in words with three or more syllables, and on the first or only syllable of shorter words. Dysyllabic words are stressed on the second-to-last syllable, for example: мајка /majka/ ‘mother’; татко /tatko/ ‘father’. Trisyllabic and polysyllabic words are stressed on the third-to-last syllable, for example: татковци /tatkovtci/ ‘fathers’; and татковците /tat’kovtcite/ ‘the fathers’.

There is sometimes disagreement when the word has entered the language more recently or has been taken from a foreign source, for example, *викајќи* /vi'kajki/ 'shouting'; *литература* /litera'tura/ 'literature' (Lunt 1952:37).

In addition, Friedman (2001) reports that the phonemic symbol schwa is phonemic in many dialects, where its realization varies in its closeness to [ä] or [i-], its status in the literary language is marginal. The author also claims that, the phonemic symbol schwa is limited to three environments: (1) before syllabic /r/ in absolute initial position and when preceded by a morpheme ending in a vowel as in *порти* [po'rti] 'gates' (2) for dialectal effect in words of Slavic or Turkish origin as in *пат* [pa't] for standard *pat* 'road', *слза* [s'lza] for standard *solza* 'tear', *к'смет* [k'smet] for standard *kasmet* (Turkish *kismet*) 'fate'; (3) in spelling aloud, each consonant is followed by schwa: *Friedman* [fa'-ra'-i-e-da'-ma'-a-na']. The work of Friedman indicates some examples of the names of letters in some abbreviations which are pronounced differently, e.g. 'UNDP' [U eN Di Pi] , but *MVR* [m'v' r'] *Министерство за Внатрешни Работи* /*Ministerstvo na Vnatreshni Raboti*/ 'Ministry of Internal Affairs'. The exception should probably be considered as lexicalized acronyms.

1.4.2.2 Grammar

Following Lunt (1952:26), Macedonian language words and their forms will be introduced according to their classification to various categories on morphological level by their function in the sentences level. Lunt reports two major groups of words: those that may change in form and words which do not, but can be classified by their function.

According to Lunt (1952), the changeable words fall into two groups, nouns and verbs. Nouns are then classified into two types, nouns which belong to one of three classes called genders, and those which have forms for all three genders. Lunt explains the classification further by pointing out that the first class of words comprises the substantives or nouns in a narrower sense, while words having three gender-forms are adjectives and pronouns. Furthermore, pronouns are distinguished from adjectives in that they may not be modified by an adverb.

In this study, Macedonian grammar will be introduced according to Lunt's description of word's form and meaning follows the nouns (substantives, adjectives, pronouns and articles), verbs and adverbs.

(i) Substantives

- a. may fall into three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter
- b. they may be made plural by suffixing- i as in *чекор* /cekor/ ‘step’
чекори/cekori/, or –ovi and –evi as in *зборови* /zborovi/ ‘words’
and –evi as in /broevi/ ‘numbers’
- c. may have vocative forms which indicates call or appeal, which is characteristic for Macedonian language. They appear with suffix – e or –u as in *brate* /brate/ or *bratu* /bratu/ ‘brother’
- d. may have dependent forms, that is substantive is not the subject of the sentence as in :

1. *да ви го представам син ми Блажета*

/da vi go predstavam sin mi Blazeta/

‘May I present to you my son Blaze.’

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:34)

(ii) Adjectives:

- a. Have no gender of their own but change their for to indicate the gender of substantives as in:

1. *голема* /golema/, *големо* /golemo/, *големи* /golemi/ ‘big’

- b. the degree is expressed by suffixing –po and naj

1. comparative: e.g. подобар /*podobar*/ ‘better’

2. superlative: e.g. најубава /*najubava*/ ‘the most beautiful’

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:34)

2. Pronouns:

- a. Based on their meaning and function in the sentence,
Macedonian

pronouns fall into the following categories: personal, demonstrative, indefinite, interrogative, possessive, relative and reflexive pronouns. The personal pronouns are: *jac* /jas/ ‘I’, *mu* /ti/ ‘you’, *moj* /toj/ ‘he’, *maa* /taa/ ‘she’, *moa* /toa/ ‘it’, *hue* /nie/ ‘we’, *vue* /vie/ ‘you’, *mue* /tie/ ‘they’. The second person pronoun *mu* /ti/ ‘you’, in

singular, like in Albanian, is used for informal cases and is generally limited to friends and family.

b. The pronouns in Macedonian decline for case i.e., they can function as a subject in a phrase, for example: *јас* /jas/ 'I', direct object *неа* /nego/, or object of preposition *од неа* /od nea/ 'from her'.

3. Articles:

a. are post-fixed, as in Albanian and in other Balkan languages

(Bulgarian and Romanian) may be identified in three definite forms which describe the position of the object as unspecified {-t-} *градоm* /gradot/ 'the city'; proximate (or close) *градоv* /gradov/ {-v-}, distal (or distant) {-n-} *градоh* /gradon/.

b. has no indefinite article corresponding to English "a, an".

It may occasionally be identified with the numeral 'one' (еден /eden/, една /edna/) in a weakened sense.

4. Macedonian numerals

a. are used according to the decimal system (*десет* /deset/ – ten, *триесет* /trieset/ – thirty, *педесет* /pedest/ – fifty),

b. compound numerals from 11 through 19 are also formed by placing digit first, then the preposition *a* and finally the decimals, eliminating the first consonant *d*. (12: *дванаесет* /dvanaeset/ 'twelve' 13: *тринаесет* /trinaeset/; 14: *четинаесет* /chetirinaeset/ 'fourteen'; 15: *петнаесет* /petnaeset/ 'fifteen').

5. Verbs: are marked for person, number and gender:

a. Number and person can be expressed by a single form, but not gender and person, as in:

e. The perfect, is marked “continuing state” and is expressed by the form of the auxiliary verb *ima* ‘have’. For example:

1. *Toj ima resheno da ne dojde veke vamu.*

/Toj ima resheno da ne dojde veke vamu/

He decided not to come here anymore.

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:99)

f. The future is formed with the verbal particle ‘*ќ*’ /*kje*/ added to the perfective or imperfective present for example:

1. *Toj ќе ja реши задачата утре.*

/Toj ќе ja реши задачата утре/

‘He will solve the problem tomorrow’

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:82)

g. it may characterize a process as intransitive, or it may give no information about transitivity. For example:

1. *Taa се гледаше во огледалото.*

/Taa se gledashe vo ogledaloto/

‘She was looking at herself in the mirror.’

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:102)

h. Mood characterizes the relation of participants to a process with reference to the speech event. An action may be presented as potential

1. *Да можев, би сум ја решил.*

/Da mozhev, bi sum ja reshil/

‘If I had been able, I would have solved it.’

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:100)

i. It may be presented as *projective (or prospective)*, that is, as an action which is viewed as manifest but not immediately present.

1. *Toj bash sega ja reshava taa rabota.*

/Toj bash sega ja reshava taa rabota/

‘He’s deciding the matter right now.’

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:81)

Or, it may simply be presented without specifically expressing modality, that is, as *indicative*.

2. *Znaev yume togash deka toj ja reshava.*

/Znaev togash deka toj ja reshava/

‘I knew at the time that he was solving it.’

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:81)

j. The imperative mood, according to Lunt(1952:68) stands apart from the rest of verbal system, because it does not make a statement Macedonian verb has two aspects: *terminative- distanced* (or perfective), or *interminative- distanced* (or imperfective).

1. *terminative* (or perfective), e.g.

Ги фрлија камењата.

/Gi frlija kamenjata/

‘they through the stones’

2. *interminative* (imperfective)

Ги фрлија камењата.

/Gi frlaa kamenjata/

‘ They were throwing the stones’

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:67)

6. Adverbs:

The productive means of forming adverbs is from adjectives, as in:

1. *силен /silen/ ‘strong’ силно /silno/ ‘strongly’*

2. *редок /redok/ ‘rare’ ретко /retko/ ‘rarely’*

(the example is quoted from Lunt 1952:51)

Word order in Macedonian as an Indo-European Balkan language is conventionally considered to be Subject – Verb – Object (SVO). In some cases,

according to Friedman (2009), initial pronominal clitic ordering can be found in Macedonian western dialects. For example:

Mu *go* *davam.*
Him.DAT *it. ACC* *give. 1Per.Sg. Pres.*
 ‘I gave it to him’

(Friedman 2009: 131)

However, Friedman (2009: 131) points out that Macedonian, as other Balkan languages, is also characterized by relatively free constituent order with certain patterns being favored for various types of syntactic and narrative strategies such as emphasis, topicalization, focus and contrastive thematization.

1.4.3 Balkan ‘*sprachbund*’

The *Sprachbund* phenomena have attracted the attention of numerous linguists to the Balkan linguistic area. According to Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:1), the Balkan *Sprachbund* phenomena was first signaled by Slovene linguist Kopitar (1829) who pointed out that the languages spoken south of the Danube have analogous forms expressed through “different language material”.

The term ‘*Sprachbund*’ was first proposed by Trubetzkoy (1928:18) in the First Linguistic Conference, which was held in Hague in 1928, and was formally accepted by distinguishing language groups based on genetic relationships from those based on typological similarities.

Different arguments have been given related to the issue of which languages belong to Balkan *Sprachbund* and there were nine Balkan languages identified by Balkan *Sprachbund* researchers: Macedonian, (Ma) Bulgarian (Bu), Serbo-Croatian (SC), Romanian (Ro), Aromanian (Ar), Megleno-Romanian (MR), Albanian (Al), Modern Greek (MG) and Balkan Romani (BR).

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:1) ranked a number of Balkan *Sprachbund* scholars (also called ‘balkanologists’), who investigated the typology of Balkan languages and according to their language similarities or distances, they were placed in first, second or third degree of the Balkan *Sprachbund*. According to Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:1), the first balkanologist Weigand (1928), considered Albanian, Romanian and Bulgarian as linguistically related Balkan languages and therefore as

primary languages of the *Sprachbund*, while Greek, Serbian and Turkish were considered as geographically related Balkan languages. Sandfeld (1930) stated that the Balkan languages share many phonetic and morpho- syntactic features which can be found in Greek, Bulgarian, and Albanian and possibly in the Serbian language, while the Turkish lexical features can be found in each of them.

Four decades later, Schaller (1975 quoted from Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:1), suggested another hierarchy of Balkan languages. He stated that Albanian, Romanian and Macedonian are Balkan languages of first degree; Greek and Serbian are Balkan languages of second degree, while Turkish is a Balkan language of third degree.

One of the latest contributions to the studies of Balkan languages is Asenova's (2002) *Balkansko ezikoznanie* (Balkan linguistics). She discussed the basic problems of linguistic features of the Balkan *Sprachbund* and points out that Southern Albanian, Southern Macedonian, Northern Aromanian and Northern Greek are core Balkan Languages.

The typology of the Balkan languages has been analyzed by different balkanologists. A considerable contribution to the study of Balkan *Sprachbund* features was made by Slovene scholar, Mikloshich, (1861, quoted in Tomić, O. Mišeska 2006:1) who investigated the typological similarities more closely and signaled a number of common features in phonology, grammar and lexis. The features of Balkan languages were also studied by Golab (1959) who discovered a large number of common calques and identical formal structural models. Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006) studied the Balkan Sprachbund properties as common morpho-syntactic features and summed them up in one table.

	Morpho-syntactic features	Ma	Bu	SC	Ro	Ar	MR	Al	MG	BR
1.	postpositive articles	+	+		+	+	+	+		
2.	Dat/Gen merger	+	+	(+)	+	+	+	+	+	(+)
3.	vocative case markers	+	+	+	+	+	+	(+)	(+)	+
4.	location/direction merger	+	+	(+)	+	+	+	+	+	(+)
5.	prepositional cases	+	+	(+)	(+)	(+)	+	(+)	(+)	(+)
6.	clitic doubling	+	+	(+)	+	+	+	+	+	(+)
7.	Dat/Gen clitic in Determiner Phrase	+	+	(+)	(+)				+	
8.	loss of infinitive (and use of subjunctives)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
9.	“will future”	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+
10.	“will future in the past”	+	+	(+)		+		+	+	(+)
11.	“have” perfect	+			+	+	+	+	+	
12.	“have” past perfect	+					+	+		
13.	evidentials	+	+				+	+		

Table 1.12 Prominent morpho-syntactic Balkan *Sprachbund* features in individual languages (quoted from Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006, Table 2, p.)

This study presents the morpho-syntactic Balkan *Sprachbund* features and adds the phonological and lexicological similarities in Albanian and Macedonian in which they are most common. Considering the scope of this study, no theoretical discussions will be given, but a brief presentation followed by the original examples for each of them. All Macedonian language examples quoted from the sources, had no Cyrillic alphabet representations, instead the Croatian alphabet had been used to present Macedonian words and as such will be presented in this study.

The order in which the individual features between Albanian and Macedonian are presented have been determined from common phonological features as discussed by Winford (2003:71), the common morpho-syntactic features are introduced by selecting the Albanian and Macedonian common morpho-syntactic features from table 1.9 as presented by Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006), and lexical similarities as examined by Freidman (1982), Jashar.O. Nasteva (1998) and Murati (1998).

A. In phonology:

- 1) common vowels *i, e, a, o, u*,
- 2) the presence of schwa

B. In morpho-syntax:

	Morpho-syntactic features	Al	Ma
1.	postpositive articles	+	+
2.	Dat/Gen merger	+	+
3.	vocative case markers	(+)	+
4.	location/direction merger	+	+
5.	prepositional cases	(+)	+
6.	clitic doubling	+	+
7.	loss of infinitive (and use of subjunctives)	+	+
8.	“will future”	+	+
9.	“will future in the past”	+	+
10.	“have” perfect	+	+
11.	“have” past perfect	+	+
12.	Evidential	+	+

Table 1.10 Morpho-syntactic Balkan *Sprachbund* features in Albanian and Macedonian

B. In lexis:

- 1) Codeswitches
- 2) Caques

1.4.3.1 Phonology

Based on the evidence by Winford (2003:71), in phonology, Albanian and Macedonian share the absence of the prosodic features such as length and nasalization in vowel articulation. Both languages share the vowels *i, e, a, o, u*, while the phoneme schwa /ə/ is characteristic for the Albanian language and in some Macedonian dialects. For example:

a.	<i>këngë</i> 'song'	Albanian
b.	<i>s'rna</i> 'deer'	Macedonian

Winford (2003:71)

1.4.3.2 Morpho-syntactic features

Referring to the common morpho-syntactic Balkan *Sprachbund* features in individual language, as registered by Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006) and Tomić, O. Mišeska & Martinovic, A. Zic (2004), Friedman (2004) the shared morpho-syntactic features between Albanian and Macedonian will be presented and exemplified.

1) Postpositive articles

Albanian and Macedonian have a common postposed definite article. According to Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006), the proto-Slavonic languages did not have the definite article, but this feature has developed in southern Slavonic languages, respectively Macedonian language.

a.	<i>mik</i> friend 'man'	vs	<i>miku</i> friend+the.M.Sg 'the friend'	Albanian
b.	<i>trup</i> corps 'corps'	vs	<i>trupot</i> corps+the.M.Sg 'the corps'	Macedonian

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:4)

2) Dative and Genitive merger

In Albanian and Macedonian, Genitive and Dative relationships are expressed by the substitution of synthetic declension markers with analytic ones. According to Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006: 6), in Albanian the Dative form is

generalized as common for Genitive and Dative forms, while in Macedonian prepositional phrases with the preposition *na* 'on/to' express dative relationships, but are used to denote genitive relationship to the preposition *od* 'of/from'.. For example:

- a. *Agimi* *i* *dërgoi* Albanian
 Agim+the.M.Sg. 3Sg.Dat.Cl. send.3Sg.Past
Dritës/ *një* *vajze(je)* *lule.*
 Drita+the.F.Sg.Dat a girl.Dat. flower
 'agim sent Drita/a girl flowers'

- b. *Mu* *ja* *dadov* Macedonian
 3Sg.M.Dat.Cl 3Sg.M.Acc.Cl give.1Sg.Past

knigata *na* *Stojana/ studentot /* *edno dete.*
 book+the.F.Sg to Stojan.Acc/student+the. M.Sg/ a boy
 'I gave the book to Stojan/the student/a boy'

Tomić, O. Mišeska & Martinovic, A. Zic (2004:13-14)

3) Vocative Case Markers

The special attention is drawn to the identity of the vowels marking the Vocative in the two languages:

- a. *grua:* *grue* (Dialectal Albanian)
 woman woman.Voc

 b. *žena:* *ženo* Macedonian
 woman woman.Voc

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:13)

4) Location / Direction merger

Location at and direction to geographic places is marked with single preposition, *në* in Albanian and *vo* in Macedonian. For example:

- a. *Jetoj* *në* *Shkup.* Albanian
 Live.1sg. in Skopje.

 b. *Živeam* *vo* *Skopje.* Macedonian
 Live.1sg. in Skopje.

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:167)

5) Prepositional cases

i) According Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006) the formation of numbers from 11 to 19 is found as a common feature between Albanian and Macedonian. The author also points out that this is a common Slavic pattern and paraphrased it as ‘put the number X on top of number 10’. For example:

- | | | |
|----|---|------------|
| a. | <i>një + mbë + dhjetë (njëmbëdhjetë)</i> | Albanian |
| | lit.one+on+ten | |
| | ‘eleven’ | |
| b. | <i>ede(i)n + (n)a + (d)eset (edinaeset)</i> | Macedonian |
| | lit.one+on+ten | |
| | ‘eleven’ | |

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:12)

ii) The omission of preposition introducing partitive modifiers in Albanian and Macedonian

- | | | |
|----|------------------------|----------------------|
| a. | <i>Një grusht lira</i> | (Dialectal Albanian) |
| | ‘a handful of money’ | |
| b. | <i>Една кофа вода</i> | Macedonian |
| | ‘a bucketful of water’ | |

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:11)

6) Clitic doubling

According to Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006) the condition for clitic doubling can be plotted on a scale at one end of which is a complete grammaticalization, at the other total dependence on discourse factors. The author emphasizes, that Macedonian is closest to complete grammaticalization and is getting mere case markers which formally distinguish direct and indirect objects from subjects. According to Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006) clitic doubling of indirect and direct objects is a prominent feature of Balkan languages.

Below few examples of clitic doubling will be presented:

(i) *the substitution of the possessive pronouns by possessive clitics*

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006), points out the possessive pronouns were substituted by clitics in both Albanian and Macedonian in which the Albanian agreement clitics are analogous to Macedonian possessive clitics in phrases they encliticize to (other) noun modifiers. I am quoting Tomić, O. Mišeska's (2006:7) examples provided by Sanfeld (1930):

- a. *në* *pallat të* *tij* Albanian
towards palace.Agr.Cl his
'toward his palace'
- b. *tatko* *im* Macedonian
father 3Pl.Dat.cl
'their father'

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:7)

ii) *the double direct object constructions:*

- a. *Mëson vajzën germë.* Albanian
Teach.3Sg girl+the.F.Sg.Acc letter
'(S)he teaches the girl to read and write.' (lit. 'He teaches the girl letter.)
- b. ... *da te naučam na um* Macedonian
Subj.Mark 2Sg.Acc.Cl teach.1Sg to wisdom.
'... to teach you what to do.' (lit. '... to teach you to wisdom.')

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:8)

iii) The indirect object clitic doubling

In Albanian indirect objects always occur with definite or indefinite articles and are, as a rule, clitic doubled. Thus, the co-occurrence of dative clitics with indirect objects is grammaticalized. The example for Albanian shows that the indirect object is a proper name, which is always definite. In Macedonian, the indirect object clitic doubling are clitic-doubled only when specific

- a. *Agimi i dërgoi* Albanian
Agim+the.M.Sg. 3Sg.Dat.Cl. send.3Sg.Aor
lule Dritës.
flower Drita+the.F.Sg.dat
'Agim sent flowers to Drita'

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:310)

b. *Jana mu go dade* Macedonian

Jana	3Sg.M.Dat.Cl	3Sg.N.Acc.Cl	give.3Sg.Past
<i>pismoto</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>edno</i>	<i>dete</i>
letter+the.N.Sg.	to	a.N.Sg	child.

‘Jana gave the letter to a child (that I know)’

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:255)

7) Loss of infinitive and use of subjunctive

The loss of infinitive is replaced by subjunctive structures introduced by *të* /tə/ in Albanian and *da* /da/ in Macedonian:

a.	<i>A-më</i>	<i>të</i>	<i>pi!</i>	Albanian
	Give.2Sg.Imper-1Sg.Dat.Cl	Subj.Mark	drink.1Sg	
b.	<i>Daj-mi</i>	<i>da</i>	<i>pija!</i>	Macedonian
	Give.2Sg.Imper-1Sg.Dat.Cl	Subj.Mark	drink.1Sg	

‘Give me to drink’

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:4)

8) “Will future”

The future tense with modal auxiliaries, Albanian *do të* and Macedonian with a single modal form *ќе* with meaning ‘will’, is exemplified in Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006) who quoted Sanfeld’s (1930) examples:

a.	<i>Do</i>	<i>të</i>	<i>shkruaj</i>	Albanian
	Will.Mod.Cl	Subj.Mark	write.1Sg	
	‘I will write’			
b.	<i>ќе</i>	<i>pišam</i>		Macedonian
	will.Mod.Cl	write.1Sg		
	‘I will write’			

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006: 6)

9) “Will future in the past”

The future-in-the-past tenses of Albanian and Macedonian have diachronically derived from “will” modal plus subjunctive construction sequences similar to those in Albanian.

- | | | | | |
|----|------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|------------|
| a. | <i>do të</i>
will.Mood.Cl | <i>ketë</i>
have.3Sg | <i>flejtur</i>
slept.Part | Albanian |
| b. | <i>ke</i>
will.Mood.Cl | <i>ima</i>
have.3Sg | <i>spieno</i>
slept.Part | Macedonian |

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006: 23)

10) “have” perfect

The development of the “have” perfect in Macedonian conforms with the “have” perfects in Albanian.

- | | | | |
|----|-------------------------------|----------------------------|------------|
| a. | <i>Kisha</i>
Have.1Sg.Past | <i>lidhur</i>
tied.Part | Albanian |
| b. | <i>imav</i>
Have.1Sg.Past | <i>vrzano</i>
tied.Part | Macedonian |

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:11)

11) “have” past perfect

While absent from most Balkan languages, the “have” past perfect form was found common in Albanian and Macedonian, utilizing the past of “have” as the auxiliary verb preceding the participle, as exemplified bellow:

- | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|------------|
| a. | <i>Kam</i>
Have.1Sg | <i>ardhur</i>
come. Past.Part | <i>këtu</i>
here | <i>shumë</i>
more | <i>herë.</i>
times. | Albanian |
| ‘I have come here more than once.’ | | | | | | |
| b. | <i>Imam</i>
Have.1Sg | <i>dojdeno</i>
come. Past.Part | <i>ovde</i>
here | <i>poveke</i>
more | <i>pati.</i>
times. | Macedonian |
| ‘I have come here more than once.’ | | | | | | |

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006: 208)

12) Evidentials

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:209) points out that the existence of formal devices for the expression of evidentiality is often listed among the typical typological properties of the Balkan *Sprachbund*. The morphologically marked evidentiality is limited only of Balkan Slavic, i.e. Macedonian, Albanian and Turkish. According to the author evidentials are “be”-auxiliary clitics followed by the i-participles, originally used as exponents of the perfect. It is also pointed out that in the western Macedonian dialects “have”-perfect is fully operative. For example:

- a. *Kam erdhur të bisedojmë.* Albanian
 Have.1S come.Part Su.Mk talk.1Pl
 ‘I have come to talk (to you)./I came to talk (to you).’
- b. *Ja imam pročitano knjigava* Macedonian
 3S.F.Ac.Cl have.1S read.Past.Part book+the.F.S.Prox
 ‘I have read this book/I read the book.’

Tomić, O. Mišeska (2006:346)

1.4.3.3 Lexicon

As this study has been based on phenomena of cross-linguistic influence in lexicon, the lexical influences between Albanian and Macedonian will be introduced. Given the sociolinguistic situation in Western Macedonia, the lexicon of Albanian and Macedonian is heavily influenced by contact languages. Friedman (1982) points out that due the sociolinguistic position in western Macedonia, the Albanian and Macedonian languages are in strong competition of the influencing one another. According to Friedman (1982), the Macedonian and Albanian languages have been influenced from the Turkish language as a result of the long lasting Ottoman Empire in this area. The corpus data gathered by Friedman (1982) illustrated different examples which alluded to the phenomena of Turkish influence in the Albanian and Macedonian languages on the dialectal level. For example the code-switches:

- çorba* < Tr. *çorbë* < Alb. *čorba* < Mac. ‘soup’
çaşrsi < Tr. *çarshi* < Alb *čaršija* < Mac. ‘city centre’

Friedman (1982:29)

The Albanian language in Macedonia has been marked by heavy borrowings from Slavic languages, in particular with the Macedonian language. This phenomenon was examined by Jashar.O. Nasteva (1998) who reports that borrowings from Macedonian incorporated in Albanian reflect the well-known political and cultural lexical items, names of the cities, rivers and mountains. Research by Jashar.O. Nasteva (1998) considered the borrowings dialectal, which included code-switching or calques, for example:

- | | |
|---|------------|
| 1. <i>Nuk e mora beleshkën për tekstil</i> | Albanian |
| <i>He зедов белешка за текстил</i> | Macedonian |
| /Ne zedov beleshka za tekstil/ | |
| ‘I did not take a receipt for the textile’ | |

Jashar O. Nasteva (1998:14)

This example contains the borrowed word *beleshkën*, which was identified as code-switching from Macedonian.

- | | |
|---|------------|
| 2. <i>Deshi s’deshi, do të vijë.</i> | Albanian |
| <i>Сакал не сакал, ќе дојде.</i> | Macedonian |
| /Sakal ne sakal ke dojde/ | |
| ‘With or without his wish, he will come.’ | |

Jashar O. Nasteva (1998:22)

Jashar O. Nasteva (1998:22) identified the expression *deshi s’deshi* as a literal translation or calque from Macedonian language *sakal ne saka* ‘with or without his wish’.

Jashar O. Nasteva (1998) also examined some cases of Albanian bilingual adults who had lived in cities and villages of western Macedonia, which are mainly inhabited by Macedonian speakers. She reported that those bilingual Albanians, who had frequent contact with Macedonian, heavily used Macedonian borrowed words, which the author called ‘macedonianisms’. For example:

- | | |
|---|------------------------|
| <i>Mlladina ka me shku ni’ predvojnička obuk.</i> | Dialectal-Geg Albanian |
| <i>Rinia do të shkojë ne ushtrime paraushtarake.</i> | Standard Albanian |
| <i>Младината ќе оди во предвојничка обука.</i> | Macedonian |
| /Mladinata ke odi vo prdvojnicka obuka/ | |

‘The youth will be going to a paramilitary training’

Jashar O. Nasteva (1998:24)

As can be seen from the example with dialectal Geg Albanian, the Macedonian words *mlladina*, *predvojnička* and *obuk* have been used for the Albanian words *rinia* ‘youth’, *paraushtrake* ‘paramilitary’ and *ushtrime* ‘trainings’.

However, Jashar O. Nasteva (1998) also argues that such cases cannot be found in cities and villages inhabited mainly by Albanians, such as Tetovo, Gostivar, Debar and Struga and Prespa.

Considering the studies of lexical influence of the Albanian on Macedonian, Murati (1998) reports a considerable number of lexical influences on Macedonian language. For example:

(i) Family related terms:

fis < Alb *fis* < Mac. ‘clan’

nuse < Alb *nusa* < Mac. ‘bride’

(ii) Plant and animal terms:

lule < Alb. *lula* < Mac. ‘flower’

pluë < Alb *pula* < Mac. ‘chicken’

Murati (1998:54)

On the basis of research material presented by Balkan study linguists, a large number of cross-linguistic influences have been found which have developed in a multilingual environment that is a result of intensive, everyday direct contacts between the Albanians and Macedonians and that these contacts have caused extensive bilingualism and usual cross-linguistic influence upon each other.

1.4.4 Common linguistic features of Albanian, Macedonian and English

Albanian, Macedonian and English are all Indo-European languages but belong to different branches. The Albanian language comprises its own branch of the Indo-European language family, while Modern Macedonian belongs to the South Slavic sub-branch of the Slavic branch of the Indo-European family of languages. English is a member of the western sub-branch of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European language family. The Albanian language is often compared to Balto-Slavic on the one hand and Germanic on the other and all three languages share phonological, grammatical and lexical and material features such as the pronunciation of certain vowels, the meaning of a word or the use of some syntactic feature.

Studying the three languages I found the most significant features shared by Albanian, Macedonian and the English language in phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon, which are:

a. In phonology, all three languages have a relatively large number of consonant pairs of stops, such as p/b, t/d, k/g and two pairs of fricatives, such as f/v, s/z, and the consonant /sh/, with exception of /zh/ characteristic for Albanian and Macedonian, and a non-paired voiceless fricative /h/ which is characteristic for Indo-European languages. The presence of a stressed mid-to-high central vowel is found in all three languages. The presence of the vowel schwa /ə/ in Albanian, some dialects of Macedonian, and English.

Albanian and English share the same writing system by using the Latin alphabet with the addition of the letters ë, ç and nine digraphs in the Albanian language, while Macedonian uses the Cyrillic alphabet. Albanian and Macedonian show a good rate of correspondence between phonemes and graphemes, i.e. an approximation of the one grapheme per phoneme principle: 'write as you speak and read as it is written'. The English language, in contrast, has fewer consistent relationships between sounds and letters, therefore reading and writing can be challenging for the Albanian learners of English and it takes longer to become completely fluent readers and writers of English.

b. In morphology, the languages are very much alike in respect to the form-classes, which they contain; they have the morphological categories (nouns, verbs, adjectives). The common characteristic of the three languages is that nouns are inflected for number. Nominal plurality is marked by a plural suffix. Analytic adjectival comparative structures are found in all three languages. The future tense in these languages is formed by using an auxiliary verb or particle with the meaning “will, want”, for example in Albanian > *do të* and ‘*dua*’, Macedonian > ‘*ќе*’, ‘*сакам*’ /‘*kje*’, ‘*sakam*’/, meaning “will, want”.

The perfect tense is formed with the verb “to have” e.g. ‘*Une kam premtuar*’; ‘*Јас сум ветил*’ /*Jas sum vetil*/ ‘I have promised’.

Numerals precede the noun for example: Albanian > *katërmëdhjetë*; Macedonian > *четирнаесет* /*cetirinaeset*/ ‘fourteen’.

c. In syntax, the word order of the three languages is subject- verb- object and negation is expressed by the particle ‘not’ in front of the verb, for example: *Teuta nuk flet Frengjisht*, *Теута не зборува Француски* /*Teuta ne zboruva Francuski*/, ‘Teuta does **not** speak French’. There is a passive construction in all three languages, Albanian: *Libri u lexua*; Macedonian: *книгата се прочита* /*knigata se prochita*/; English: ‘the book was read’.

d. During the examination of the lexical similarities in the dictionaries of the three languages of this study, I came across a considerable number of English loan words in both Albanian and Macedonian. They belong to various thematic groups: technical and scientific terminologies, sports, music, politics, food and drink, and clothing. In addition, the term ‘*Anglicism*’ has been used to identify English loan-words. Görlach explains the notion of this term and states:

A word or idiom that is recognizably English in its form (spelling, pronunciation, morphology or at least one of the three), but it is accepted as an item in the vocabulary of the receptor language. (Görlach 2003:1)

According to Filipovic (1996:39) ‘*Anglicisms*’ have influenced the other European languages based on their direct or indirect contact. In this case, due to the late development of English in Macedonia *anglicisms* have been so marginal until recently and that most of the *anglicisms* have been considered as indirect *anglicisms* which were integrated through various processes of media. Filipovic

(1996) emphasizes that the *anglicisms* can also be established through a third language called an *intermediary language*. In this view, reference to Murati (1998) reveals that the process of borrowing through a third language can be found in Albanian language, where many *anglicisms* have been integrated through Macedonian media, and Macedonian language plays a role of an *intermediary language*.

According to Ködderitzsch and Görlach (2002) borrowing and calquing, which is evident to a very great extent from English in Albanian language, is a result of the evident need to fill lexical gaps. The authors illustrate these phenomena with these items:

- 1) translations: weekend → *fund+javë*, *fund+jave* or *fundi i javës*
- 2) rendition: know-how → *njohuri e saktë* ‘exact knowledge’ (or *nou-hau*)
- 3) semi-calques: television → *shikim TV-je* (or: *television*).

Ködderitzsch and Görlach (2002:299)

Ködderitzsch and Görlach (2002) also commented that in some cases of Albanian various calques coexist by illustrating the calque brainwashing which was translated as *shpërlarje (ideologjike)*.

Gjurkova (2005) has expressed a similar view about Macedonian language. She points out that anglicisms have led to a few innovations in the lexicology of Macedonian language.

<i>сурфа</i> /surfa/	- based on -to surf- ‘surfing’
<i>четува</i> /chetuva/	- based on -to chat- ‘chatting’
<i>драфтува</i> /draftuva/	- based on -to draft- ‘drafting’
<i>искешира</i> /iskeshira/	- based on -cash n. – ‘to pay’
<i>испринтира</i> /isprintira/	- based on -to print – ‘print out’

Gjurkova (2005 : 8)

Filipovic (1996) reports that *anglicisms* and their number of integration in one language, depends on the use of English language in the people’s jobs and people’s contact with English culture and civilization. He illustrates a limited

number of English source words in the selected fields which have been adapted into Anglicisms. Considering the purpose of this study, I used Filipovic's (1996: 40) illustration of anglicisms, and those *anglicisms* which have been integrated into Albanian and Macedonian were selected and checked in the dictionaries. For example:

(a) food and drink:

- | | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. pudding; | Alb. <i>puding</i> ; | Mac. <i>пудинг</i> /puding/ |
| 2) Eng. sandwich; | Alb. <i>sendviç</i> ; | Mac. <i>сендвич</i> /sendvic/ |
| 3) Eng. juice; | Alb. <i>xhus</i> /dzhus/ | Mac. <i>џус</i> /dzhus/ |

(b) animals:

- | | | |
|--------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. alligator; | Alb. <i>aligator</i> ; | Mac. <i>алигатор</i> /aligator/ |
| 2) Eng. antelope; | Alb. <i>antilopë</i> ; | Mac. <i>антилопа</i> /antilopa/ |
| 3) Eng. kangaroo; | Alb. <i>kengur</i> ; | Mac. <i>кенгур</i> /kengur / |

(c) sports:

- | | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. boxer; | Alb. <i>bokser</i> ; | Mac. <i>боксер</i> /bokser / |
| 2) Eng. football; | Alb. <i>futbol</i> ; | Mac. <i>футбал</i> /futbal / |
| 3) Eng. tennis; | Alb. <i>tenis</i> ; | Mac. <i>тенис</i> /tenis/ |

(d) clothing:

- | | | |
|-------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. pullover; | Alb. <i>pullover</i> ; | Mac. <i>пуловер</i> /пуловер/ |
| 2) Eng. bikini; | Alb. <i>bikini</i> ; | Mac. <i>бикини</i> /bikini / |
| 3) Eng. blazer; | Alb. <i>blejzer</i> ; | Mac. <i>блејзер</i> /blejzer/ |

(e) economy:

- | | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. boycott; | Alb. <i>bojkot</i> ; | Mac. <i>кенгур</i> /kengur / |
| 2) Eng. budget; | Alb. <i>buxhet</i> ; | Mac. <i>буџет</i> /buxhet/ |
| 3) Eng. export; | Alb. <i>eksport</i> ; | Mac. <i>експорт</i> /eksport / |

(f) banking and money:

- | | | |
|--------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. bank note; | Alb. <i>banknotë</i> ; | Mac. <i>банкнота</i>
/banknota/ |
| 2) Eng. check; | Alb. <i>çek</i> ; | Mac. / chek/ |
| 3) Eng. safe; | Alb. <i>sef</i> ; | Mac. <i>сеф</i> / sef / |

(g) medicine:

- | | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|--|
| 1) Eng. vitamin; | Alb. <i>vitamin</i> ; | Mac. <i>витамин</i> /vitamin/ |
| 2) Eng. antibiotics; | Alb. <i>antibiotikë</i> ; | Mac. <i>антибиотици</i>
/antibiotici/ |
| 3) Eng. anesthesia; | Alb. <i>anestezion</i> ; | Mac. <i>анестезија</i>
/anestezija/ |

(h) journalism, politics and law:

- | | | |
|--------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. interview; | Alb. <i>intervju</i> ; | Mac. <i>интервју</i> /intervju/ |
| 2) Eng. column; | Alb. <i>kolumnë</i> ; | Mac. <i>колумна</i> /kolumna/ |
| 3) Eng. leader; | Alb. <i>lider</i> ; | Mac. <i>лидер</i> / <i>lider</i> / |

(i) film, radio, TV:

- | | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|---|
| 1) Eng. television; | Alb. <i>televizion</i> ; | Mac. <i>телевизија</i>
/televizija/ |
| 2) Eng. radio; | Alb. <i>radio</i> ; | Mac. <i>радио</i> / radio / |
| 3) Eng. cable TV; | Alb. <i>TVkablovik</i> ; | Mac. <i>кабловска ТВ</i> /kablovska TV/ |

(j) computer terms:

- | | | |
|-------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. computer; | Alb. <i>kompjuter</i> ; | Mac. <i>компјутер</i> /kompjuter / |
| 2) Eng. disc; | Alb. <i>disketë</i> ; | Mac. <i>дискета</i> / disketa/ |
| 3) Eng. chip; | Alb. <i>çip</i> ; | Mac. <i>чип</i> / chip/ |

(k) social life:

- | | | |
|----------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| 1) Eng. bar; | Alb. <i>bar</i> ; | Mac. <i>бар</i> / bar / |
| 2) Eng. club; | Alb. <i>klub</i> ; | Mac. <i>клуб</i> / klub / |
| 3) Eng. hobby; | Alb. <i>hobi</i> ; | Mac. <i>хоби</i> / hobi/ |

(l) music and dance:

- | | | |
|----------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1) Eng. band; | Alb. <i>bend</i> ; | Mac. <i>бенд</i> / bend/ |
| 2) Eng. blues; | Alb. <i>bluz</i> ; | Mac. <i>блуз</i> / bluz/ |
| 3) Eng. brake dance; | Alb. <i>brejkdens</i> ; | Mac. <i>брејкденс</i> /brejkdens/ |

(m) miscellaneous:

- | | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1) Eng. all right; | Alb. <i>ollrajt</i> ; | Mac. <i>олрајт</i> /olrajt/ |
| 2) Eng. camp; | Alb. <i>kamp</i> ; | Mac. <i>камп</i> /kamp/ |
| 3) Eng. picnic; | Alb. <i>piknik</i> ; | Mac. <i>пикник</i> /piknik/ |

As mentioned above, some *anglicisms* have been integrated into Albanian via Macedonian as an intermediary language. Murati (1998: 36) illustrates this with the following examples:

- (a) food and drink - *pudding, sandwich, juice*
- (b) animals – *alligator, antelope, kangaroo*
- (c) sports – *boxer, football, tennis*
- (d) clothing- *pullover, bikini, blazer*
- (e) economy- *boycott, budget, export*
- (f) banking and money – *bank note, check, safe*
- (g) medicine – *vitamin, antibiotics, anesthesia*
- (h) journalism, politics and law- *interview, column, leader*
- (i) film, radio, TV – *television, radio, cable TV*

Given the new modern way of life in Macedonia and the cultural commercial relations between Macedonia and European Union and the USA, the number of *anglicisms* will probably grow rapidly.

CHAPTER TWO

KEY CONCEPTS OF TRILINGUAL DEVELOPMENT

Over the past few decades, a considerable number of studies have been made on language acquisition. Numerous attempts have been made by scholars to demonstrate how people learn languages other than their native language and in what situation a particular language is chosen among other languages. All theories of language acquisition seek to describe the individual's developing linguistic competences. Of an additional interest to second language acquisition theorists, in contrast to first language acquisition theorists, is whether the patterns and processes of language learning are the same when learning two or more languages simultaneously or when learning a second language after the first language has been acquired. Going beyond second language acquisition to the acquisition of an additional language, learning processes are even more complex and diverse.

This chapter provides an overview of the findings of research on second language acquisition and bilingualism and third language acquisition and multilingualism.

2.1 Second Language Acquisition

The study of second language acquisition has been explained with varying theoretical perspectives from pure descriptive studies to a variety of disciplinary perspectives such as linguistics, cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics and education.

Starting with scope of second language acquisition, Gass and Selinker (2008) make clear that it is the language learned after the native language, that accounts for the way learners create a new language system. According to the authors, second language acquisition is concerned with the nature of the hypotheses (whether conscious or unconscious), whether the learners are concerned with the rules of second language acquisition and if they compare them with those of the native language.

Reference to Lightbown and Spada (2006) reveals the context of second language acquisition in terms of learner's characteristics and the environment in which the second language acquisition occurs. According to Lightbown and Spada, the most important characteristic of second language learners is that they have acquired a prior language which is an advantage in learning a second language and as they stated, "they have an idea of how languages work" (2006:30). Beside the advantages of the previously learned language of the second language learners, according to Lightbown and Spada, there is also a risk of making incorrect guesses about the way second language works which may result in producing language errors.

Other researchers, such as VanPatten and Williams (2007) explain the aspects of second language acquisition prior to the 1990s. They indicate that second language acquisition fell into two basic periods: behaviorism and structural description of language. Behaviorism is described as a theory borrowed from psychology which accounts both first and second language acquisition. The most dominant theories of second language acquisition prior to 1990s are behaviorist theory and the Krashen's (1981) Monitor theory which, according to the authors, remain with a considerable influence in the new explanations and models of the second language acquisition.

Behaviorism theory was explained by VanPatten and Williams (2007) with Pavlov's sound experiment which was done with dogs in terms of hearing the sound (stimulus) and the way they would respond. After the series of repetition, the association could trigger the response, thus this experiment was explained with learning in terms of imitation, practice and habit formation. They also stated that behaviorists believed the same process was true for the human beings.

Lightbown and Spada (2006) point out that behaviorist theory had a strong influence on teaching second and foreign language because the language development was viewed as formation of habits which have been formed during the first language acquisition. Thus, the authors link behaviorism with Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis according to which in cases when the first and the second language are similar, the learners should acquire the language with ease. On the

other hand, when the first and second languages are different the learners should have difficulties.

Beside the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, Lightbown and Spada (2006) have drawn attention to the role of the first language during the acquisition of the second language and how much the learners rely on the language they already know. In this regard, Lado, in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957), rightly points out:

“Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture- both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and respectively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives”

(Lado 1957:2)

According to Gass and Selinker (2008) the role of native language during the acquisition of the first was seen as a subfield of the second language acquisition and has come to be known as language transfer. They also indicated two different underlying learning processes, one of positive transfer and another of negative transfer. Whether the learner has positively or negatively transferred from their previously acquired language, is based on the target language output or product.

Reference to Gass and Selinker (2008) reveals that coming from the behaviorist theory of language acquisition, language came to be seen not as automatic habits, but as a set of structured rules, which were learned on the basis of innate principles. The innatist principles are also known as Universal Grammar (UG) which deals with the understanding of language as a system with its own rules. Gass and Selinker (2008) indicate that the Universal Grammar approach to second language acquisition begins from the perspective of learning ability and by the need to explain the uniformly successful and speedy acquisition of language in spite of insufficient input. However, Lightbown and Spada (2006) draw on other research studies and argue that Universal Grammar is good for understanding first language acquisition, but it is not good for explaining the acquisition of a second language. Based on the second language acquisition studies, the authors also conclude research studies from the Universal Grammar perspective are interested in the language

competence of advanced learners rather than the simple language of beginning learners

Other explanations of second language acquisition have been based on cognitive perspective, which according to Ellis (1999) cognitive approaches to second language acquisition seek explanation in terms of both information processing and mental representation. One prominent cognitive theory of second language acquisition is Krashen's 'monitor model'. Krashen (1981) has drawn attention to the fact that there exists a conscious and unconscious language system which can both be activated in any language situation. This model emphasizes the role of attitudes in second language acquisition and makes a distinction between attitudinal/motivational variables. The author also points out that the attitudinal/motivational variables are related to subconscious acquisition while language aptitude is related to conscious learning. The 'monitoring model' has five main hypotheses (Krashen, 1981):

- (i) *The acquisition-learning hypothesis*: the theory makes distinction between learning (the conscious learning) and acquisition (unconscious learning).
- (ii) *The natural order hypothesis*: maintains that learners acquire grammatical structures in a natural and predictable order
- (iii) *The monitor hypothesis*: learners use a 'monitor' as a learning device to edit their language performance
- (iv) *The input hypothesis*: acquisition is believed to occur when learners have been exposed to and understood input with which they will acquire language structures naturally.
- (v) *The effective filter hypothesis*: refers to the learners with high motivation, high self-confidence and low anxiety who also have low anxiety, have low filters and develop language faster.

Krashen's 'monitor model' has attracted a great deal of criticism for the reason that acquisition is believed to be subconscious and learning conscious. Testing the validity of 'monitor model' by empirical research has been found extremely difficult, if not impossible. Thus, the model remains a theoretical concept only.

Reference to VanPatten and Williams (2007) indicate that the studies on second language acquisition prior to the 1990s had demonstrated major problems, thus the second language acquisition had entered a new era in which many explanations and models of second language acquisition appeared. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), from the cognitivist/ developmental perspective an *information processing* model was suggested as a movement toward a more cognitive view of second language acquisition. It is concerned with the mental processes involved in language learning. These include perception and the input of new information; the formation, organization and mental representations; and retrieval and output strategies. Based on this model the learner is viewed as an active organizer of incoming information and 'Pay attention' in this context is accepted, which as the authors state "it is accepted to mean using cognitive resources to process information." (2006:39).

Another approach to second language acquisition study is the *connectionist perspective*. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), connectionists attribute greater importance to the role of the environment than to any specific innate knowledge in the learner. They also state that connectionists argue that learners gradually build up their knowledge of language through exposure to the thousand of instances of the linguistic features they eventually hear. After many times of hearing the language features, the learner develop makes a connection between the language elements. The authors go on to conclude that connectionist research deals with acquisition of vocabulary and grammatical morphemes.

The other psycholinguistic approach to second language acquisition is the *competition model* which is concerned with how language is used. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), the competition model is closely related to connectionist perspective and it was proposed as an explanation for both first and second language acquisition. The competition model was also explained by Gass and Selinker (2008) who state that the major concept inherent in the model is that speakers must have a way to determine relationships among elements in a sentence. In this perspective, the language processing involves competition among various cues, each of which contributes to a different resolution in sentence interpretation.

Thus, Gass and Selinker state that “a major determining cue in understanding this relationship is word order.” (2008:222). It is suggested that in L2 sentence interpretation, the learner’s initial hypothesis is consistent with sentence interpretation in the native language, thus Gass and Selinker (2008:223) state:

“Learners whose native language uses cues and cue strengths that differ from those of the target language are presented with sentences designed to present conflicting cues and are asked to determine what the subjects of those sentences are.”

The work of Gass (1997) indicates that this model is proposed to have two-level structures, a functional level and formal level. In the former meaning is expressed, in the latter are surface forms. So, in the simplest form of the model, direct mappings between these levels take place in language use.

As a result of a series of research studies, Swain (1985) suggested the ‘Comprehensible Output Hypothesis’ which was influenced by Krashen’s comprehensible input hypothesis and refers to language that learner produces to express a message. According to Swain (1985) it is not enough for learners to see and hear language in use but they should truly understand use the target language.

In addition to the above models, the cognitivist/developmental has also accounted a number of other hypothesis, theories and models in second language acquisition such as the *interaction hypothesis*, the *noticing hypothesis*, the *input processing model* and the *processability theory*. Below is given a brief description based on the work of Lightbown and Spada (2006):

- (i) *the interaction hypothesis*: is seen as an essential condition in second language acquisition and emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input.
- (ii) *the noticing hypothesis* suggests that nothing is learned unless it has been noticed and it does not result in acquisition, but it is an essential starting point.
- (iii) *input processing model* suggests that the essential key to accessing and modifying learner grammar and to facilitate developmental change lies in focusing learner attention on input data, such as focus on meaning and interpret it.

- (iv) *processability theory* explains the way learners develop a certain level of processing capacity in second language acquisition.

According to Lightbom and Spada (2006) all the psychological perspective view thinking and speaking as related but independent processes in second language acquisition. It is suggested that cognitive development arises as result of social interactions so that second language acquisition has been also viewed from socio-cultural perspective. Lightbown and Spada (2006) draw on Vygotsky's theory and point out that unlike psychological theories that view thinking and speaking as related but independent processes, socio-cultural theory views thinking and speaking as tightly interwoven. As cited from Lightbown and Spada, Vygotskian theory gives a great importance to the conversations with learning occurring through the social interactions. When Vygotsky's theory has been expanded to second language theory, research studies have been conducted to show how second language learners acquire language when they interact with other speakers.

Beside the output hypothesis, Lightbown and Spada state that many other studies have been conducted to investigate how second language learners construct their linguistic knowledge in second language production task either in speaking or writing.

2.2 Bilingualism

Research of bilingualism considers the languages in contact which includes the nature of the individual bilingual's knowledge and use of two languages. Various definitions have been suggested on what constitutes bilingualism. Starting with Bloomfield's (1933:56) highest demand for the scope of reference for bilingualism, he suggested that bilinguals have to be fluent in two languages and bilingualism should be accounted as 'native-like control of two or more languages'.

Contrary to Bloomfield, Haugen (1953, 1987) claims that bilingualism cannot be treated as 'native-like control', instead he suggests a narrower criterion between native competence and zero competence as a gradient without obvious lines of division, and considers bilinguals as persons who use two languages alternatively. In addition to this, Haugen (1987:14) argues that Bloomfield's theory is an ideal

theoretical model which few or even any can achieve it and rephrases the Bloomfield's definition 'native like control' into "native competence in more than one language". Another pragmatic definition about bilingualism is given by Weinreich (1953:5) who stated "the practice of alternatively using two languages will be called here bilingualism, and the persons involved bilinguals'.

Mackey (1968:554), points out that bilingualism is not a phenomenon of language but of its use. In addition to this he states that the study of bilingualism falls within the study of sociolinguistics which is concerned with the ways in which language is used in society. Mackey (1968) considers bilingualism as a global phenomenon because most of the world's communities use more than one language and are therefore multilingual rather than homogeneous. With this consideration he points out that it is monolingualism which represents a special case.

Grosjean (1982:2) estimates that half the world's population is bilingual and examined countries where bilingualism can be found. In addition to this, Romaine (1989:8) concludes that there are about thirty times as many languages as there are countries, which entails the presence of bilingualism in practically every country of the world.

2.2.1 Types of bilingualism

Another way of examining bilingualism is by relating societal and individual bilingualism. Social bilingualism was described by Ferguson (1959) as diglossia which refers to the existence of two languages or varieties of one language in a society and may be along such lines as formal and informal context or written and spoken modalities of language. Fishman (1972), pointed out that societies may differ both in the presence or absence of diglossia to which individual bilingualism is incorporated. In the context of societal bilingualism, Fishman (1972:119) introduced four types of relationships:

1. Bilingualism and diglossia (Paraguay – Guarani and Spanish are used in different societal domains, most individuals are bilingual)
2. Diglossia without bilingualism (Switzerland – government or political diglossia, German in Zurich, French in Geneva)

3. Bilingualism without diglossia (United states- bilingualism among immigrant groups or language minorities)
4. Neither bilingualism nor diglossia (Korea, Portugal, or Norway- these countries have relatively little immigration and almost no indigenous minorities)

From the point of individual bilingualism, several important contributions have had a particularly strong impact on the study of bilingualism. These studies have been based on finding an appropriate scale in order to measure an individual's proficiency in two languages, and thus to categorize bilingual speakers into two different groups, based on their fluency and language production and use.

An important contribution to the study of individual bilingualism is the work of Weinreich (1968: 9-11) who analyzed the way a person learns a language and how concepts are stored in the brain. He studied two languages in contact (Romansh and Schwytzertütsch) and identified three types of bilingualism, *compound*, *coordinate* and *subordinate bilingualism*

In *compound* bilingualism, according to Weinreich, the person's first and second language forms are connected at the meaning level. In *coordinate* bilingualism separate forms of meaning connections exist for each language, and in *subordinate* bilingualism second language word forms are connected to first language meanings through primary connections to first language forms. With regard to Weinreich's types of bilingualism, Singleton (1999:173) points out that Weinreich's different types of bilingualism are associated with different kinds of learning experience: *compound* with school-based learning or with learning two languages in homes where the two languages are used interchangeably to refer to the same situations; *coordinate* with the learning of two languages in entirely different context and/or in contexts where translation plays little or no role; and subordinate with learning a second through the first language.

Following Weinreich (1953), these types of bilingualism can be illustrated as in the diagram below, which shows how the concept *book* can be associated in different ways:

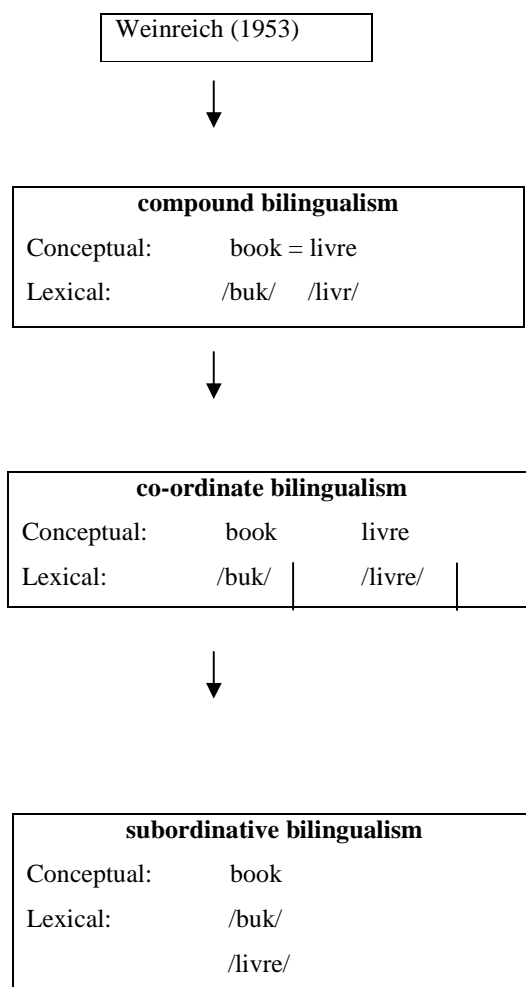


Figure 2.1 Types of bilingualism (Weinreich 1953)

As has become clear, these types of bilingualism are related to the social circumstances in which the two languages are learned, but the distinctions also reflect the bilingual individual's mental makeup

Weinreich's distinctions led to a number of studies which sought to find behavioral differences in bilinguals which could reflect this typology (e.g. Lambert, Havelka, & Crosby, 1958). However, such attempts have essentially been abandoned because of difficulties in operationalizing the distinctions. Speculation that different bilingual experiences result in different cognitive and neural organizations has persisted, however.

McLaughlin (1984), proposed a classification relating to the age at which a language is learned, that of simultaneous and of sequential bilingualism. Simultaneous bilingualism occurs when a child starts to acquire two languages from the very beginning, while sequential bilingualism only occurs if the second language is acquired after the age of 5, when basic components of the first language are already in place. Sequential bilinguals, according to Genesee, Hamers, Lambert, Mononen, Seitz, and Starck (1978), can be classified as early or late bilinguals, depending on the age at which the second language was acquired.

Byalistok & Hakuta (1994), developed a clear categorization based on the age of an individual, distinguishing between the group of early bilinguals and the group of late bilinguals. According to them, it is the group of early bilinguals which can be further subdivided into simultaneous and sequential bilinguals.

The concepts above are important for the later discussion in this study since it addresses the acquisition of English as a third language in bilingual learners.

2.2.2 Cognitive effects of bilingualism

In order to responsibly link bilingualism and its cognitive effects, many researchers have addressed the question of cause and effect. Although most research assumes that bilingualism is the cause and cognitive advantages are the result, Baker (1993: 42) disagrees with this assumption and states “that the causal abilities may run from cognitive abilities to enhanced language learning.”

There are different cognitive theories of bilingualism which explain how languages are presented in the brain and what kind of effect the languages have on each other. Cummins (1979) attempted to provide an adequate explanation for the inconsistent findings from studies on the relationship between bilingualism and cognitive development. The hypothesis proposed by Cummins was related to language proficiency and was named *threshold hypothesis*. The threshold hypothesis proposes that there may be a threshold level of bilingual proficiency that children must attain in order to gain advantages and avoid disadvantages in their cognitive development. This threshold may vary depending on the cognitive stage of the

bilingual person and on the academic needs of a certain school period. This led Cummins to the conclusion that there is not only one threshold, but more. Once the higher threshold level of bilingual competence is achieved, which is a high level of proficiency in both languages, called balanced bilingualism, bilingualism will have positive cognitive effects. When the lower threshold level of bilingual competence is achieved in one language and the high level in the other this is called – dominant bilingualism. This bilingualism will not bring about any negative cognitive effects, or no effects at all, whereas problems arise when there is a low level of competence in both languages.

Semilingualism is also known as “limited bilingualism” (Cummins 1981) and is commonly considered to indicate “low levels in both languages” Cummins (1979: 230). Semilingualism, i.e. a low level of competence in both languages is associated with negative cognitive effects.

The figure below shows the cognitive effects of different types of bilingualism:

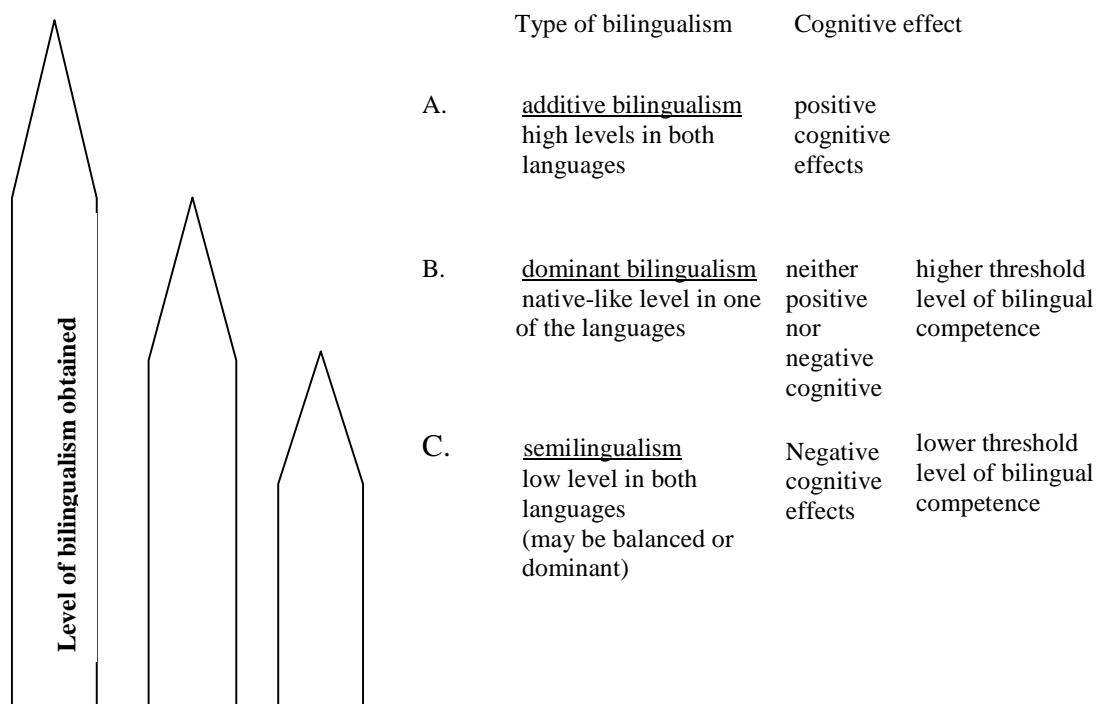


Figure 2.2 Cognitive Effects of Different Types of Bilingualism (Cummins 1979: 230)

Cummin's hypothesis was basically supported by empirical studies, for example, Bialystok (2001: 144) as a formal attempt to incorporate proficiency levels into predictions about effects of bilingualism. However, a number of researchers such as MacSwan (2000:3) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1981: 222) has strongly criticized Cummin's work on the notion of limited bilingualism or semilingualism because it is not clear how to define the level of language proficiency.

In addition to Cummin's threshold hypothesis Baker (1993: 131-146) introduces four different theories; the *balance theory*, *iceberg analogy*, the *threshold theory* and the *developmental interdependence hypothesis*.

The Balance theory or also known as balloon picture theory, according to Baker, is that the two languages operate separately without transfer. The balloon picture that portrays monolinguals consists of one well filled balloon, while the bilingual is pictured as having two less filled balloons. The balloon picture theory was subconsciously taken as the best representation of bilingual functioning by many parents, teachers, politicians and administrators. Baker (1993:170) pointed that the first reaction to this theory was that the topic of bilingualism is an assumption that increasing one language will automatically cause a decrease in the second language. The second reaction was that the early research has often found bilinguals inferior to monolinguals, which resulted in support to balance theory. This idea was further developed by Cummins (1980a) who termed the balloon theory as a Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) Model of Bilingualism. According to Cummins (1980a) this theory keeps the languages separate in the brain, which means that two balloons are apart and separate, without transfer and with a restricted amount of 'room' for languages.

The balance theory has shown to be logically conceivable but psychologically incorrect. Cummins and Swain (1986 :82) argue that there is little evidence to support this theory, which, lead Cummins to an alternative idea called Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model.

The iceberg analogy or the Common Underlying Proficiency model was pictorially represented in the form of two separate icebergs (see Baker 1993: 169). Although the two languages seem visibly different, underneath the surface, they are

fused and show that they do not function separately and operate through the same central processing system.

By distinguishing two different forms of language proficiency, a radical critique of bilingual education practices became possible in the United States and elsewhere.

Cummins and Swain (1986:82) points out that the distinction between Separate Underlying Proficiency and Common underlying Proficiency became globally influential in educational policy and practice, particularly with the immigrant students in the United States.

The third theory, the threshold theory, (Baker 1993: 135-137; Baker 2006: 170-173) partially explains the relationship between cognition and degree of bilingualism. Baker portrayed the theory in terms of a house with three floors (see Baker 2006:171), where up the house are placed two language ladders, indicating that a bilinguals child will usually be moving upward and will not usually be stationary on a floor. On the *bottom floor*, Baker, places those bilinguals whose competence in two languages is insufficient or inadequately developed, especially compared with their age group. According to Baker, in this situation, where the competence in two languages is low, there may be negative cognitive effects. At the *second floor* of the house , or middle level of competence in both languages, a partly- bilingual child will be little different in cognition from the monolingual child and is unlikely to have any significant positive or negative cognitive differences compared with a monolingual. At the *top* of the house, the *third floor*, there resides children who approximate 'balance' bilinguals, who will have age appropriate competence in two languages. Baker, emphasizes that at this level the positive cognitive advantages of bilingualism may appear, i.e. when a child has age-appropriate ability in both their languages, they may have cognitive advantage over monolinguals.

The threshold theory was supported by many researchers, for example Bialystok (1988), who found that the performance of bilinguals improved with increased language proficiency and that the proficiency levels of the subjects in their research study were crucial in determining the outcome of findings. However, the

problem of this theory was in precisely defining the language level proficiency a child must obtain in order to avoid the negative effects of bilingualism and obtain the positive advantages of bilingualism

The last theory suggested by Baker (1993: 138-142; and 2006: 173), was the development threshold theory, which Cummins (2000a, 2000b) outlined as the language Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, a child's second language is partly dependent on the level of competence already achieved in the first language, in that the more developed the first language is, the easier it will be to develop the second language. This theory was supported by empirical studies in language competence, for example Huguet, Vila and Llorca (2000) studied the Spanish/Catalan children with varying balance of language competence and found out that those children who knew more Catalan also knew more Spanish and vice versa.

Given the evidence of the cognitive theories on bilingualism, it can be seen that some of them consider bilingual education with negative consequences, while there is also a body of research demonstrating cognitive advantages of bilingualism.

Another cognitive effect of bilingualism has been addressed within the framework of the concept of linguistic knowledge and skills which refers to *metalinguistic awareness*. Bialystok (1986:173) refers to metalinguistic awareness as a set of abilities involving an objective awareness and control of linguistic variables, such as understanding the arbitrariness of word-referent relations and the capacity to detect and correct syntactical violations. Furthermore, the author sees metalinguistic awareness as a crucial component of cognitive development because of its documented relations to language ability.

Metalinguistic awareness in bilinguals was tested by Thomas (1988) in his study with English-Spanish bilingual college students who showed superiority over English monolinguals when learning French in formal settings. The author points out that bilingual students performed significantly better than their monolingual counterparts on tests of vocabulary and grammar. Thomas explained that the results were due to the possibility that bilinguals used metalinguistic skills to enhance their performance on the assignments focused on language form. The next advantage of

bilinguals was explained in the writing tasks, where bilinguals wrote more understandable essays in French than did the monolinguals. Finally, the author suggests that metalinguistic awareness in bilingual facilitated the careful observance of linguistic output focusing their attention on the message.

Although early research studies argued on the disadvantages of bilingualism, research arguing the opposite continued to appear, supporting the advantages of bilingualism and multilingualism.

2.3 Key concepts in third language acquisition

Research in second language acquisition (SLA) and bilingualism is a well established discipline and has been for more than three decades, while third language acquisition (TLA) research has only recently attracted more attention. For this reason, Cenoz and Jessner state that “specific characteristics of third language acquisition are still in its infancy” (2000: 257).

Third language acquisition has for a long time been defined as the acquisition of additional languages by bilingual individuals or as a special phenomenon of bilingualism and/or second language acquisition. In this regard, Jessner states:

“For a long time linguists have treated third language learning as a by-product of research on second language learning and acquisition. But nowadays it is known that learning a second language differs in many respects from learning a third language.”

Jessner (2006: 13)

The next contribution to the third language acquisition studies is Aronin and Hufeisen’s book (2009) *The exploration of multilingualism*. The book covers much ground on the development of third language acquisition from early to the recent studies, and then they focus on multilingualism and multiple language acquisition. The authors are highly affective in discussing the issue of distinction between bilingualism and multilingualism situated in the framework of different research domains, such as socio – and psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, pragmalinguistics, applied linguistics, applications to the concrete learning events with initiatives such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), immersion and the common curriculum.

Aronin and Hufeisen (2009) highlight the crucial elements of multilingualism and through the different research studies outlined in the book, the authors make clear that the differences of bilingualism and multilingualism have been widely accepted and in turn, this has led to new approaches toward curricula planning of multiple language acquisition.

Taking into consideration the difference between bilingualism and third language acquisition, Herdina and Jessner (2000: 85) suggest that research on multilingualism, which can also cover learning a third, fourth or more languages, must therefore clearly go beyond bilingualism and SLA. The authors also present the characteristics of third language acquisition which involve a different approach to language learning contrasting the traditional theory of language acquisition. These characteristics are: (i) non-linearity, (ii) language maintenance, (iii) individual variation, (iv) interdependence and quality change. In this study, each characteristic of language learning will be discussed in greater detail (see chapter four).

One of the mostly used terminologies in this growing area of research is the notion of third language (L3) in a sense that relates to the established notions of first and second language (L1, L2). Languages that are acquired after the first language are commonly termed second languages (L2) and Hammarberg (2001) uses the term L3 for the language that is currently being acquired, and L2 for any other language that the person has acquired after L1.

2.3.1 The development of research in L3A

Third language acquisition was first mentioned in literature in relationship to the general topic of multilingualism. As discussed by Aronin and Hufeisen (2009), early researchers of multilingualism and multiple language acquisition such as Brown (1937) and Vildomec (1963) (cited from Aronin and Hufeisen 2009:2) did not study the phenomenon systematically, but they identified it as a field of study in its own right. The authors also emphasize that they are the only ones who did not concentrate on the negative side of the existence of multiple languages in the learners' repertoires, but emphasized the positive effects of being multilingual.

The birth of third language acquisition was briefly described by Aronin and Hufesen in their book *The exploration of multilingualism*. They stated that third language acquisition researchers did not agree with the account that multilingualism and multiple language acquisition to be regarded as a mere sub-form of second language acquisition. Thus, during 1992 and 1997 in the framework of German Association of Applied Linguistics, Britta Hufeisen organized the first L3 workshop.

Aronin and Hufeisen (2009) go further to describe that in 1998, Ulrike Jessner participated in the workshop and in collaboration with Jasone Cenoz, they organized the first conference of third language acquisition on an international scale, which took place in Innsbruck in Austria. Considering the growing interest of research in the field of third language acquisition, in 2003, the association of multilingualism was founded by Britta Hufeisen, Ulrike Jessner, Jasone Cenoz, Muiris Ó Laoire, Larissa Aronin, Patricia Bayona, Gessica De Angelis, Jean-Marc Dewaele, and Peter Ecke.

Later, in 2004 Ulrike Jessner and Jasone Cenoz launched the *International Journal of Multilingualism* (cf. Arone and Hufeisen 2009:3). The reviewed publications in this journal are about multilingualism and are published with Multilingual Matters, Avon, UK.

The issue of learning and using a third language, was analyzed by Jessner (2001, 2006), who is one of the leading researchers in the study of multilingualism, specifically third language acquisition. Jessner (Jessner 2006:16) specifies differences between the processes of second language acquisition (SLA) and third language acquisition (TLA) and points out that one of the main characteristics of third language acquisition in contrast to second language acquisition is the greater complexity of third language acquisition.

The process of third language acquisition has also been described by Cenoz (2000), who states that the acquisition of a third language bears some similarities to the process of second language acquisition, but it is considerably different in the sense that “third language learners have more language experience at their disposal than second language learners, are influenced by the general effects of bilingualism

on cognition, and have two linguistic systems when acquiring a third language” (Cenoz 2000:71). The author also explains possible orders in which a third language can be acquired. Table 2.1 lists the different situations of when second and third language acquisition takes place.

<i>Second language acquisition</i>		<i>Third language acquisition</i>	
1	$L1 \rightarrow L2$	1	$L1 \rightarrow L2 \rightarrow L3$
2	$Lx + Ly$	2	$L1 \rightarrow Lx/Ly$
		3	$Lx/Ly \rightarrow L3$
		4	$Lx/Ly/Lz$

Table 2.1: Second language acquisition vs. third language acquisition (as introduced by Cenoz 2000:40)

Table 2.1 shows that in second language acquisition the (L2) can be learnt after the first (L1) or at the same time, while in third language acquisition there are four possible orders:

(i) the three languages can be acquired simultaneously; (ii) the three languages can be learnt consecutively; (iii) two languages are learnt simultaneously after the acquisition of the L1; (iv) two languages are acquired simultaneously before the L3.

To summarize, the acquisition of a third language shows the number of the languages involved, their possible acquisition order, and the diversity and complexity of the relationship among the three languages involved.

2.3.2 Modeling the multilingual acquisition

The acquisition of a third language has been explained with different models in the research of multilingualism. The most prominent ones which have been found in the literature starting from the earlier studies on multilingualism are:

1. Role- function model (Williams & Hammarberg 1998) ;
2. Factor Model (Britta Hufeisen 1998);
3. Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (Herdina & Jessner 2002);

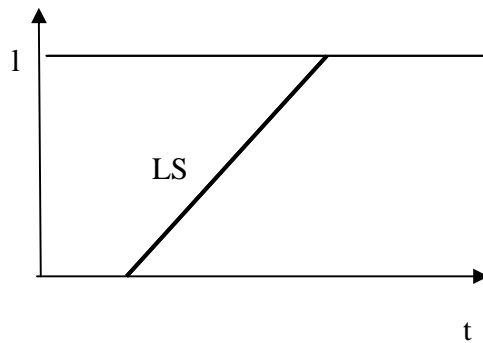
4. Multilingual Processing Model (Francz-Jozef Meißner 2004);
5. Sociolinguistic Ecological Model of Multilinguality (Larissa Aronin & Muiris Ó Laorie 2003)

The Role-factor model is a psycholinguistic model and studies the development of individual language learning process; the Factor Model describes the factors involved in process of learning the first language, the first foreign language, the second foreign language and other foreign languages; the DMM is a psycholinguistic model which focuses on the development of the learning process; Multilingual Processing Model explains the acquisition process and considers the typological relations between languages; Sociolinguistic Ecological Model of Multilinguality makes a distinction between the concept of multilingualism and multilinguality in that the first refers to the situation in which the languages have been learned, while the later refers to the linguistic aspects of a multilingual learner.

The above presented models have theoretically, and some of them empirically contributed to multilingualism research and also discussed the factors involved in the process of learning. The details of each model will not be presented in this study, instead a closer look will be given to the DMM model with the need to connect the model with the empirical investigation of the present study.

The dynamic of third language acquisition has been investigated by Herdina and Jessner (2002) who offer comprehensive clarifications of terminologies used to define trilingualism. According to Herdina and Jessner, the term ‘trilingualism’ refers to the use of three languages, ‘third language acquisition’ or ‘TLA’ refers to the process of learning a third language. The authors clearly explained that trilingualism goes beyond second language acquisition and bilingualism, and presents a significant specification of the term ‘multilingualism’.

Herdina and Jessner (2002) discuss the features of multilingual development starting with the implicit linear model of language acquisition which considers language learning, be it second first or third, as gradual sequence of language improvement leading to an acceptable degree of mastery of a language system.



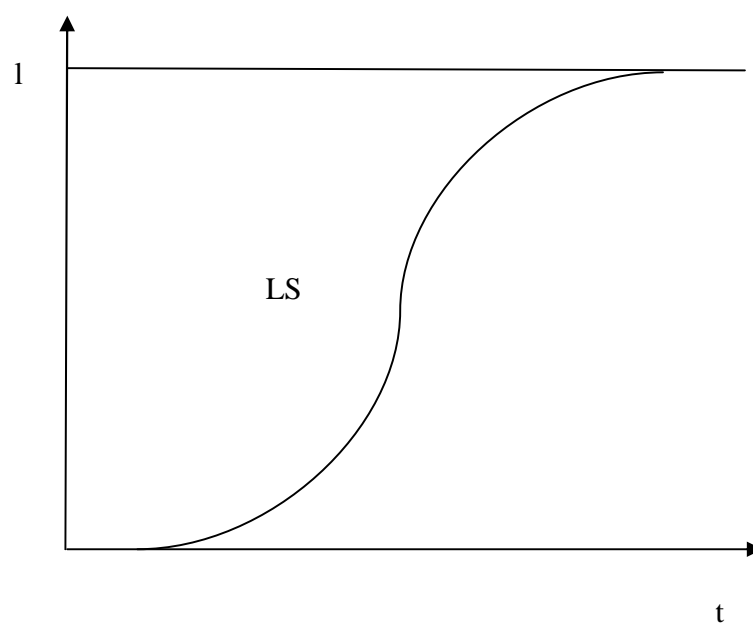
LS individual language system (linear development)

t time

1 language level

Figure 2.3 Linear process of language learning in Herdina & Jessner (2002:86)

Herdina and Jessner, argue that the linear process of language acquisition is a monotonous traditional model and the stages of development do not follow the homogeneous growth, instead they describe the language learning process as a steady upward motion where one step follows the other, like climbing ladders. In addition, the authors compare the language learning with the process of biological growth in real life. The figure illustrates the process of biological growth and clearly shows the difference between the of linear process model.



LS individual language system

t time

1 language level

Figure 2.4 Biological growth of language learning in Herdina & Jessner (2002:87)

Based on the biological principles, Herdina and Jessner (2002:87) see language development as a dynamic process with phases of accelerated growth and retardation which is dependent on environmental factors and is indeterminate. In this view, the authors also consider language loss over time and the development of new skills in a multilingual speaker.

By investigating the high complexity of language system in a multilingual learner, Herdina and Jessner (2002) developed a dynamic model of multilingualism or DMM. This is a psycholinguistic model which explains the variations in language development and gradual language loss within a multilingual system which depend on various factors, linguistic, social and individual. In addition, the DMM considers

the theories of holism and connectionism and integrates the whole parts of multilingualism starting from monolingualis, second and third language acquisition.

Considering such complexity of language systems and the relationship between the factors involved, Herdina and Jessner (2002:138) noted a development of personal dynamism or auto-dynamic system of multilingualism. The autodynamism is characterized by the influence of different factors such as multilingual aptitude (MLA) and metalinguistic skills, language acquisition process (LAP), motivation (MO), perceived language competence (PLC), self estimation (EST), and language anxiety (ANX). The complexity of language systems according to the dynamic model of multilingualism is illustrated in figure 2.5:

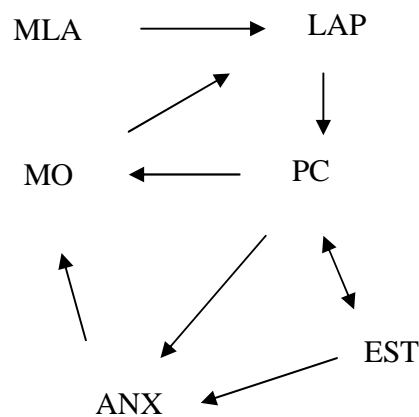
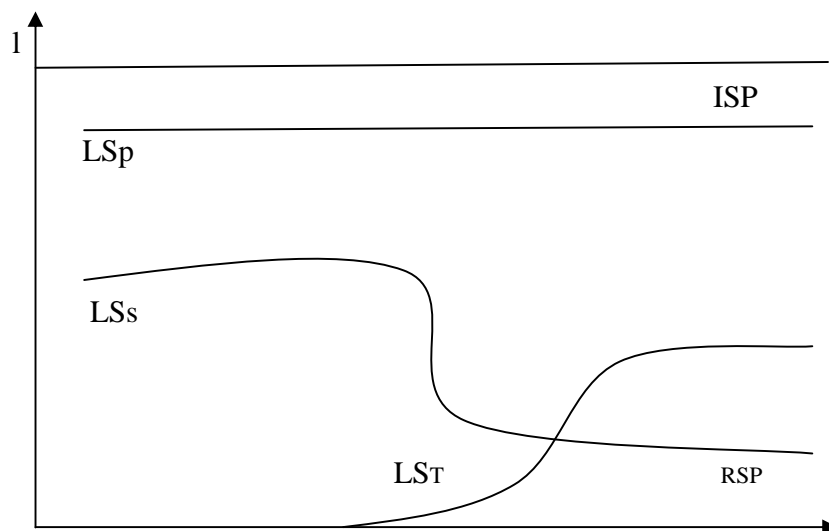


Figure 2.5 Individual factors involved in the development of multilingual system (Herdina & Jessner 2002: 138)

MLA= (multi)language aptitude/metalinguistic abilities; LAP=language acquisition progress; MOT=motivation; ANX=anxiety; PC=perceived language competence; EST=self-esteem

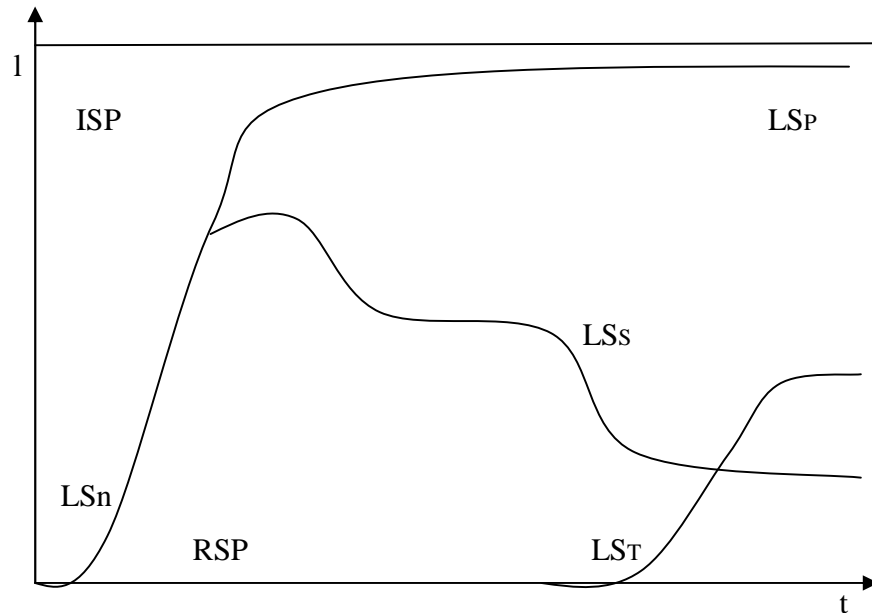
In addition, Herdina and Jessner (2002:89) identified the following characteristics of a dynamic multilingual system: non-linearity, reversibility, stability, interdependence, complexity and change of quality.

Through the DMM, Herdina and Jessner (2002:123) exemplified the development of a multilingual speaker in two phases: the acquisition and the overall development phase. In the acquisition phase of the multilingual speaker the primary language is considered constant and dominant at the level of ideal native speaker proficiency, whereas the second and tertiary language systems have been described as transitional. While the development phase shows effects of the prior language knowledge on additional language acquisition. The acquisition phase is illustrated in Figure 2.6a and the latter in figure 2.6b



ISP = ideal native speaker proficiency; LSp = primary language system; LSs = secondary language system; LSt = tertiary language system; t = time; l = language level

Figure 2.6a Learner multilingualism: acquisition phase (Herdina & Jessner 2002:124)



LSn = prior language system(s); LSp = primary language systems; LSs = secondary language systems; LST = tertiary language systems; ISP = ideal native speaker proficiency; RSP = rudimentary speaker proficiency; t = time; l = language level

Figure 2.6b Learner multilingualism: overall development (Herdina & Jessner 2002, 124)

Based on DMM, Herdina and Jessner (2002:111) suggested a classification of multilingual types. The authors see bilingual system as variants of multilingual systems since multilingualism can be ranged from monolingual acquisition that is a form in which monolinguals learn a second language, balanced bilingualism to the command of three or more languages. Considering theoretical interpretations of the various forms of bilingualism and multilingualism, Herdina and Jessner (2002:118) focused on the balance between the systems of the multilingual speaker.

- *balanced bilingualism* – is a form in which bilingual proficiency is likely to appear less developed compared with monolingual competence. This type had been identified in two forms:
 - *ambilingual balanced bilingualism*- a simple form of stable multilingualism, which is assumed the both language systems are fully developed to an ideal native speaker proficiency
 - *non-ambilingual balanced bilingualism*- is a form in which two language systems are equally developed but below a native speaker proficiency level. This form might include rudimentary proficiency in both languages
- *unbalanced or asymmetrical bilingualism*
 - dominant bilingualism
 - transitional bilingualism- where one language system is gradually replaced by another to reserve a long-term reservation to monolingualism
 - stable dominant bilingualism- where language systems are competing leading to growth of a specialized language system, that is a development of a partial system, frequently referred to as freezing or dominant specify of L2s.
 - *passive bilingualism* – in which the speaker has only passive/receptive command of one linguistic system and does not use the second language system (Ls) for active communicative purposes her/himself, can be taken as an instance of partial competence. It was noticed that the difference between forms of passive bilingualism and the form of

(Herdina and Jessner, 2002:118 - 123)

To sum up, the DMM is based on a number of assumptions which can be shown in the following crude formula suggested by (Jessner 2006:33):

$$LS1, LS2, LS3, LS_n + CLIN + M\text{-factor} = MP$$

The dynamic model of Multilingualism is based on psycholinguistic Language Systems (LS); LSn have been defined as open systems; CLIN stands for cross-linguistic interaction; M (multilingualism)-system that distinguishes all aspects in a multilingual from a monolingual system and was identified as a catalyst in third language acquisition. MP was defined as the dynamic interaction between the various psycholinguistic systems (LS, LSn).

In the following chapter an overview of the recent studies of third language Acquisition will be presented with the description of empirical studies to show the complexity of third language acquisition.

CHAPTER THREE

SKETCH OF THIRD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION STUDIES

3.1 Overview of the recent studies of TLA

Beside theoretical studies, many empirical studies in third language acquisition have been conducted. In recent times, studies of third language acquisition have increased and it focuses the various aspects of contemporary third language acquisition. The most prominent ones of the recent studies are: Jessner (2006) on language awareness; Lasagabaster and Huguet (2007) on language attitudes and use of multiple languages in European context; De Angelis (2007) on third or additional language acquisition; Hammarberg (2009) on the processes in third language acquisition; Aronin and Hufeisen (2009) on exploration of multilingualism; and Cenoz (2009) on multilingual education.

An important predictor of success in third-language acquisition, the connections between two languages already known were found to act as a stepping stone to the third language. Jessner, in her book *Linguistic Awareness in Multilinguals* (2006), provides an in-depth look of third language acquisition focusing on socio- and psycholinguistic conditions of language use.

Considering the sociolinguistic aspect of third language acquisition, the author has drawn attention to the fact of the English language status and its spread around the world. Jessner indicates that “in a growing number of countries worldwide English is learnt and taught as a third language.” (2006:2). Thus, English is seen as a factor in the formation of trilingualism and the spread of English has been explained based on Kashru’s (1992b) three cycles, the inner, the outer and the expanding cycle (see the introductory chapter of this study where Kashru’s cycles are explained).

Beside the spread of English around the world, Jessner (2006) draws attention to the status of English in European countries. The author points out that while English language learning and use has a long tradition in the Northern European countries, in the Southern and Eastern Europe its importance is growing.

Reference to Jessner (2006) reveals that English as L3 might be seen as a variant of foreign language acquisition, but as it is increasingly developing it is seen as a lingua franca. In this regard, Jessner draws on Seidelhor's (2000) study who describes the development of English as with enough stability to be available for lingua franca communication. For the reason of increasing use of English language, it is losing its 'foreignes' and is taking the characteristics of lingua franca.

Jessner (2006) also describes the use of the lexicon of English as a lingua franca (ELF) drawing on some investigations which were carried out in order to find a core lexicon of English in international context. According Meierkord (2005, cited from Jessner 2006:8) English does not have a stable community of language users, but one which is in constant flux, so that the regularity of use of certain lexical items depend on the number of times the speaker had encountered them. The work of James (2000, cited from Jessner 2006:8), with trilingual context in the Alpine Adriatic Region suggests that English as a lingua franca shows characteristics of a register, which a variety based on the use, rather than a dialect.

Considering the psycholinguistic aspect of third language acquisition, Jessner (2006) explains the development of third language acquisition and its main research fields such as cross-linguistic influence, the effects of bilingualism on third language learning. In addition to the research fields of third language acquisition, Jessner highlights the importance of meta-linguistic awareness in acquiring English as a third language.

The author suggests that linguistic awareness plays a decisive role of trilingual proficiency. In a study conducted with Italian/German bilingual students of English from South Tyrol, Jessner discovered that the in L3 English production, Italian/German bilinguals tend to keep both languages activated. The activation of German or Italian was used as supporters for lexical deficiencies during L3 production. Although both languages have been used by German / Italian bilinguals, the study discovered that German, as a dominant language, was found to be more activated than Italian. For this reason, Jessner states "German served as a springboard whereas Italian was preferably used as confirmer or safety measure." (Jessner 2006:101). The author points out that during the lexical search both

languages act as supporters, but one language (in this study German) takes an initiating support for the detection of lexical deficits, while the other (Italian) acts as a confirming agent after the cognate in English language. While reading this study, one can clearly understand the relationship between cross-linguistic interaction, linguistic awareness and the use of compensatory strategies in the learning process.

The next important issue highlighted by Jessner is the integration of linguistic awareness into multilingual education and suggests that linguistic awareness, which is one of the key factors of multilingual proficiency, should be fostered in the classroom. According to the author, the English language teaching can be found in almost every syllabus, therefore it is important for both multilingual education and implications for English language classroom. The author indicates that third language acquisition (TLA) at school can be found all over the world, and multilingual schools where several languages are taught can be found in Europe or double immersion programs in Canada. Jessner makes clear that the most common situation at schools is the study of two foreign languages as school subjects, in particular the introduction of a foreign language at an early age and a second foreign language in secondary school age. Considering this fact, Jessner states “So TLA in school context and trilingual education are not new phenomena but are becoming more widespread.” (2006:120).

The field of cross-linguistic influence referring to Jessner 2006, Ringbom 2007 and other studies as well as effects of bilingualism in third language production will be discussed in the next sections (3.1 and 3.3).

Lasagabaster and Huguet (2007) in their book *Multilingualism in European bilingual context: language use and attitudes*, examined the language use and attitudes toward three languages on languages such as the minority, the majority and the foreign language in different European bilingual areas: the Basques Country, Catalonia, Galicia, and the Valencian Community in Spain, Belgium, Friesland, Ireland, Malta and Wales.

The authors point out that attitudes are learnt and for this reason educators play a paramount role in formation of attitudes toward learning additional languages. The authors then go on to describe how society, family and school play a very

important role in the learners' attitudes toward learning languages. In this regard, the authors state "The teacher's role with regards to the formation of language attitudes can thus be crucial in the students' future language attitudes." (2007:1).

A study in this book is the bilingual context in Spain, where Spanish is the majority language, Catalan, Galician and Basque are minority languages and English is learned as a foreign language. Before illustrating each study in the book, the authors emphasize that it is worth remembering that, beside the three minority language officially recognized in Spain - Basque, Catalan and Galician there are also other minority languages spoken in Spanish context which unfortunately are more often than not ignored. Three types of research were pointed out in the book: (1) the attitude Catalan and Spanish, during the last 25 years, (2) the research emphasizing attitudes toward English and (3) the research analyzing attitudes within university environments.

One of the studies presented by the authors is the study conducted in Catalonia which showed that although learners' attitudes towards Catalan and Spanish were positive, Catalan tended to take priority over Spanish. Considering the analysis of attitudes toward English, positive attitudes were perceived from the learners who had received more tuition in English.

Considering the third type, the authors refer (2007:26) to two studies conducted at university environment. They stated that Catalan was the most important language at the university, and a good knowledge of English was seen as a needed amongst teaching staff for research purposes.

Research third or additional language acquisition carried out by De Angelis (2007) illustrates the multilingual learner by giving an explanation to the differences between Second Language acquisition, Bilingualism, Trilingualism, and Quadrilingualism. The author (2007:3) indicates that there are considerable differences between Second Language acquisition, Bilingualism and Third or Additional Language acquisition and Multilingualism, therefore multilingual speakers should be considered in their own right.

De Angelis (2007:19) also identified several factors affecting third language acquisition, such as proficiency in the second language and target language, the

factor of recency of use, length and exposure to a non-native language environment, the order of acquisition and the formality of context. In addition to these factors, De Angelis (2007:19) has drawn her attention in non-native languages and cross-linguistic influence, the way prior linguistic knowledge influences the production, comprehension, and the development of a target language. In this regard, the author points out that proficiency and vocabulary play an important role in transferring items for non-native languages in third language production.

The author concludes her work by indicating that multilingual speakers count in different language modes, any model of human speech production should be accounted from multilingual perspective.

Research of third language acquisition was also described by Bjorn Hammarberg (2009) by in the his recent book *Process in Third Language Acquisition*, which distinguishes practical, theoretical and empirical types of motives. According to Hammarberg (2009), the *practical motives* are based on the people's need for acquiring more than two languages in Europe. The author points out that practical motives of third langue acquisition can be applied to bilingual areas where minority language and immigrant groups learn a foreign language at school. Another reason for practical motives identified by Hammarberg, is the increase of international contacts and the role of English as *lingua franca* which creates the formation of third language acquisition for the groups of bilingual speakers.

Concerning the *theoretical type of motives*, Hammarberg states "The fundamental theoretical aspect of L3 study, use and acquisition is in the insights that *humans are potentially multilingual by nature* and that *multilingualism is the normal state of linguistic competence*." (2009:2). In this regard, Hammarberg discusses different studies on bilingualism and multilingualism in the world and points out that all humans possess the capacity to learn several languages. According to the author, a third language learner is (a) able to choose according to intention which language to use, (b) the languages of a third language learner can be kept apart, but also get mixed or influence each other, and (c) the competence in various languages of a third language learner is not equal at all levels. Considering these reasons, and

focusing in the ways the individuals' languages interact in different cases, Hammarberg suggests that the process of third language acquisition becomes a significant field of study.

Looking at the *empirical motives* of multilingualism, Hammarberg (2009) suggests that different research studies in multilingual settings can be conducted, such as:

- the language development and attrition of a multilingual speaker,
- the way the languages interact in the speaking process and in interlanguage development
- the cognitive abilities such as meta-linguistic awareness, linguistic creativity, communicative and language strategies

Beside the explanation of multilingualism, the author provides information about the complexity of third language acquisition based on previous findings reported by Stedje (1977) and Ringbom (1987) which depends on a set of interacting factors, such as:

1. *The degree of similarity between the languages concerned*, where the second language (L2) has a stronger influence on the third language acquisition (L3)
2. *The level of competence in L2*, according to which if the knowledge in L2 is greater, it would have a greater influence on L3 acquisition
3. *Natural settings for L2, and automatized skills in L2*, where the influence of L2 on L3 is furthered if L2 has been acquired in a natural environment, rather than a foreign language learning environment, while automatized use is identified as a further factor.
4. *Oral versus written production* in which limited control in speech situations can cause cross-linguistic influence more often in speech than in writing.
5. *Type of language phenomenon*. Ringbom (1987:114) (quoted from Hammarberg 2009:19) 'Generally, the cross-linguistic influence between non-native languages in a European context has been shown to occur primarily in lexis'. Hammarberg (2009), discusses the

problem of 'word form' tend to show influence from L2, while the grammatical influence from L2 on L3 has been found to be more limited. The author also points out that the influence from L1 is fairly common in L3 production.

A longitudinal case study which describes the role of L1 and L2 in L3 production and acquisition was presented by Williams and Hammarberg (1998) and Hammarberg (2001). This study was conducted with polyglot learner of Swedish, who was bilingual with English as L1, German, French and Italian as L2s, and learned Swedish as L3. The results of the case study indicate that the knowledge of prior language can exert influence on the learner's L3, thus confirming the findings from other L3 research studies.

The recently published book *Toward multilingual education* by Jasone Cenoz (2009) emphasizes the bilingual and multilingual education. The author begins by discussing the bilingual and multilingual educational system in the Basque Country. A description of the Basque language and its use is made along with Spanish as their second language and English as their third language learned. Cenoz, also provides information about the growing interest of English language learning which, in the Basque Country was introduced as a third language starting from kindergarten, then the use of English to teach content and as an additional language of instruction, and finally, the development of an integrated syllabus for Basque, Spanish and English. The author points out that the Basque schools provide different types of bilingual and multilingual education which are very strong and ambitious. In the book, different bilingual models of education in the Basque Country were outlined as defined by the Law of Normalization of Basque (2009:50):

- Model A was intended for native speakers of Spanish who choose to be instructed in Spanish and Basque would be instructed for some lessons.
- Model B was intended for native speakers of Spanish who want to be bilingual in Basque and Spanish, so that both languages are used as languages of instruction

- Model D (according to Cenoz, because there is no letter ‘C’ in Basque, ‘D’ is used) was created for native speakers of Basque and the Basque language is the language of instruction, while Spanish is taught as a subject.

According to the author beside model A, which is not considered as a bilingual model because the Spanish students learn Basque as a subject, the other models B and D are related to bilingual education (2009:51). Cenoz also states that English plays an important role in formation of trilingual or multilingual education which has created a great diversity in the curriculum of the Basque schools.

Cenoz (2009) discusses in the different research study results such as early introduction of academic performance, the results of research in English language proficiency and the effects of bilingualism on third language acquisition. Some comparative studies with other minority languages, which are presented as cross-border languages in several European countries, have been also discussed by Cenoz. According to the author, the bilingual / trilingual models of the Basque Country would be of great use for the cross-border languages which are considered as bilingual areas and in addition to English language learning they are also considered as trilingual or multilingual areas.

3.2 Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition

In third language acquisition studies, the main concern has been with the influence of previously acquired languages on the acquisition of a third language. The different types of influence such as “transfer”, “interference”, “avoidance” and “borrowing”, led Sharwood Smith and Kellerman (1986) to propose the term *crosslinguistic influence* which would bring them all under one umbrella.

De Angelis and Selinker (2001:42) explain that cross-linguistic influence is used as a super-ordinate term which includes instances of native language, interlanguage transfer or the influence of a non-native language to another non-native language, avoidance due to the influence of another system, and ‘reverse transfer’ from an interlanguage back into a native language.

In this study, the term “transfer” and ‘cross-linguistic influence’ will be used interchangeably as they are commonly employed in many studies of third language acquisition (Jessner 2001; Cenoz 2001; De Angelis & Selinker 2001; Rinbom 2001, 2007).

Starting with latest publication by Jarvis and Pavlenko’s (2008) *Crosslinguistic influence in language cognition* the development of cross-linguistic influence is described in four general phases of transfer research available in the literature (2008:7):

Phase 1 contains three issues: (a) the identification of transfer, especially in relation to which learner errors are due to L1 influence; (b) defining the scope of transfer, especially in relation to the areas of language use are affected; and (c) the quantification of transfer effects, especially in relation to the proportion of errors it accounts for in comparison with other variables.

The authors point out that although the three issues of Phase 1 were almost finished there were still empirical studies being pursued.

Phase 2 contains the three issues of Phase 1 and to these the following issues have been added: (a) verification of transfer effects; (b) sources and causes of transfer; (c) constraints of transfer; the selectivity of transfer at the level of individual learners; and (e) the directionality of transfer effects.

Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) make clear that the additional issues in Phase 2 have been found very important and are still of a great interest.

Phase 3 is considered as a very new phase. It addresses the issue of theoretical perspectives of Cross-linguistic influence and is interested in: (a) modeling, (b) explaining, and (c) empirical investigations of the mental constructs and processes through which cross-linguistic influence operates.

By discussing the phase 3, the authors point out that the elements of Phase 3 have been found in early work such as Lado (1957), Weinreich (1953), and

Vildomec (1963) and later in work related to, for example, the Universal grammar paradigm (e.g. White, 1989) and Competition Model (e.g. Harrington, 1987).

Phase 4 can be found in the studies that investigate the neuropsychology of the ways languages are stored and how they operate in the brain of bilingual and multilingual speakers.

Jarvis and Pavlenko indicated that Phase 4 is still in its infancy and state that neurolinguistic research has already brought to light a number of important findings concerning the interaction between languages within the brain. The authors also provide a brief explanation on neuro-linguistic study and state that neurolinguistic research relies on positron emission tomography (PET), functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), electroencephalographic and magnetoencephalographic recording (EEG), magnetic source imaging and event-related brain potentials (ERPs), and the analysis of aphasic symptoms and recovery. Considering the tools of neurolinguistic research, Jarvis and Pavlenko suggest that Phase 4 “will not be solidly underway for several more decades’ (2008:8).

The overall summary of the four phases of transfer given by the authors stated that there is a quite bit of overlap among each phase. They pointed out that the overlap lays in the fact that a phase might have never ended completely because the findings and concerns from earlier phases remain relevant after the subsequent phase have begun. The authors also state that in present, cross-linguistic influence research appears to be in a transition from Phase 2 to Phase 3, i.e. from concerns about measurement of transfer and the factors that interact with it to a wider theoretical explanation of how cross-linguistic influence operates.

The area of cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition has been intensively studied by second language acquisition researchers which resulted in the appearance of a large number of publications. During the past two decades, the study of cross-linguistic influence has attracted the attention of third language acquisition researchers which helped raise the awareness about the distinctiveness between second and third language acquisition. According to Kellerman (2001:171) “CLI is one phenomenon that perhaps most clearly divides child first from second language acquisition...” and Cenoz, Hufeisen and Jessner (2001:2) agreed and

suggested: “this statement can be applied to the distinction between second and third language acquisition.” In addition, Cenoz et al provide a comprehensive argument concerning the distinction between second and third language acquisition and perceptively state (2001:2):

“Second language learners have two systems that can potentially influence each other ($L1 \leftrightarrow L2$), and second language acquisition has mainly focused on transfer phenomena from the L1 to the L2 without paying attention to the other relationship...Two other bi-directional relationships can take place in third language acquisition: the L3 can influence the L1 and be influenced by the L1 ($L1 \leftrightarrow L3$) and cross-linguistic influence can also take place between L2 and the L3 ($L2 \leftrightarrow L3$).”

One of the first studies of cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition was Ringbom's (1987) study with Finnish monolingual students and Finnish bilingual students with Swedish as a second language, learning English as a foreign language. This study indicated that the Finnish students speaking the Finnish language (a non-Germanic language) had difficulties in learning English because of the differences between the Finnish and the English language. While the bilingual Finnish students with Swedish as their second language (L2) had no difficulties in learning English because Swedish and English are Germanic languages and the students appeared to take advantage through the cross-linguistic similarities between these two languages.

An earlier contribution to the study of cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition was conducted by Hufeisen (1991). She analyzed the foreign languages learned after the first language and used the term “tertiary languages” as one's second, third or fourth foreign language, for example German (L3) as a subsequent foreign language after English (L2) as a first foreign language. Hufeisen (1991) suggested that a non- Indo-European language learner (Arabic, Indian, Japanese, Thai and Hungarian) who had learned English (L2) as a first foreign language benefits in learning German (L3) as a second foreign language. The author emphasizes English has a positive influence in German language acquisition due to the cross-linguistic similarities.

Several studies on cross-linguistic influence (Clyne 1997; William and Hammarberg, 1998) have reported that a second language (L2) of third language

learners tend to be a source language in L3 production. Clyne (1997) reported that the L2 languages that are closely related to L3 influence the acquisition of a third language more than a less closely related L1. William and Hammarberg (1998) pointed out that the proficiency factor plays a very important role in influencing the acquisition of a third language. Dewaele (1998) reported the results of the analyses related to the recency factor, i.e. the language that was learned prior to the last one, and suggested that the recently learned language tend to be a source language in acquisition of the additional language.

Cenoz, Hufeisen, Jessner (2001) provided several collection of empirical studies on cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition which discuss the interaction of the languages known by the learner. Most of the studies focus on the role of the first and second language in the third language production on the lexical level, the different factors affecting the preference for the first or second language use and the organization of the mental lexicon.

One of the most cited contributions to the field of cross-linguistic influence is Hakan Ringbom's (2007) *Cross-linguistic similarity in foreign language*. It reveals the different types of cross-linguistic similarities between languages and than discusses the role of the similarities in comprehension. Ringbom suggests three different types of cross-linguistic similarities such as:

- a. *similarity relations* means that the item in the target language is perceived as formally or functionally similar to a form or pattern in L1 or L2, for example cognates.
- b. *contrast relations* means that the target language is different from the learner's L1 and the learners have difficulties in target language production
- c. *zero relations* means that the learner at the early stages of learning cannot find any perceptible relation to L1 or any other languages the learner knows.

According to Ringbom, in the process of language learning the search for similarities is a basic process by establishing a relation between a new proportion or task and what is already known in the mind of the learner. The author emphasizes

that the perception of similarities is something positive, while the differences between languages as something negative and comments: "... differences, something negative, come into picture only if similarities cannot be established." (2007:5).

Ringbom's study area for analyzing the comprehension of closely related languages is the Scandinavian countries (Sweden, Norway and Denmark). Vocabulary learning is seen as central where comprehension is concerned. According to Ringbom (2007:19), comprehension relies on three types of information: *input* (linguistic and other communicative), *knowledge* (linguistic knowledge and world knowledge) and *context* (linguistic context and situational context). The author also points out that when a language learner meets an unfamiliar word in a text, she/he can rely on cross-linguistic, intra-lingual and contextual cues to work out its meaning. In addition, to the above mentioned cues, Ringbom emphasizes that pragmatic knowledge of the word is also important to understand the meaning of an unfamiliar word.

The distinction between comprehension and learning is an aspect which differentiates the significance of contextual cues. In one hand, Ringbom takes the example of on-line comprehension and states "In on-line comprehension contextual and extra-linguistic cues (knowledge of the world) are essential." (2007:20). According to this statement, learners do not need to understand every single word in a text they read, but can rely on their linguistic and situational context or extra linguistic knowledge.

On the other hand, for receptive learning, the contextual cues do not have the same significance. In order to learn a word, the learner will be mainly helped by the formal similarities between the languages, i.e. linguistic cues or cross-linguistic similarities. Thus, the contextual cues have an important role in on-line comprehension, while in receptive learning, learning a word is linked with mental lexicon of the learner i.e. with the cross-linguistic similarities or transfer between the previously known languages and the target language.

The process of cross-linguistic influence involves different factors affecting third language acquisition. As the literature on cross-linguistic influence shows,

there are many interacting factors which promote language transfer in third language acquisition. According to Murphy (2003:7), these factors can be generally divided into learner-specific variables and language specific variables which operate during contact between two and more languages. Table 3.1, shows the different factors divided into the two specific variables:

Learner-Bases variable	Language-Based variable
Proficiency	Language typology
Amount of target language exposure and use	Frequency
Language mode	Word class
Linguistic awareness	Morphological transfer
Age	
Educational background	
Context	

Table 3.1 Factors of language transfer promotion

Beside the factors presented by Murphy (2003), who focuses on the L2 influence in third language acquisition, some earlier studies (Jessner 1999; Hammarberg 2001; Cenoz 2001, De Angelis and Selinker 2001) argue for additional factors that affect the role of the first and second language in third language oral and written production. These factors include: sociolinguistic background (sociolinguistic status, language use in education and motivation and attitude toward languages learned), meta-linguistic awareness, recency of L2/L3 use and psycholinguistic status.

Considering the different factors found in the literature of third language acquisition, the following factors have been assumed to be operative to L3-English production by bilingual Albanian students with L2-Macedonian:

Learner-Bases variable	Language-Based variable
Sociolinguistic variables: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sociolinguistic status • Language use in education 	Typological similarity
Psycholinguistic variables: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Degree of proficiency • Metalinguistic awareness • Recency of L2/L3 use • Psycholinguistic status • Motivation and attitude 	

In this study the effects of the above outlined factors will be presented and my expectation is that the typological factor, the L2 proficiency, recency and L2 status, motivation, and attitude toward English language learning would prove to be the most influential factors in L3-English acquisition and production.

3.2.1 Learner-Based variables

3.2.1.1 Sociolinguistic variables

Sociolinguistic variables of third language learners tend to refer to the situations where three languages are in contact with each other. For the purposes of this study, I distinguish the social status of the languages in a multilingual society and psychological status of the languages in a speaker's repertoire. Therefore, the term sociolinguistic status and psycholinguistic status is used to refer to the two different language statuses in this study.

3.2.1.1.1 Sociolinguistic status

Hoffman and Ytsma (2004:1) state that in a multilingual/trilingual society, different linguistic varieties can come together and they may comprise of:

- (1) the standard or non-standard dialects of the same language, or of different languages,
- (2) the languages involved may range from local and regional ones to those used for wider or international communication.

In addition, Hoffman and Ytsma (2004:1) point out that a multilingual / trilingual society may result from political and socio-cultural development which can be traced back from a historical and contemporary perspective. This is found compatible for a multilingual country such as Macedonia which is a case of this study (for more details see chapter one of this study).

Safont (2005:20) states that in a multilingual society, languages have different privileges, i.e. they are not used in the same way. This fact has been identified as a sociolinguistic factor and is regarded as a specific factor affecting third language acquisition. In order to describe the different ways of language use in the society, Safont (2005) considers Nunan and Lams' (1998, as cited from Safont 2005:20) distinguish between dominant and non-dominant languages in multilingual

societies. According to the authors, dominant languages are those that have a high or a relatively high social status and political power, while non-dormant languages lack political power and their social status is low.

On the basis of this definition, bilingual Albanian's first language is considered as a non-dominant language, while their second language is considered as dominant as it has a high social status and political power, (for more details see section 1.2 in chapter one of this study).

3.2.1.1.2 Language use in education

In addition to the sociolinguistic status in a multilingual community, Cenoz (2009) introduces the language *use in education*. The author emphasizes the growing interest of English language learning which, in the Basque Country was introduced as a third language starting from kindergarten, then the use of English to teach content and as an additional language of instruction, and finally, the development of an integrated syllabus for Basque, Spanish and English. The factor of language use in education may be accounted for the subjects of this study, the bilingual Albanian learners of English (see section 1.2 in chapter one and 5.2 in chapter five of this study).

3.2.1.2 Psycholinguistic variables

Psycholinguistic variables has been found very influential in the research of third language acquisition because of the language change in the speaker's language system which according to Herdina and Jessner (2002) has to be linked with individual factors of psychosocial nature in language learners. A number of individual factors have been identified in the third language learning process, but the assumed conditioning factors of this study which will be discussed below, are that of the degree of proficiency, metalinguistic awareness, recency of language use, (psycholinguistic) status, and motivation and attitude.

3.2.1.2.1 Degree of proficiency

While in second and foreign language acquisition studies monolingual ('native') competence is commonly used as norm of reference, researchers in the field of multilingualism and L3 acquisition studies prefer to use the term 'language proficiency'.

Herdina and Jessner (2002) argue different aspects and terminologies of language proficiency, for example Chomsky's (1965:3) earlier distinction between competence and performance was found inadequate. In later distinction between knowing how and knowing a language as suggested by Ryle (1973 [1948] cited from Herdina and Jessner 2002), linguists have begun to differentiate between declarative and procedural language knowledge. Considering the term 'knowing a language', Herdina and Jessner (2002) assumed that includes the knowledge of a language and the knowledge of how to use the language, and according to the authors 'the knowledge of how to use a language' is of particular significance in multilingual proficiency and knowledge and suggested (2002:56):

"In an attempt to a preliminary terminological clarification we would like to suggest that competence be restricted to the field encompassed by the knowledge of a language, whilst the term proficiency – primary derived from SLA context – should be reserved for the consistent outcome of the speaker's knowledge of how to use a language and knowledge of the language."

The proficiency factor in third language acquisition considers the knowledge and the use of three languages known by the learner, and Cenoz (2001:9) correctly argues that this fact adds the complexity to the study of third language acquisition.

Considering the proficiency factor, Cenoz and Genesee (1998:24) have drawn attention to the Cummin's (1976) threshold hypothesis which revealed that the quality of language interaction depends on the different levels of language proficiency. Cenoz and Genesee suggested that this hypothesis can be applied to multilingual and to third language acquisition research.

Several studies have investigated the role of proficiency affecting the preference for the first or second language as a source of cross-linguistic influence in

L3 production. Research by Hammarberg (1998, 2001), suggests that proficiency factor conditions the L2 influence, i.e. if the learner has a high competence in the L2, then L2 influence is favored on L3 production. In Sara Williams's case, the level of proficiency in English (L1) and German (her principal L2) was much higher than French and Italian ('additional L2s'), and the results of the study indicated that the Swedish (L3) production was influenced more by the German language. The study also indicates that German language acted as a supporter language in instances of more German-like formulations of Sara Williams's utterances, the frequent occurrence of German was found during sentence planning and were called non intentional language switches (which were also identified as 'Without Identified Pragmatic Purpose' or 'WIPP') and lastly, Sara Williams adopted German mode in phonetic settings.

Ringbom (2001:60) studied L3 learners at the early stages and reported that the influence of the second language is stronger in L3 production, if L2 and L3 are closely related. According to the author, the L2 influence is more evident in the lexical area where the languages have a number of common cognates. In this view, Ringbom points out that transfer from L2 in L3 production will happen even if the learners have a limited proficiency in L2.

3.2.1.2.2 Metalinguistic awareness

In the studies of third language acquisition and in the investigation of the differences between L2 and L3, metalinguistic awareness has been found as a very important factor.

The term *metalinguistic awareness* was first used by Cazden (1974, as cited from Mora, 2001) to describe and explain the transfer of linguistic knowledge and skills across languages. According to Gass (1983), metalinguistic awareness of a language learner is "to think and talk about language" (1983:277). In addition, Bialystok (1991:147) states that metalinguistic awareness may be defined as an awareness of underlying linguistic nature of language use. Reference to Jessner (2006) defines metalinguistic awareness as "the way multilinguals use and learn their languages" (2006:117) and emphasizes that it is considered as an influential

cognitive component in multilingual studies. De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor (2007 as cited from Jessner 2008:277) pointed out that metalinguistic awareness is a very important factor as it can help to shed light on the differences between second and third language acquisition.

The work of Jessner (2008a: 277), indicates that metalinguistic awareness may develop in a third language learner with regard to:

- (a) divergent and creative thinking (e.g. wider variety of associations, original ideas)
- (b) interactional and/or pragmatic competence (cultural theorems of greeting, thanking, etc.)
- (c) communicative sensitivity and flexibility (language mode)
- (d) translation skills that are considered a natural trait in the majority of multilinguals
(which are seen as a natural characteristic of multilinguals and should be included in a comprehensive listening)

Research studies involving metalinguistic tasks have concentrated on the analytic abilities of language learners to focus on language and make judgments on linguistic form. In an early study of third language acquisition, Thomas (1988) tested the metalinguistic abilities of monolinguals acquiring a second language and bilinguals acquiring a third language. The results of the study indicate the advantages of bilinguals over monolinguals in language learning. On the basis of these results, Thomas pointed out, “If metalinguistic awareness is not being heightened as a second language is naturally acquired, educators may have to instruct bilinguals in both their languages in order to maximize the potential advantage of knowing two languages when learning a third” (1988:240).

Lasagabaster (1997) has also studied how bilingualism and its effect on metalinguistic awareness relate to third language acquisition. Results from this research point to an advantage for bilingual subjects (Castilian and Euskera) over monolingual ones (Castilian) in acquiring English as a third language.

In an introspective study of cross-lexical consultation Jessner, (2006) investigated the metalinguistic awareness of bilingual learners of English who were

defined as ambilingual balanced bilinguals in Italian and German (L1-2). The author highlighted the specific characteristics of the trilinguals emphasizing the role of metalinguistic awareness, for instance, that the majority of the students activated or switched from their previously learned languages in order to fill in a lexical gap during production in L3-English. In an introspective study of cross-lexical consultation Jessner, (2006) investigated the metalinguistic awareness of bilingual learners of English who were defined as ambilingual balanced bilinguals in Italian and German (L1-2). The author (2006:111) highlighted the specific characteristics of the trilinguals emphasizing the role of metalinguistic awareness, for instance, that the majority of the students activated their previously learned languages in order to fill in a lexical gap during production in L3-English, in several domains:

- (a) German and Italian were used as supporter languages in the combined and to express metalinguistic questions and comments
- (b) German acted as a filler and was a dominant language in most cases
- (c) Italian was used for conjunctions or expressing emotionality

Based on the evidence of this study, Jessner (2006) suggest that increased metalinguistic awareness in bilinguals facilitates the acquisition of a third language.

Considering the outcome of the studies in third language acquisition involving metalinguistic awareness tasks, this study will be also concentrated on metalinguistic awareness i.e. the way bilingual Albanian learners of English use and learn their languages.

3.2.1.2.3 Recency of language use

Another factor that affects the use of second language as a source language of cross-linguistic influence is the ‘recency’. Dewaele (1998) and Hammarberg (2001) suggest that recency factor relates to the extent in which the language has been used lately. In this view, Hammarberg states that “an L2 is activated more easily if the speaker has used it recently and thus maintained easy access to it.” (2001:23) In the empirical study with Sara Williams, German was the recently used language when she started to learn Swedish, therefore, she preferred to use the

German language (L2) rather than her first or the other ‘additional L2s’ (French and Italian).

The recency factor was explained by Dewaele (1998) with the concept of ‘lexical invention’ (1998:471) which was used to define the lexemes which have been morpho-phonologically adapted to the target language, but which have never been used by native speakers. Dewaele (1998) investigated two groups of Dutch, French and English trilinguals. All the participants were Dutch L1 speakers, from which most of them had learned French as L2 and English as L3, while the others had learned English as L2 and French as L3. Considering the recency factor through the concept of lexical inventions, the analysis revealed that French L3 learners produced more lexical inventions based on their L2-English.

The results of the studies reported by Dewaele (1998) and Hammarberg (2001), suggest that the language that has been used lately by a third language learner can be related to recency of use and is most likely to be a candidate for transfer.

3.2.1.2.4 Psycholinguistic status

Although research studies in third language acquisition consider the language status to have a great impact on cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition, it has not yet received a satisfactory explanation.

Todeva and Cenoz (2009:8) refer to language status as “foreign language effect/L2”, while Hammarberg (2010:123), expresses a similar view by explaining that language status refers to any language that a speaker knows other than the mother tongue and it is related to the fact that a language may be the second or the third language learned in a speaker’s repertoire.

Considering the first definition, “foreign language effect/L2”, it may be assumed that in sociolinguistic point of view the second language known by many subjects of this study cannot be treated as “foreign language effect”, while in psycholinguistic view this might be compatible to some of the subjects, because of the lower language contact with their L2 which is assumed to result in foreign language mode, thus as foreign language effect.

Referring to the second definition, the languages known by the subjects of this study other than their mother tongue (L1), will be treated as second language (L2) and third language (L3) learned.

On the basis of these definitions, my expectation is that psycholinguistic status in third language learners will prove to be an influential variable in third language production.

3.2.1.2.5 Motivation and attitude

According to Gardner & Lambert (1972) motivation has a major influence on learning a second or foreign language. It is considered as goal directed and is defined as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning a language” (Gardner 1985:10).

From the research done by Gardner and Lambert (1972), it transpires that motivation does have an influence on relative ease of acquisition, but that it manifests itself in different ways in different communities. They distinguished between two major kinds of motivation that could be related to language learning: integrative and instrumental, and later another kind of motivation was introduced such as learning a language for “pragmatic reasons” (Gardner 1985:11)

Integrative motivation reflects the learner’s willingness or desire to be like a representative member of the target language community (Gardner & Lambert 1972). It also reflects the learner’s high level of effort to learn the language of a valued L2 community in order to communicate with the group. Moreover, integrative motivation reflects an interest in L2, a desire to learn the target language and a positive attitude toward the learning situation, and the target language community.

Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, is characterized by a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowing an L2 (Gardner & Lambert 1972). Learning the language for “pragmatic reasons”, such as education or employment opportunities is compatible to bilingual Albanian learners of English in Macedonia. In this context, bilingual Albanians learn English in order to get a higher university degree and to obtain employment opportunities.

3.2.2 Language-Based variables

3.2.2.1 Typological similarity

One of the main factors that cause cross-linguistic influence in third language production is the typological similarity between the previously learned languages (L1 and L2) and the target language (L3). Language similarities and also the distances appear to be proportional in that the more distant the languages known by learner are, less cross-linguistic influences can be found in the target language production. The language distance was analyzed by Kellerman (1983) in second language acquisition and suggested the term *psychotypology* as “The learner’s perception of language distance” (1983:114).

Research studies (Ringbom, 1987; Williams and Hammarberg 1998; Cenoz 2001) have shown that if the first language is non-Indo-European, and second and third languages are Indo-European, the learners will transfer between the languages that are Indo-European. For example, Ringbom’s (1987) study with bilingual students whose L1 was Finnish and L2- Swedish and were learning English as L3 transferred more items from L2-Swedish. Ringbom concludes that the degree of similarity between second and third language will have a significant impact on the learner’s task.

In a corpus study project called ‘Process in third language acquisition’ conducted by Williams & Hammarberg (1998), the author herself, Sara Williams whose L1 was English, L2-German, French and Italian as ‘additional L2s’ and Swedish became her L3, acted as a subject of investigation. The findings of this longitudinal study demonstrated that cross-linguistic influence in third language production appeared more when the languages known by Sara Williams were typologically related. So, the German language outranked French and Italian and became a standard alternative language in the role of an external supplier.

Cenoz (2001) investigated the effects of typology in the third language learning process in the Basque Country (Spain). The participants of this study were secondary school students who had Basque as their language of instruction and studied Spanish (L2) and English (L3) as school subjects. In this study, Cenoz used the well known ‘Frog story’, a wordless picture story, in order to elicit data from the

students. The results of this study indicated that the students with Basque (L1) preferred to use Spanish (L2), as typologically closer to English, for the acquisition of English as a third language.

The typological similarity factor has been also investigated by De Angelis and Selinker (2001) with two adult multilinguals: a French-Canadian woman with three interlanguages (non-native languages) English, Spanish and Italian, and a British man with two interlanguages, Spanish and Italian. Although the study revealed a number of instances of transfer due to the typological similarities between the languages involved in this study, DeAngelis and Selinker call for more thorough investigation, as the instances of native language transfer may be a compensatory strategy, as the L2 system has been found incomplete.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE MULTILINGUAL LEXICON

4.1 Aspects of the multilingual lexicon

Apart from the process and factors involved in the research of multilingualism, it accounts also a specific area of multicompetence, the multilingual lexicon. Research studies have focused on various aspects of multilingual lexicon which deal interconnections between the different lexicons in the multilingual's mind, such as:

1. Multilingual processing (Dijkstra, 2003; Schönplflug, 2003)
2. Transfer in multilinguals (Jessner, 2003; Wei, 2003; Cenoz 2003)
3. Specific aspects of multilingual learning (Müller-Lancé, 2003)

4.1.1 Multilingual processing

Multilingual processing has been studied by Dijkstra (2003) who focused the word selection problem during visual word recognition. Dijkstra's study was based on the monolingual Interactive Activation Model for visual word recognition (McClelland and Rumelhart 1981, in Dijkstra 2003) and extended it to his view of bilingualism and multilingualism:

- i) When extended to the bilingual domain, the Interactive Activation Model was linked with a mix of words from the two languages. In the view of language selective access, a selection mechanism, called "input switch" shows to guide the visual words to the lexical L1 system
- ii) When extended to trilingual domain, the Interactive Activation model included greater number of words in the lexicon because of the third language added. In this domain, the word selection appears to be problematic because the learners would switch to the language relevant to particular situation.

On the basis of these evidences, Dijkstra concludes that there is no need for specific multilingual model and suggests the extending an existing monolingual or bilingual model.

Schönpflug (2003) study was aimed to clarify the organization of the lexicon of trilinguals in a word-completion task. She tested the word completion in trilingual Polish speakers of German (L2) and English (L3). The results of the study indicate that the higher competence in their L3 is, the later uniqueness points for English and German words occur. Considering the evidences of this study, Schönpflug suggests:

- i) more languages a speaker knows, the more alternatives there are and the longer the decision process will take
- ii) the higher competence level in one of the languages, the more conceptually driven the word fragment will be and conversely, the lower the competence in one of the languages, the more perceptually driven.

4.1.2 Transfer in multilinguals

The transfer aspect of multilingual lexicon has been investigated by Jessner (2003), who emphasizes the characteristics which can be found in multilinguals which are linked to variability in multilingual proficiency due to changes in language use. Jessner' study is based on dynamic model of multilingualism (Herdina and Jessner 2002), and argues that multilingualism cannot be explained using extended monolingual acquisition models because the complexity of the language systems in a multilingual speaker cannot be found in monolingual or bilingual speakers.

Considering the transfer phenomena and interference, borrowing and code-switching, thus bringing together typical areas of investigation in second language acquisition research and bilingualism research, she suggests using the umbrella term cross-linguistic interaction to account for various phenomena in multilingual research. In the Tyrol study with German – Italian bilingual learners of English, Jessner explains the way students used their previously learned languages, with the avoidance and simplification strategy, particularly when cognates were involved in the task.

Wei (2003) has expressed a similar view when studying the nature of lemmas in the multilingual mental lexicon and transfer in third language learning. While other studies were concentrated on learner's errors, Wei focused on the causes of the errors by explaining the L2-L3 transfer phenomenon in language learning and production processes by two adult native speakers of Chinese. On the basis of this study, Wei concluded that there is a single mental lexicon for multilinguals with lemmas assigned to each language.

Cenoz (2003) has drawn attention to the role of language typology in the organization of multilingual lexicon and the selection of languages in cross linguistic influence in third language production. Considering the different dimensions of cross-linguistic influence, Cenoz (2003:107) suggested a continuum which presented two extreme positions: the *interactional strategies* and *transfer lapses*. The interactional strategies have been explained as intentional switches into languages into languages other than the target language, while transfer lapses have been explained as non-intentional and automatic.

In the study conducted with bilingual Spanish and Basque learners of English Cenoz found out that the learners used both the L1 and L2 as source languages of transfer or as supplier languages, which had played different roles. In cases of *interactional strategies*, the Basque-L2 has been identified as a default supplier, while Spanish-L2 was a supplier language in cases of *transfer lapses*. These results were explained with the typology or linguistic distance between Spanish, Basque and English.

4.1.3 Specific aspects of multilingual learning

The specific features of multilingual language processing were studied by Müller-Lancé (2003), and developed a new connective model incorporating the mental lexicon, language comprehension, and language production. Considering the organization of mental lexicon, three types of multilingual individuals have been identified: monolinguid, bilinguoid, and multilinguoid. The multilinguoid types has been identified to have a strong cross-linguistic connections between mental

representations of an individual's languages and who at the same time seems to be the most vivacious and daring language learner of the three types. The author points out that this situation cannot be found in bilinguals because the mental connection is limited to two languages, while in monolinguals interact with only one language. He concludes that existing monolingual models or their derivations which have been extended to bilingual or multilingual acquisitions do not adequately account for particularities of multilingual processing. He especially emphasizes factors such as: inferencing strategies, individual variation, and cognitive control.

4.2. Cross-linguistic influences in the third language lexicon

The investigation into cross-linguistic influences in third language has attracted the attention of many researchers, who focused in the acquisition and processing of L3 words, their organization and relation to other words in the mental lexicon. Taking into account the nature of cross-linguistic influences in third language acquisition, in the present study the focus will be drawn in the research studies with L3 production data and the factors involved in this specific aspect.

Dewaele's (2001) studied the speech production with university trilingual students with Dutch/French/English, and adapted the existing models for L2 production. The study was conducted in classroom settings in both informal and formal situations and the conversations have been recorded. The results indicated different linguistic variables, such as mixed utterances (code-switches and borrowings); the speech rate (measured in words per minute); hesitation phenomena (editing expressions or filled pauses such as 'er'); length of utterance (measured the fluency and the development of interlanguage); the omission of 'ne' in the negation (because of a lack of authentic oral communication in the target language); the choice of speech style (informal or formal situation); lexical richness (lexical search); morpholexical accuracy rate ("errors" identified in gender and number, verbs, tense and aspect, mode and person); and lexical inventions (lexemes which are morpho-phonologically adapted to the target language, but which are never used by native speakers).

The result of this study (Dewaele 2002:83) indicate that Grosjean's (2001) model of second language acquisition of 'language mode' turned out to be of valuable concept, because the mixed utterances of the subjects determined the language mode continuum. The choice of the language mode was affected by the formality of the situation. As a result of conscious monitoring, a distinction between process and production was identified in the use of L1 or L2 in the formal situation. In this regard, the monitoring has been explained as a conscious process while parallel planning and activation is an unconscious one. The role of the formality of the situation, status, frequency of use have been found as the main factors affecting the preference for the first or second language as a source language of cross-linguistic influence in L3 production. The formality turned out to be the most influential factor in L3 production, where interindividual and intra-individual variations have been found to be considerable for code-switches, fluency, accuracy, complexity and sociolinguistic competence. The status factor affected the lexical inventions, while the frequency of use had effect of interlanguage.

The next contribution to the study of cross-linguistic influence in third language production is Ringbom's (2001) study with Swedish-speaking and Finnish-speaking learners of English. Ringbom (2001) focused on the early stages of learning and referred to the initial mapping of language similarities where transfer happened. In this view, he introduces the distinction between transfer of form and transfer of meaning and examines more closely the L1 and L2 lexical items in L3 production. The data from this study indicate that lexical transfer items depend from the role of the first and second language and were related to psychotypology, proficiency and activation of the second language. The different roles of the first and second language have been identified to affect the types of transfer in third language production. The types of transfer were classified in five categories: language switches, blends and hybrides, deceptive cognates, calques and semantic extensions.

Ringbom's (2001) study offered an ideal starting point for researching bilingual Albanian learners of English and this study will be based on the Ringbom's model because of the influence of language typology, and the role the first and second language play in the two types of transfer. These cross-linguistic phenomena

will be related to the other variables such as proficiency and activation of the second language, and motivation and attitudes toward third language acquisition. In order to study the influence of the first and the second language of the Albanian bilingual students, a closer look was taken at the types of transfer, and four categories were selected to be examined in this study. These categories are based on Ringbom's model and are exemplified with the influence of L1-Albanian and L2-Macedonian in L3 production and can be seen in Table 4.1.

No.	Type of transfer	Transfer of form or meaning	From which Language	Example
A	Code switching	Form	L2	It is a famous mapk (L2 Mac. <i>mark</i> = Eng. <i>brand</i>)
B	Cognates	Form	L1 or L2	<i>Tri</i> years ago. (L2 Mac. <i>tri</i> = Eng. <i>three</i>)
C	Deceptive cognates	Form and Meaning	L1 or L2	She bought a book in the <i>library</i> (L1 Alb. <i>librari</i> = Eng. <i>book-shop</i>)
D	Calques	Meaning	L1 or,L2 occasionally, very advanced L2 proficiency	She has some <i>money of the pocket</i> (L1Alb. <i>të holla xhepi</i> = Eng. <i>pocket money</i>)
E	Semantic extensions	Meaning	L1 or, very advanced L2 proficiency	The English language <i>time</i> is not easy (L1.Alb. <i>kohë</i> = Eng. both <i>time</i> and <i>tense</i>)

Table 4.1: Types of lexical transfer items: Form versus meaning (adapted from Ringbom (2001, Table 4.2, p. 64)

These target lexical transfer items will be elaborated in order to go further with the empirical investigation of the present study.

4.2.1 Definition of code-switching

Code-switching has been identified in the study of second language acquisition and was defined in different ways. The code-switching phenomenon was first located by Weinreich (1953:1) and Haugen (1953:40). The opinion of Weinreich (1953:1) is that code-switching is “the use of two languages alternatively

in different context” , while Hugen (1953:40) states that code-switching indicates the speaker’s changing from one language to another and includes unintegrated units from the word up to the sentence.

Di Pietro (1977) defined it as the use of use of more languages by communicants in the execution of a speech act. He studied the Italian immigrants in the United states, and showed that when they tell a joke in English, they would switch in Italian because it was better expressed in their native language.

Grosjean (1982:145) defined code-switching as “the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation”. He pointed out that code-switching can involve a word, a phrase, or a sentence or even a several sentences. Grosjean (1982) distinguishes code-switching from borrowing a word, in that the element of code-switching is not integrated in the other language, but it is a total shift to the other language.

Crystal (1987) suggests that code-switching occurs when a bilingual alternates between two languages with another bilingual person. He emphasizes that this phenomena appears in situations when a bilingual makes irregular use of a second language, or if a bilingual has considerable skills in a second language.

The studies mentioned above presented the code-switching phenomena in second language acquisition where L1 is taken into account, in the next step, code-switching studies in third language acquisition will be elaborated where instances from L1 and L2 in L3 production have been studied.

Stedje (1977) studied bilingual Finnish/ Swedish learners of L3 English who had learned Spanish four years. The results of the study showed a considerable number of code-switches from both L1 and L3. She also indicated that L2 instances have been used spontaneously and have been corrected by the speaker, such as *kleine Katzen*. Stedje (1977) assumed that Swedish- L2 switches documented in English-L3 production appeared as a result of typological similarities between the two languages.

Ringbom (1987, 2001) studied the code-switching in the study with Finnish/ Swedish bilinguals learning English. In this study, the instances of code-switching or, referred to by Ringbom, ‘languages switches’ were taken from the essays written

by the students in the national matriculation examination in English. In the appendix, Ringbom lists 187 instances of code-switching from L2-Swedish and eight from Finnish-L1. The most frequently used words in code-switching were clause connectors, such as *fast* 'although', *men* 'but' and *och* 'and'. The other frequently used item were words of foreign origin *auktoritet*, *interessant*.

Hammarberg (2001) studied the role of background languages as far as code-switching is concerned and suggested a number of explanations for the reasons of language switches in L3 production.

Hufeisen and Marx (2007) pointed out that L3 researchers have developed their own models on the process of learning a third language and argued that it is not sufficient to use or extend the established L2 models for the complexity of learning an L3, because L2 models cannot explain the differences that are evident between L2 and L3 learning. According to the authors, the L3 models did not account on speech production element, therefore in the L3 speech production study conducted by Williams and Hammarberg (1998), de Bot's (1992) model of bilingual production was used and extended for the purpose of analyzing bilingual's L3 speech production. For the purposes of this analysis, a basis of some explanations of de Bot's model will be given to understanding William and Hammarberg's L3 speech production model.

De Bot (1992) presented a model of bilingual production where the point at which L1/L2 language specific information is introduced in language production. This model can be summarized as follows: It presents an adaptation of Levelt's monolingual language production model (Levelt 1989) which should be able to account for several things: firstly, the fact that two language systems can be used separately or mixed; secondly, the existence of cross-linguistic influence; thirdly, the effects of different levels of proficiency; and lastly, the ability to cope with a potentially unlimited number of languages.

The structural components of de Bot's model include a *conceptualizer*, a *verbalizer*, an *interpreter*, a *formulator*, and an *articulator*. De Bot (1992) explained that the *conceptualizer* encodes communicative intentions as message fragment. According to Hammarberg (2009:32), here de Bot incorporates Green's (1986)

suggestion that different languages in a polyglot can have three levels of activation: selected (which controls the speech output), active (which plays a role in ongoing processing, runs parallel to the selected language, but is not articulated) or dormant (not active during ongoing processing).

In addition, the message fragments of the conceptualizer serve as input to the *verbalizer*, which performs a many-to-many mapping orientation to match message fragments with semantic information in lemmas. This model has been used in research on bilingualism and the same was extended by William and Hammarberg (1998) and Hammarberg (2001) to explain the role of L1 and L2 in L3 production and acquisition. In the later study, Hammarberg (2001) observes the interaction and competition of the previously learned languages in L3 production.

Hammarberg (2001) work is based on the observation of poliglot Sara Williams with L1-English, L2s- German and French who was learning Swedish as L3, in the conversation task in Swedish. The author stated that the conversation task appeared to be difficult for her because Sara was at the early stages of learning, and in order to handle the situation of lexical gap she code-switched from previously learned languages. In this study, 844 instances of code-switching have been identified and classified as *non-adapting language switches* or non adapted phonological and morphological expressions other than L3.

The influence of speaker's first and second language in producing a third one, as well as interaction among those languages and its effects on their use will be analyzed in the present study based on Hammarberg's model of code-switching.

4.2.2 Definition of cognates

The second category of the study, where it is important to know how bilinguals produce words in L3, concerns cognates. In the literature, (Crystal (1991); Carroll (1992); De Groot and Kroll (1997); Smith (1997); Ringbom (2007)) different definitions about cognates can be found.

Crystal (1991:60) defined cognates as linguistic forms that historically derived from the same source as other language forms. Contrary to Crystal, Carroll (1992) stated that similarities in morphological and/or phonological rather than

etymological or semantic properties are the defining characteristics of cognates. According to Carroll (1992), the performance of L2 learners in task involving cognates suggests that the accessing of lexical items is a modular process in that morpho-phonological information contained in the lexical component is retrieved without resort to other lexical information of a semantic/ pragmatic nature.

De Groot and Kroll (1997) studied bilingual picture naming and translation with faster translation times recorded from concrete, animate, and cognate words than for their abstract, inanimate, and non-cognate counterparts. The authors explained that concrete word effect showed faster translation and they are more likely to have “similar or identical subset of conceptual features” (1987:187) across languages than abstract words, which are said to be more contexts dependent.

Smith (1997) studied the cross-language transfer and the role of cognates in second language acquisition and stated “cognates are generally taken to be words that share aspects of both form and meaning across languages” (1997:173). The author pointed out that a cognate can be transparent at the lexical level such as e.g. *tomato* in English and *tomaat* in Dutch, and in the early stages of learning, it may facilitate this process.

The cognate effect in third language acquisition was investigated by Ecke (2001: 90 - 114) who studied bilingual Mexican learners of German as L3 with Spanish (L1) and English (L2). He analyzed the failures of lexical retrieval which included incomplete and incorrect word recall through tip-of-the-tongue (TOT) state in which the subjects were certain that they knew the target word, but had partial access to attributes of it. The results of this study show that the L1influence was found to be weak and almost all the L3 word production were influenced by L2 words. This result was explained with the effect of psychotypology, foreign language effect and last language effect of L2-English in L3 German production.

Ringbom (2007) defined cognates “as historically related, formally similar, partly different or, occasionally, even wholly different.” (2007:73). The author emphasized that words with different meanings where formal similarity is purely accidental, as in English *pain* – French *pain*, cannot be considered as cognates. Although the formal similarity of the word in the given two languages was

obviously clear for a reader, but for a non-speaking French reader the meaning of the word *pain* is not clear. So, I checked its meaning in the on-line dictionaries (English to French and French to English Dictionary. www.freedict.com. accessed on 11.02.2011) and understood that the English word *pain* in French means *mal*, while *mal* in English means 'pain'. On the other hand the French word *pain* in English means 'bread'. By understanding the meaning of the word in the two languages it was clear way the word cannot be considered as cognate. Such instances were explained as deceptive cognates or 'false friends' and will be more specified in the next section.

On the basis of empirical results concerning facilitating effects of word similarities in translation task, de Groot (2010) discussed the findings where L1 or L2 words share a cognate relation with corresponding L3 word, are easier to learn. Starting with the bilingual situation, Paradis (1985) suggested a network model of bilingual's mental lexicon which incorporates non-selective access operation. According to this model, two languages form a network of interconnected lexical items and can be of different types, semantic or phonological. In addition, Paradis suggests that bilinguals' lexical selection depend on individual factors such as typological similarity, proficiency and method of acquisition which form a cross-linguistic link between two languages.

Proceeding with the idea that bilingual lexical access is non-selective, Dijkstra and Van Heuven, (1998) suggested a model of bilingual word recognition, namely the Bilingual Interactive Activation model (BIA) as an extension to McClelland and Rumelhart Interactive Activation model (IA) (1981 as cited from Dijkstra and Van Heuven, 1998). This model posits that the bilingual's lexicon is integrated across languages, claiming that lexical information in both languages is activated whenever the input shares visual features such as phonological and semantic- with lexical alternatives in each of the languages involved. The architecture of the BIA model is shown in figure 6.3.

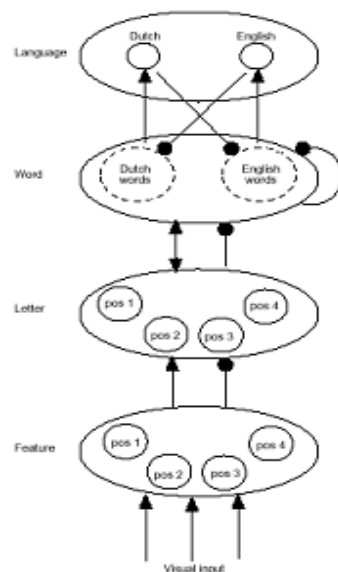


Figure 4.1 The architecture of the BIA model (adapted from Dijkstra and Van Heuven (1998))

The architecture of the model represents letter features, letter and words, where processing is assumed to be bottom upon the presentation of the input and non-selectivity. The authors assume that the non-selectivity process extends to orthographically similar letters in any of the languages that the bilingual reads which results in activation of all languages. In addition, BIA model is suggested to include an additional layer of the languages nodes to allow a top-down inhibition of non-target language.

This model, as suggested by Dijkstra (2003:14) can be extended to the bilingual domain in accordance with the hypothesis of language selective or language nonselective access. The language selective access hypothesis suggests that there are separate lexical networks for different languages and words from each language can be separately accessed. Dijkstra calls this selection mechanism an “input switch”, which initially concentrates at the orthographic or phonological level of representation. The author suggests that if the lexical representation corresponding to input is not found in the lexicon of the target language, the contact is established with other lexical system. With this view, Dijkstra (2003) suggested a solution to word selection problem in multilinguals and extended the Bilingual

Interactive Activation model (BIA) to Multilingual Interactive Activation model (MIA).

Kroll and De Groot (2005: 9) suggest that the model is a precise mechanism when a bilingual recognizes visually a word such as translation pairs that share form and meaning namely the cognates. In addition, the distinction between selective and nonselective access has been explained. The selective view is explained in monolingual mode, such as the presence of other language form would be irrelevant, while the non-selective view has been explained by the fact that both language words will be active and ready to compete.

On the basis of different empirical results de Groot (2010:183) points out that many bilingual studies have provided evidence that show parallel phonological activation not only in languages with the same alphabet, but activation of the languages that use different alphabet. The author explains such situation starting with the evidence same-alphabet bilingualism which was inspired by monolingual studies that have shown the moment a printed word hits the visual word recognition. De Groot (2010:183) also emphasizes that the phonological form of the word is recognized automatically by applying the language's spelling-to-sound or grapheme to grapheme conversion rules. In addition, the author goes on to explain that when the learner reads non-alphabetic scripts, the written words manifest automatic activation of a sound code despite the fact that these scripts are not based on grapheme-phoneme associations. Given this evidence, de Groot states that the printed symbols also activate phonological codes thus suggest that phonological activation plays a central role in written language processing in general (2010:184).

4.2.3 Definition of deceptive cognates or “false friends”

The linguistic phenomenon of deceptive cognates or “false friends” as named by Moss (1992), is usually defined as a situation in which two words are the same or similar either in speech or in writing in two languages but their meaning is different (for example the L1 Albanian > *evidence*; L2 > Macedonian > *evidencija*; for the English > ‘record’). Corder (1973) prefers the term *faux amis*, which refers to

the incorrect use of a word in the second language because of its physical resemblance to a word in the mother tongue.

Breitkreuz (1973) pointed out that deceptive cognates are known to cause difficulty in learning a language because students are likely to misidentify words due to language interference

Ringbom (2007) explains that false cognates are closely related to the frequency of use which naturally affects learning in that it is closely connected with acquisition over time. The opinion of Ringbom is:

High-frequency false cognates are easily confused at early stage of learning... but since it is a high-frequency word this is generally a passing stage. The more the learner progress in learning, the more input of the correct meaning of the word he gets, and this leads to diminishing number of errors. (2007:76)

This reason gives rise to difficulties in language learning at the early stages of acquisition.

4.2.4 Definition of calques or loan translations of multi-word units (compounds, phrasal verbs, idioms)

The first thing to note with regard to calques or loan translations is that, from the point of view of the language system, loan translations are very different from the other categories mentioned in this study.

A common definition of loan translations and calques is found, for example, in Craddock (1981), who regards these items as reproductions of “entire idiomatic phrases” (1981: 208), apparently suggesting that material which is not idiomatic does not give rise to loan translations. Moreover, the claim that it is only idioms that serve as models for loan translations and calques would be difficult to sustain. One of the most frequently cited loan translations is the compound skyscraper, which is cited as the model for calques in many languages.

The nature of loan translation is described by Garcia and Otheguy (1989:286) as vocabulary borrowing from one language into another which takes the form of loan translation. The authors state that in cases of such translation, the literal form of a lexical item is translated bit by bit into another language. In addition,

compound words have been explained to be loan translated, such as the German word *Leberwurst* in English *liversausage* (1989:286).

According to Campbell (1998) in loanwords, something of both the phonetic form and meaning of the word in the donor language is transferred to the borrowing language. The author also states that in loan words it is possible to borrow, in effect, just the meaning, and these instances are called *calques* or *loan translations*. This definition was illustrated by the example black marked, which owes the origin in English to a loan translation of German *Schwarzmarkt*, composed of ‘black’ and *Markt* ‘market’ (1998:81).

Werner Betz initially defined loan translation as “die geaue Glied-für-Glied-Übersetzung des fremden Vorbildes”, i.e. the exact translation, element by element, of the foreign model. (Betz 1936:2; as cited from Onysko 2007 :22) To support his definition, Betz discusses various examples of loan translation from Latin and English as in German *Mitleid* (compassion’) after Latin *compassion* (1949:27, 32 as cited form Onysko 2007 :22).

By following Schelper’s (1995) definition, Onysko defines loan translation as the exact word by word translation of a foreign expression which results in a new compound or derivation whose sense is not necessary deducible from the elements of the term (2007:23). The author draws on the examples given by Schelper such as *floating voter* and its presumed German loan translation *Wechselwähler*, for which Schelper noted that a more rigid (in the sense of literal) translation should have been *wechselnder Wähler*.

The reason loan translations are of interest in this study is to see how they can have an impact on third language production.

4.2.5 Definition of semantic extensions of single lexical units

Traditionally, semantic loans have been classified together with calques as both types involve replacement of foreign forms. According to Haugen (1956, 1969), semantic extension either involves taking a word in the base language and extending its meaning to correspond to that of a word in the target language or rearranging

words in the base language along patterns provided by the target language thus creating a new meaning. In this study, single lexical units will be analyzed in which the range of meanings expressed by the native or second language form is extended to include a new, usually related concept in L3 production.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE PRESENT STUDY

The aim of this work is to examine cross linguistic influence of L1 and L2 on L3 English, rather than to compare the three language systems completely, as would be done in a purely contrastive analysis. In order to elicit a wide range of data-types and quantitative and qualitative research methods are used.

The data were collected in classroom environments in the form of written texts from students, classroom recordings, and interviews which were conducted with English teachers.

In this study seven aspects of third language acquisition were analyzed:

- 1) the learner's type of bilingualism,
- 2) code switching in L3 production,
- 3) the use of cognates in L3 production,
- 4) the occurrence of deceptive cognates,
- 5) the occurrence of calques or loan translation of multiword units,
- 6) the use semantic extensions of single lexical units by the learners,
- 7) the learning environment, which was captured by means of interviews with English teachers.

At the outset of the study, the participating bilinguals were divided into groups on the basis of data gained through a language background questionnaire as well as through a standardized language placement test which measured the bilingual's general proficiency in both the second and the third language.

5.1 Research questions and hypothesis:

Most studies have found that bilinguals with a high level of L2 proficiency transfer more from their L2 than learners with low L2 proficiency. Some studies suggest that lexical L2 items can be transferred into the L3 even if the learner's L2 proficiency is low. Ringbom (2001: 60) states that "lexical L2 transfer across related foreign languages is also found in learners who have had little exposure to, or have a limited proficiency in, the L2."

In my teaching experience I have made the following observation: The cross-linguistic influence of the learners' previously learnt languages depends on the level of L2 proficiency reached, the frequency of L2 use and the amount of exposure to the L2. From a language processing perspective, highly frequent L2 lexical items are likely candidates for unintentional lexical transfer due to their high activation levels during the early stages of L3 learning (based on second language acquisition studies; Faerch & Kasper 1986; Poulisse & Bongaerts 1994). It can thus be assumed that the L1 will have a high level of influence in L3 production, while L2 influence will have a lower influence and will depend on the learners' L2 proficiency and exposure.

These observations have led me to the following questions:

- (1) How is cross-lexical transfer traced in L3 word production?
- (2) Do Albanian bilinguals rely upon their first language lexical knowledge more than upon the second language?

HYPOTHESES:

Deriving from these two questions, the present study aims to examine the following two hypotheses:

1. Many instances of transfer from L1 and L2 are expected to occur in the L3 production of bilingual Albanian students. Transferred items can be produced consciously or unconsciously.
2. Interpreted in general terms, transfer instances come more from the native language. Transfer instances based on the L2 are found more frequently if L2 proficiency is high.

5.2 Setting & Participants

The study was conducted at the State University of Tetovo, which is one of four Macedonian state universities located in the city of Tetovo. The university was established on 17 December 1994, however, it was not recognized as a state university by the Macedonian government until January, 2004. Courses and lectures are mostly held in Albanian, but also in Macedonian and English.

The university was established as a result of the dispute over a lack of opportunities for ethnic Albanians to have access to university education in their mother tongue. The idea for an Albanian university was proposed by a special assembly of Albanian intellectuals who requested permission for the creation of an Albanian University from the Macedonian government. Although this initiative was declared illegal by the government, Albanian intellectuals signed the act of founding the University of Tetovo. The first university classes were held in a private house on 17 February 1995 but were disrupted by Macedonian authorities. As a result, one Albanian was shot dead by the Macedonian police, 26 persons were wounded and the first rector was arrested. However, the founders of the Albanian university continued with classes. They declared that their ultimate goal was the creation of a third state university financed fully by the state budget. Since January 2004 the State University of Tetovo has been officially recognized. There are faculties for Economics, Law, the Applied Sciences Faculty, Philosophy, Philology, Arts, Medical Sciences, Maths and Natural Sciences, a faculty for Food Technology and Physical Education.

In Macedonia the 'English' studies are based on a model of 'English' as a unitary literary-linguistic discipline in philological sciences. The first degree used to be a 4-year 'BA', that is, a joint honors degree in English and an additional foreign language, which in most cases is German, French or Italian. This model no longer corresponds entirely to reality. The new first level programme provides an intensive three-year period of studies in the English language and leads to the degree of Bachelor of Arts (BA). The curriculum is generally a combination of language and literature courses and there is also room for cultural studies. Students have to study another foreign language and literature for at least two years. Depending on the university a wide range of foreign languages are offered: German, French, Italian and Spanish are the most popular. Students normally achieve a good theoretical knowledge of English, but the standards obtained as regards practical and instrumental use of the language are not as high. About 90% percent of the English graduates choose to work as EFL teachers once they have taken the teacher training

course. In addition, graduates are qualified to continue their studies in pedagogic programmes.

Apart from the pedagogic programmes, there are also translation studies which are relatively new. A number of Philology Faculties offer postgraduate courses (master or doctoral programmes) in this area. For a long time students who wanted to do this degree had to go to English speaking countries.

In the last few years there have been attempts to set up new university degrees with a combination of language and scientific/economic/legal courses that is to create mixed degrees.

General English courses are also offered either as obligatory or optional courses in degrees such as Education (for those who become primary school teachers), Economics, Law, Engineering, Physics, Chemistry, Medicine, and Pharmacy. ESP, that, is English for Specific Purposes, has developed in the last few years but there is still a lot to be done because students' interests and needs are not always taken into account. It should be noted that there is no specific training for teachers of English for Specific Purposes. The courses are simply adapted from ELT teaching. Indeed, teachers are faced with learners who have already acquired some knowledge of English in a school institution.

The participants in this study were bilingual Albanian students of the faculty for English philology. Students of the faculty for Economics, who study English as an obligatory part of their curriculum, were also taking part. All the students were informed about the study and were asked to participate in the investigation- thus participation was voluntary. Beside the students, some teachers, teaching English courses in the English department as well as ESP in the Economics faculty, were interested to assist the testing procedure.

5.3 Data collection instruments

This study is based on both qualitative and quantitative data on the linguistic interaction between the languages Albanian, Macedonian and English. The quantitative data were collected through proficiency tests and language background questionnaires, which were used to group bilinguals and to aid in the interpretation

of data gained through a writing task. The proficiency tests were conducted for Macedonian and English only, because all students are proficient in their L1 Albanian. The qualitative data were collected through written texts and classroom recordings. In this chapter, an overview of data collection methods will be described, while the details of each will be discussed in the relevant chapters in the empirical part leading up to data analysis.

5.3.1 The language background questionnaire

The aim of the language background questionnaire was to gain information about the learners' educational and linguistic background as well as about their exposure to their L1-Albanian, L2-Macedonian and L3-English. The questionnaire consisted of 23 questions and it included items on the learners' knowledge and use of the three languages in their social network. It was designed according to Daller's (2002) model "Fragebogen zur Spracherwerbsbiographie" and some original items were developed for the purpose of this study (see Appendix A).

The questionnaire was handed out in English and it included questions about the stage at which they started to learn their L2- Macedonian and L3-English in order to gain information about the acquisition order of the languages. I did not include questions about their L1-Albanian acquisition, as the general situation of bilingualism of Albanians in Macedonia (see, chapter one, on the sociolinguistic background of the study), is complex, and the L1-Albanian is the dominant language in west Macedonia. Then, there were questions about the use of the languages. The last questions were about the student's attitude toward learning L2-Macedonian and L3-English.

5.3.2 Proficiency (level) tests

To form a homogeneous group of Albanian students, in terms of their language proficiency in L2-Macedonian, standardized placement test was used. The test was designed by a committee of Macedonian language teachers who teach at State University of Tetovo, and are used for the purpose of placement of Macedonian language students into homogeneous groups.

In regard to English placement test, the English Department of the State University of Tetovo uses a placement test (see Appendix C) from a web source (www.anglictina.sk/download/tests/Place) as a temporary solution for the need of finding a way to establish homogenous group of students. In addition, there has been a committee formed to construct a placement test which will suit the needs of the State University of Tetovo.

The placement test consisted of grammar questions, multiple-choice questions related to denotation and connotation of words, as well as phrases, sentences and reading passages

5.3.3 Classroom recordings

In addition to the written data, spoken data were collected for this research study. The analysis employed in this study is conversation analysis based on William and Hammarberg's (1998, 2001) Role-function Model, which refers to the aspect of speech. The model describes the roles between various languages of a third language learner in a number of areas: the learner's language switches during conversations, attempts at lexical formulation, pronunciation, and to some extent morphology.

For the conversation analysis, the recordings were made while the students were talking about a text which they had already read in the classroom. Both the interaction between the students and teachers as well as the interaction among students were recorded.

5.3.4 Word recognition task

The purpose of this task was to analyze transfer of lexical knowledge to the third language- that is, it was investigated whether students are able to apply their knowledge of words and concepts in Albanian and Macedonian when translating English words. Second, this task is designed to analyze the extent to which this transfer of lexical knowledge is mediated by the awareness of cognate relationships between the three languages.

Many words in Albanian and Macedonian have close English cognates, that is English words with obvious orthographic similarity and closely related meaning. Because many words derive from Latin in all three languages, they have relatively common words, so the students can recognize the cognate relationship. In relation to false friends, the students are sometimes encouraged to take advantage of true cognates, without being warned of the existence of false friends.

5.3.5 Translation task

The second part of the data collection was the translation task. A text in the students' native language Albanian was designed and students were asked to translate the text into the target language English, their L3. The translation was approximately 200 words long. The time allowed for the translation task was 30 minutes. I suspected that the quality of the translated texts would vary a great deal from student to student, as some would require more time to think about the storyline than others. Previous research has also shown that translation tasks tend to result in more cross-linguistic influence (Ringbom 1987).

5.3.6 Written compositions

Further instruments used for the investigation were written compositions produced by the subjects under study. A broad theme was chosen, so that content was not constrained by knowledge limitations. The learners had to write a letter to a prospective English host family, where they had to introduce themselves and talk about their family, their school, their home town, their hobbies and interests and any other aspect of their life which they wanted to share with the host family. This theme was also selected, because it did not impose any constraints on the type of language, vocabulary and grammatical structures which could be used. The students had 30 minutes to complete the task and no limitations were imposed on them regarding their writing but for the topic defined in the instructions. Thus, the free character of the task allowed students to deploy as much linguistic knowledge in English as possible.

With this topic, it was guaranteed that subjects would have something to write about, and differences in the resulting essays as regards content and length due to different subject knowledge were ruled out. The resulting essays are variable in length, content, linguistic structures, and lexical items, but all respond to the instructions. Instructions were given in the student's native language, Albanian, and in English.

5.3.7 Interviews

The last step of the data collection of the study involved interviews with teachers who teach English as a third language to bilingual students. The main purpose of interviewing teachers was to find out what they thought about the influence of the students' previously learnt languages (L1 and L2) in the process of learning English in situation when it is considered as third language of the learner. The interview was based on five prepared questions which were supposed to initiate the discussion. The opinion of the teachers was important for this study because I hoped to make recommendations based on these teacher's experiences about cross-linguistic influences in the third language production.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of data collected from bilingual Albanian students. First, there were 206 students interested in participating, this number was reduced to 180, however (see below for a possible explanation). Six English teachers also expressed their interest in assisting in the testing process.

6.1 Analysis of the language background questionnaire

Although the number of interested participants was 206 at the beginning, there were 180 students who actually took part in the language background questionnaire task. I was not very surprised, because when I introduced the study and told students that a section on the Macedonian language was integrated, in which they would be asked about their language background and tested for proficiency, I heard some students' words of confusion: "Why Macedonian?". After the questionnaire was completed, we arranged another day for the proficiency test.

The questionnaire was analyzed in cooperation with my colleagues, the English teachers, who volunteered to participate in the study. Most of the students participating at this study were nineteen and twenty years old. Starting with the student's L1-Albanian, the questionnaire did not include questions about the age at which they had started to learn their native language, because in West Macedonia, Albanian is the dominant language and it is used in the family, social environment and in education. While in administration, the dominant language is Macedonian, the official language of Macedonia.

By means of a self-evaluation scale, designed by Daller (1999) (ranging from 'very bad', 'bad', 'normal', 'good' to 'very good') and adapted for the present study (ranging from 'bad', to 'normal' and 'high'), the students could express how they assess their L2 proficiency. Out of 180 participants, three different groups of bilinguals were identified based on the self-evaluation scale:

- 1) 74 had little knowledge of Macedonian. They had started to learn Macedonian at school, and their exposure to the language was limited.

- 2) 18 had medium knowledge of Macedonian and medium exposure to it,
- 3) 88 had fully developed knowledge of Macedonian and high exposure to it.

The first result of the analysis indicated that the bilingual Albanian's second language proficiency varied depending on social and individual factors. The degree of bilingualism in the students was consequently very complex and difficult to define. The categorization was made according to *social* and *individual* variables.

Taking into account *social variables*, the Albanian bilinguals were all categorized as "additive" (as suggested by Lambert 1975), because the native language, Albanian, was secure, and the second language served as enrichment. The status factor of L1 and L2 in Macedonia was found to play a very important role.

Taking into account *individual variables*, results show individual differences between Albanian bilingual students, based on behavioral differences (Lambert et. al. 1958), that is differences in motivation and attitude towards the second language (Gardner & Lambert 1972); age of an individual (Weinreich 1953; McLaughlin 1984; Byalistok & Hakuta 1994) and proficiency in the second language (Cummins 1981, as cited in Ellis 1994). These results indicated another type of bilingualism based on the bilinguals' skills. Skills can be classified into the categories: reading and listening comprehension, speaking and writing (cf. Halliday 1968). According to research studies on bilingualism (see chapter one), bilinguals can be classified with reference to their proficiency levels in these four areas of skills. The following categories for bilinguals emerge *incipient bilingual*, *receptive bilingual*, *functional bilingual dominant bilingual*, *balanced (or equilingual) bilingual* and *ambilingual bilingual (or perfect bilingual)*.

Considering these different types of multilingualism, results indicated that bilingual Albanians could be categorized into three groups:

- *ambilingual balanced bilingualism*- a simple form of stable multilingualism, which is assumed the both language systems are fully developed to an ideal native speaker proficiency

- *transitional bilingualism*- where one language system is gradually replaced by another to reserve a long-term reservation to monolingualism
- *passive bilingualism* – in which the speaker has only passive/receptive command of one linguistic system and does not use the second language system (Ls) for active communicative purposes her/himself, can be taken as an instance of partial competence. It was noticed that the difference between forms of passive bilingualism and the form of

The results also indicated that bilingual Albanians could be categorized based on their second language skills. For example, some could be classified as *receptive bilinguals* (Hockett, 1958), if they have progressed to the point where they can comprehend much of what is presented in the second language but find it difficult to produce speech or writing. *Functional bilinguals* (Beatens Beardsmore 1982) have sufficient ability in both languages to carry out most social and communicative functions without difficulty. And *balanced (or equilingual) bilinguals* are individuals whose mastery of the two languages is roughly equivalent.

In this study, all bilinguals have been identified also analyzed based on their age of first language exposure to the L2, as suggested by Byalistok and Hakuta (1994). All bilinguals of this study had started to learn their L2 relatively early in childhood (from age 5 and 10), therefore they could be categorized as early sequential bilinguals. who are further subdivided into early (ambilingual balanced) bilinguals and will be referred to as 'High Bilinguals' functional transitional bilinguals will be called 'Intermediate Bilinguals' and passive bilinguals 'Low Bilinguals' respectively. For a better understanding, the figure below describes the types of bilingual Albanian students in Macedonia:

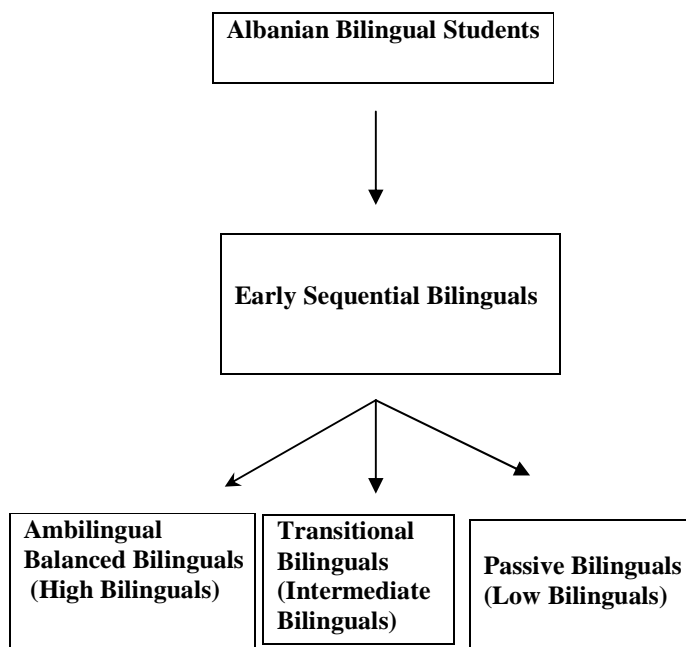


Figure 6.1: Albanian bilingual students

The results obtained from the English language self evaluation scale showed different levels of English in the three different groups of bilingual students based on 180 participants:

- 1) Out of 74 Low Bilinguals, 56 evaluated their English as 'normal' and 18 as 'good'.
- 2) Out of 18 Intermediate Bilinguals, 9 evaluated their English as 'normal', 5 as 'good' and 4 as 'very good', and
- 3) Out of 88 High Bilinguals, 75 evaluated their English as 'normal', 8 as 'good', and 5 as 'very good'

Responding to the questions, concerning student' attitudes towards learning English, most of the students stated that they watch movies in English and that

Albanian subtitles, help them to understand. It is important to state here that movies are usually in the original English version but have Albanian subtitles. In addition, they listen to music in Albanian and English, but never in Macedonian. They prefer to use English words when they communicate with their friends, and they try to use English only when communicating with their English teachers. As there are no English daily newspapers in Macedonia, most of the bilingual students read only Albanian newspapers, and a considerable number read both Albanian and Macedonian newspapers. They also stated that the only opportunity to read news in English is online.

The last question asked for reasons why they liked to learn English. All the students are willing to learn English as it is the language of ‘the world’s communication’ (as cited from a student’s answer in the questionnaire). Next, they stated that they would need the language for their studies at an international university and for their future career. Some interesting answers found in the questionnaire were that they like English very much because they want to join the European Union or that ‘Americans are friends of Albanians’ as one student wrote.

6.2 Analysis of the proficiency level tests

All students participated in the language proficiency test, which means that 180 bilingual Albanian students took both tests, one in Macedonian and one in English, on the same day, with a break in between. The tables below present the scores obtained by Low, Medium, and High Bilinguals on the Macedonian and the English proficiency test.

Low Proficiency Bilinguals	Language proficiency level			
	Elementary	Pre-intermediate	Intermediate	Advanced
Total number of participants: 74				
Macedonian	48	26	-	-
English	-	51	23	-

Table 6.1 Results of Low Bilinguals’ proficiency test

The scores obtained by the Low Bilinguals indicate that they fared better on the English than on the Macedonian proficiency test. In English no student reached only elementary proficiency, 51 were at a pre-intermediate level, and 23 were intermediate. These are interesting but not surprising results since most of the participating students were studying the English language.

On the Macedonian proficiency test, the students scored lower. The proficiency of 48 was classified as elementary, 26 were pre-intermediate, and there were no students with intermediate language abilities in Macedonian. These results can be explained by the fact that the Low Bilingual students learnt Macedonian at school only, and communication with Macedonians was rare.

Intermediate Bilinguals	Language proficiency level			
Total number of participants:	Elementary 'bad'	Pre-intermediate 'normal'	Intermediate 'good'	Advanced
Macedonian	-	14	4	-
English	-	6	7	5

Table 6.2 Results of Intermediate Bilinguals proficiency test

The Intermediate Bilinguals' scores in Macedonian were different from those obtained by the Low Bilinguals. According to the test results, no student reached elementary level only, 14 were at pre-intermediate, and 4 at intermediate level in Macedonian. The English results showed different scores, no student has elementary knowledge only 6 were on a pre-intermediate level, 7 on an intermediate, and 5 on an advanced level.

High Bilinguals	Language proficiency level			
Total number of participants: 88	Elementary 'bad'	Pre-intermediate 'normal'	Intermediate 'good'	Advanced
Macedonian	-	-	21	67
English	-	73	6	9

Table 6.3 Results of High Bilinguals proficiency test

The results of the High Bilinguals were much better than those of the other groups of students. Macedonian language scores showed no student at elementary and pre-intermediate level. Based on the Macedonian scores, 21 High Bilinguals were classified as intermediate and 67 as advanced in Macedonian. According to the English scores, 73 students were placed at pre-intermediate level, 6 at intermediate, and 9 at advanced level. In comparison to the previous two groups, the scores obtained by the High Bilinguals were much better in Macedonian, while the scores in English showed fewer differences.

Finally, the results of the questionnaires and proficiency tests were compared and the findings were analyzed. Following the analysis, several issues appeared.

First, the self-evaluation results showed that the students were aware of their proficiency levels.

Second, the number of Intermediate Bilinguals was small (18) compared to Low (74) and High Bilinguals (88). Due to the small size of the sample, the Intermediate Bilinguals were not examined further.

In addition, according to the English proficiency test, no student was found to be at elementary level, 124 students were pre-intermediate from both the group of Low (51) and of High Bilinguals (73).

These results indicated that most bilinguals were to be placed at pre-intermediate level, consequently, this study focused on **the English language production of bilingual students at A2 on the Common European Frame of Reference, describing a pre-intermediate level during English language acquisition.**

The number of Low Bilinguals with L2-Macedonian was 48, while the number of students at pre-intermediate level of English was 51. To form comparison groups with an equal number of students, 3 students voluntarily left the study.

The number of High Bilinguals with L2- Macedonian was 67, while 73 were placed at pre-intermediate level in English. Again, a few students, this time 6

students, left the study voluntarily so that comparison groups with equal numbers could be created.

Finally, the results of the analyses suggested the formation of two experimental groups constituted by 48 Low Bilinguals and 67 High Bilinguals with pre-intermediate level of English. These groups were studied further.

Pre-intermediate level of English	
Low Bilinguals	High Bilinguals
48	67

The different results of the number of the participants between the two groups will be considered in calculating transfer items from L1 Albanian and L2 Macedonian in L3 production. This is because of the weighted contributions expected from each bilingual group. The measuring principle will be based on the total transfer items in L3 production per occurrence from L1 or L2. The numbers of transferred items will be then divided by the total number of the subjects in each bilingual group (*Influence Index = transfer items : students number*), which will lead to the results of the index for each group with respect to the number of occurrences in the five types of lexical transfer (code switching, the cognate effect, deceptive cognates, calques of multiword units and semantic extensions).

The calculated index for each bilingual group of L3 learners will show the role of their first and second language in the third language production. In addition, illustrations of comparison between two bilingual groups will be displayed in order to visually understand those differences. In this view, the influence of background languages is marked by the degree of influence index (ii) per group; Low Bilinguals are marked with blue quadrangle and High Bilinguals with bright turquoise.

6.3 Analysis of code- switches

The aim of this analysis is to offer an explanation for the role of the first and second language of bilingual Albanian of English as L3 in speech production.

Furthermore, Hammarberg (2001: 26-27) identified seven types of switches which depended on the switch function during the conversation task. These categories of switches and their explanations can be seen in table 4.2.

	Category	Explanation
1.	EDIT	Constitute elements of self-repairs
2.	META COMMENT	Constitute comments during conversation
3.	META FRAME	Refers to the frame which is usually a question which sometimes can be accompanied with long strings
4.	INSERT: EXPLICIT ELICIT	Can be identified if they appear together with a META FRAME
5.	INSERT: IMPLICIT ELICIT	Occurred as eliciting signals 'how do you say this?'
6.	INSERT: NON-ELICIT	Can be identified in cases of missing vocabulary, occasional access blockings, the nature of the topic or context and the attitudes of the speaker
7.	WIPP (Without Identified Pragmatic Purpose)	Constitutes short elements, in most cases grammatical function words, such as pronouns, prepositions, connective adverbs and conjunctions, rather than content words.

Table 6.4 Types of code-switches according to William and Hammarberg (2001:26)

In addition, William and Hammarberg (1998) did not establish categories for the roles of background languages, but explained their functions during the conversations. The language that supplies material for the learner's expressions in L3 has been identified as supplier language. The authors, go on to explain that the primary supplier language is L3 itself and was referred as *primary supplier language*, while the background languages were referred as *external supplier languages*. L1, as a dominant language, was identified to have an *instrumental role* because it dominated in various pragmatically functional language shifts and supported the interaction, therefore it functioned as *external instrumental language*. On the other hand, the role of the L2 was found to have a prominent supplier role in the learner's construction of new words and was identified as an *external supplier language*. The differences between the role of two languages is that the *external instrumental language* is supplementary to the utterances in L3, while the *external*

supplier language contributes to and influences these utterances in the formulation process.

The analysis that will be presented in this study is based on Hammarberg's model of code-switching categories and the role of background knowledge in L3 production.

6.3.1 Methods

The code switching analysis of bilingual Albanian learners of English is based on the recording spoken data in a classroom. First, students were told that the purpose of the conversation was to have a relaxed informal conversation. Second, they were instructed to discuss the text they had learned in the previous class. As the discussions are usually led by the teacher, in this case they were asked to lead the discussion by themselves, which appeared to be difficult for them as they were not ready to communicate in English only. Having this argument, the students were told to communicate freely with each other by using their background knowledge or teacher's support. Finally, I did the recording while the students were talking about the text "Formation of Gender Roles" which they had already read before. The recording was done twice, once with the group of Low Bilinguals and next with the High Bilinguals. The recording lasted fifteen minutes and the interaction among the students and the teacher were recorded. Finally, the data were analyzed taking into account the situation that triggered the code-switching.

6.3.2 Results

The conversations were transcribed and then analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The two fifteen minutes recorded conversations resulted in 197 word tokens in total of which 58 make up code switches from L1 and L2. There were also some words, which could not be transcribed due to background noise on the tape.

Considering the code-switching categories, the transferred items from L1 and L2 were analyzed to find out the differences between L1 and L2 in L3 production. Table 6.5 shows the number of influence from L1 and L2 over the seven categories identified by Hammarberg (2001).

		Low Bilinguals		High Bilinguals	
Category	n	L1	L2	L1	L2
EDIT	12	6	-	2	4
META COMMENT	5	3	-	2	-
META FRAME	6	2	-	2	-
INSERT EXPLICIT ELICIT	13	2	3	4	5
INSERT IMPLICIT ELICIT	10	2	2	4	3
INSERT NON-ELICIT	9	3	3	-	3
WIPP	3	1	1	-	1
Total number of CS	58	19	9	14	16
Total number of CS influence index across the groups	0.50	0.39	0.19	0.21	0.24
		0.58		0.45	

Table 6.5 Quantitative overview of code-switches in L3 production

The text corpus of recorded conversation comprises of 197 word tokens, of which 58 make up word types (code-switches) or an influence index of 0.50 from both bilingual groups of English learners.

The results obtained from this analysis indicate that L1 influence index of code-switches in LB is 0.39, while L2 influence is 0.19. In the other hand, influence index of code-switches in high Bilinguals indicate $L1 > 0.21$ and $L2 > 0.24$. These findings show that the influence index of code switches from L1 in Low Bilinguals is twice higher than L2, while the influence index in high Bilinguals is almost the same.

Adding the point of influence index across the groups, the general results of code switching category display the difference between two bilingual groups.

The influence index of code switching in LB is 0.58 and HB is 0.45 or an approximate ratio of 5 to 4 which represents the difference between the influences of background languages in L3 production. As a whole, considering the different number of participants in the study, LB=48 and HB=67 or an approximate ratio of 4 to 6, and the difference of influence index ratio (5:4) per group, it can be suggested that High Bilinguals code-switched less than their peers which leads them in a slight advantage during the third language learning.

Pursuing the general results further to frequency of categories and their distribution over L1 and L2, the results show that both groups rely more on their first

language. To begin with the EDIT category, the influence index in LB from L1 is 0.12 and no switches from L2 were found. In comparison to HB, the influence index from L1 is 0.02 while from L2 is 0.05.

In the second and third category, the meta categories, switches came from Albanian only. The influence index in LB is 0.10 while in HB is 0.05. By contrast, the insert categories appeared to be more frequent from L2 in both groups. The influence index of LB from L1 is 0.14 while from L2 was 0.16. In comparison to the influence index of HB, L1 is 0.11, while L2 is 0.16. These results represent higher influence from L2 in both groups, and at the same time they indicate that L2 (0.16) influence in HB is stronger than L1 (0.11).

The last categories, WIPP switches, were the least frequently used, and the influence index in LB is $L1 > 0.02$ and $L2 > 0.02$ which shows the minimal use of both languages. In comparison to HB, the influence index shows no use of L1 and minimal use of $L2 > 0.01$.

6.3.3 Findings and discussion

In the following discussion the occurrences of code-switching will be discussed, based on Hammarberg's model of code-switching categories such as EDIT, META with two subcategories: COMMENT and FRAME; INSERT with three subcategories: EXPLICIT ELICIT, IMPLICIT ELICIT, NON-ELICIT, and WIPP (Without Identified Pragmatic Purpose). The EDIT constitutes code-switches with self-repair elements, META categories constitute metalinguistic elements, and INSERT categories have been identified as primary contents of conversation (not editing or metalinguistic elements). These categories have been interpreted as having a pragmatic purpose and the speaker has no attempt to use them in the L3, while WIPP (Without Pragmatic Purpose) category has been identified as part of utterance in formulation in L3.

EDIT

This category comprises switches constituted from editing elements in self repair or in managing the interaction. Such elements of code-switching were found by bilingual Albanian students in moments where they could not recall for the exact word in English, or they were not sure if the English word was equal to the L1 Albanian. The following excerpt illustrates such speaker's self-repair elements.

Excerpt 1

Agron	:	The boys tend to tell ... <i>vic</i> ...no...jokes to their friends.	1
		In their games there are winners and losers. Girls play	2
		with dolls and playing... <i>amvise</i> ...no... housewife.	3
Sara	:	Boys usually act “bossy.”Boys say “Gimme that”, girls	4
		say “Let’s do this”.	5
		(<i>Boys tend to tell ... jokes to their friends. In their games there are winners and losers. Girls play with dolls and act as housewife.</i>)	

This example shows sequences of self-repair, the student used a very common L2 Macedonian term such as *виц* /*vic*/, (line 1) for the L3 English words 'joke'. The student code switched to L2 because of the lack of or unfamiliarity with terms in L1 Albanian. The L1 Albanian term *amvise* (line 3) occurred as access blocking for the original L3 English word 'housewife'.

META COMMENT

Meta- comment has been identified to refer to cases when the speaker comments on the communicative situation or on the text itself. This category of code-switches was identified in situations when the students were looking for a partner to answer the question asked by the teacher. The following excerpt illustrates the way Teuta asked Agron to start the discussion.

Excerpt 2

Teacher	:	What are the differences between boys and girls from the way they play... Teuta...?	1 2
Teuta:	:	O.K,... girls like to dance, and boys...?...Agron,... <i>hajde, ti fol per djemt ... (Agron, come on, talk about boys ...)</i>	3 4
Agron:	:	Well, the differences ... are ... <i>Come on, talk about boys...</i>	

The meta comment identified in the conversation consisted of both L1 and L2. It is the L2 expression *hajde* ‘come on’ (line 3) which has been adopted in Albanian and is used in spoken language to initiate the beginning of an activity, while commentary expression *ti fol per djemt* (line 3) ‘talk about boys’ is a language switch from L1 Albanian.

META FRAME:

The meta frame category refers to the frame which can be found as a question. This category was frequently found in the data and the student code switched in situations when they could not find the right word in English. This can be illustrated in the following example.

Excerpt 3

Njomza	:	Teacher, how do we say in English <i>vendimtar?</i>	1 2
Teacher	:	Decisive.	3
		O.K. Girls are decisive in their decisions...	4

This example illustrates the situation when the speaker did not know the English word and asked the teacher for help. The word *vendimtar* ‘decisive’ (line1) indicates a complete language switch from L1 Albanian.

INSERT: EXPLICIT ELICIT

This category incorporates elements that belong to the primary contents of the conversation and can be found together with a META FRAME. These elements can be realized by fully expressed words to call for help in finding the right word that the learner asks about.

A closer look at the data showed such switches. Students seemed to code-switch to obviate difficulties in finding the correct referential terms in English. They were trying to find the word in L3 English but it appeared that they did not know the word in L1 Albanian, which is why they switched to their second language Macedonian. This can be clearly seen in the following excerpt.

Excerpt 4

Teuta	:	I had to cross a ..er..hm..er.. зѐѓпа,	1
		... зѐѓпа...	2
		Teacher, how do we say	3
		in English ... well ...all right...	4
		what's the Albanian word for	5
		зѐѓпа? (<i>She addresses her classmates</i>	6
		<i>for help...</i>)	7
Albulena	:	Vizëbardhë...	8
Tacher	:	Crosswalk	9
		(I had to go through the crosswalk)	

The data illustrate that the speaker had difficulties in finding the right English term for the word *зѐѓпа* /zebra/ (line 1 and 2). The fillers 'er' (line 1), show that she was looking for the right word in English. The speaker's attempt to use the appropriate term 'crosswalk' caused confusion as she didn't know the term in her L1 either. Thus, she decided to revert to her L2 Macedonian as she felt that it was more comprehensible. The word 'alright' (line 4) implies that she had given up looking for the right word in English and decided to use the Macedonian term to ask for help. The word *vizebardhe* 'crosswalk' is the Albanian word which came as an answer from Albulena, when Teuta asked for help to find the word in her L1-Albanian.

INSERT: IMPLICIT ELICIT

The IMPLICIT ELICIT code switches appear if they lack a frame but are pronounced instead with a metalinguistic rising intonation which has been interpreted as an eliciting signal ‘how do you say this?’. Hammarberg (2001) assumes that explicit and implicit eliciting categories of code-switching occur in order to elicit the L3 expression from the interlocutor.

Excerpt 5

Agon	:	So, girls are ... me <i>të urta</i> ... no... more silent?	1
Teacher	:	Yes.	2
		Silent.	3
		(<i>So, girls are more silent</i>)	

The example *me te urta* (line 1), came from L1 Albanian which was immediately replaced with the English ‘silent’, but as she was not sure that the word was correct, she asked the teacher for confirmation with rising intonation (line 1).

INSERT: NON ELICIT

This category comprises frequent cases of non-eliciting switches that have been conditioned by different factors such as missing vocabulary, occasional access blockings, the nature of the topic or context and the attitudes of the speaker.

Following the explanation for INSERT: NON ELICIT switches, bilingual Albanians maintained L2 terminology, as frequently used words which depended on the nature of the topic in which rather than using Albanian or English equivalents. The analysis shows that such maintenance arises, perhaps due to habitual use of L2 terms, since education is mainly received in Macedonian, and due to the non-availability of the English terms in the speakers’ linguistic repertoire. A closer look at the data shows speakers code-switch due to lack of vocabulary.

Excerpt 6

Sara	:	The women's.... еманципација , in our country is not ... nice. Through the education women have started to understand their ... position e ulët... in the society. Their ... vizion... is different and most of them do not even realize that life can be better. Sometime life looks... страшно... for them.	1 2 3 4 5 6
		<i>(Women's... liberation in our country is not...nice. Through the education women have started to understand their... low position ...in the society. Their... vision...is different and most of them do not even realize that life can be better. Sometime life looks...terrible... for them.)</i>	

As can be seen from the excerpt, the student used L2 Macedonian terms such as *емаунација* /emancipacija/, and *страшно* /strashno/ (line 1, 6) for the L3 English words 'emancipation', and 'terrible'. The student code switched to her L2 because of the lack of or unfamiliarity with terms in L1 Albanian. The L1 Albanian term *e ulët* (line 3) occurred to fill in the gap for the L3 English word 'low'. In addition, the word *vizion* (line 4), has been used as a similar word to English 'vision'.

WIPP (Without Identified Pragmatic Purpose)

This category has been found interesting by Hammarberg (2001) in the case of code-switching from L1 or L2 in L3 production. The author explains that WIPP switches correspond partly with switches that Poullisse and Bongaerts (1994, cited from Hammarberg 2001:27) identified as 'non-intentional language switches' which include the EDIT category (self-repair elements) identified by Hammarberg (2001). Hammarberg and Williams argue for the criterion 'intentional' because the other six types of code-switches identified by Hammarberg and Williams (1988) are not strictly intentional, and therefore EDIT category has been distinguished from 'non-intentional language switches'. Hammarberg (2001) states that:

“ the WIPP elements occur merely as a part of the utterance formulation in L3, and switches itself appears to have no particular function . The WIPP

elements are short and in most cases consist of grammatical function words such as pronouns, prepositions, connective adverbs and conjugations, rather than content words.”

In addition to this explanation, Hammarberg points out that the WIPP elements are typically followed by a self-repair or EDIT. With this argument, the author explains the distinction between WIPP and EDIT.

Excerpt 7

Sara	:	Girls are very sensitive,... <i>mandej</i> ... <i>they</i> cry often.	1
		Boys are stronger than girls.	2
Alma	:	But, boys don't cry, <i>iako</i> ... they can be very sensitive,	3
		too	4

In this limited corpus data, WIPP switches, or function words, were less frequent compared to the content words. The conjunction *mandej* ‘and’ (line 1) was used from L1 Albanian to suggest that one idea is the result of another. On the other hand, the conjunction *iako* ‘although’ (line 3) was used from L2 Macedonian suggesting a contrast to her interlocutor.

6.3.4 Conclusion

According to the data gained from this analysis, both bilingual groups switch from their previously learned languages in handling of L3. Most of the switches found in the data can be interpreted as intentional switches for lexical limitation in the L3. Considering the role of previously learned languages, it happens in different ways. L1 results as a dominant language in the group of Low Bilinguals which supports William and Hammarberg’s (1998) suggestion for functioning as an external instrumental language because it supplies the utterances in L3, while L2 takes the role of an external supplier language in which the learner attempts to acquire a word from the interlocutor and secure reception and therefore influences the utterances in formulation process. In the group of High Bilinguals, on the other hand, L2 appeared to be slightly dominant in comparison to L1 (L1 $ii > 0.21$ and L2 $ii > 0.24$). This can be explained with the option that involves the need to use all their background linguistic knowledge to compensate the lexical limitation in L3.

Hammarberg (2001:37), identifies this process in the case study with SW, and compares it with De Bot's (1992) bilingual-speaking model where this choice was determined in the *conceptualizer* component. According to Hammarberg (2001:23), the *conceptualizer* has access to stored extra linguistic knowledge about the world, the situation and turns communicative situations into pre-verbal messages. Hence the conceptualizer component was identified in this analysis, because either L1 or L2 as accessible languages of the learner was activated simultaneously to the L3.

The results of code-switching of bilingual Albanian learners can be explained by the different conditioning factors involved in the process of learning the third language, namely those of psychotypology, proficiency, recency and L2 status. The interpretation of the factors affecting L3 production will be based on William and Hammarberg's (2001) suggestion, in which the language that reaches the highest overall value for these factors, will best qualify to serve as a supplier language.

The L1-Albanian score high by both bilingual groups and outranked L2-Macedonian in terms of typological similarities of L1-Albanian to L3-English. In case of Low Bilinguals, the factors, recency of use and L2 status, seem to be favoring L2 in certain categories (Insert Explicit Elicit and Insert Non-Elicit). On the other hand, the proficiency (high proficiency in L2- Macedonian), recency and L2 status factors have proven to be with stronger influential values in High Bilinguals. Two possible reasons can be suggested for this:

1. Different acquisition processes of L2 (High Bilinguals learned the language earlier than Low Bilinguals)
2. Different use of L2- Macedonian language (High Bilinguals are in frequent contact with their L2)

6.4 Analysis of Cognates

In the previous section, the various categories of code-switching and the role of the first and second language on third language production were discussed. The present analysis focuses on the effect of cognate words, that is lexically and semantically, related words of Albanian, Macedonian and English. In particular, this analysis attempts to examine the amount of the influence from the first and second language known by bilingual Albanian learners in production of L3-English cognate words. The present analysis will be guided by Dijkstra (2003:14) Multilingual Interactive Activation model and the hypothesis of language selective or language nonselective access of third language learners will be tested. In addition, de Groot's bilingual parallel phonological activation hypothesis in languages with the same and different alphabet, will be extended to test the participants of this study whose L1 alphabet is the same with the L3 (Latin), but whose L2 alphabet is different (Cyrillic).

6.4.1 Methods

The method included in this analysis is the word translation task as a tool for investigating the organization of the mental lexicon. In this task information was elicited regarding the bilingual learners' assumptions on the typological relationships (psychotypology) between the three languages. Based on their cognate status, 112 words were chosen from dictionaries of language pairs: Albanian – Macedonian; Albanian – English; Macedonian- English. In addition, the chosen cognate words were checked in the student's book to make sure that they had already been introduced to the form and meaning of the selected words.

The words were collected to get cognate word triplets in terms of lexical form or meaning and translation equivalents. The triplets involved etymologically motivated orthographic similarities and were exact or very close translational equivalents in the three languages. Thus, the cognate category included borrowings, i.e. words that have recently entered into one language from another, but excluded such historical cognates whose meanings have diverged so much over time that they

came to be translational nonequivalent, such as L1>akcion; L> 2 акција /akcija/ and L3> action (see Appendix D).

Both bilingual groups were first asked to read a series of written words from L1 Albanian and L2 Macedonian as quickly as possible. Then, they were told to translate those words for which they had fifteen minutes time allowed for the entire task. Example of stimulus presentation can be seen below:

Albanian	Macedonian	English
Akcion	Акција	

The time allowed for the translation task was 15 minutes. The task was analyzed for the sets of cognates, the translation items that have form similarity and identical meanings (e.g. L1 > aktivitet; L2> активност /aktivnost/; L3> activity).

6.4.2 Results:

The vocabulary test provided useful empirical data concerning the role of formal resemblance in the access and retrieval of lexical items in the English lexicon. The index number of different response types are illustrated in Table 6.6.

Type of transfer	Low Bilinguals			High Bilinguals		
Cognates	L1 Alb.	L2 Mac	Mixed utterances	L1 Alb.	L2 Mac.	Mixed utterances
Number of transferred cognate words	53	7	11	35	18	7
Index of cognate transfer	1.10	0.14	0.22	0.52	0.26	0.10
Total number of Cognates	71			60		
Influence index	1.48			0.89		
Recognized cognates Percentage	10 8.9%			16 14.2%		
Non translated cognates Percentage	31 27.6%			14 12.5%		

Table 6.6: Quantitative overview of cognates

The quantitative results of cognates use are presented for both L1 Albanian and L2 Macedonian. The influence index is calculated according to the number of participants in each group of bilinguals. The data indicated that the L1 influence index in Low Bilinguals (LB) is 1.1, the L2 is 0.14 and the mixed utterance influence index in L3 written production is 0.22. On the bases of two-language selection L1 or L2, the results clearly point out to higher L1 influence on the L3 while L2 is dramatically lower for Low Bilinguals. The mixed utterance results display higher influence in comparison to L2.

When looking at the results in High Bilinguals (HB), it can be seen that the influence index of L1 is 0.52, L2 is 0.26 and the mixed language influence from both languages, is 0.14. These results indicate a higher influence from L1, but in comparison to the L2 and mixed utterance productions, the L2 influence is almost doubled ($L2 > 0.26$; $Mixed > 0.14$).

It must be noted that that the mixed utterances were basically with L2 influence, in the concluding remarks they will be considered as L2 influences. The results of the analysis also indicate the difference between two bilingual groups in respect to the amount of influence index pre group.

As regards to the different number of participants in Low Bilinguals (48) and High Bilinguals (67) or the approximate ratio of 4 to 6, the influence index in Low Bilinguals is 1.48 and in High Bilinguals is 0.89 or an approximate ratio of influence index 2:1. These results show a considerable difference between the two groups, indicating that High Bilinguals are in advanced position when learning cognate words.

Pursuing the analysis further to the cases of recognized deceptive cognates and non translated items, the results provide another evidence of the two bilingual groups' performance in L3. Considering that the general number of stimuli items was 112, the number of correctly provided items in Low Bilinguals was 8.9%, while in High Bilinguals was 14.2%. Adding the point of non-translated items, the results indicate 27.6% of non-translated items in Low Bilinguals and 12.5% in High

Bilinguals. These results also indicate that High Bilinguals are in an advanced position in comparison to Low Bilinguals.

6.4.3 Findings and discussions

The data obtained from this study were analyzed with specific focus on word recognition. Of major interest was the activation of the second language with a different alphabet and its influence in L3 production. They will be discussed with the view of the above models of lexical organization and explain the characteristics of each bilingual group. Three types have been given particular attention, the influence of the first, the influence of the second language and the influence of both languages in a segment word of the third language production.

- 1) The examples in the table 6.7 display a set of spelling correspondences between Albanian and English which were activated upon the L1 stimulus presentation.

<i>L1 Albanian</i>	<i>L3 English production</i>	<i>Correct English form</i>
Akcion	Akcion	Action
Akceptoj	Akcept	Accept
Xhus	Jus	Juice
Kafe	Kofi	Coffee
Karierë	Karier	Carrier
Klinikë	Klinic	Clinic
Adresë	Adres	Address

Table 6.7 Qualitative overview of transfer from L1 in L3 production

When analyzing the results following the Multilingual Interactive Activation model (MIA), the process of production is linked with orthographically similar letters resulting in different spelling competition during the written translation process. This situation suggests that a parallel activation of both Albanian and English spelling rules take place.

- 2) Table 6.8 presents the results that show the spelling correspondences between L2- Macedonian and English.

<i>L1 Standard Albanian</i>	<i>L2 Macedonian</i>	L2 influence in Albanian	L3 English production with L2 influence	Correct English form
çokolatë	чоколада /chokollada/	çokollada	cokolada	chocoloate
frigorifer	фрижидер /frizhider/	frizhider	fridgider	refrigerator
media	медиум /medium/	medium	medium	media

Table 6.8 Qualitative overview of transfer from L2 in L3 production:

In the second type the written production segment in L3 was derived from L2, that is a Macedonian word but with different written form corresponding to the English >L3. For instance, the L2 word *фрижидер* /frizhider/ ‘refrigerator’ was produced as *fridgider*. This evidence supports de Groot’s hypothesis that not only languages with the same alphabet can provide evidence that show parallel phonological activation, but activation of the languages that use different alphabet seems to be activated during the third language production.

- 3) Table 6.9 presents the results that show the influence of the first and second language as ‘competitors’ in the third language production.

<i>L1 Standard Albanian</i>	<i>L2 Macedonian</i>	L3 English production with L2 influence	Correct English for
akcion	акција /akcija/	akcija	action
integrim	интеграција /integracija/	integracion	integration
servim	сервира /servira/	serviron	serve
urgjente	ургентно /urgentno/	urgentation	urgent

Table 6.9 Qualitative overview of transfer from both L1 and L2 in L3 production

The third type of L3 productions resulted with L1 and L2 influences in a word L3 segment, for example, the word segment of English production *urgentation* is assumed to be produced in the following way:

the root of L1 “ur” + the infix from L2 “gent” + the English suffix “ation”= *urgentation*

Such word production can also be explained by the common root “ur” in all three languages, but assuming that the first stimuli word was in L1 Albanian “ur” is considered to be from the first language. Next, assuming that the the infix “gent” results from Macedonian word, and when counting the number of letters in the word it, shows more letters coming via L2, the word production is than considered to as L2 influence. For this reason in the calculating of the final results of the study they will be counted as L2 influence.

This finding suggests that the English word production gave rise to parallel language activation in all three languages and in readiness to compete. In other words, language’s spelling-to- grapheme conversion of produced written L3 words is language non-selective.

6.4.4 Conclusion

The results obtained with translation equivalents task claim that trilinguals can operate with three languages during the process of learning. Considering the lexical representations that share orthographic information with a stimulus, all languages can also be simultaneously activated independently of which language they belong to.

On the basis of Dijkstra (2003) and his Multilingual Interactive Activation model MIA model consisting of three representation levels: letter, word and language, the results of this analysis suggest that all nodes at a given representational level can be interconnected between three languages. During the process of learning, cases of such interconnections can be found in the L3 utterance production, as shown in the following example with the word URGENTATION:

<i>Language nodes:</i>	Albanian	Macedonian	English
<i>Activated word nodes:</i>	urgjente	ypreHTHO / urgentno /	urgent
<i>Activated letter nodes:</i>	U R G E N T A T I O N		

From the results obtained in this analysis, it can be suggested that the cases when the lexical representations from three languages are presented can be referred to the Multilingual Interactive Activation Model (MIA) although it is suggested as a theoretical framework rather than as a specific model.

To summarize, this analysis focuses on the situation when two bilingual groups with different L2 knowledge choose the one, or both languages he or she thinks might be the correct ones in the production of the L3. This analysis has implications for the cross-linguistic influence in L3 production because of the associations between different word resemblances in three languages.

6.5 Analysis of Deceptive or False Cognates

In the previous analysis, I discussed the effect of cognates in the three languages involved in this study on translation performance, comparing and contrasting the bilingual groups of students learning English. This analysis was to examine the nature of deceptive cognates or false friends, that is, words, which have the same, or similar orthographic form, but different or only partly similar, meaning.

Deceptive cognates are not exceedingly common in Albanian-Macedonian-English but in some contexts, they represent a true learning problem as they become rather frequent. These words are sometimes a source of confusion, since in some cases language learners judge them as being identical. For example, the Albanian and Macedonian word ‘film’ for the English word ‘movie’. In some other cases the second language can be a source of transfer e.g. L1> *depo*; L2> *магаџин* /magacin/ for the L3 word ‘store’ (see appendix D).

The present analysis considers deceptive cognates as a psycholinguistic learning problem that requires special consideration in the language learning classroom. So, deceptive cognates are not analyzed with regard to any historical perspective, their diachronic background, or their evolution through time, but are simply treated as potential learning problems regardless of their origin.

The analysis adopted here is the analysis of false friends in the word recognition task by the two groups of bilingual learners of English. De Groot (2010:121) points out that in bilingual studies different versions of the word recognition tasks are used to assess one particular aspect of L2 vocabulary knowledge, namely the interconnection of a given word with other words in the learner’s L2 lexicon, which is often called “lexical access”. According to de Groot, the degree of co-activation depends on bilingual’s proficiency in the non-target language, and states:

“the stronger a similar form in this language is co-activated when a word in the target language is encountered, and, consequently, the stronger its influence on processing the target word.” (2010: 121)

In this view, de Groot suggests that because the foreign language is generally weaker than the native language, this means that the native language more often affects processing the foreign language and vice versa.

This analysis will be an attempt to test de Groot's (2010) suggestion for word recognition in bilingual mode which will be extended to trilingual mode focusing on the degree of co-activating false friend word from L1 and L2 in production of L3.

6.5.1 Methods

As for the cognate analysis, the productive word recognition analysis task was used to analyze transfer from the L1 and the L2 to the L3. For the purpose of this analysis, I also used dictionaries of language pairs: Albanian – Macedonian; Albanian – English; Macedonian- English in order to identify words that share the same phonological representation with a possible difference in orthography, but that have totally unrelated conceptual features.

From these dictionaries, I collected 94 stimuli words which are relatively frequent in their use. The test contained deceptive cognates from L1 Albanian and L2 Macedonian and the students had to translate them into English, for example:

Ideor	идеен /ideen/	
-------	---------------	--

The word *ideor* in Albanian, идеен /ideen/ in Macedonian, in English means 'conceptual'.

Stimuli and design:

Each group of participants was presented with the test, which contained the 94 deceptive cognates and was asked to translate the stimuli words into the target L3 English language. The time allowed for the translation task was 15 minutes. The deceptive cognate test was designed to explore the relationships between Albanian-Macedonian and English.

6.5.2 Results:

The word recognition test provided me with useful empirical data concerning the similarity in form, i.e. grapho-phonemic similarity. The quantitative analysis shows the number of deceptive cognates with influence from L1 and L2, the number of recognized deceptive cognates and the number of words left without translation.

	Low Bilinguals		High Bilinguals	
Type of transfer	L1 Albanian	L2 Macedonian	L1 Albanian	L2 Macedonian
Deceptive cognates Influence index	43 0.90	8 0.17	31 0.46	19 0.28
Total number Influence index	51 1.06		50 0.75	
Recognized items Percentage	13 13.8%		15 15.9%	
Non translated items Percentage	30 31.9%		29 30.%	

Table 6.10 Quantitative overview of deceptive cognates

The results of the word recognition test provide evidence of understanding the deceptive cognates and the influence of L1 or L2 in the process of L3 acquisition. The strength of the source of influence from L1 and L2 differs widely in the two bilingual groups. However, the general results indicate that the L3 production involves primarily influence from L1.

In Low Bilinguals, subjects reported to rely more on their L1 (ii >0.90) which is a very high rate in comparison to the L2 (ii >0.17). The influence index of both languages states 1.06.

In High Bilinguals, the subjects reported lower influence of L1 (0.46) in comparison to Low Bilinguals (0.90), but higher influence of L2 (0.28) in comparison to Low bilinguals (0.17). Concerning their levels of control and attention, the results showed that due to the time limit they did not pay as much attention and the results showed higher influence from their L1.

Considering the different ratio between two bilingual (4:6), Low Bilinguals' influence index is 1.06 and High Bilinguals influence index is 0.75 which shows an approximate ratio of 1 to 1. These results show that both groups seem to have difficulties in recognizing words, although High bilinguals were slightly better in this task, showing again an advantage in comparison to the Low Bilinguals.

Pursuing the analysis further to the cases of recognized deceptive cognates and non translated items, the results provide another evidence of the two bilingual groups' performance during L3 acquisition. Considering that the general number of stimuli items was 94, the number of correctly provided items in Low Bilinguals was 13, 8%, while in High Bilinguals was 15.9%. Adding the point of non-translated items, the results indicate 31.9% of non-translated items in Low Bilinguals and 30.8% in High Bilinguals.

In the deceptive cognate category, the High Bilinguals obtained slightly better results in tasks related to word awareness as they translated more items. These results indicate that High Bilinguals are in a higher position in comparison to Low Bilinguals, but in a less pronounced advantage.

6.5.3 Findings and discussions

The obtained results give rise to the assumption that understanding deceptive cognates remains a great challenge for Albanian bilingual learners. The students were shown to rely on similarities in form, i.e. on grapho-phonemic similarities, thus producing different meanings in English. This resemblance in form is accompanied by either partial correlation in meaning or by the absence of any direct semantic correspondence. For example, a word with partial overlap in meaning, in L1> billion; L2> *бillion* /billion/; was produced as *billion* instead of 'trillion' in English. The absence of direct semantic correlation was found in many false cognates such as L1> *temë*; L2> *тема* /tema/ which was produced as *tema* instead of 'topic' in English.

The table below shows some examples of deceptive cognates illustrating the combination of influences from both the L1 on L3 production.

<i>L1 Albanian</i>	<i>L3 English production</i>	<i>Correct English form</i>
Ansambël	<i>ansambel</i>	band
Autoportret	<i>autoportret</i>	self-portrait
bilion	<i>bilion</i>	trillion
evidencë	<i>evidenc</i>	record, file
ideor	<i>ideal</i>	conceptual
instruktor	<i>instructor</i>	private teacher, tutor
konkretisht	<i>concrelty</i>	in fact, actually
konkurence	<i>concurence</i>	competition
komplet	<i>complet</i>	set, kit
participim	<i>participation</i>	contribution
recept	<i>recept</i>	prescription
reklamoj	<i>reclame</i>	advertise
stipendion	<i>stippendion</i>	scholarship
temë	<i>tema</i>	topic, subject
menzë	<i>mensa</i>	canteen
trener	<i>trener</i>	coach
taksist	<i>taskist</i>	taxi driver
top	<i>top</i>	ball
semafor	<i>semafor</i>	traffic light
bibliotekë	<i>biblioteka</i>	library
library	<i>library</i>	bookshop
dramë	<i>drama</i>	play
buqet	<i>buket</i>	bouquet

Table 6.11 Qualitative overview of transfer from L1 in L3 production

The examples when students relied on their second language were also based on the similarity of form, for example the word L1> salon veturash; L2> автосалон /autosalon/ in English was translated as ‘autosalon’ instead of ‘car-show’.

<i>L1 Standard Albanian</i>	<i>L2 Macedonian</i>	<i>L2 influence in Albanian</i>	<i>L3 English production with L2 influence</i>	<i>Correct English form</i>
Salon veturash	автосалон	autosalon	<i>autosalon</i>	car-show
ndal një makinë të rastit	автостоп	autostop	<i>autostop</i>	hitchhiking
drejtori	дирекција	direktori	<i>directori</i>	head office
komision	комисија	komisija	<i>comisija</i>	committee
xhaketë	мантил	mantil	<i>mantil</i>	coat
sheqerkë	бонбони	bonbone	<i>bonbons</i>	candy
stërvitje	тренинг	trening	<i>trening</i>	practice
raft	регал	regal	<i>regal</i>	shelf
depo	magacin	magacin	<i>magacin</i>	warehouse
pulle postale	marka	marke	<i>marka</i>	stamp
aktor	artist	artist	<i>artist</i>	actor
argjend	srebro	srebro	<i>srebro</i>	silver

Table 6.12 Qualitative overview of transfer from L2 in L3 production

6.5.4 Conclusion

The findings of this analysis can be interpreted in the light of de Groot's (2010) hypothesis in the frame of bilingual mode, that is a foreign language is generally weaker than the native language than it often affects the processing which. When this hypothesis was tested in trilingual mode, the results indicate that:

- 1) the foreign language, and at the same time a third language of the learner, is weaker as a result of the learning process.
- 2) the native language exercises stronger influence in L3 production in both groups
- 3) the second language also affects the processing, but its effect is different in comparison to both bilingual groups.
 - a. L2 exercises stronger influence in High Bilinguals (0.28)
 - b. L2 exercises weaker influence in Low bilinguals (0.16)

These results indicate that the proficiency factor is a crucial in the L3 production, in particular the proficiency in L2 can be considered as an important factor in the role of the second language influence in L3 production.

6.6 Analysis of calques/ loan translations of multi-word units

The notion of loan translation refers to the literal translation of words from one language into another and has a variety of synonymous words such as ‘calque’. According to Haugen (1953: 459), it is a special kind of borrowing whereby a language learner transfers an item from one language to the other and translates each of its elements literally unaware that they belong to the other language.

The linguistic studies on bilingualism include discussions of loan translations and all theoretical works on language contact make use of the concept of ‘loan translation’ to describe certain transfer phenomena of previously learned languages in the production of the additionally learned language. Works on language contact use the term ‘loan translation’ to refer to systematic changes occurring in the structure of the impacted language. Linguistic studies on bilingual settings include discussions of loan translation, for example, in Weinreich (1953), Thomson-Kaufman (1988).

The concept of ‘loan translation’ is difficult to apply, however, in that it is hard to identify defining criteria for this construct and especially to distinguish it from ‘semantic extension’. Weinreich (1953) defined semantic extensions as contact-induced changes in the meaning of individual words. This definition seems workable in principle, since the locus of contact is squarely within the linguistic system, in this case within lexical semantics. But Weinreich then defined loan translations as an ‘unusual combinations of words’ (1974: 51), giving rise to uncertainty as to whether the combination was unusual for cultural or linguistic reasons. Similar difficulties attend definitions of loan translations as ‘word-for-word’ substitutions or ‘literal translations’. Generally, the question must be raised whether it makes sense to think that there can be such a thing as word- for word substitution. Presumably, a word- for –word substitution would require the existence, prior to contact, of words in the impacted language that are ‘direct counterparts’ in another (Culler 1976).

If the vocabularies of languages provide perfectly equivalent cross linguistic pairs for word-for-word substitution purposes, then speakers of contact varieties would show no effort to make meanings more congruent, for the simple reason that

they would already be so. An example for this is the word ‘skytoucher’, a compound that has been substituted for the English word ‘skyscraper’, which is literally translated from L1 Albanian ‘rokaqiell’. Or from the L2 Macedonian ‘cok’ /sok/, a word that has been substituted for the English word ‘juice’.

This analysis explores the nature of calques in third language production when translating from the L1 to the L3.

6.6.1 Methods

The third part of the data collection involved a text translation task. A text in the students’ native language Albanian was designed and participants were asked to translate it into the target L3 English. The translation was approximately 200 words long. The time allowed for the translation task was 30 minutes. Due to the short time given for the task, I suspected the outcome of the translated texts might vary a great deal from student to student, as some would require more time to think about the storyline than others. Previous research has also shown that translation tasks tend to result in more cross-linguistic influence than tasks that call for free composition (Ringbom 1987).

This translation task is given to construct data from spontaneous productions, with little control and proofreading. The analysis of the English production was carried out with the help of a visiting lecturer, a native speaker of English, in order to guarantee correct apprehension of the calqued effect.

6.6.2 Results:

All calque items of lexical nature were noted and matched according to the definition of calque or loan translation. There were lexical inventions found, i.e. “lexemes which are morphologically adapted to the target language but which are never used by native speakers” (Dewaele 1998: 471). I ignored instances of incomprehensible English mistranslations of the students (e.g. grandmother coming through school). This task was not difficult for the students as translation tasks are often practiced as an in-class activity. However, it appeared to be difficult for me to

identify calques from the Albanian and the Macedonian languages, which caused me many dilemmas and much confusion. In such situations, I consulted a visiting American professor at the State University of Tetovo, Albanian and Macedonian language professors who confirmed some of my assumptions. The counts of calques or loan translation in English production which are basis of this analysis are displayed in Table 6.13.

	Low Bilinguals		High Bilinguals	
Type of transfer	L1 Albanian	L2 Macedonian	L1 Albanian	L2 Macedonian
Calques	49	6	42	8
Influence index	1.02	0.12	0.62	0.11
Total number	55		50	
Influence index	1.14		0.74	

Table 6.13 Quantitative overview of calques

The results obtained from the analysis make an interesting comparison about the influence of L1 and L2. The native language-L1 of both bilingual learners was ranked as a leading language in influencing L3 production. The influence index (ii) of L1 in Low Bilinguals resulted in 1.02, while in High Bilinguals it appeared to be 0.62. In contrast, L2 influence was found to be very weak in both bilingual groups resulting in slight deference, Low bilinguals' L2 ii> 0.12, while High Bilinguals' L2 ii > 0.11.

The results display another interesting finding in regard to the proportion of two bilingual groups (6:4). The influence index in Low Bilinguals is 1.14 while in High Bilinguals is 0.74, indicationg an aproximate ratio 2 to 1. In this view, the differences are more pronounced and show that High Bilinguals transferred fewer items in L3 production.

6.6.3 Findings and discussions

To illustrate the quantitative results, a selection of interlingual transfer of calques in bilingual Albanian learners' written English is presented in the following tables.

<i>L1 Albanian</i>	<i>L3 English production</i>	<i>Correct English form</i>
<i>Ndaj një dhomë</i>	<i>I live together with X in a room</i>	share a room
<i>ftohem</i>	<i>get cold</i>	catch a cold
<i>thërras me telefon</i>	<i>call with a telephone</i>	make a (phone) call
<i>jap propozim</i>	<i>give a proposal</i>	make a proposal
<i>zë vend</i>	<i>reserve place</i>	take a seat
<i>dëgjoj mësim</i>	<i>listen to the lessons</i>	take lessons
<i>bëj fotografi</i>	<i>make pictures</i>	take pictures

Table 6.14 Qualitative overview of transfer from L1 to L3 production

Some examples found in the analysis:

(1) L1> me kërkesë të; L3> 'at the request of' E.g.:

L1: Shkova në konsultime me kërkesë të profesorit

L3: *I went to consultations with the requirement of the professor*

L3: I went to the office hours at the request of the teacher.

(2) L1> nga larg; L3> 'at a distance' E.g.:

L1: Fotografia dukej më bukur nga larg.

L3: *The picture looked more beautiful from far.*

L3: The picture looked more beautiful at a distance.

(3) L1> nga sa shihet; L3> ‘as things go E.g.:

L1: Nga sa shihet, duhet te mesojme me shume.

L3: From what is seen we have to learn much more

L3: As things go we have to learn much more.

(4) L1> sa më shpejtë; L3> ‘as soon as possible’ E.g.:

L1: Dëshitoj të shkoj në Angli sa më shpejtë

L3: I want to go to England as fast.

L3: I would like to go to England as soon as possible.

(5) L1> me çdo kusht; L3> ‘at all costs’ E.g.:

L1: Unë duhet ta mësoj anglishten me çdo kusht.

L3: I should learn English with every condition.

L3: I should learn English at all costs.

(6) L1> merr fund; L3> ‘all over E.g.:

L1: Puna jonë mori fund.

L3: Our job took the finish.

L3: Our job is done.

(6) L1> qortoi; L3> ‘call down E.g.:

L1: Mësuesi e qortoi.

L3: The teacher said cruel words to him.

L3: The teacher put him down.

(7) L1> drejt për drejt; L3> ‘first hand’ E.g.:

L1: I morra lajmet drejt për drejt, prandaj u paraqita.

L3: I got the news directly and I applied

L3: I got the news first hand and I applied.

All the above examples of calque are typical examples of surface translation.

<i>L1 Standard Albanian</i>	<i>L2 Macedonian</i>	L2 influence in Albanian	<i>L3 English production with L2 influence</i>	<i>Correct English form</i>
<i>ky konstatim eshte i paqendrueshem</i>	<i>Ова констатација не држи</i> /Ova konstatacija ne drzhi/	ky konstatim nuk mban	This conclusion doesn't hold	unsustainable conclusion
<i>mesnate</i>	<i>полноќ</i> /polnok/	gjysmenate	halfnight	midnight
<i>me pak ze</i>	<i>Со полаглас</i> /so polaglas/	me gjysme ze	with half voice	low voice
<i>i pashtepi</i>	<i>бездомник</i> /bezdomnik/	pashtepiak	people without home	homeless
<i>shfaqje terheqese</i>	<i>атракција</i> /atrakcija/	atrakci	atrakcion	capture
<i>zyre</i>	<i>биро</i> /biro/	biro	biro	bureau
<i>veture</i>	<i>автомобил</i> /avtomobil/	automobile	automobile	car
<i>mantel</i>	<i>мантил</i> /mantil/	mantil	mantil	coat

Table 6.15 Qualitative overview of transfer from L2 to L3 production

Some examples found in the analysis:

(1) L1> 'me pak ze'; L2> со полаглас so polaglas L3> 'low voice' E.g.:

L1: 'I pershendeta me gjysme ze'.

L2: 'Ја поздравив со полаглас' /Ja pozdraviv so polaglas/

L3: *I greeted her with half voice.*

L3: I greeted her with low voice.

(2) L1> 'nuk mban'; L2> ne drzhi; L3> 'unsustainable' E.g.:

L1: 'Ky konstatim nuk mban'

L2: 'Ова констатација не држи' /Ova konstatacija ne drzhi/

L3: This conclusion is unsustainable.

All the above examples of calque are examples of translation from the second language. To use the classic diagram, the students used the L2 unconsciously and went over the L1 standard Albanian as a result of contact phenomena, the L2 item has found its way into L1 spoken Albanian, schematized thus:

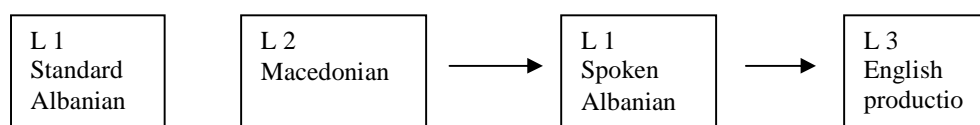


Figure 6.2 The operation of L2 transfer in L3 production

As shown in the above figure the influence of the second language is indirect, as it had previously influenced the first language, so that no direct influences from the second language were found.

These results show that calques are used when the search for a lexical item in the L3 activates a compound, phrasal verb or an idiom in the L1 or L2. It is used unconsciously by the learners and they are not at all aware that they belong to another language. This evidence supports Haugen's theory (1953:459) that when calques are used the "learners may not be conscious of it, unaware that they belong to the other language."

6.6.4 Conclusion

This analysis has presented the results of the nature of calques in third language production when translating from the L1 to the L3. Based on the results obtained from the data analysis it can be suggested that most calques are used due to a lack of knowledge of the English language. The learners seem to imitate the construction of their L1 and L2 so the English production resembles the construction of the previously learned languages

In this study, both groups seemed to make more use of their native Albanian language and less of their L2. The production in the translated text was quite complex and difficult to understand.

During the analysis it was interesting to have access to characteristics of the learners' L1 and L2 in long segments of words in a sentence. The lexical calques occurred when a form, which is specific to the L1 or L2, is used. Some calques did indeed influence the participants' control over their third language production negatively, so that production was less accurate and did not have any meaning in English.

The learners with high L2 proficiency were able to control their production in the L3 better and to minimize CLI. The overall performance of the participants in their additional language was very similar in indicating that the effects of translating word for word from L1 or L2 seem to have had the same influence on control and the participants were less able to prevent CLI.

The work presented here is essentially an analysis of the calque effect on third language production. The analysis of calques by bilingual learners of English is of interest at several different levels:

1. it highlights contrasting features in the three languages;
2. it throws light on how students translate during the learning process;
3. it shows the nature of students' competence in either language

The calque approach is seen as helpful at this level of English learning since calques basically allow communicating much of the intended meaning. Calquing, or loan translation, in general fulfills the communicative needs of the learner.

These results show that at early stages of L3 learning, students try to identify the meaning of words in English by translating from their L1 and L2. Since learning is a gradual process which takes quite some time, using loan translations might help the learners to arrive at the exact English words as their proficiency improves.

6.7 Analysis of semantic extensions of single lexical units

Traditionally, semantic loans have been classified together with calques as both types involve replacement of foreign forms (e.g., by Haugen (1950: 215)). The term 'loanshift' may also refer to both semantic loans and calques and "[...]is applied to cases in which the meaning of a morpheme in language A is modified or

changed on the model of language B” (Lehiste 1988: 20). According to Hock (1991: 398), semantic extensions is “[...] a shift in meaning of an established native word, so as to accommodate the meaning of a foreign word. That is, a foreign concept is borrowed without its corresponding linguistic form and without the introduction of a new word into the borrowing language.” In terms of language learning, this means that bilingual learners would directly associate a word from their first or second language with a word of the third language, without being aware that although the word is meaningful another term is used.

Semantic extensions consist of “the extension of the use of an indigenous word of the influenced language in conformity with a foreign model” (Weinreich 1953: 48).

Another definition for semantic extensions is given by Haugen (1956, 1969) who states that semantic extensions either consist of a word in a base language the meaning of which is extended to correspond to that of a word in another language or involve rearranging words in the base language along a pattern provided by another language thereby creating a new meaning as well. Haugen cites Portuguese *grosseria* ‘rude mark’ which under American influence extended its meaning to ‘grocery’. When the foreign model and the native substitute are as semantically remote from each other as in this example, one is tempted to think of this type of semantic extension as a ‘loan mistranslation’.

In either case the influence from the other language is purely semantic and not phonetic, in other words the influence is based on the meaning and not on the form of a word. The question of why a bilingual chooses a semantic extension over a loan translation is a complex one. Grosjean (1982:317) points out that semantic extension single lexical unit may be used instead of loan translations if a community has a policy of language purity. Borrowing a word outright from the other language may be frowned upon, even by other bilinguals, so that a bilingual rather changes the base language to express a concept which the base language does not have.

A great number of words are similar in form in the three languages Albanian, Macedonian and English and might be part of a more general repertoire of everyday vocabulary, as Roldan (1999: 33) points out: “their meanings may have been

expanded (by metonymy or metaphor) or may be highlighting a specific sense derived from a common semantic core (by polisemy). (...) A linguistic term exists because of culture-based and conventionalized background knowledge”. The semantic extension of words from previously learnt languages can be accounted for in terms of the cognitive processes of metaphorical and metonymic association, following Lakoff and Johnson (1980). The extension of a word’s meaning on the basis of similarity is known as metonymic extension, for example, in Albanian the word *gjuhë* is used for both ‘language’ and ‘tongue’, or, the Macedonian *прашалник* /prashalnik/ is used for both ‘questionnaire’ and ‘question mark’.

As is common in language contact situations, many L2 Macedonian words have made their way into the vocabulary of the Albanian language for various reasons, and as such they are also found in L3 production.

6.7.1 Methods

The instruments used for the investigation were the written compositions produced by the subjects of the study. The learners had to write a letter to a prospective English host-family, where they introduced themselves and talked about their family, their studies, their home town, their hobbies and interests and any other aspect of their life and liking which they deemed interesting for the receiving family to know. This theme was also selected, because it did not impose any constraints on the type of language, vocabulary and grammatical structures expected, and it left freedom to the learners to use their imagination and employ a wide range and variety of words and structures. The students had 30 minutes to complete the task and no limitation was imposed on them as regarded their writing but for the topic given in the instructions. Thus, the free character of the task allowed students to deploy as much linguistic knowledge in English as possible.

With this topic, it was guaranteed that subjects would have something to write about, and differences in the resulting essays caused by different levels of subject knowledge were ruled out. The resulting essays vary in length, content, linguistic structures, and lexical items, but all responded to the instructions. Instructions were given in the student’s native language Albanian, and English.

6.7.2 Results

The compositions were read twice and instances of semantic extensions were identified. Once the semantic extensions were identified, registered, and quantified, a linguistic description was attempted to reveal the basic underlying nature of the semantic extensions. Two main structural patterns were distinguished: influence from L1 Albanian and L2 Macedonian.

	Low Bilinguals		High Bilinguals	
Type of transfer	L1 Albanian	L2 Macedonian	L1 Albanian	L2 Macedonian
Semantic extensions	26	4	23	9
Influence index	0.54	0.08	0.34	0.13
Total number	30		32	
Influence index	0.62		0.47	

Table 6.16 Quantitative results of semantic extensions

The results obtained from this analysis display a significant difference between the L1 and L2 influence in L3 production. The L3 production resulted almost from L1 (Low Bilinguals $ii > 0.54$; High Bilinguals $ii > 0.34$) and rarely from L2 (Low Bilinguals $ii > 0.08$; High Bilinguals $ii > 0.13$).

When adding the proportion between the two groups (4:6), the results display another difference. This difference can be explained by the fact that the influence index in High Bilinguals is 0.47 and in Low Bilinguals is 0.62, indicating a slight difference between the two groups, but better results for High Bilinguals.

6.7.3 Findings and discussions

The analysis of the data revealed that, in fact, there was a difference between the language groups in the production of semantic extensions. The High Bilinguals produced fewer semantic extensions than the Low Bilinguals when performing the same task. These results are confirmed by the number of words between every lexical transfer of semantic extensions.

A number of words in my corpus have been used in novel ways by the bilingual Albanian students. Each of these words has some meaning in English but it is extended to include another meaning in the English language. Some of them are Albanian and Macedonian words transferred to English, with different meanings such as the word ‘gjuhë’ (L1.Alb. *gjuhë* = Eng. both *tongue* and *language*) or the English word *time* for ‘tense’ (L1.Alb. *kohë* = Eng. Both *time* and *tense*). Below is a list of semantic loans found in this analysis.

<i>L1 Albanian</i>	<i>L3 English production</i>	<i>Correct English form</i>
gjuhë	language	tongue
jap	give	pass
drejtohem	to direct	to address
kohë	time	tense
qëndroj	stay	stand

Table 6.17 Qualitative overview of transfer from L1 in L3 production

Some examples found in the analysis:

(1) L1> jap; L3> ‘give’ E.g.:

L1: Rezultatet do të jepen ne kompjuter.

L3: *The results will be given in the computer.*

L3: The results will be entered into the computer.

(2) L1> ‘shkuan’; L3> ‘left’

L1: Shoket shkuan nga qendra shume te gezuar

L3: *The friends went the center very happy.*

L3: The friends left the center very happy.

(3) L1> ‘kuptoj’, L3> ‘realize’

L1: E kuptoj qe nuk do te gjej atmosfere te ngrohte

L3: *I understood that I will not find a warm atmosphere.*

L3: I realized that I will not find a warm atmosphere.

(4) L1> ‘turme komunikacioni’, L3> ‘traffic jam’

L1: Ishte nje turme e madhe komunikacioni.

L2: There was a huge traffic crowd.

L3: There was a huge traffic jam.

L1 Standard Albanian	L2 Macedonian	L2 influence in Albanian	L3 English production with L2 influence	Correct English form
<i>veshje solemne</i>	<i>smoking</i>	smoking	<i>smoking</i>	dinner jacket
<i>ankesë</i>	<i>reklamacija</i>	reklamacion	<i>reklama</i>	complaint
<i>mbajtës rekordesh</i>	<i>rekorder</i>	rekorder	<i>recorder</i>	record- holder someone who scores high points
<i>pyetësor</i>	<i>anketa</i>	anketa	<i>anceta</i>	questionnaire

Table 6.18 Qualitative overview of transfer from L2 in L3 production

(1) L1> *ankesë*, L2> *рекламација* /*reklamacija*/; L3> ‘complaint’

L1: Shkova ne butik qe të bej reklamacion te mangësisë në bluzë.

L2: Отидов во бутик да го рекламирам дефектот во блузата.

/Otidov vo butik da go reklamiram defektot vo bluzata/

L3: *I went to the boutique to reclaim the defect in the blouse.*

L3: I went to the boutique to complain because of the defect in the blouse.

(2) L1> ‘mbajtës rekordesh’, L2> ‘рекордер’(rekorder); L3> ‘record holder’

L1: Ai është një rekorder i vërtetë

L2: Тој е вистински рекордер.

/Toj e vistinski rekorder/

L3: *He is a real recorder*

L3: He is a real record-holder.

This analysis shows that L3 learners develop and create new creative tools if they need to use an English word unknown to them. In most of the examples, the students use plenty of L1 and L2 words that have no other words associated with the things in L3, such as, *kohë* which is in L1 Albanian used for both ‘time’ and ‘tense’ or *orë* for ‘clock’ and ‘watch’. The L1 word is connected to the meaning of the word in L3, but it is not the proper word that is used in the English language. For example when referring to time as a grammatical concept, the English language uses the word ‘tense’. The production of the semantic extension in this example is a result of the Albanian language word *kohë*, which refers to both ‘time’ and ‘tense’. With reference to Roldan’s (1999: 33) view to semantic extensions: “Their meanings may have been expanded (by metonymy or metaphor) or may be highlighting a specific sense derived from a common semantic core (by polisemy)”. When the meaning of the word is extended, this is done on the basis of some kind of relationship between the meaning of the word in the L1 or L2 and the new word in the L3.

6.7.4 Conclusion

The general situation involved in semantic extension as observed in the study is shown in the figure below:

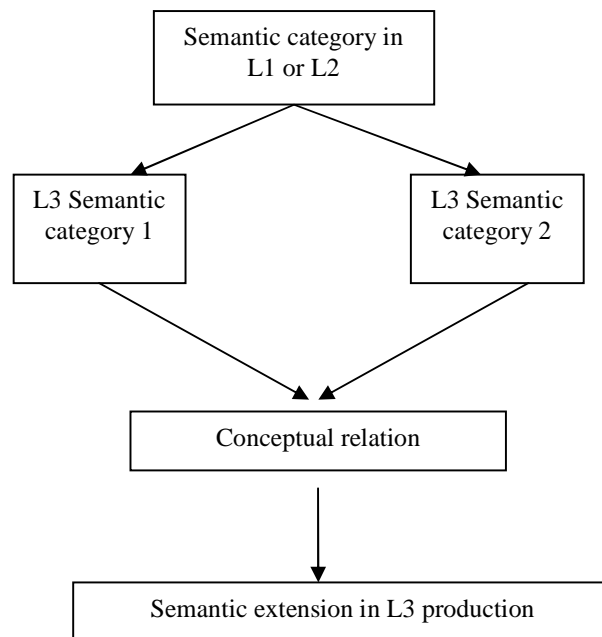


Figure 6.3: Semantic extension in L3 production derived from the analysis

This figure shows the way an L3 learner uses semantic extension in L3 production. The model implies that the learners are familiar with the meaning of the L3 word but are not sure about their semantic category, so that according to the learners' conceptual relations they decide to use the one that is more familiar to them. The discussion so far makes it seem that L3 learners at this level of learning extend the meanings of words unconsciously on the basis of generalization. The extension of 'time' seems reasonable because the meanings are closely related. For all of the properties that characterize time there is only one word used in Albanian, including the grammar meaning 'tense', while in English there is a distinction made between the properties that characterize time as such and grammatical time - 'time' and 'tense' respectively.

A similar process occurs when a word is borrowed from L2 Macedonian, in the sense that the word may be generalized because the bilingual learners operate on

the basis of similarity between their two previously learnt languages. The use of L2 semantic extensions in L3 production is interesting because the bilingual learners assume possible similarity between mechanism of language change and the mechanisms of language learning. The L2 semantic extensions are also used because in the bilingual learners' competence there may be semantic categories that the learners have no words for in their L1. For example: L1> *mbajtës rekordesh*, L2> *pekopdëp* /rekorder/; L3> *record holder*, which can be considered to constitute a lexical gap. The L2 semantic extensions are the result of changes in the Albanian language due to language contact. The similarity implies that the learners might be able to understand language change as a process of learning taking place in the mind of different L2 users.

The examples show that the learners are creative in L3 production making use of their language learning experience, in which meanings of words can be extended based on generalization or metonymy (based on close association). Each of the bilingual groups used semantic extensions for the words in L3 that was basically closely associated.

Finally, the use of semantic extensions in third language production shows that learning can be simpler because of a set of possibilities to use words in a meaningful way. That the store of words are expected to vary among the learners in each group as their level of English progresses.

6.8 Summary of results and conclusion

The results described in this study have evolved through five aspects of third language acquisition: code switching, the use of cognates, the understanding of deceptive cognates, the occurrence of calques or loan translation of multiword units, and the use semantic extensions of single lexical units by the learners. Generally, the results are presented through two groups of third language learners: Low Bilinguals (LB) consisting of 48 participants and High Bilinguals consisting of 67 participants (with a ratio of 4:6). Considering the different number of participants in the two bilingual groups the results were calculated by the transfer items from each language (L1 and L2), and then they were divided by the total number of the participants

in each group resulting in an influence index for each category of the analysis. For example, the formula below shows that weights of the form:

$$\text{Influence index} = \frac{\text{transfer items}}{\text{students' number}}$$

The results of the analysis are very dependent upon the influence index per group. Table 6.17 shows the results of two bilingual groups, and gives an overview of all types of transfer including the influence index across the groups.

		Low Bilinguals		High Bilinguals	
No.	Type of transfer Influence index	L1 Albanian	L2 Macedonian	L1 Albanian	L2 Macedonian
A	Code switching	0.39	0.19	0.21	0.24
B	Cognates	1.10	0.37	0.52	0.37
C	Deceptive cognates	0.90	0.17	0.46	0.28
D	Calques	1.02	0.12	0.62	0.11
E	Semantic extensions	0.54	0.08	0.34	0.14
	Total number of L1 and L2 transfer	3.95	0.93	2.10	1.20
Total transfer instances per group		4.89 transfer items in L3 production		3.31 transfer items in L3 production	

Table 6.19 Quantitative results of cross-linguistic influences in English production

Given the general results of the study, each transfer will be explained by following the influence index (ii) from L1 and L2, including the difference between two bilingual groups.

A. In the first row, results are shown for the **code switching** category. The analysis

of two bilingual groups shed light on the aspect of speaking process and the role of background languages in L3 production. The division between background languages indicates two different ways in which L1 and L2 influence the production

of the third language. Low bilinguals relied significantly more in their L1 indicating an influence index of 0.39 which dominates the L2 influence whose index is 0.19. In contrast, in High Bilinguals the background languages appeared to be “competitive” with one another indicating slight difference between two languages, the influence index in L1 is 0.21; while in L2 is 0.24 where L2 overrides the L1.

These results were expected, because in speaking High Bilinguals often switched from L2 to L1 or mixed codes in L3 production. This could be explained by the L2 socio and psycholinguistic status in the group of High Bilinguals, where the L2 is used as a resource in L3 production, consciously or in some cases unconsciously. This clearly seemed to be the case in L3 English production when the High Bilinguals transferred from their L2.

On the whole, this analysis confirms previous findings of L3 research in cross-linguistic effects in word production: learners frequently make use of their L2, if their L2 proficiency is high, whereas the finding of Low bilinguals goes in accordance with Ringbom’s (2001:60) theory that lexical transfer from L2 can be found in learners who have a limited proficiency in L2.

B. In the second row, results are shown for the **cognate** category. The focus of this analysis was the recognition of word similarities in three languages. A particular interest was drawn on the influence of the second language of bilingual learners because of the dissimilar orthographically represented cognates, but with similar phonology.

Based on the results gained from the task, Low Bilinguals rely significantly more on their first language indicating an influence index of 1.10, while L2 appears to be a source of influence with dramatically lower influence index of 0.37. Considering that their L2 proficiency is low and the written system is not very familiar to Low Bilinguals, it is assumed that the phonemic information or the word-level prosody of the L2 is enough to influence the L3 production.

By contrast, High Bilinguals background knowledge appeared to be again competitive, but in less pronounced way than in the code-switching category differentiating in more reliance to their L1. The influence index in L1 is 0.52, which

indicates a significant difference between Low Bilinguals ($ii > 1.10$), while the influence index of L2 displays and equal influence with Low Bilinguals ($ii > 0.37$).

The results of word recognition task in cognate category, suggest that all languages can be activated in and ready to 'compete'. The learners seem to be aware of the word similarities between the three languages, but they show uncertainty in written production, i.e. in language spelling-to-grapheme L3 production.

C. In the third row, results are shown for the **deceptive cognate** category.

The evidence collected in this analysis clearly points out the interaction of three languages in word recognition i.e. meaning overlap in pairs of cognates. The results of this analysis revealed further differences between two bilingual groups. Low Bilinguals show statistically significant difference between L1 ($ii > 0.90$) and L2 ($ii > 0.17$) indicating that L1 influence was very strong in Low Bilinguals and L2 considerably weak. On the other hand, High bilinguals also relied more in their first language ($ii > 0.46$), but in comparison to Low Bilinguals ($ii > 0.90$), it is in less pronounced manner, while the L2 resulted to be stronger in High Bilinguals ($ii > 0.28$), than in Low Bilinguals ($ii > 0.17$). These results can be explained by the factor of typological similarity, proficiency and recency of use.

In the deceptive cognate category, the High Bilinguals have shown not to have clear problems. Although the learners were aware that something was inappropriate, too easy, or too much alike, they used the deceptive cognates anyway instead of checking the words, although time and situation would allow. These results suggest that transfer was motivated by the tendency to use the most familiar word that came to their mind as an unconscious and uncontrolled means of producing an L3 word. It was clear that in such situations these words can be considered difficult to learn.

D. In the fourth row, results are shown for the **calque** category. The results which have been elaborated for the influence of L1 and L2 in a text translation task indicate that L1 appears to be again in the leading position of influencing L3 production. The influence index in Low Bilinguals is 1.02; while in High Bilinguals

it is 0.62. In contrast to this result, L2 influence is extremely weak. Low Bilinguals influence index resulted in 0.12, while High Bilinguals' influence index was slightly higher ($ii > 0.11$). This can be explained by the fact that the influence of L2 did not happen directly, but it affected the production through L1, thus the students seem to use the colloquial L1 instead of the standard L1 language.

The calquing approach was seen as helpful for the High Bilinguals. In the text translation task demanding a high level of metalinguistic awareness they showed superior control in some cases compared to the Low Bilinguals.

E. In the fifth row, the results for **semantic extension** are shown. The results of semantic extension analysis are similar to the one of calques. Most of the influence originate from L1 (Low Bilinguals $ii > 0.54$; High Bilinguals $ii > 0.34$) and hardly from L2 (Low Bilinguals $ii > 0.08$; High Bilinguals $ii > 0.13$). Again, as in the the calque category, the L2 did not have a direct role in L3 production.

There was little in the present results to suggest that the Low Bilinguals rely on a translation strategy. If the Low Bilinguals do not access L3 concepts via the L1 lexicon, we need to consider how they access L2 concepts when forced to use semantic information to perform a production task. One possibility is that the Low Bilinguals use the lexical form, where available, to bypass concept mediation. Because the materials used in the analysis included cognate words in English and Albanian or Macedonian, i.e., words that share aspects of lexical form and meaning, Low Bilinguals represents a mixture of trials on which they lexically mediated L2. For example, when presented with the word *магаџин* /magacin/, the Low Bilinguals can take advantage of the fact that *магаџин* is a warehouse in L2 Macedonian, thus bypassing the necessity to use the L1 word 'depo' for the L3 meaning.

There is also evidence in the analysis suggesting that the Low Bilinguals are particularly sensitive to the presence of cognates. The activation of the cognate's lexical form in the L1 would also constitute lexical mediation, but there would be little processing cost involved, because the subject would proceed as if the target was an L1 word. Thus, the Low Bilinguals' performance on the cognate targets

would appear to be conceptually mediated because many of the target words would be functionally equivalent in the L1.

6.8.1 Summary of research results

Given the evidences gained from this study, i.e. the influence index of L1 and L2 across the groups and the metalinguistic awareness will be discussed.

When the data were examined for differences between the influence of L1 and L2, certain variations emerged. First, the results reported in this study, suggest that the L1 has a strong influence in L3 production in both bilingual groups. However, it is significantly stronger in Low Bilinguals ($ii > 3.95$) in comparison to High Bilinguals ($ii > 2.10$). Next, the L2 influence in Low Bilinguals ($ii > 0.93$) differs considerably from that of the High Bilinguals ($ii > 1.20$) which means that the High Bilinguals relied more on their L2 in comparison to Low Bilinguals.

As regards to the general results of the differences between Low and High Bilinguals, the discussion will consider the number of participants in Low Bilinguals (48) and High Bilinguals (67) or the approximate ratio of 4 to 6. According to this ratio, the quantitative results imply a considerable difference of influence index from L1 and L2. The general influence index in Low Bilinguals is 4.89 and in High Bilinguals 3.31, which show an approximate ratio of 5 to 3, indicating that indicate that the Low Bilinguals were slower and produced more transfer items within the cross-linguistic categorization. High Bilinguals show a consistent advantage over Low Bilinguals in all tasks in that they were faster to recognize L3 targets, and showed higher metalinguistic awareness.

These results indicate the complexity of third language acquisition by bilingual Albanian students which can be explained by the different factors affecting third language production. Starting with the learner-based variables, both socio and psycholinguistic factors appear to be influential in third language production.

1. *Sociolinguistic status.* – L2 Macedonian is a dominant language in Macedonia, in the western Macedonia this language is used mostly in administrative domain therefore the exposure to it is not very frequent. Low Bilinguals, live in the

Albanian neighborhoods or rural places where no L2 exposure can be found, and it is to this context that second language use is limited. On the other hand, High Bilinguals, live in mixed neighborhoods, their exposure to the L2 is frequent in everyday life. Considering the L3 English both bilingual groups use it when they read books, watch movies, listen to music, for internet communication and also prefer to use English words with their friends (for more details see chapter seven of this study).

2. *Language use in education.* - Low Bilinguals had started to learn their second language at school at the age of ten (fourth class at the primary school). High Bilinguals had been engaged in second language acquisition from their childhood. Both groups had started to learn English when they were around eleven (fifth class of primary education). They have been learning and using the three languages from primary to higher education.

3. *Degree of proficiency.* - These results can be explained by the fact that most of the Low Bilinguals had not acquired their second language sufficiently when they had started to learn English. In fact, they had mastered basic aspects of their L2 but had not used the L2 much in a social context. The results of this study, supports Hammarberg's (2001), suggestion that proficiency factor conditions the L2 influence, i.e. if the learner has a high competence in the L2, than L2 influence is favored on L3 production.

4. *Metalinguistic awareness.* - The role of metalinguistic awareness heightened the role of the previously learned languages in L3 production. The majority of the students activated or switched from their previously learned languages in order to fill in a lexical gap during production in L3-English.

5. *Recency.* - the results of this study indicate that L2 was activated more easily when the students had used it recently. This fact was mostly obvious in High Bilinguals, whereas in Low Bilinguals, the L2 terms were used as a result of cross-linguistic influence of L2 on L1.

6. *Psycholinguistic status.* - The results of this study go in accordance Todeva and Cenoz's (2009:8) definition, "foreign language effect/L2", in which Low bilinguals see their L2 as "foreign language" because of the lower language

contact with their L2 which is assumed to result in foreign language mode, thus as foreign language effect. Referring to Hammarberg's (2010:123), explanation according to which language status refers to any language that a speaker knows other than the mother tongue and it is related to the fact that a language may be the second or the third language learned in a speaker's repertoire, it is compatible with the group of High Bilinguals.

7. *Motivation and attitude.* - All the students are willing to learn English by a desire to gain educational opportunities or employment. Another reason, which might be specific for the Albanian bilinguals in Macedonia, is their highly positive attitude toward English, and repulsive attitude toward learning and using Macedonian.

8. *Typological similarity.* - The findings of this study demonstrated that cross-linguistic influence in third language production appeared more when the languages known by both bilingual groups were typologically closer related. Considering that the three languages of this study are typologically related, the Albanian outranked Macedonian, due to typologically closer relation to English and became a standard alternative language in the role of an external supplier.

6.9 Teacher perspectives as reflected in interviews

This part of the present study presents information about the perspective of English teachers in the setting under investigation, focusing on their experience with bilingual Albanian learners of English. The six English teachers who participated in the interview are bilinguals themselves and thus have personal experience to draw on. They can recognize the range of influences that affect learning and they emphasize that if the first language is 'protected', and when acquisition of a second language does not replace the first language, i.e. in cases of additive bilingualism, bilingualism is associated with positive consequences.

6.9.1 Interview Protocols

The purpose of this part of the study was to explore and describe the experience of teachers who teach English to bilingual Albanian students. In order to build a broader understanding of the linguistic background knowledge influencing the students' learning of English the following questions were asked:

Question 1: Is it a handicap or advantage for students to be bilingual when learning English?

Question 2: Is there any interdependent relationship between the students' L1, L2 and L3?

Question 3: Did the teachers experience any differences between bilingual students with low or high bilingual proficiency?

Question 4: How do the English teachers deal with the CLI of the students' L1 and L2 while teaching English?

Question 5: What is the students' attitude towards learning English?

Interviews were conducted with six teachers teaching English language courses (Contemporary English language courses) and ESP (Business English). Each interview was conducted at the university and lasted from 25 to 30 minutes. The interview style was conversational involving the questions designed for the purpose of this study.

The interviews were recorded and transcribed, that is after the interview, each of the teachers was sent a transcript of the interview per e-mail. This technique ensured that any material that made the interviewee uncomfortable was excluded from the study and that each participant's answer was presented accurately. In addition to the first interview, follow-up interviews were conducted with the participants through e-mail or by telephone. The follow-up interviews were designed to elicit further details based on the information from earlier interviews, in order to best serve the purposes of the study. The recordings were transcribed and underwent content analysis. Examples are presented in which were taken from the interview transcriptions. The study was conducted over the time span of almost a year.

6.9.2 Interview Reports

Results based on the interviews with the English teachers indicate that bilingual students are better learners than monolinguals. According to the teachers, knowledge of two languages helps students to better learn English as a third language. Bilingual students can provide comparisons between languages and recognize English words more easily, which is a great advantage over monolinguals.

Question 1: Is it a handicap or an advantage for students to be bilingual when learning English?

To the question whether it is a handicap or a benefit to be bilingual when learning English, all the teachers replied that bilingualism was a benefit. From all the teachers, only one also mentioned possible disadvantages for learning resulting from bilingualism. According to this teacher, bilingualism is a benefit, but in practice, she noticed a handicap for bilinguals with limited Macedonian proficiency. She pointed out that:

“In learning English, the Albanian bilinguals with limited proficiency of Macedonian experience a lot of difficulties. They had started to learn Macedonian at school and it is the only place where they get to learn the language, so, for them Macedonian is seen as a ‘foreign language’ for two reasons. First, this group of bilinguals lives mostly in rural places and in neighborhoods that are inhabited only by Albanians. Second, one year after they had been introduced to Macedonian, they had started to learn English as a foreign language. For this reason learning Macedonian as a second language and English as a third language, for Albanians with limited Macedonian language proficiency, is relatively new.”

The students with ‘limited proficiency in Macedonian’ can be compared to the Low Bilingual group of this study. It is important to explain that the students participating in this study started their studies in 2008 / 09. They had started to learn Macedonian at the age of 10 (fourth grade of primary school) and English at the age of 11 (fifth grade of primary school). These languages were taught according to the

old curriculum (1996-1004), while the new curriculum has introduced changes in the teaching of Macedonian and English (for more details see chapter one).

The other five teachers interviewed shared the opinion that bilingualism was beneficial in learning English as a third language. Bilingualism makes a student feel more confident in their academic achievement. Bilingual students are able to connect the meaning of words of three languages, bilinguals with high proficiency in the second language are faster than bilinguals with limited second language proficiency.

In summary, from six English teachers who participated in the interview, five believed that bilingualism had a positive influence on the learning of additional languages, as bilingual learners were experienced in the second language and in using learning strategies. This experience supports additional language learning. Only one teacher was ambivalent in her evaluation of bilingualism. According to her, her students with limited L2 proficiency did not seem to profit from bilingualism. Her view reflects the distinction which was made in this study as well between bilinguals with high and bilinguals with low L2 proficiency. In other words, the teacher did not believe that bilingualism in general does not have any positive effect on third language acquisition but bilinguals with low proficiency face difficulties in L3 English production.

Question 2: Is there any interdependent relationship between the students' L1, L2 and L3?

The response to this question revealed that the same five teachers recognized the interdependent relationship between the student's L1, L2 and L3, while only one teacher did not recognize it. This teacher argued that in cases when Low Bilinguals transfer from their L2, it is because they see it 'as foreign language'. According to this teacher, bilinguals with low L2 proficiency face difficulties when they try to fill in a lexical gap.

The other five teachers interviewed, however, believe there is a relationship of interdependence, for example, between the various writing systems. Because of this, they argue that bilingual Albanian learners of English have an advantage since

Albanian and English both use the Latin writing system that leads to transfer from L1. Other evidences given by the English teachers are the instances of code switching, transfer of cognates and of deceptive cognates from L1 and L2 observable in L3 production.

The common opinion of the teachers related to code switching is that students use words from both languages either consciously or unconsciously. Conscious code switching happens when students ask for help from the teacher or a classmate in order to fill in a lexical gap. In such cases they use a word from their L1 or L2 (in cases where they missed the L1 Albanian word).

The concept of an interdependent relationship between languages and the idea of metalinguistic awareness is something the teachers were not familiar with. After a brief explanation, they agreed that bilingual Albanian students are consciously taking advantage of metalinguistic knowledge and are using their resources in positive ways. For example, when they teach vocabulary skills within the context of literature and writing, they also ask students to complete practice book exercises designed to increase their vocabularies. In such tasks, students collect new words as they come across them in the practice book exercises. This practice in teaching classes shows that for bilinguals English vocabulary learning is easier as they are able to compare new words to the vocabulary of the first and second language and thus to take advantage from the similarities between the three languages.

Another teacher pointed out that textbooks often include vocabulary activities where cognates and false friends are found and some teachers pay particular attention to this issue. The problem then arises in the pronunciation of cognate words, and when learners overgeneralize, and form a new word that does not exist in the English language. Even though cognates can be helpful and can be learned with little effort, they can, at the same time create problems.

Another issue the teacher addressed is that of deceptive cognates or 'false friends' as they lead to misunderstandings in both, oral and written communication. The false friends used most frequently by learners is the L1 word *librari* which in Albanian means 'bookshop' while English *library* means a place where books are

kept and can be borrowed. Apart from that the teacher also mentions the L2 item *magazine* which in L1 is 'depo' and in English 'warehouse', while the core meaning of the English word 'magazine' is 'publication issued at regular intervals, usually weekly or monthly'. In such cases the teacher is very careful and depending on the time available and the level of the class, a couple of false friends are discussed quickly and easily in class. He explains to students how the words differ and what the correct corresponding word is in English.

The final point to be discussed is that research has long proven that literacy skills in the first language transfer to the second. This idea (the "cross-linguistic influence hypothesis"), suggests that the greater the similarity in the writing systems of the two languages, the greater the degree of transfer, and the less time and difficulty involved in learning to read and write in the second language (Odlin 1989). This concept can also be applied to third language acquisition. As teachers pointed out if an Albanian bilingual speaker can read and define the word *autor* in L1 and *abrop* /avtor/ in L2, it is a natural and immediate step to acquire the English word *author*. In this regard, the teachers emphasized that the benefits continue once the student has become a fluent speaker of English. Research evidence supports this conclusion, that proficient bilingual learners of additional language have a heightened metalinguistic awareness and knowledge that may enhance their ability to use linguistic processes and analysis to aid their third language learning.

Question 3: Did the teachers experience any differences between bilingual students with low or high bilingual proficiency?

From the very beginning of the interview, teachers were discussing differences between bilinguals with low or with high bilingual proficiency, because there are no monolingual Albanian students in Macedonia.

All the teachers point out that bilingual students need to achieve a certain level of proficiency or competence in the second language in order to enjoy an advantage from bilingualism when learning English or any other additional language. The only teacher, who showed an ambivalent attitude from the beginning of the interview, emphasized that if competence in the second language is low this

causes confusion in the process of learning English as it may cause words from the second language to replace words from the third language i.e. results in language mixing.

All the teachers agreed that there is a difference between these two groups when learning English, and pointed out that bilinguals with high L2 proficiency were far better than bilinguals with limited L2 skills. This difference reflected the tenet that a high proficiency in the second language supported the learning of English as an L3. As bilingual teachers themselves, they encouraged students to make connections, during classroom discussions. The teachers carefully control these discussions and encourage students to make use of learning strategies, so that the use of either their L1 or L2 is temporarily accepted and used as a starting point in order to get to the correct meaning in the L3. In such cases, a teacher would write a word on the board and explain the meaning in all three languages so that the student will have a clear understanding of the relationship between the three languages involved.

With reference to Herdina and Jessner's dynamic view of multilingualism, this makes sense, because the various language systems influence and interfere with each other. It is evident that students learning many languages are faced with additional challenges. This indicates that bilingualism could constitute a greater advantage for bilingual students with high proficiency, because they have obtained metalinguistic knowledge that should make them capable of learning to learn rather than learning a language (Herdina & Jessner 2000).

Question 4: How do the English teachers deal with L1 and L2 while teaching English?

In considering the use of the L1 or L2 in English language teaching on the part of the students, a general answer is that teachers need to have a sufficient command of the students' L1 to be of help in the first place. A closer look at the interview data shows the teachers' experiences in dealing with transfer phenomena in the classroom.

In the early stages of English learning, teachers would allow students to make use of previously learnt languages in a limited way. Such cases were found in code switching analysis of this study. One example from a teachers' interview is: "I usually explain to the learners that if they can't find the word in English they are allowed to ask, "How do you say _____, in English?" which allows the students to get key vocabulary in their written or spoken expression."

In cases when a student produces an incomprehensible utterance, i.e., neither the teacher nor other learners can understand what the student is trying to say, the teacher will ask the student to tell their meaning in Albanian.

Other situations in which teachers or students switch to Albanian or Macedonian is when they talk about important administrative matters or procedures which students could not understand otherwise since they have not yet obtained the necessary depth of vocabulary knowledge.

Other occasions which involve switching from English to Albanian/Macedonian given by the teachers are when students bring in a song and ask the meaning of a word, phrase or expression. In providing the requested explanation, the teachers use comparisons and / or translations into Albanian / Macedonian as often as necessary.

The answers provided by the teachers reveal that teachers have difficulties to teach in English only and make use of previously learnt languages which seems to benefit the learning of English as a third language.

Question 5: What is the students' attitude towards learning English?

Attitudes toward learning a language have been shown to influence students' learning and have received considerable attention from researchers studying language acquisition. Lantolf and Pavlenko (2001: 144) state that attitudes towards language learning are formed in the process of an individual's 'appropriation of culture'.

As attitudes have been studied as being the responsible for learning an additional language, Norton (2000: 11) suggests that "the notion of identity needs to

be reconceptualized in which individuals are constantly organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world". Thus this question has been posed to the English teachers in order to gain information about their experiences with Albanian bilingual students learning English in Macedonia.

Considering their attitude towards the teaching of English at school the English teachers' opinion was that the Albanian students have a highly positive attitude towards learning English. One of the teachers indicates that there might be differences in gender. She points out that there is a considerable difference between male and female students. Females show a more positive attitude than males towards English language learning. The teacher emphasizes that the females are also very interested in the culture of English speaking countries, such as in the British and the American culture. She suggests more English classes should be added in the curricula as the small number of hours allotted for English language classes throughout the students' educational career does not satisfy their learning needs.

The teachers' opinion on the students' attitude towards learning English is very high. In connection with the issue of the students' attitude towards English, a teacher considers the differences in attitudes towards Macedonian and English, she points out:

"In the recent years, the political situation in Macedonia has created a huge tension between the two ethnic groups which resulted in negative attitude toward learning and using their L2 Macedonian so that new generations of students come with a very low knowledge of Macedonian. The Albanian students' orientation toward English learning is highly positive and English learning and using is rapidly growing in the Albanian community living in Macedonia. In recent years, Albanian students have focused on learning German and an increasing number of students study German language and literature."

As could be seen from the interview report, the context of English learning creates a high motivation in Albanian bilinguals in Macedonia. This is psychologically and socially an expected finding and the role of English teachers can be said to be an important factor in encouraging students to learn English.

6.9.3 Discussion of the interview report

An overview of the interviews reported on here suggests that bilingualism has no negative effect on third language acquisition and in many cases can enhance the acquisition of a third language. Based on the theoretical framework as well as on the empirical insights gained from the interviews, the conclusion can be drawn that teachers agree with the opinion that bilingualism is positive and beneficial. Although all of the teachers share positive attitudes towards bilingualism, they also address the issue that benefits from bilingualism depend on the proficiency level of bilingual Albanians, i.e. High Bilinguals are much better learners of English, while Low Bilinguals experience lexical mixing.

According to theories about trilingualism, the relationship between a learner's language systems is perceived as one of interdependence (Cummins 1996; Cenoz & Genesee 1998; Herdina & Jessner 2002). The new holistic perspective on multilingualism as suggested by Herdina and Jessner (2000), in which bilingual learners of a third language are seen as whole individuals possessing each their own complex linguistic system and background is a view which every teacher agrees with.

It must be pointed out that the political situation in Macedonia has fostered negative attitudes towards the learning of Macedonian, which became obvious in the interview process. It is important to mention that even though the general opinion about bilingualism is positive, the issue of learning Macedonian is approached with increasing reservation among Albanian citizens. Thus, the answers represented a more general attitude towards bilingualism rather than specific attitudes towards Macedonian as a second language.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

7.1 Overview

The series of analyses reported on in this thesis was aimed at improving the understanding of those processes employed by bilinguals to control their language production.

Given the present state of research on third language learning, the following two questions guided the research process:

- (1) How is cross-lexical transfer traced in L3 word production?
- (2) Do Albanian bilinguals rely upon their first language lexical knowledge more than upon their second language in L3 word production?

The present study sought to answer the questions mentioned and to add to the current understanding of the effects of bilingualism on L3 acquisition. To accomplish this, the study was divided into five chapters. In the first chapter the sociolinguistic situation of the languages spoken in Macedonia was explored and presented, by focusing on the main three languages involved in this study - Albanian, Macedonian and English.

Chapter two, three and four outlined previous research on L3 acquisition and provided a description of the theoretical background and of several investigations conducted on various aspects of L2 influence on L3 acquisition. The review of current literature showed that many scholars believe L3 learners possess additional awareness gained through previous language learning experiences, which enhances their ability to learn subsequent languages (Cenoz 2001; Herdina & Jessner 2000; Jessner 1999). The review also revealed that most studies have found psychotypological factors to be a significant contributor to L1 and L2 influence on L3 acquisition and abilities (Cenoz 2000; Cenoz 2001; Ringbom 1987). These studies also focused on the effects of various types of L2s on the acquisition of a certain L3, therefore the effects of one type of L2 on various additional languages has yet to be explored.

Several studies have analyzed the influence of bilingualism on third language acquisition by comparing bilinguals and monolinguals acquiring a third language/second language. These studies tend to confirm the advantages of bilinguals over monolinguals concerning general aspects of proficiency. This study focuses on the influence of bilingualism on the difference between bilinguals with high L2 proficiency and low L2 proficiency.

While some studies have compared the language abilities and proficiency of L3 learners who had different L2 backgrounds but learned the same L3 (Cenoz 2001; Ringbom 1987), this study looked specifically at participants who shared a typologically similar L1 and L2 learning English as their L3.

Some studies have, however, focused on the role of the L2 on L3 acquisition by investigating the effects of L2 proficiency on L3 acquisition (Muñoz 2000; Ringbom 2001). The current study added to the latter two lines of research by investigating the effects of L2 proficiency and exposure on acquisition of L3 English.

Many studies investigating L3 acquisition compared groups of learners with differing L2 backgrounds, showing that those learners whose second languages were typologically similar to the L3 outperformed learners whose L2s were typologically dissimilar to the L3. This indicates that learners are able to make connections between similar linguistic features in different languages. While many studies have investigated the strategies used by L3 learners to transfer linguistic knowledge from a similar language while choosing not to transfer linguistic knowledge from dissimilar languages (Cenoz 2001), the current study simply looked at how the knowledge in the L1 and L2 affected the acquisition of a typologically similar L3. A better L3 performance by participants who had a high proficiency in their L2 than by participants whose L2 proficiency was low indicated that those with higher L2 proficiency had developed a metalinguistic awareness or skills that enabled them to learn English as their L3 with greater ease and efficiency.

Many researchers believe that the process of L3 acquisition does in fact endow learners with a unique understanding of language learning that enhances their

propensity towards successfully acquiring additional languages (Cenoz 2001; Herdina & Jessner 2000).

The review further concluded that some studies have found the level of L2 proficiency to be another factor in L3 acquisition, and based on the theoretical contributions made in the field of third language acquisition research this study focused on the effects of bilingualism i.e. of L2 proficiency on third language learning/production.

Chapter five outlined the methodology, procedures, and data analyses conducted in the study. The study of language acquisition was operationalized via the administration of a series of test tasks. All participants were asked to take an English proficiency test to ensure that they had achieved relatively similar levels of L3 proficiency. In order to obtain information about the students' overall competence in L2-Macedonian and L3- English standardized placement tests of both Macedonian and English were completed by all of the participants. The language background questionnaire supplied information used to identify and select participants based on their educational and linguistic background and on their amount of exposure to the L2. According to the competence tests and language background questionnaires the students were divided into two groups, a low L2 proficiency and a high L2 proficiency group. According to their English proficiency test, the students were classified at pre-intermediate level.

The collection of production data proceeded in several steps. The first step was recording conversations in the classroom setting in order to analyze code switching during English lessons. The second step was a word recognition task with the purpose of analyzing cognate and deceptive cognates' effect in third language production. The next step was a translation test, in which the students had to translate from their native language Albanian into English. This task was designed in order to analyze calques or loan translations in English production. Finally, participants completed a written composition task where a topic from the students' life was chosen in order to test semantic extensions of single lexical units or the creation of target words based on source words in third language production. In addition to the written data, spoken data were also collected for this research study.

In addition to this series of tests and tasks administered to bilingual students, interviews with English teachers were conducted in order to obtain information about their experience with bilingual Albanian learners of English.

The data gathered from the analysis were then analyzed to examine the effects of the first and second language on English language learning. The results of these analyses were reported in chapter six.

This chapter discusses the results reported in chapter six and how they relate to previous findings presented in the review of literature. It will also include a discussion of some implications and findings, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

7.2 Discussion of results and conclusion

The first aspect examined in this study was the type of bilingualism the learners of English had. Based on Byalistok & Hakuta's (1994) distinctions the Albanian Bilinguals were classified as early sequential bilinguals (the L1 is learnt first but the L2 is also learnt relatively early in childhood). The High Bilinguals had already acquired their L2-Macedonian appropriately when they started to learn English as an L3. Their language learning history can consequently be typically represented as $L1 \rightarrow L2 \rightarrow L3$, while the Low Bilinguals were still learning their L2 when they started to learn L3, i.e. their language learning experiences can be represented as $L1 \rightarrow L2+L3$. Considering the different types of multilingualism, as suggested by Herdina and Jessner (2002), the results indicated that this bilingual group could be further subdivided into two groups: ambilingual balanced bilingual which have been referred to as 'High Bilinguals' and passive bilinguals 'Low Bilinguals' respectively.

This study reports the results obtained from two bilingual groups of Albanian students learning English at nineteen to twenty years old. Considering that Albanian, in most parts of western Macedonia is used in the family, social environment and in education it is considered as dominant at the level of ideal native speaker proficiency. Regarding the third language acquisition and development, the data

gathered from the language background questionnaire (see appendix A) indicate that both bilingual groups of learners had started to learn English at the age of eleven, in the fifth class of primary school.

By the current time, based on the results from the proficiency test, English language acquisition of both bilingual groups of learners had developed at A2 on the Common European Frame of Reference, describing a pre-intermediate level during English language acquisition. The results gained from the questionnaire, indicate that the exposure to the L_{ST} (L3) was limited. Their contact to English was restricted to instructional environments (school, university or language centers) and media (television and radio).

A central notion in this study was the relationship between language systems, as set forward by Herdina and Jessner (2002), which explains the advantages of a dynamic and holistic view of multilingualism. This model of language acquisition turned out to be highly relevant for dealing with bilingual Albanian students learning English, as it helped to make clear the complex processes that are involved in language learning.

This model proved to be both holistic and analytical. It is holistic because it does not view trilingualism as the accumulation of three languages but as the overall development of the languages at hand. It is also analytical because it specifies individual subcomponents such as language system and psychological factors that influence language development. Based on the DMM model suggested by Herdina and Jessner (2002:124), I will try to exemplify the development of the three language systems of Albanian students illustrated in the following figures (7.1a and 7.1b). The development of the primary language system (L_{Sp}-Albanian) is marked with an unbroken line, the secondary language system (L_{Ss}-Macedonian) is marked with a broken line, while the tertiary language system (L_{ST}-English) is marked with a heavy unbroken line.

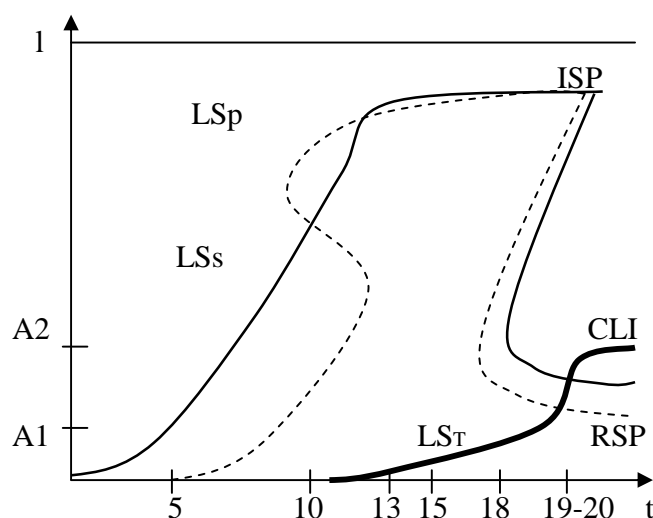


Figure 7.1a Trilinguals' acquisition phase with high L2 proficiency

Lsp = primary language system; Lss = secondary language system; Lst = tertiary language system; ISP = ideal native speaker; t = time; l = language level; CLI=cross-linguistic influence

Based on the results of the analysis of language background questionnaire (see appendix A), specifically on the questions of LSs (L2) acquisition and use, High bilinguals had started to learn their second language relatively early in childhood at age five, from their friends on the street. It is assumed that this period is a time during which High Bilinguals' knowledge about the second language develops rapidly and to a very large extent, without instruction.

The second language of High bilinguals developed in a native like fluency by the age of thirteen and fifteen, when the contact with the second language had been more frequent. This period is assumed to be an important development, in which the LSp development is characterized by gradual integration of LSs into LSp. Considering question number thirteen of the questionnaire ('Which language do you use more in Macedonia?' see appendix A), the answers given by the students indicate that by the age of eighteen, High Bilinguals' first and second language

development resulted in a high interaction due to the frequent use of LSs in their everyday life.

By analyzing third language data collected in this study the influence of the first and second languages on the third language could be explored. The results indicate that High Bilinguals expressed their metalinguistic awareness by making use of two supporter languages to compensate the lexical limitation in LSt. In the group of High Bilinguals, LSp was the dominant language, but LSs appeared to be used to considerable extent in LSt production (LSp ii>2.10 and LSs ii>1.20).

The next figure (7.1b) shows the development of the three languages in Low Bilinguals.

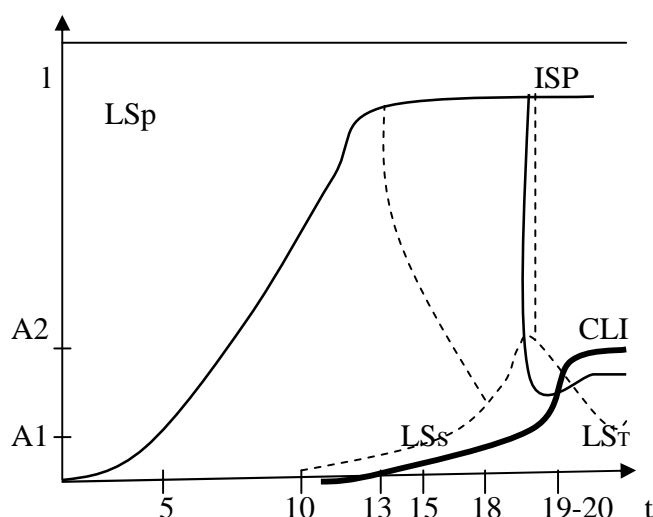


Figure 7.1b Trilinguals' acquisition phase with low L2 proficiency

Lsp = primary language system; Lss = secondary language system; Lst = tertiary language system; RSP = rudimentary speaker proficiency; t = time; 1 = language level; CLI=cross-linguistic influence

The results of the language background questionnaire indicate that Low bilinguals had started to learn their second language later, at the age of ten, in fourth grade. Their contact to L2 was limited and according to the proficiency test results, Macedonian language acquisition had reached A2 on the CEFR. Considering

question number thirteen of the questionnaire ('Which language do you use more in Macedonia?' see appendix A), the answers given by the students indicate that by the age of eighteen, Low Bilinguals' first and second language development resulted in an interaction due to the communicative needs in social life.

While their second language had been still undergoing a growth process, they had started to learn English. It is assumed that this could be the reason why Low Bilinguals were looking at their second language as "foreign language". As in High Bilinguals, the development of the third language acquisition of the Low Bilinguals was marked with the influence from their first and second language. The results indicated that Low Bilinguals expressed their metalinguistic awareness by making use of two supporter languages to compensate the lexical limitation in L_{ST}. However, in the group of Low Bilinguals, L_{Sp} turned out to be highly dominant, while L_{Ss} appeared to be used only to a very limited extent in L_{ST} production (L_{Sp} ii>3.95 and L_{Ss} ii>0.93).

Given the empirical evidence of this study, it can be concluded that as a model of multilingual competence the DMM is highly relevant for analyzing third language acquisition in a context like the one under investigation. The dynamics of language development, which is described as a change in time due to the perceived needs of the learner, became evident in the multilingual development of the subjects of the study. This evidence was explained by the fact that although the learners had used Albanian and Macedonian, with a considerable difference between two bilingual groups, in most cases Albanian was their dominant language due to the communicative needs which are linked to different social and psycholinguistic factors. Naturally, the myriad of factors at play in individual speakers means that their concrete situations are far more complex and varied than general modeling of the participants' multilingual development on the basis of DMM would suggest.

Still, the DMM claim of a positive and very important relationship between the learners' L1 and L2 as well as the claim that the relationship between language systems is one of interdependence, has proved to be enlightening in the context of the present study. As Herdina and Jessner pointed out:

The development of each individual language within one multilingual speaker largely depends on the behavior of previous and subsequent systems. (Herdina & Jessner 2000:92)

Because of this relationship of interdependence between the language systems of L1 Albanian, L2 Macedonian and L3 English, each learner's language production depends on the other language systems. In order to obtain empirical evidence of the language systems and how they interact with one another, it was decided to examine the lexical production of bilingual learners of English.

Much recent investigation into the role of lexical interference in third language acquisition has focused on the influence of particular variables such as typological distance, L2 status (the fact that a language is the second, not the first, in a speaker's repertoire), age and proficiency. Studies by Cenoz (2001) and Ringbom (2001) have supported the hypothesis that typological similarity carries more weight than L2 status in determining whether a language will be a supplier of cross-linguistic influence in L3 production.

An important contribution of this study is the language combination it investigates: L1 Albanian, L2 Macedonian and L3 English. All three languages belong to the Indo-European language family and share many lexical similarities, a fact that makes this study stand apart from those of both Cenoz and Ringbom. Secondly, unlike Cenoz's study, this study keeps the age of subjects constant in order to better isolate the variables of typological distance and L2 status. Although all three languages are Indo-European and share typological similarities they differ in their closeness. The L1 Albanian is more closely related to L3 English, while the L2 Macedonian is less closely related. Facilitation effects are therefore seen as more likely to occur if the learner has considerable L2 proficiency.

The results of this study show that bilingual Albanian learners of English did not use much of their typologically not so close L2 Macedonian as their source of transfer but instead relied more on L1 Albanian which is typologically closer to English. While language transfer and the use of the L2 in this case might have occurred mainly unconsciously, it is clear that the Albanian students perceived Albanian. It is also clear that research in this area is on-going and the influence of

the native language as well as of any possible additional languages will continue to attract attention in the field of third language acquisition.

7.2.1 Discussion of hypothesis 1

The purpose of this study was to explore the process of English language learning by bilingual Albanian students and it was hypothesized that:

Many instances of transfer from L1 and L2 are expected to occur in the L3 production of the bilingual Albanian students. Transferred items can be produced consciously or unconsciously.

My main expectation that many instances of transfer from L1 and L2 would occur in L3 production proved to be correct. The issue of conscious vs. subconscious production, however, was not focused on in the present research design.

The data elicited through this study contains a great deal of evidence for cross-linguistic influence allowing insights into the mechanisms used by bilingual Albanian students when producing L3.

The influence of previously known languages on L3 production is characterized by the proficiency in L2. Instances of CLI phenomena from L1 Albanian and L2 Macedonian were found throughout the analyses conducted in the study. Two patterns were apparent even before a detailed analysis was carried out: firstly, that there was considerable evidence in the samples that cross-lexical influence from the L1 and the L2 constitutes a real phenomenon in the production of the bilingual students. Secondly, in addition to the existence of cross-linguistic influence in L3 as such, there is ample evidence demonstrating that L2 proficiency plays an important role in L3 production.

The first pattern is of key importance for the first hypothesis of this study. The phenomenon of CLI (cross – linguistic influence) can be understood as an underlying link between learning and production. This phenomenon was of interest since it provided clues as to how bilingual Albanians store and access the English language in their repertoire. The analyses conducted in this study show that L3

production became complicated because of the presence and interaction of all three languages in the learner's repertoire. The DMM model (Hufeisen & Jessner 2002) was used for the purpose of the study because it shows the complex processes that are involved in language learning. According to the model, the presence of three language systems in an individual leads to interaction between these three systems during production of target language forms.

The series of experiments reported on in this thesis was aimed at illustrating the processes underlying bilinguals' L3 production. Five analyses using different methods focused on code switching, word association (cognates and deceptive cognates), calques, semantic loans and reports by English teachers. Each of the analyses was conducted with two groups of bilingual students with different L2 proficiencies in order to investigate the mechanisms underlying their performance.

Before applying the model of multilingual processing, it was first necessary to understand the processing mechanisms in bilingual learners of an additional language. One of the earliest models was set forth by Weinreich (1953/1974), who suggested that the bilingual mental lexicon may show three possible organizations: compound, coordinate or subordinate. According to the model, coordinate bilinguals have separate representation for words in the L1 and for words in the L2. Thus, according to Weinreich, for bilingual Albanians, the word *libër*, would be linked to a particular concept, whereas the English translation equivalent *book* would be linked to a separate conceptual form.

In contrast, compound bilinguals have only one conceptual form for words and their translation equivalents. In this type of organization, to use the above example, the words *libër* and *book* would be linked to the same conceptual form but would not be directly linked with one another. Unlike the previous two, the third type of organization (subordinate) describes a situation where one language is clearly dominant over the other.

This organization takes into account the proficiency level of the bilinguals since the degree of language dominance relates to the proficiency level achieved. Here the bilinguals access the conceptual representation of the L2 word through a direct link to the L1 translation equivalent. To access the meaning of 'book', then,

the bilingual would link the word directly to the L1 word *libër* and then access the concept evoked by the L1 word. Bialystok & Hakuta (1994) argued that it is difficult to put the distinctions between these categories into practice, so that they proposed another, and according to them, better classification, distinguishing between: simultaneous bilingualism (where L1 and L2 are learnt at the same time), early sequential bilingualism (L1 learnt but L2 learnt relatively early in childhood) and late bilingualism (L2 learnt later, in adolescence or after). Based on the language background questionnaire and proficiency test the *early sequential bilingualism* was found compatible with the participants of this study, because both groups had started to learn their L2 relatively early in childhood (HB at the age of five, LB at the age of ten). Considering the different age structure and their different L2 use and exposure, this classification was not practical for this study, but it was used for the lack of another practical category. The category of *early sequential bilingualism* was further subdivided by following the types of multilingualism, suggested by Herdina and Jessner (2002), *ambilingual balanced bilinguals* which were referred as ‘High Bilinguals’ and passive bilinguals as ‘Low Bilinguals’.

7.2.2 Discussion of hypothesis 2

I will now discuss the implications of the second hypotheses:

Interpreted in general terms, transfer instances come more from the native language. Transfer instances based on the L2 are found more frequently if L2 proficiency is high.

This research study has shown that the learners’ level of L2 proficiency was an important factor influencing the degree to which L2 to L3 transfer occurred. What is perhaps most notable in this study is that a considerable number of transfer instances relating to the L2 could also be found in the group constituted by low L2 proficiency bilinguals.

The expectation that transfer instances based on the L2, would be found in cases where L2 proficiency was high was confirmed. Although the High Bilinguals are ‘early sequential bilinguals’, and their proficiency in L2-Macedonian was proved to be high, the influence of attitudes toward L2-Macedonian, and typological distance between Macedonian and English, seem to be equally important factors causing less L2 influence on L3 production, than was expected.

Still, the high frequency of L2-Macedonian items in public administration, media, sports, and politics was found to influence L3 production. The analysis indicated that the High Bilinguals, in most cases, were consciously using L2 items in order to fill lexical gaps in L3 English, if they could not find the right word in their L1-Albanian. Unconscious L2 influence on L3 production was found in cases where items from L2 were borrowed into L1 Albanian.

The factor of psycholinguistic status proved influential, but not very highly so. The L2 status among the High Bilinguals affected the production of words in the L3 mainly in instances of code-switching.

Consideration was also given to typological closeness which occurs because of close language ties or as a result of borrowing from other languages. The results of the study go in accordance with the cross-linguistic studies in third language production suggesting that the closer languages are typologically the more likely transfer occurs in production (Cenoz 2001; Ringbom 2001).

7.3 Limitations

The researcher of a language such as Albanian in Macedonia faces a number of difficulties in her/his fieldwork. First, the researcher finds it very hard to identify suitable participants precisely because many Albanian bilinguals are multilinguals with Turkish, Serbian, German or Italian as second languages learning English as L4 or L5. Therefore, I had to look for students who were only Albanian bilinguals with L2-Macedonian learning English as their L3.

In this study I concentrated particularly on transfer phenomena at the lexical level and it can be said that the element of Albanian and Macedonian lexical influence upon English characterizes this study compared to similar studies in the

field of third language acquisition. Cross-linguistic phenomena cannot be observed very easily, since they reflect linguistic relations, and relations as such are abstract notions. In evaluating the linguistic relations, I came across many dilemmas and was often confused. In such situations, one may lose confidence in one's linguistic competence, even as a native speaker of a language. In such cases of uncertainty, I used additional informants with a linguistic background unaffected by the other languages: visiting professors from the USA in Tetovo as well as Albanian and Macedonian language professors who confirmed some of my assumptions.

7.4 Suggestion for future research

The current study revealed modest trends in the data, suggesting a possible relationship between L2 proficiency and L3 acquisition. To gain a deeper understanding of this effect, future research might involve a larger sample size of participants in the same language groups investigated in this study. Such research would likely produce clearer trends in the data, allowing for greater generalization.

Because the limited data on some categories of cross-linguistic influence proved to be a limitation in the current study, future research should consider using more assessment to measure the participants' L3 abilities. A more reliable assessment and a more precise rating scale might provide a more accurate account of the participants' L3 abilities and provide greater insight into the results of the current study.

Considering the psycholinguistic status, which accounts for second or third language learned, the participants of this study had learned first Macedonian and then English. According to the new curriculum in primary education in Macedonia which was introduced in 2004 (see chapter one of this study), English is introduced as a second language and Macedonian as a third language for Albanian children, therefore future research might have to concentrate on the acquisition of Macedonian as L3 and cross-linguistic influences of L1-Albanian and L2-English in L3-Macedonian production.

Since attitudes and motivation were found to be important factors, studies are needed to explore in more depth the attitudinal dimensions of Albanian learners of English towards Macedonian, English and Albanian.

The analysis of the effect of language typology on individual L3 skills, as measured by the classroom recording, revealed that pronunciation was most affected by language typology, for example the cognate words L1>profession /pro'fesion/; L2>професија/pro'fesija/; and L3>profession/prə'feʃən/. In this case, it was observed that the English word 'profession' /prə'feʃən/ was pronounced with the L1 influence *profesion* /profesion/. Since pronunciation development was not the focus of this study, future research should explore this finding to see how L3-English pronunciation is affected by language typology.

7.5 Concluding remarks

The most notable relationship observed in this study was the effect of bilingualism on third language production. Much of the data resulting from studies in the field of L3 acquisition (Jessner 2006, Cenoz et al 2001, Hammarberg 2001, Ringbom 2001) provide ampling evidence in support of the positive role of bilingualism in L3 acquisition. The results gained from this study seem to confirm that language typology, the role of L2 proficiency and enhanced metalinguistic awareness in L3 learners are all vital factors affecting L3 acquisition, as common sense would predict. Further research could lead to significant advances in understanding the degree to which each of these factors affects L3 acquisition.

When observed together, this study shed further light on the ways bilingualism affects L3 acquisition. Additional research in this area would be useful and would perhaps verify these findings, thereby contributing to a deeper understanding of the relationship between L2 proficiency and L3 acquisition. It is hoped that more investigations will produce further support and that the process of cross-linguistic interaction between the previously learned languages and the third language will be observed closely especially with regard to increasing L3 proficiency.

Finally, there are numerous factors affecting the type and amount of language transfer. What seem to be the most important factors have been discovered and discussed in detail, however, work in the field of cross-linguistic influence is continuing and research opportunities are obviously vast. This study has considered some of the main findings in this field and compared these with the results of the present study. While the aim of this study was to confirm or to challenge some of the previous research results, it is just a drop in the ocean in relation to the on-going work in this field.

APPENDICES:

Appendix A: Language background questionnaire

1. Date of birth: _____

2. Place of birth: _____

3. Gender ☐ ☐

4. When did you start to learn Macedonian?

as a child	
at school	

5. How many hours a week did you learn Macedonian?

6. How old were you when you started to learn Macedonian?

7. Where did you learn Macedonian?

Please put a tick (✓) near the options that are appropriate for you?

From my friends on the street	
From my teacher and friends at school	
From the media TV/Radio	
Other	

7. How old were you when you started to learn English?

8. Where did you learn English?

Kindergarten	
Third year of primary school	
Fifth year of primary school	
Private English courses	

For the following questions please fill in the box with tick (✓) that applies best for you.

13. Which language do you use more in Macedonia?

Albanian	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
Macedonian	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
English	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	

14. How do you evaluate Macedonian according to the scale below?

My Macedonian in general	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	
--------------------------	-----------	--	------	--	--------	--	-----	--	----------	--

My speaking in Macedonian	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	
My writing in Macedonian	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	
My listening in Macedonian	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	
My reading in Macedonian	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	

15. How do you evaluate English according to the scale?

My English in general	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	
My speaking in English	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	
My writing in English	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	
My listening in English	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	
My reading in English	Very good		Good		Normal		Bad		Very bad	

16. Which language do you use when you speak to the officers at the university administration?

Albanian	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
Macedonian	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
English	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	

17. Which language do you use when you speak to officers at the state administration?

Albanian	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
Macedonian	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	

18. In which language do you like watching television?

19. In which language do you read? Please give examples (i.e. books, magazines, newspapers)

20. In which language do you listen to music?

21. When you are shopping in which language do you read prices and in which language do you calculate them?

22. Do you encounter words in English in your daily lives? If yes, please give examples.

23. Why do like learning English? Please explain your reasons.

Appendix B: Macedonian language proficiency test:

ТЕСТ ПО МАКЕДОНСКИ ЈАЗИК

Име и презиме
група
Телефон
е-маил адреса

1. Преведете:
Mirëmëngjes!
Mirëdita!
Si jeni?
Mirë, faleminderit.
Mirupafshim!
Sa është ora?

2. На празното место напишете денови, месеци, бои на македонски јазик:

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

3. Употребете го помошниот глагол *сум*:

Модел : Јас сум Марко.

Јас Драган.	Тие колеги.
Тој Марко.	Ние пријатели.
Ти студент.	Вие роднини.

4. Од следниве зборови составете реченици:

Гостинот, на, концерт, водам, го.
.....
Домаќините, на, канат, не, коктел, часот, пет, во.
.....

Колегите, во, ручек, водам, ги, ресторан, на.

Пишувам, ми, домашната, ја, задача, му, на брат.

Ни, в недела, екскурзија, организираат, до, Охрид.

5. Заокружете го точниот одговор.

Мојот брат студира Економски факултет.

- а) на
- б) во
- в) со

6. Заокружете го зборот кој се разликува од останатите во колоната:

- | | | | |
|--------------|---------|------------|------------|
| а) овој | оние | таа | може |
| б) писмо | зборува | љубов | момче |
| в) Македонец | Албанец | македонски | Американец |

7. Напишете неколку реченици во кои ќе ги употребите: Ми се допаѓа, не ми се допаѓа, можам, морам, сакам или мразам.

Пример: Јас можам да направам прекрасен колач со јагоди.

- а)
- б)
- ц)
- е)
- ф)

8. Комплетирајте ги дадените реченици со некои од дадените земнки: неа, ја, него, го, нему, мое, нејзе, неа.

Го познавам
Келнерот на студентката носи чај со лимон.
Марија сака својот син.
Марко сака музиката.
Јован пушта музика на девојката.

9. Употребете ги личните заменки:

..... сме студенти. си работник.
..... сум професор. се студенти.
..... е ученичка. сте добри.

10. Кој предлог ќе го ставиме во следните реченици? В, во или на?

..... плоштадот има многу луѓе.
Живеам едноособен стан.
Попладне одиме сладолед.
Ќе одиме ли на роденден среда?

Имаме по две предавања ден.
..... убаво друштво времето брзо поминува.

11. Ставете ги глаголите во правилна форма.

Модел: Утре сакам да (спие) долго.

Утре сакам да спијам долго.

Марко, можеш ли да ми го (даде) телефонскиот број на Ана?
Јас и звонам на Марија веќе долго, но не можам да ја (добие).
Тие можат да ме (бара) во хотелот.
Ние (купи) убаво цвеќе за нејзиниот роденден.
Се обидуваат (зборува) македонски.
Вие (отиде) на плажа со своите пријатели.
Вчера тој (чита) цел ден весници и списанија.

12. На празните места напишете соодветен предлог (од, пред, по, за, крај, со, кон).

Модел: Домашната работа ја пишувам пенкало.

Домашната работа ја пишувам со пенкало.

- а) Сите препишуваа Лука.
- б) Навечер се шетаат езеро.
- в) Книгата ќе ја прочитам два дена.
- г) Оваа чоколада е подарок тебе.
- д) Нова година ќе си одам дома.
- ѓ) Возам центарот на градот.
- е) часовите се враќаат дома.

13. Напишете краток состав на една од подолу наведените теми:

- а) Дестинацијата којашто ја посакувам.
- б) Мојата идна професија.
- ц) Економската криза во светот.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

The evaluation criteria:

Points

0 – 30

31-46

47-62

63-78

79-88

Level

Beginner

Elementary

Pre-intermediate

Intermediate

Advanced

Appendix C: English language placement test:

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PLACEMENT

Student's name: _____

Index number: _____

1. Questions and verb forms

Put the words in the right order to make a question.

Example:

job / learning / for / English / your / you / are?

Are you learning English for your job?

1. English/you/start/did/learning/when?

2. tennis/often/play/how/does/she?

3. do/doing/what/at/you/like/weekend/the?

4. weekend/do/what/you/would/to/this/like?

5. dictionary/why/got/you/haven't/a?

6. much/put/my/coffee/sugar/how/did/in/you?

7. phoned/doing/John/when/what/you/were?

8. sandwiches/make/is/who/to/going/the?

9. radio/listening/does/enjoy/to/mother/the/ your?

10. live/Anna/where/was/child/a/did/when/ she?

2. Tenses and verb forms

In the following conversation put the verb in brackets into the correct tense or verb form.

Example

A Why did you go (go) to the seaside last weekend?

B Because we like sailing (sail).

A (1)_____ you _____ (know) Brian Bailey?

B Yes, I (2)_____ (meet) him two years ago while I (3)_____ (work) in Germany. (4)_____ he still _____ (live) there?

A Yes. He does. He (5) _____ (live) in Frankfurt. He (6) _____ (have got) a good job there but at the moment he (7) _____ (work) in London. He's here for a few days and I'd like (8) _____ (invite) him and you for dinner. Can you (9) _____ (come)?

B Yes, I hope so. I'd love (10) _____ (see) Brian again! When I was in Germany we (11) _____ (see) each other quite often because his office was near the school where I (12) _____ (teach) and so we sometimes (13)_____ (have) lunch together. I always enjoyed (14) _____ (talk) to him. I wanted (15) _____ (write) to him but he moved and I (16) _____ (not have) his new address.

A Well, what about dinner on Friday?

B That's fine. What time?

A Is 8 o'clock OK? I (17) _____ (ring) Brian yesterday to check the day, and I (18) _____ (ring) him again tomorrow to check the time.

B Well 8 o'clock is fine for me. I (19) _____ (come) at about 8 and I (20) _____ (bring) a bottle of wine.

A See you on Friday then!

3. Countable and uncountable nouns

Underline the uncountable noun in the following pairs of words.

Example

cheese/egg

money/pound

meat/hamburger

rice/potato

flower/flour

loaf/bread

song/music

job/homework

luggage/suitcase

food/meal

furniture/desk

4. Articles

Put **a, an, the** or nothing into each gap in the story.

Example

I had _____ dinner with the Queen.

My Aunt Vanessa is (1) _____ artist. She lives in (2) _____ beautiful old cottage by (3) _____ sea and she paints (4) _____ small pictures of wild flowers and birds. She doesn't like leaving (5) _____ cottage, but once (6) _____ year she travels by (7) _____ train to London and has (8) _____ tea with me at (9) _____ Savoy Hotel. At the moment I'm quite worried about her because she's in (10) _____ hospital, but I'm sure she'll be better soon. I'm going to visit her next week.

5. Description

Below there are three dialogues. Put one of the words in the box into each gap.

Worst	latest	more	as (x2)	funniest
Funnier	than	friendlier	tastier	Like
Was	what	the	most	

- A I started a new job today, working in an office.
B Really! How did it go?
A It was OK. I was a bit nervous.
B What are the other people (1) _____?
A They're very nice. They seem (2) _____ than the people in my old job, and the job is much (3) _____ interesting.
B You worked in a shop before, didn't you?
A Yes. Working in an office is better (4) _____ working in a shop, I'll tell you! That was the (5) _____ job I've ever had. I hated it.
C We went out for a meal to Luigi's last night - you know, that new Italian restaurant.
D Mm, I know. What (6) _____ it like?
C It was (7) _____ best Italian meal I've ever had, and it wasn't as expensive (8) _____ Giovanni's, so I think we'll go there again.
D Yes. Giovanni's used to be the (9) _____ popular restaurant around here, but then it started getting very expensive.
C And the service isn't (10) _____ good as it used to be.
D What did you have?
C Paul and I both had veal, but mine was cooked in wine and herbs, and it was (11) _____ than Paul's. But he liked it.
D It sounds great.
E Have you read John Harrison's (12) _____ book, "Going Round the World?"
F No. (13) _____'s it like?
E I think it's the (14) _____ book he's written.
I laughed out loud all the way through.
F I didn't like "The Truth and the Light", the one that came out last year.

- E Neither did I. This one's much (15) _____.
F Can I borrow it?

6. Correct the mistakes

In the following pairs of sentences, one is correct, and in the other there is a mistake. Tick (✓) the correct one.

Example:

I have watched TV last night.

I watched TV last night. ✓

1. I have lived in Chesswood for five years.
I live in Chesswood for five years.
2. We moved here after my daughter was born.
We have moved here after my daughter was born.
3. I am a teacher since I left university.
I have been a teacher since I left university.
4. I went to Bristol University in 1984.
I have been to Bristol University in 1984.
5. I never went to Russia, but I'd like to.
I have never been to Russia, but I'd like to

7. Time clause

Put the words in the right order.

Example:

bath / I / when / home / will / get / have / a / I

I will have a bath when I get home.

1. hear/if/I/news/any/you/I/phone/will

2. pay/as/you/I/back/soon/can/I/as/will

3. you/feel/stop/better/if/will/you/smoking

4. car/Peter/enough/when/he/buy/a/has/will/money

5. problem/help/I/you/have/you/a/will/if

8. Questions

Write questions about the words in italics.

Example:

Somebody broke the window.

Who broke the window?

1. They are talking about somebody.

2. Peter works for somebody.

3. Somebody hit Lilly.

4. Something smells awful!

5. Jeremy lives with someone.

6. Mike and Polly are arguing about something.

7. Ssh! I'm listening to something.

8. Someone gave me £100!

9. Someone told me that Ann was getting married!

10. Something has just crept across the carpet!

9. Passives

Put the words in the right order.

1. world / is / English / the / all / spoken / over

2. since / has / nylon / 1932 / made / been

3. Mary's / invited / I / to / wasn't / party / why?

4. will / when / be / new / the / bridge / built?

5. asked / car / design / were / they / to / new / a

10. Second Conditional and might

Read the text about Jane. Then complete the sentences below.

Jane's unhappy at home and unhappy at work. She has a boring job and she doesn't earn much money. Her boss says that he will perhaps give her a pay rise next month, but he isn't sure yet. She doesn't have a car and she goes to work on crowded buses every day. She doesn't have a flat, she lives in a small room above a noisy restaurant in the centre of town. She finds it difficult to sleep because the restaurant doesn't close until after midnight. She thinks that she will perhaps go and live with her friend, Wendy, but she isn't sure yet because she likes living on her own.

Example

Jane wouldn't be unhappy if she lived in a quiet flat.

1. Jane _____ happier if she _____ a more interesting job.
2. Her boss might _____.
3. If she _____ a car, she _____ to work by bus.
4. If she _____ live above a restaurant, she _____ it easier to sleep.
5. She might _____ her friend Wendy.

11. Present Perfect Simple and Continuous

In the following pairs of sentences only one is correct. Tick (✓) the correct one.

1. I saw her five minutes ago.
I've seen her five minutes ago.
2. We are here since last Saturday.
We've been here since last Saturday.
3. How long have you known Wendy?
How long have you been knowing Wendy?
4. We haven't made coffee yet.
We didn't make coffee yet.
5. He is waiting to see the doctor since 9.
He's been waiting to see the doctor since 9.
6. When did you buy your new car?
When have you bought your new car?
7. Mary isn't home. She's been to work.
Mary isn't home. She's gone to work.
8. I've run in the park, so I'm tired.
I've been running in the park, so I'm tired.
9. I've run round the park three times.
I've been running round the park three times.
10. They already had their dinner.
They've already had their dinner

12. Opposites

Choose an adjective from the box. Write it next to its opposite.

generous well-behaved pleased tidy quiet
 beautiful interesting modern poor miserable

ugly		wealthy	
Annoyed		happy	
Noisy		naughty	
Mean		boring	
old		messy	

13. Irregular past tenses

Here are 20 verbs. 10 are regular and 10 are irregular. Write in the **Past Simple** and **Past Participle** for the irregular verbs only.

<i>Base form</i>	<i>Past simple</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Appear		
Bring		
Climb		
Fall		
Feel		
Forget		
Improve		
invent		
know		
let		
lose		
manage		
pass		
pick		
speak		
start		
tell		
understand		
use		
want		

14. Prepositions

Put the correct preposition into each gap.

- I've been reading a story _____ two girls who traveled round the world.
- I sold my car _____ £2,000.
- If that machine weren't _____ of order, I'd get you a drink.

4. Do you believe _____ UFOs?
 5. He said that she was too young to buy alcohol and that it was _____ the law.

15. Words that go together

Write the correct combinations below.

A	B
1. never	A. story
2. wear	B. a lift
3. wait	C. the truth
4. drive	D. patiently
5. tell	E. weight
6. detective	F. a uniform
7. lose	G. carefully
8. give someone	H. mind
9. narrow	I. concert
10. get	J. glasses
11. sun	K. in computers
12. pop	L. forecast
13. rain	M. path
14. interested	N. heavily
15. weather	O. ready

- 1 _____
 2 _____
 3 _____
 4 _____
 5 _____
 6 _____
 7 _____
 8 _____
 9 _____
 10 _____
 11 _____
 12 _____
 13 _____
 14 _____
 15 _____

16. Used to or the Past Simple

Look at the profile of the singer, Andy Goodchild. Complete the sentences, using **used to** where possible, or the **Past Simple**.

Example

He used to live with his parents in Leeds.

He had his first guitar when he was six.

Factfile on Andy Goodchild

Andy's highly successful solo career began in 1984. He now lives in London with his wife, Suzy, and their daughter, Trixie.

Andy tells us about his background.

1959-80	Lived in Leeds with my parents
1965	My first guitar!
1970-80	Bradford School
1971-75	Wrote songs with a friend called Keith
1976-83	Played in pubs and clubs
1980	Started going out with a girl called Mandy
June 1981	Number one record, "She's mine"
1982	Toured the United States
1983	Broke up with Mandy
1984	Went solo
August 1985	Pop festival in Los Angeles

1. He _____ Bradford School.
2. He _____ football for the school.
3. He _____ songs with a friend called Keith.
4. He _____ with The Forwards.
5. The Forwards _____ in pubs and clubs.
6. In 1981 he _____ a number one record.
7. He _____ with a girl called Mandy.
8. The Forwards _____ the United States in 1982.
9. Andy _____ in 1984.
10. He _____ a pop festival in Los Angeles the following year

The evaluation criteria:

Points

0 - 26
27-57
58-88
89-119
120-140

Level

Beginner
Elementary
Pre-intermediate
Intermediate
Advanced

Appendix D: List of Albanian-Macedonian - English cognates

No	Alba	Mac	English
1.	Akcion	Акција	Action
2.	Aktivitet	Активност	Activity
3.	Adoleshent	Адолешент	Adult
4.	Alkohol	АЛКОХОЛ	Alcohol
5.	Antikë	антика	Antique
6.	Apetit	Апетит	Appetite
7.	Rezik	Ризично	Risky
8.	Oriz	Ориз	Rise
9.	Akceptoj	Акцептира	Accept
10.	Adaptoj	Адаптира	Adopt
11.	Atraktive	Атрактивна	Attractive
12.	Bebe	Бебе	Baby
13.	Bluzë	Блуза	Blouse
14.	Brushë	Четка	Brush
15.	Kancer	Канцер	Cancer
16.	Kafe	Кафе	Coffee
17.	kualitet	Квалитет	Quality

18.	Karierë	Карьера	Carrier
19.	Bire	Пиво	Beer
20.	Shampon	Шампон	Shampoo
21.	Xhaketë	Јакна	Jacket
22.	Çokolatë	Чоколада	Chocoloate
23.	Xhus	Жус	Juice
24.	Cigare	Цигара	Cigarette
25.	Klinikë	Клиника	Clinic
26.	Konsultime	Консултации	Consultation
27.	Kremë	Крема	Cream
28.	Adresë	Адреса	Address
29.	Pacient	Пацијент	Patient
30.	Sallatë	Салата	Salad
31.	Integrim	Интеграција	Integration
32.	Specialitet	Специјалитет	Speciality
33.	Spanak	Спанак	Spinach
34.	Skelet	Скелет	Skeleton
35.	Stomak	Стомак	Stomach
36.	Farmaci	Фармација	Pharmacy
37.	Filter	Филтер	Filter
38.	Fiizike	Физичко	Physical
39.	Frigorifer	Фрижидер	Refrigerator
40.	frakturë	Фрактура	Fracture
41.	Gjest	Гест	Gesture

42.	Fakt	Факт	Fact
43.	Higjienike	Хигијенски	Hygienic
44.	Spital	Болница	Hospital
45.	Identitet	Идентитет	Identity
46.	Infekcion	Инфекција	Infection
47.	Instrukcion	Инструкции	Instructions
48.	Inekcion	Иекција	Injection
49.	Xhus	цус	Juice
50.	Bilingual	Билингуален	Bilingual
51.	Limon	Лимун	lemon
52.	Limonatë	Лимунада	Lemonade
53.	Listë	Листа	List
54.	Muskul	Мускули	Muscle
55.	Manipulon	Манипулира	Manipulate
56.	Puter	Путер	Butter
57.	Marmelatë	Мармелада	Marmalade
58.	Masazhë	Масажа	Massage
59.	Mesazh	Месаж	Message
60.	Mashkulllore	Машко	Masculine
61.	Majonezë	Мојонеза	Mayonnaise
62.	Media	Медиуми	Media
63.	Medicina	Медицина	Medicine
64.	Doctor	Доктор	Doctor
65.	Meni	Мени	Menu

66.	Market	Маркет	Market
67.	Marketing	Маркетинг	Marketing
68.	Fatale	Фатално	Fatal
69.	Numër	Број	Number
70.	Naiv	Наивен	Naiv
71.	Hundë	Nos	Nose
72.	Nacionalitet	Националност	Nationality
73.	Nervos	Нервозен	Nervous
74.	Minoritet	Миноритети	Minority
75.	Notar	Нотар	Notary
76.	peticion	Петиција	Petition
77.	Parfem	Парфем	Perfume
78.	Pixhama	Пиџами	Pajamas
79.	Desert	Десерт	Dessert
80.	Profesion	Професија	Profession
81.	Pubertet	Пубертет	Puberty
82.	Dietë	Dieta	Diet
83.	Porcion	Порција	Portion
84.	Reçetë	Рецепт	Recepie
85.	Kolektor	Колектор	Collector
86.	Regjion	Регион	Region
87.	Regress	Регрес	Regress
88.	Relaksoj	Релаксира	Relax
89.	Residence	Резиденција	Residence

90.	Restoran	Ресторан	Restaurant
91.	Sardine	Сардине	Sardine
92.	Sinjal	Сигнал	Signal
93.	Sentimental	Сентиментален	Sentimental
94.	Servon	Сервира	Serve
95.	Solo	Соло	Solo
96.	Supë	Супа	Soup
97.	Supermarket	Супермаркет	Supermarket
98.	Telefon	Телефон	Telephone
99.	Tekstil	Текстил	Textile
100.	Tipike	Типично	Typical
101.	Tip	Тип	type
102.	Figure	Фигура	Figure
103.	Traktor	Трактор	Tractor
104.	Bombë	Бомба	Bomb
105.	Bombardoj	Бомбардира	Bombing
106.	Urgjente	Ургентно	Urgent
107.	Vazë	Ваза	Vase
108.	Veteran	Ветеран	Veteran
109.	Vizuele	Визуално	Visual
110.	Vitale	Витален	Vital
111.	Vision	Визија	Vision
112.	Venë	Вино	Wine

Appendix E: List of Albanian – Macedonian- English ‘false friends’

Albanian - Macedonian - English False Friends

1.	ambulantë	амбуланта	for outpatient clinic
2.	Ansambël	ансамбл	band
3.	Aparat	апарат	appliance, device
4.	Autoportret	автопортрет	self-portrait
5.	Salon veturash	автосалон	car show
6.	Autostop	автостоп	hitchhiking
7.	bar	бар	nightclub
8.	barakë	барака	shack
9.	benzinë	бензин	gasoline, gas
10.	byfe	бифе	bar
11.	bilion	билион	trillion
12.	kamping	кампинг	campsite
13.	devizë	девиза	hard currency
14.	drejtori	дирекција	head office
15.	dirigjent	диригент	conductor
16.	Himna shtetërore	државна химна	national anthem
17.	Organ shtetëror	државни орган	state body
18.	Emancipimi i gruas	женска еманципација	women’s liberation
19.	evergreen	евергрин	old favourites, oldies goldies
20.	evidencë	евиденца	record, file

21.	Kartelë evidentuese	картон за евиденција	file card
22.	Lëndë fakultative	факултативен предмет	elective course
23.	fantazi	фантазија	imagination
24.	film	филм	movie, motion picture
25.	Fakulteti filozofik	филозофски факултет	faculty of arts
26.	Fotografski aparat	фотографски апарат	camera
27.	funksioner	функционер	officer, official
28.	grafoskop	графскоп	overhead projector
29.	hospitim	хоспитација	in-class observation
30.	ideor	идеен	conceptual
31.	instalim	инсталација	wiring, plumbing
32.	Orë private	приватни часови	private lessons (lit. transl.private hours)
33.	instruktor	инструктор	private teacher, tutor
34.	Kurs intenziv I anglishtes	интензивен курс п англиски	immersion English course
35.	Rritje intenzive	интензивен пораст	rapid growth
36.	Të interesuarit	интересирани	applicants
37.	farmerka	фармерка	blue jeans
38.	keksa	кекс	cookie, biscuit
39.	kemercialist	комерцијалист	sales agent, broker
40.	komision	комисија	committee
41.	komplet	комплет	set, kit
42.	kondenzator	кондензатор	capacitor
43.	kondiciton	кондиција	physical fitness

44.	konkretisht	конкретно	in fact, actually
45.	konkurence	конкуренија	competition
46.	konbtrolloj rezultatet	контролира результати	verify the results
47.	konservë peshku	рибна конзерва	can of fish, tin of fish
48.	lektor	лектор	foreign lecturer
49.	lektor	лектор	lanugage editor
50.	përkthime lektorike	лекториран превод	language-edit the translation
51.	teze e magjistraturës	магистарска теза	Master's Thesis
52.	miliardë	милијарда	billion
53.	creator mode	модни креатор	fashion designer
54.	montazhe	монтажа	assembly
55.	narkoman	наркоман	drug addict
56.	dres futbolli	футбалски дрес	football uniform, soccer uniform
57.	okupator	окупатор	invader, conqueror, occupying army
58.	participim	партиципација	contribution
59.	pedagog	педагог	educator, teacher
60.	fakulteti pedagogjik	педагошки факултет	faculty of education
61.	realizim	реализација	execution, fulfilment, performance, implementation
62.	recept	рецепт	prescription
63.	reflektor	рефлектор	spotlight, floodlight
64.	рекламој	рекламира	compalin about, advertise,
65.	рентген	рентген	x-ray

66.	simpatik	симпатичен	likable
67.	stipendion	стипендија	scholarship, bursary
68.	taksist	таксист	taxi driver
69.	takt	такт	beat
70.	temë	тема	topic, subject
71.	tempo	темпо	pace
72.	trafikë	трафика	tobacconist's
73.	traekt	траект	ferry
74.	trener	тренер	coach
75.	trening	тренинг	practice
76.	vagon	вагон	railway car
77.	variantë	варијанта	option, alternative
78.	vikedicë	викендица	cottage, holiday
79.	instalues uji	водни инсталлатер	home plumber
80.	Karamela	Карамела	Candy
81.	Operacion	Операција	Surgery
82.	Kuzhinë	Кујна	Kitchen
83.	Konzerva	Конзерва	(transfer for cuisine – cook)) Caned food
84.	Praktike	Практично	Useful
85.	Drogeri	Дрогерија	Cosmetic shop (transf. for chemist's shop)
86.	Llak per thoj llak	Лак за нокти	Nail polish

87.	Matura	Матура	Graduation from a secondary school Mature: aging
88.	Mantil	МАНТИЛ	Coat Mantle:table coat
89.	Modë	Мода	Style Mode (form)
90.	Kafe	кафеави	Brown
91.	Provoj	Проба	Taste
92.	Recept	Рецепт	Prescription Eng = recipe
93.	Fabrikë	фабрика	Factory
94.	Menzë	Менза	Canteen

Appendix F: Sample translation text in Albanian

Jeta studentore

Aulona është studente e Fakultetit të Gazetarisë. Ajo banon larg familjes pasi që Universiteti ndodhet në qytet tjetër. Ajo ndan një dhome me shoqen e saj, Doniken. Ato studiojnë në të njëjtin fakultet dhe gjithë ditën e kalojnë bashkë. Në ligjeratë Aulona ze vend gjithmone pranë Donikes dhe së bashku e degjojnë mesimin. Ndonjëherë bisedojnë me pak zë dicka për mesimin. Shpesh shkojnë të motra e Donikes e cila punon në një firmë farmaceutike dhe zyrën e ka në afërsi të fakultetit të tyre. Është një shfaqje tërheqëse kur e shohin motrën e Donikes, Rinën, me mantel të bardhë, pasi në përgjithësi ajo e ndjek shumë trendin. Ndodhë që Arta të çojë deri në banesë me veturë, pasi që është larg nga fakulteti. Aulona dhe Donika dalin gati çdo fundjavë. Një mbremje ato e thirrën me telefon një shoqen e tyre dhe i dhane propozim që të shkojnë atë mbremje në ahëng. Dolen dhe u kaloi koha duke biseduar, duke qeshur e duke bërë fotografi. Në banesë u kthyen pas mesnate. Të nesërmen ishte ditë e Diel. Aulona ndihej shumë keq, ishte ftohur. Ndihej e pafuqishme dhe dha konstatim se ndihet si e pashtëpi, që ishte një konstatim i paqendrueshëm.

Appendix G : Interview questions with the English teachers

Question 1: Is it a handicap or benefit for students to be bilingual when learning English?

Question 2: Is there any interdependent relationship between students' L1, L2 and L3?

Question 3: Did the teachers experience any differences between poor and high bilingual students?

Question 4: How do the English teachers deal with the CLI of the students' L1 and L2 while teaching English?

Question 5: What is the students' attitude toward learning English?

Appendix H: List of calques transfer from L1 Albanian in L3 English production

L1 Albanian	L3 English production	Correct English form
Te jetoj sëbashku	I live together with X in a room	Share a room
ftohem	get cold	catch a cold
thërras me telefon	call with a telephone	make a (phone) call
jap propozim	give a proposal	make a proposal
zë vend	reserve place	take a seat
dëgjoj mësim	listen to the lessons	take lessons
bëj fotografi	make pictures	take pictures
bëj jetën	do life	live a life
Kënaqem me muzikë	Satisfaction with music	Enjoy music
duket interesant	shows interesting	appears interesting
dëshiroj mirëseardhje	wish welcome	welcome
kaloj kohë	pass time	spend time
i bashkohem dëshirës	join the desire	share the desire
udhëheq mbledhjen	guide the meeting	direct the meeting
deri diku	till somewhere	to a certain extent
pjesë muzike	part of music	a piece of music
të holla xhepi	money of the pocket	pocket money
pak a shum	less or more	more or less

turn i ditës	day turn	day shift
me kërkesë të	with requirement of	at the request of
nga larg	from far	at a distance
Nga sa shihet	from what is seen	as things go
sa më shpejtë	as fast	as soon as possible
me çdo kusht	with every condition	at all costs
përmirësim	betterment	a change for the better
keqësim	worsment	a change for the worse
shumë larg	far a way	a long way off
në fund	in the end	lastly
papritmas	without waiting	suddenly
kthej fjalën	turn the word back	answer back
në të vërtetë	in reality	as a matter of fact
mjete transporti	means of transport	tool of transport
njihem me	be recognized	become acquainted
merr fund	take finish	all over
më vjen për dore	it goes with my hand	be good at
mbetem pa	I am without of	I am out of
më vjen keq	I feel bad	I am sorry

kam para sysh	have in eyes	bear in mind
pa kaufi	without borders	beyond all bounds
pak nga pak	little to little	bit by bit
ndez	light	turn on
më vjen ndër mend	comes under mind	recall
shoqe e ngushtë	tight friend	close friend
përmendësh	in memory	by heart
qortoi	corrected	called down
qetësohem	become silent	calm down
ftohem	get cold	catch cold
merrem me	I take with	I deal with
llogaris	calculate	figure out
drejt për drejt	directly	first hand
gjendje shpirtërore	soul condition	frame of mind
keq e më keq	bad to bad	from bad to worse
marr pushim	take a brake	get a leave
lind	born	give birth
pata nderrin	I had the respect	I had the honor
duroj	stand	hold up

në qendër të vëmendjes	in the center of mind	in the public eye
mbaj shënim	keep writings	keep record of
pengoj	disturb	keep away
shtyj (afatin)	push	leave over
kujdesem	care	look after
rroba te gatshme	ready suits	ready made suits
koha kalon	the time is passing	Time is running on
harxhoj para	consume money	spend money
hedh dritë	put light	shed light on
Të kesh turp!	Have a shame!	Shame on you!
ulem	sit	sit down
rrëshqiti gjuha	slip of the language	slip of the tongue
gjër këtu	until here	so far
ngadalësoj	slowly	slow down
zgjedh	select	sort out
çohem	stand	stand up
rri vonë	stay late	stay up
bëj banjo	make a shower	take a shower
shfrytëzoj rastin	use the situation	take a chance

mbahet	kept	take place
jap një leksion	give a lesson	teach a lesson
domethënë	meaning	that is to say
nuk ia vlen	it is not worth	there is no use
me sa di	as I know	to my knowledge
sa për fillim	as for beginning	to start with
gjer tani	until now	up to now

Appendix I: List of semantic extensions in English production

<i>L1 Albanian</i>	<i>L3 English production</i>	<i>Correct English form</i>
gjuhë	language	tongue
jap	give	pass
drejtohem	to direct	to address
kohë	time	tense
qëndroj	stay	stand
turmë	crowd	jam
mësohem	learned	get used to
pranohem	accepted	admitted
prapseprap	again	however
prek	reach	handle
bëj	make	do
kaloj	spend	pass
vë	put	place
zmadhoj	enlarge	increase
shpejt	fast	quickly
shumë	much	many
natyrisht	naturally	of course
cikël	cycle	round

mënyra	way	method
i mençur	bright	clever
dispozion	disposal	available
mesatare	medium	average
pëzihem	mix	interfere
njoh	recognize	acquaint
lehtë	easy	light
rehat	calm	comfortable
prish	spoil	damage
thyej	crash	brake
urtësi	stillness	wisdom
mbërrij	achive	arrive
dëgjoj	listen	hear
takim	meeting	date
shikim	look	sight
rregulloj	fix	repair
kompenzoj	compensate	reimburse
kursej	keep	save
përdorues	user	consumer

disa	some	few
fatkeqesi	bad luck	accident
ore	clock	watch

Appendix J: The influence of L2 in L3 English production

L1 Standard Albanian	L2 Macedonian	L2 influence in Albanian	L3 English production with L2 influence	Correct English form
klub nate	Бар /bar/	bar	bar	night club
veshje solemne	Смокинг /smoking/	smoking	smoking	dinner jacket
ankesë	СМОКИНГ /reklamacija/	reklamacion	reklama	complaint
mbajtës rekordesh	рекордер /rekorder/	rekorder	recorder	record- holder someone who scores high points
pyetësor	анкета /anketa/	anketa	anceta	questionnaire
stilolaps	Хемијско пенкало /hemijsko penkalo/	laps kimik	chemical pen	pen
element	Фактор /factor/	faktor	factor	element
dosje	досие /dosie/	dosie	dosie	file –dossier
njesi	сектор /sector/	sektor	sektor	department

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Zusammenfassung

Wie in den meisten Ländern der Welt, wird auch in Makedonien überwiegend Englisch als erste Fremdsprache erlernt. Die Situation in Makedonien unterscheidet sich jedoch von anderen, vielleicht besser bekannten, Lernkontexten insofern, dass albanische Lerner von Englisch meist bereits bilingual (Albanisch-Makedonisch) aufgewachsen sind.

Das Ziel dieser Studie ist es die Sprachverwendung bilingualer albanischer Englischlerner zu untersuchen, um herauszufinden, welche Rolle Englisch in ihrem Leben spielt, wie sie die Englisch Sprache erlernen und welches Verhalten in der Sprachproduktion sie beim Erlernen der Drittsprache an den Tag legen.

Die vorliegende Studie hat einen psycholinguistischen und soziolinguistischen Untersuchungsansatz, wobei der Schwerpunkt der Studie auf der Untersuchung von Transferphänomenen auf Ebene der Lexis liegt. Wie andere Studien zum Drittspracherwerb, konzentriert sich diese Studie also auf die Erforschung des Einflusses von lexikalischem Wissen in der Erst- und Zweitsprache auf den Englischlerwerb. Die Daten der Studie wurden in Englischstunden im universitären Kontext gesammelt, wobei auf Englisch geschriebene Texte von Lernern, Fragebögen zum Sprachhintergrund, Sprachtests, Sprachaufnahmen im Klassenzimmerkontext, und Interviews mit EnglischlehrerInnen ausgewertet wurden. Auf Basis der durch Sprachtests und Fragebögen zur Sprachlerngeschichte erworbenen Ergebnisse, wurden die an der Studie teilnehmenden StudentInnen in zwei Gruppen geteilt. Eine Gruppe setzte sich aus 48 Englischlernern mit niedriger bilingualer Sprachkompetenz, die zweite Gruppe aus 67 Individuen mit hoher bilingualer Sprachkompetenz zusammen.

Der bemerkenswerteste Zusammenhang, welcher in der Studie beobachtet werden konnte, ist wohl der Effekt des Bilingualismus auf die Drittsprachproduktion. Die Resultate der Studie konnten die wichtigsten Forschungsfragen der Untersuchung beantworten und konnten zeigen, dass bilinguale Sprachkompetenz und die Struktur der erlernten Sprachen sich auf den Drittspracherwerb und die Drittsprachproduktion

auswirken. Die Studienergebnisse suggerieren, dass bilinguale Sprachkompetenz, die Ähnlichkeit von Sprachtypologien und die Haltung und Motivation zur Drittsprache alles Faktoren sind, welche den Drittspracherwerb positiv beeinflussen können. Diese Ergebnisse stützen und erweitern die Erkenntnisse, welche bereits in anderen Studien zum Drittspracherwerb gewonnen werden konnten.

CURRICULUM VITAE

EDUCATION/ DEGREES:

Since 2007 PhD studies, Vienna University
2006 Master of Philological Sciences – M.phil. - University of Prishtina
1998 English Language and Literature, - Diploma – University of Prishtina

TRAININGS AND CERTIFICATES

2010 University of Maribor, Slovenia- English language Department,-
ERASMUS teacher exchange program
2006 George Washington University,-Teacher Training Program
2004 Oxford Brooks University,- Teaching English as a Foreign Language,
2004 American Embassy in Skopje,- Professional Development Training
Program
2003 Eltam Conference Macedonia,- Teaching English as a Foreign
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2003 Indiana University USA Indiana, Bloomington, ELT Training
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2002 Indiana University USA, ELT/ ESP Professional Development
2000 International Association of women NGO-s, Leadership and
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2000 Euro-Balkan – Institute, Gender Roles in the Society

CONFERENCES AND PRESENTATIONS

2008 Jaume I University, Castello, Spain, International Conference on
MULTILINGUALISM: sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic
perspectives, “Learning English as a third language in Macedonia:
Lexical transfer of L1 Albanian, L2Macedonian in L3 English
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2007 Athens Institute for Education and Research “School leadership
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2006 Regional Conference, “Using a reading passage to present
grammatical structures”,Skopje, Macedonia
2001 International Conference of English Language Teachers,
Presentation, “Adopting English Computer Terms into Albanian”,
SEEU, Tetovo
2001 University of Prishtina, Language Conference, “Bilingualism in
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2002-2004 Deputy Director of the Language Centre, SEEU 2002
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1992-1996 Translator & Interpreter, Municipality of Kiel, Schleswig Holstein,
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SCHOOL

1997-1999 English Language Teacher-Gymnasium High School, Gostivar,
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NGO

2000 President of the International NGO Amica, established and works in
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FELLOWSHIPS:

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