

## Lexical Attrition in the Egyptian EFL University Setting

Amr Mansour El-Zawawy

Department of English, Faculty of Education

Alexandria University

[amrzuave@yahoo.com](mailto:amrzuave@yahoo.com)

### Abstract

The present study attempts to explore how lexical attrition happens in the case of Egyptian EFL learners at the university level. The study sample consisted of 88 Egyptian female students from the Faculty of Education, Alexandria University, Egypt. The method adopted is a longitudinal one, where pre- and post-test results for orthography, pronunciation and meaning are compared. The findings of the study revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the spelling and meaning retention scores in both pre and post test results for the same group. However, there were no statistically significant differences in the pronunciation retention scores in both pre and post test results for the same group. It was also concluded that orthography is no more resilient than meaning, and easy sound-meaning correspondences saved in declarative memory are prone to interference from lexical analogues within the dominant language. Furthermore, the lexicon contains phonics, not only in the shape of inherent and selectional capabilities, but also because of its popularity as a reservoir of constructional sounds and fixed phonological processes.

**Keywords:** retention, EFL learners, Egyptian, lexical attrition

### 1 Introduction

Languages are naturally connected with the procedures of obtaining, learning, discourse generation or phonetic use. As such, we connect languages with a gain. Consequently, it appears to be less instinctive to consider them as far as breakdown, attrition or steady loss. Be that as it may, linguistic attrition is particularly a semantic reality. Generally, the term alludes to longstanding loss instead of brief loss of etymological material (Brown, 1994) and is activated by neglect, absence of or diminished information (Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer, 2010). All the more explicitly, it covers a scope of potential outcomes where language is lost by populations or individual speakers and users or students.

Students, particularly EFL ones, may experience attrition after they lose their contact with a certain items of language, e.g. lexical items, grammatical usage or pronunciation. As Tomiyama (1999) contends, first and second language steady loss is usually set in inside a half year of neglect. It ought to be noticed that as indicated by Oxford (1982), there are numerous and different factors, including psychological capacity, which may impact the measure of steady attrition—and as indicated by Johnson and Johnson (1999), this capacity comprises knowledge and inclination. Following Gardner's (1993, as cited to in Mahdavy, 2008), the Theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI), Po-ying (n.d.), Shearer (2006) argued that etymological knowledge is not the main type of insight that is associated with language learning.

Cohen (1989) and Olshtain (1989) concluded that there is a decrease in lexical access in the duration of production, but no longer a lack of comprehension; therefore, no attrition in vocabulary happens. Other researchers preferred to break down lexical attrition into components that could be separately investigated. Fabunmi and Salawu (2005) noted that changes occur in the assignment, connotations, and scope of utilization of words. Schmid and de Bot (2003), Schmidt (1985) and Ecke (2004) contended that loss of content morphemes is believed to go before the loss of case, 'relational words' (Schmidt 2008, p.9), 'case markers' (Polinsky, 1997, p.399), and 'allomorphic variety' (Schmid and de Bot, 2003, p.224).

Lexical attrition is thus a rich area for research, especially in the context of Arab EFL learners, where very few studies have hitherto been conducted. Accordingly, the present study explores how lexical attrition happens in the case of Egyptian EFL learners at the university level. The paper thus attempts to contribute to the issue of lexical attrition in the Egyptian EFL university setting by adopting a longitudinal method, where pre- and post-test results are compared over a period of an approximately 2 years.

## **2 What is language attrition?**

Language attrition usually refers to the decay of language aptitudes in neurologically debilitated patients and to the decrease of particular sorts of language use by the elderly. Similarly, language attrition might be utilized to depict the passing away of a whole language. There is one more sense in which the term language attrition is utilized and has received impressively less

consideration: that is, loss of language ability by the individuals who have concentrated and afterward suspended the utilization of an outside or second language (Berko-Gleason, 1982 ; Jordens, de Bot, Van Os, & Schumans, 1986; Lambert, 1989 ).

When a specific edge or threshold of use is accomplished, an item might be less defenseless to or even vulnerable to attrition (Paradis, 2007 ; Neisser, 1984). The activation edge or threshold theory comes from research with aphasic patients, for whom the reactivation of phonetic illustrations has appeared to be at any rate mostly reliant on the recurrence of utilization of preceding input (Paradis, 2004): the higher the activation limit, the more noteworthy the quantity of enacting motivations expected to reactivate the item. The basic edge or threshold hypothesis is a more extensive trend that has had a significant effect on the field of L2 attrition. Neisser recommended that there may be a general basic edge or threshold amid learning after which semantic information becomes perpetual, referring to as proof of Bahrick's (1984a, cited in Neisser, 1984) study, which provides details regarding dialect maintenance in L2 students of Spanish even following 25 years of nonuse.

According to Schmid (2008, p.9), the list that follows is a set of broadly repetitive and every so often contradictory thoughts about the language attrition technique:

- 1) Attrition is the reversal of acquisition
- 2) Attrition normally takes place in the first 10 years of emigration
- 3) Attrition would not set in till ten years after emigration
- 4) Attrition is most extreme where the 2 language structures have similarities
- 5) Attrition is maximum excessive the greater different the 2 language structures are
- 6) Attrition is most intense in cases wherein there is very little touch with other speaker of the language.

In line with Schmid (2008, p. 9), defining attrition as a method of loss, forgetting, and deterioration implies that there are ranges of linguistic knowledge: a pre-attrition degree a, and an attrited degree b. Thus, the apparent difference among A and B, resulting from a procedure of attrition, is the phenomenon of attrition.

### 3 Hypotheses of language attrition

There is no unanimity as to the precise nature of language loss. The sphere of L1 attrition is prolific. Several theoretical methods tackled the difficulty of language attrition (Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer, 2010). The first language angle is a prerequisite to expertise for 2nd language attrition. Chronologically, the regression hypothesis (cf. Jakobson, 1941 in Köpke, 2007) is one of the earliest theoretical assumptions of language attrition. According to this view, ‘the order of language acquisition is opposite to the order of language loss’ (Köpke, 2007, p.1). Those elements of language which are acquired early are the most resistant to loss whilst those received later are the most vulnerable. However, it is also argued that there may be hardly any empirical proof supporting this hypothesis in the L1 research. The other method, the threshold hypothesis, is not always most effective conceptually, being close to its predecessor, yet, additionally, takes it one step further. It states that not what is acquired first is the least liable to loss and ‘the sequence of acquisition is not always as important here due to the belief in first-rate or frequency of exposure’ (Jordens, de Bot, van Os, and Schumans, 1986, p.166). The Threshold Hypothesis is available in different forms. Proponents of this view become aware of a diagnostic stage inside the manner of language acquisition. Those learners who achieve the threshold and attain the desired degree of competence are said to have an everlasting storage of that language. As an end result, the frequency of reinforcement strengthens abstract, underlying representations making them much less inclined, if now not immune, to loss (Neisser, 1984). To test it, Bahrick (1984a, p.107, in Neisser, 1984) tested Spanish at school level, and discovered that ‘positive elements (i.e., lexical) of the non-native knowledge had stabilized and were preserved for 25 years’. Nearly no linguistic material became misplaced during the time in the range from five to 25 years of training.

Köpke (2004) has hypothesized there are two conceivable cognitive processes that may lead to attrition. One of them is the decay hypothesis, which asserts that absence of utilization steadily leads to the eradication of memory. As indicated by Hansen (2001), this is as opposed to what numerous therapists accept; in their view, something that is focused on memory will not be erased. Further, Marefat and Rouhshad (2007) have exhibited that students who were in contact with L2 English speakers also experienced attrition; along these lines, attrition is not constrained just to the general population who lose their contact with the language. The second is the influence hypothesis, which holds that linguistic data is altered,

affected by different languages; this shows that new data impacts past data. This hypothesis is in accordance with interference theory set forth by Weltens and Grendel (1993).

#### **4 Lexical attrition in L2 and its causes**

Lexical attrition has been described as loss of vocabulary, loss of semantic distinctions, and decreased performance capacity. Performance attrition may incorporate difficulty in lexical recall (Olshtain, 1989; Leyew, 2003, p.108; Sasse 1992) and expand uncertainty of lexical decisions. Semantic changes may incorporate expanded polysemy (Leyew, 2003, p. 118) and expanded hyponymy of terms, with changes occurring in the assignment, connotations, and scope of utilization of words. Schmid and de Bot (2003) note that proof for lexical attrition is hard to discover despite the existence of a large body of cases for its reality, however we additionally keep up that a capacity to recognize lexical decay or degrees of it might be valuable in anticipating attrition in different parts of the grammar. Loss of content morphemes is contended to go before the loss of case (Ecke, 2004), relational words (Schmidt, 1985), case markers (Polinsky, 1997), and allomorphic variety (Schmid and de Bot, 2003).

Manessy (1977) discovered some non-native speakers of several African languages and determined that they have a tendency to use a small core of quite common and noticeably beneficial vocabulary. There had been comparable results in Blum and Levenston's (1978) studies that L2 learners tend to use the not unusual, especially common, unmarked lexical items, since they do not know how to distinguish among these categories of items. Based on these studies, Anderson (1982) proposed a hypothesis that what lexicon the L2 has retained may be of common, quite common, unmarked lexical objects; the gaps could be of much less common, low frequency, and enormously marked items. This hypothesis is primarily based on the markedness principle, and it received a few evidence from Hansen and Chen (2001). In their study, they analyzed the attrition of numeral classifier structures of Eastern and Chinese language, and argued that the much less marked classifier is much less affected in attrition. Moreover, their observation additionally explained the regression hypothesis that classifiers found in the earliest stages would be the easiest ones to forget.

Other researchers focused their studies on the attrition of receptive and productive lexicon. Gonzo and Saltarelli (1983) used two experimental tasks, viz. picture

naming and phrase-photo matching in a test. The findings showed that lexicon attrition became more commonly found in the former task than inside the latter one. De Bot and Weltens (1995) furnished a reason behind the end result. In their explanation, the primary task was a retrieval assignment wherein the actual cue in mind became required; however the second undertaking became a popularity project in which best recognition became needed. And within the matching task, the target object itself could be considered as a retrieval cue. According to the retrieval fail hypothesis, the vocabulary with extra retrieval cues can be more immune to attrition. Hence, receptive lexicon is less subject to attrition than the productive lexicon.

Grendel (1993) made a study in which a lexical decision set was employed to re-investigate the possible attrition of French among Dutch learners (reported in Weltens & Grendel 1993). In a design similar to the study by Weltens (1989), approximately 200 Dutch participants from two training levels were tested at the end of their foreign language education, as well as two and four years later. Participants' knowledge of the French writing system was tested through using pseudowords with frequent consonant clusters and pseudowords with non-frequent consonant clusters. It was anticipated that this task would show participants' sensitivity to French orthographic competence, as this knowledge would cause participants to rule out pseudowords with low-frequency consonant clusters faster than non-frequent ones.

Studies of the lexicon have measured the decrease in active vocabulary not only in terms of size (cf. Russell 1999) but also in lexical access too. Primarily based on the truth that children in longitudinal studies can give the meanings of phrases that had been utilized in preceding production samples, because dropped out in subsequent elicitation sessions, Cohen (1989) and Olshtain (1989) concluded that there is decrease in lexical access in the duration of production, but no longer a lack of comprehension, as a result no attrition in vocabulary happens. Further, studies that compare recognition to recall frequently report that recognition scores are higher. Applying a lexical selection task (phrase/nonword) which recorded reaction time and error rate, Verkaik and van Der Wijst (1986) found that whilst error rates remained notably consistent across two learner groups, one that had simply finished training and one that had two years of disuse, RTs have been appreciably slower within the group with two years' disuse. As Weltens and

Grendel (1993) concluded, this shows that the speed of the retrieval is more affected than the success of the process.

In one longitudinal study on attrition, where the written correspondence of a long-time German migrant in the US was analyzed, Hutz (2004) infers that attrition in morphology and syntax turned out to be a moderate and slow process, though the lexical domain experienced an increasingly quickened change. The level of morpho-syntactic attrition following 57 years of living in the L2-dominant environment was surprising. The attrition of the lexical domain was basically described by the nearness of code-switching and semantic transfers. The data proposed that, contrasted with other linguistic subsystems, semantic transfers were particularly vulnerable to language steady loss.

As for the Arabic language, Al-Hazemi (2000) investigated attrition of general and special lexical knowledge of some Saudi military officers. The duration of language disuse was 12 years after graduating from King Abdul Aziz military Academy. The findings of this study showed that the ability of participants to recall both general and special lexical items was too low (less than 45% recall). The results also revealed that the period of English disuse had no effect on lexical access.

## **5 Methods and materials**

### **5.1 Research design**

The study adopted a quasi-experimental design. The longitudinal method was selected to assess the effect of time on the attrition degree of lexical items. The variables are as follows:

a. Dependent variables:

1. Number of syllable of target words.
2. Phonetic similarity, i.e. pronunciation.
3. Semantic field.

b. Independent variables:

1. Age
2. Gender
3. Linguistic proficiency

## 5.2 Hypotheses of the study

1. There are no statistically significant differences in the spelling retention scores in both pre and post test results for the same group.
2. There are no statistically significant differences in the pronunciation retention scores in both pre and post test results for the same group.
3. There are no statistically significant differences in the meaning retention scores in both pre and post test results for the same group.

## 5.3 Test design

A 30-item vocabulary test including three types of variables was developed. The test was divided into three sections:

1. Spelling
2. Pronunciation
3. Meaning

The first required participants to choose the most accurate spelling of nouns/verbs, which were presented to them without any context. The second required participants to select an appropriate answer. The distracters were very close in their pronunciations. The two types measured their productive vocabulary in and out of context respectively. The third type asked participants to provide Arabic equivalents of the underlined words in certain sentences. The aim of this type was to see how L1 can affect the lexicon of L2.

## 5.4 Scoring

Each item was allocated one mark.

## 5.5 Participants

The study sample consisted of 88 Egyptian female students from third and fourth years, Faculty of Education, Alexandria University, Egypt. They ranged between 20 to 22 years old. Age and statistics are provided in the following table:

| Total | Minimum | Maximum | Mean  | Std Deviation |
|-------|---------|---------|-------|---------------|
| 88    | 20.00   | 22.00   | 21.00 | 1.05          |

Table 1: Age statistics for the sample

The sample was randomly selected from a population of 100 students in the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of study. A TOIEC-based test was administered to the sample to ensure their proficiency levels. It consisted of 200 multiple-choice items evenly divided between the listening and reading comprehension section. Each candidate



received independent scores for listening and reading comprehension on a scale from 5 to 495 points. The total score added up to a scale from 10 to 990 points. The following chart illustrates their scores:

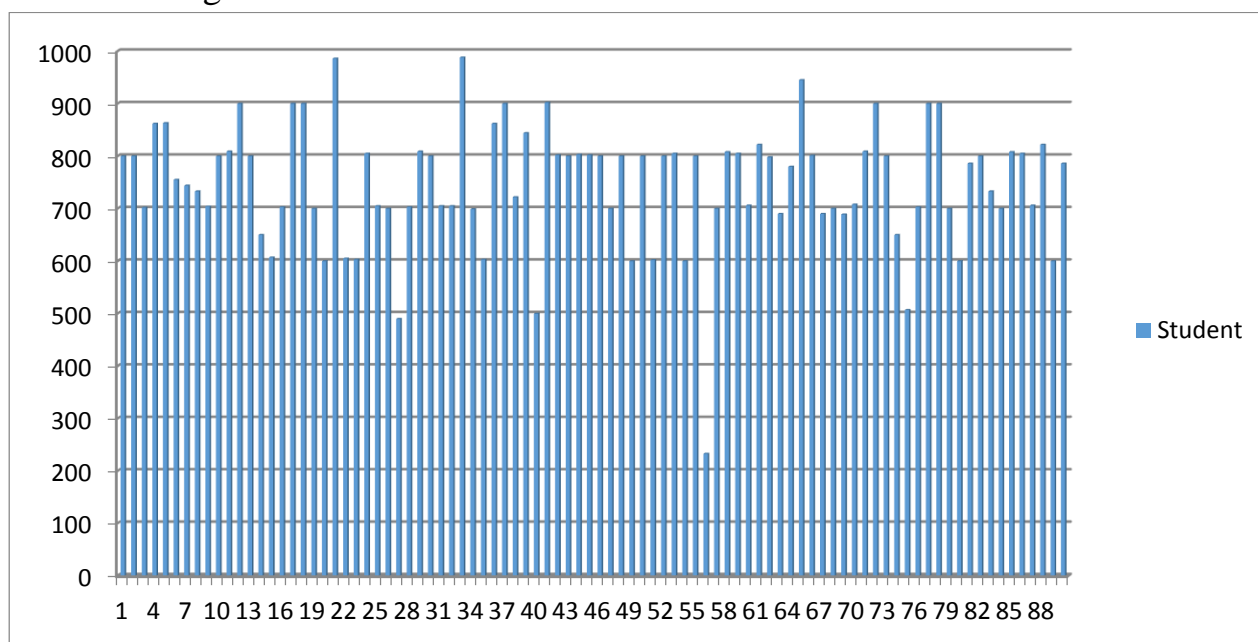


Fig. 1: The sample's scores in the TOEIC-based test

## 5.6 Procedure

As the study adopted the longitudinal method, two tests were due: a pre-test and a post-test. The pre-test was administered on November 11<sup>th</sup>, 2017 on the same sample of students. The post-test was administered on December 15<sup>th</sup>, 2019 on the same sample. The details of the two tests were as follows:

### 5.6.1 Pre-test procedures

Before Students were examined on a list of words that they had studied in their second year of study. The test was divided into three sections:

1. Spelling
2. Pronunciation
3. Meaning

The time allowed for the test was 45 minutes. Students were asked to find synonyms (in English or Arabic as appropriate) in contextualized and non-contextualized questions on words that were included in their 2<sup>nd</sup> year reading course.

### 5.6.2 Post-test procedures

After approximately two years of study, the same sample sat for the same test. Students were asked to find synonyms in non-contextualized questions on words that were included in their 2<sup>nd</sup> year reading course, being now in their fourth year of study.

## 6 Analysis of findings

### 6.1 Statistical analysis

#### 6.1.1 Pre-test and post-test spelling comparison

The mean and standard deviation for this part are as follows:

| Variable | Test      | Mean            | Standard Deviation | T-test (two-tailed) |
|----------|-----------|-----------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Spelling | Pre-test  | 7.6404494382022 | 1.6462574015243    | 15.36994*           |
|          | Post-test | 3.5280898876404 | 1.9134089500183    |                     |

\* The  $p$ -value is  $< .00001$ . The result is significant at  $p < .05$ .

Table 2: The mean and standard deviation for the pre and post-test spelling part

It appears from the t-test scores that there are significant differences between pre- and post-test scores in the attrition of spelling or orthography. This runs counter to the first hypothesis of the study, which states that ‘there are no statistically significant differences in the spelling retention scores in both pre and post test results for the same group’. Out of 88 participants, only 4 participants managed to provide accurate spellings for all the words included in the post test. This means that around 4.55% of them retained the orthographical shapes of the words they studied in the 2<sup>nd</sup> year. This loss of spelling can be initially attributed to the overdependence on the long-term memory for restoring lexical items in the mental lexicon, and the interference from other similar words from other texts they were exposed to during their years of study. A significant example is the cases of ‘supersede’ and ‘cemetery’, which 74 participants mistook for ‘superceded’ and ‘cemetary’, i.e. 84.09% of the participants failed to retain them.

#### 6.1.2 Pre-test and post-test pronunciation comparison

| Variable      | Test      | Mean           | Standard Deviation | T-test (two-tailed) |
|---------------|-----------|----------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Pronunciation | Pre-test  | 7.247191011236 | 1.486919473246     | 0.57158*            |
|               | Post-test | 7.123595505618 | 1.9134089500183    |                     |

\*The  $p$ -value is .568334. The result is *not* significant at  $p < .05$ .

Table 3: The mean and standard deviation for the pre and post-test pronunciation part

It appears from the t-test scores that there are no significant differences between pre- and post-test scores in the attrition of spelling or orthography. This proves the second hypothesis of the study, which states that ‘there are no statistically significant differences in the pronunciation retention scores in both pre and post

test results for the same group’. Out of 88 participants, only 7 participants failed to provide accurate pronunciations for all the words included in the post test. This means that around 92.05% of them retained the phonics of the words they studied before. This strong retention of pronunciation can be initially attributed to the dissociation between the spelling and pronunciation: the participants failed to pair the two together, and this may be why they managed to get the pronunciation correct, but the spelling wrong. A significant example is the cases of ‘basic and ‘low’, which 5 participants mistook for /beizik/ and /lo:/, i.e. 5.86% of the participants failed to retain them.

### 6.1.3 Pre-test and post-test meaning comparison

| Variable | Test      | Mean            | Standard Deviation | T-test (two-tailed) |
|----------|-----------|-----------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Meaning  | Pre-test  | 7.247191011236  | 1.486919473246     | 18.04932*           |
|          | Post-test | 3.0337078651685 | 1.5333374043261    |                     |

\*The *p*-value is < .00001. The result is significant at *p* < .05.

Table 4: The mean and standard deviation for the pre and post-test meaning part

It appears from the t-test scores that there are significant differences between pre- and post-test scores in the attrition of spelling or orthography. This runs counter to the third hypothesis of the study, which states that ‘there are no statistically significant differences in the meaning retention scores in both pre and post test results for the same group’. Out of 88 participants, only 3 participants failed to provide accurate semantic contents for all the words included in the post test. This means that around 96.59% of them retained the meaning of the words they studied before. This weak retention of meaning can be initially attributed to the interference from other words they were exposed to during the period of their study before the post-test. A significant example is the cases of ‘rue’ and ‘ruminate’, which 47 participants mistook for ‘row’ and ‘dominate’, i.e. 53.41% of the participants failed to retain them.

## 7 Discussions

### 7.1 Why pronunciation is not lost

According to Wei (2014: 1604), ‘Anderson’s (1982) hypothesis states that 1) phonological distinctions existing both in the language learners’ L1 and L2 would be more resistant to attrition; 2) phonological distinctions carrying a high functional load in L2 would be more resistant to attrition than those carrying a low functional load’.

In the present study, evidence may be found amongst Egyptian EFL learners to support Anderson's (1982) hypothesis. Egyptian college students starting to learn English as a 2nd language discover consonant [p] hard to pronounce. Initially, EFL novices in Egypt regularly 'use the sound [b] to replace the sound [p] on the grounds that they do not have the pronunciation [p] in their mother tongue' (Wei, 2014: 1605). In view of the regression hypothesis, 'what is learned within the later stages would be forgotten earlier' (Wei, 2014:1605). Thus, they retain the older pronunciation, especially marked ones, i.e. ones that do not exist in their L1 and therefore have a high 'functional load'. In addition, according to Anderson (1982), words that contain sounds shared by both L1 and L2 are more resistant to loss or attrition. This may be one explanation for why the scores in pronunciation are not statistically significant between pre and post-test treatments.

## 7.2 Why spelling and meaning are lost

The finding that meaning is subject to attrition runs counter to Bahrck's (1984a) study, which provides details regarding dialect maintenance in L2 students of Spanish even following 25 years of nonuse. It is also congruent with Al-Hazemi's (2000) study, where time distance was reported to have no substantial effect. However, in the aggregate, significant findings are commensurate with the activation threshold hypothesis of Paradis (2004, 2007), where both recency and frequency of access decide the efficiency of lexical retrieval. According to Neely (1991), the type of priming commonly labeled as 'repetition priming' is a major cause of the why spelling and meaning are lost. The most frequently occurring words, such as apple, banana, tomato and orange, are usually recalled by Egyptian EFL learners faster than 'much less frequent ones, such as lime, pineapple and grapefruit' (Wei, 2014:1606). Surprisingly, however, words such as avocado, which are also less frequent, are not subject to attrition. This can be explained in the light of the fact that marked words could be retained better. The markedness principle is both morphologically and semantically driven, and is thus not completely dependent on frequency. This is why marked spelling and meaning are retained, but infrequent orthography and meaning are easily lost due to lack of sufficient exposure.

In the present experiment, Egyptian participants may have resorted to morphology to recollect the stimulus words. For example, in the case of 'impecunious', they might have broken them down into 'im' plus 'pecunious', as is clear from their answers. However, this did not help much. They also did the same with

‘redoubtable’, which they wrongly defined in Arabic as ‘liable to repetitive doubts’. As for spelling, the errors were mainly grounded in long-term memory shortage, and no significant conclusions can be drawn from their errors, except initial faulty storage or overdependence on the pronunciation as a guide to spelling.

## 8 Conclusions

It can be concluded that orthography is no more resilient than meaning, and easy sound-meaning correspondences saved in declarative memory are prone to interference from lexical analogues within the dominant language. Different varieties of lexical entries show distinctive styles of attrition. Furthermore, the lexicon contains phonics, not only in the shape of inherent and selectional capabilities, but also because of its popularity as a reservoir of constructional sounds and fixed phonological processes.

The results of the present paper thus provides new insights into the way the mental lexicon of the Egyptian EFL learner in the university setting is organized, and how phonics occupies a significant position in the long-term memory while acquiring English by Arab learners. This means that orthography and meaning are vulnerable to loss, and do not always interfere in phonics as part of foreign language acquisition.

Given the limitations of the present study, it is probable to claim that vocabulary is extra vulnerable than grammar in conditions of disuse; however, such a conclusion requires explanation, in a future study, where sound-meaning correspondences can be embedded in an extra sophisticated account of the lexicon.

## References

- Al-Hazemi, H. (2000). “Lexical attrition of some Arab speakers of English as a foreign Language: a study of word loss”. *The Internet TESL Journal* 1, (12). <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Al-Hazemi-Attrition>.
- Andersen, R. (1982) “Determining the linguistic attributes of language attrition”. In R. D. Lambert / B. F. Freed (eds), *The loss of language skills*. 83–118. Rowley, MA.

- Bahrck, H. (1984a) "Fifty years of second language attrition: Implications for programming research". *Modern Language Journal* 68, 105–111.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., and Stringer, D. (2010) "Variables in second language attrition. Advancing the State of the Art". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32, 1–45.
- Berko-Gleaso, J. ( 1982 ). "Insights from child language acquisition for second language loss". In R. D. Lambert & B. F. Freed (Eds.), *The loss of language skills* (pp. 13 – 23). Newbury House.
- Blum, S., and Levenston, E. (1978). "Universals of lexical simplification". *Language Learning*, 28, 399-415.
- Brown, H.(1994) *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Prentice Hall Regents.
- Cohen, A. (1989). "Attrition in the productive lexicon of two Portuguese third language speakers". *Studies in second language acquisition*, 11: 135-150.
- Ecke, P. (2004). "Language attrition and theories of forgetting: A cross-disciplinary review". *International Journal of Bilingualism* 8.321-354.
- Gonzo, S., and Saltarelli, M.. (1983). "Pidginization and linguistic change in emigrant languages". In R. Andersen (Ed.) *Pidginization and creolization as language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 181-197
- Grendel, M. (1993). *Verlies en herstel van lexicale kennis* (Attrition and recovery of lexical knowledge). PhD dissertation, University of Nijmegen.
- Hansen, L. (2001). "Language attrition: The fate of the start". *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21: 60-73.
- Hansen, L., and Chen, Y. (2001). "What counts in the acquisition and attrition of numeral classifiers?" *JALT Journal*, 23(1), 83-100
- Hutz, M. (2004). "Is there a natural process of decay? A longitudinal study of language attrition". In M. S. Schmid, B. Köpke, M. Keijzer, and L. Weilemar (Eds.), *First Language Attrition: Interdisciplinary Perspectives on Methodological Issues* (pp. 189-207). Amsterdam; Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Jakobson, R. (1941). *Kindersprache, Aphasie und allgemeine Lautgesetze*. Uppsala: Almqvist and Wiksell.
- Jordens, P., De Bot, Charles van Os, and Schumans, J. (1986) *Regression in German case marking*. In B. Weltens , K. de Bot , and T. J. M. van Els (eds), *Language attrition in progress.*, 159–176. Dordrecht.

- Köpke, B. (2004). "Neurolinguistics aspects of attrition". *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, 17:3-30.
- Köpke, B. (2007). Language attrition at the crossroads of brain, mind, and society. *Language attrition: Theoretical perspectives*, 9, 37, 1-30.
- Lambert, R. (1989). "Language attrition". *I. T. L. Review of Applied Linguistics*, 83, 1 – 18 .
- Mahdavy, B. (2008). "The role of Multiple Intelligences (MI) in listening proficiency: A comparison of TOEFL and IELTS Listening Tests from an MI perspective", in *Asian EFL Journal*, 10,3, 5: 109-126.
- Marefat, H., and Rouhshad, A.. (2007). "Second language attrition: Are different nouns equally likely to be lost?". *Porta Linguarum*, 8: 85-98.
- Manessy, G. (1977). "Processes of pidginization in African languages". *Pidgin and Creole Linguistics*, 129, 154-161.
- Neely, J. (1991). "Semantic priming effects in visual word recognition: A selective review of current findings and theories", in D. Benser and G. Humphreys (eds.), *Basic processes in reading: Visual word recognition*. Erlbaum, 264-336.
- Neisser, U. (1984) "Interpreting Harry Bahrick's discovery: What confers immunity against forgetting?". *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General* 113, 32–35.
- Olshain, E. (1989). "Is second language attrition the reversal of second language acquisition?". *Studies in second language acquisition*, 11 : 151-165.
- Oxford, R. (1982). "Research on language loss: A review with implications for foreign language teaching", in *The Modern Language Journal*, 66:160-169.
- Paradis, M. (2004) *A Neurolinguistic Theory of Bilingualism*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Paradis, M. (2007) L1 attrition features predicted by a neurolinguistic theory of bilingualism. B. Köpke, M. S. Schmid, M. Keijzer , and S. Dostert (eds), *Language Attrition: Theoretical Perspectives.*, 121–133. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Polinsky, M. (1997). "American Russian: Language loss meets language acquisition". Annual workshop on Formal Approaches to Slavic Linguistics: The Cornell Meeting 1995, ed. by Wayles Browne, Ewa Wornisch, Natasha Kondrashova and Draga Zec, 370-406. Michigan Slavic.
- Poying, L. (n.d.). "Multiple intelligences theory and English language teaching". Available from: [www.52en.com](http://www.52en.com), accessed 21 March, 2009.

- Russell, R. (1999). "Lexical maintenance and attrition in Japanese as a second language". L. Hansen (ed.) *Second language attrition in Japanese contexts* (pp. 114-141). Oxford University Press.
- Sasse, H. (1992). "Language decay and contact-induced change: Similarities and differences". *Language Death: Factual and Theoretical Explorations with Special Reference to East Africa*, ed. by Matthias Brenzinger, 59-80. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Schmid, M., and de Bot, K. (2003). *Language Attrition. The Handbook of Applied Linguistics*, ed. by Alan Davies and Catherine Elder, 210-234. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Schmid, M. (2008). "Defining language attrition". *Babylonia*, 2(8), 9-12.
- Schmidt, A. (1985). "Young People's Dyrbal: An Example of Language Death from Australia". Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Shearer, B. (2006). "Reading skill and the multiple intelligences: An investigation into the MI profiles of high school students with varying levels of reading Skill". Available from: [www. Miresearch.org/files/Reading MI.doc](http://www.Miresearch.org/files/Reading MI.doc) accessed 3 November, 2009.
- Tomiyaama, M. (1999). "The first stage of second language attrition: A case study of a Japanese returnee". L. Hansen (ed.). *Second language attrition in Japanese contexts*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc, 59-79.
- Verkaik, P., and Wijst, P.. (1986). "Taalverlies en Woordherkenning in het Frans als Vreemde Taal." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Nijmegen. [Language Attrition and Word Recognition in French as a Foreign Language
- Wei, J. (2014). 'Selectivity of second language attrition'. *Theory and practice in language studies*, 4(8), 1603-1608.
- Weltens, B., and Cohen, D. (1989) "Language attrition research: An introduction". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 11, 127-133.
- Weltens, B., and Grendel, M. (1993). "Attrition of vocabulary knowledge". R. Schreuder and B. Weltens (eds.), *The bilingual lexicon*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin, 135-156.



## Appendices

### Appendix 1:

#### Test

#### Part 1: Spelling

1. Which is correct?

- satellite
- sattelite
- satelite
- sattellite

2. Which is correct?

- accomodation
- acommodation
- accommodation
- accommadation

3. Which one is correct?

- brocolli
- brocoli
- broccoli
- brocalli

4. Which is correct?

- sacreligious
- sacriligious
- sacrilegious
- sacrelegious

5. Which is correct?

- mischeivous
- mischievous
- mischievius
- mischeivious

6. Which is correct?

- supersede
- supercede

- supersede
  - superside
7. Which is correct?
- cemetery
  - cemetary
  - semetary
  - cemategy
8. Which is correct?
- heamorrhage
  - hemorrhage
  - haemmorrhage
  - haemorhhage
9. Which is correct?
- calender
  - calander
  - calandar
  - calendar
10. Which is correct?
- embarrassing
  - embbarrassing
  - embarassing
  - embarrasing

## Part 2: Pronunciation

1. Are *perceptive* and *perspective* pronounced the same way?
- Yes
  - No
2. Does *basic* have an *s* or *z* sound?
- s*
  - z*
3. Does *foot* rhyme with *fool*?
- Yes

- No
4. Is the first vowel in the first syllable of *colonel* and *comprehend* pronounced the same way?
- Yes
- No
5. Does *low* rhyme with *law*?
- Yes
- No
6. Does *of* have a *f* sound or a *v* sound?
- f*
- v*
7. Are *bow* and *bawl* have the same way middle diphthong?
- Yes
- No
8. Does *pint* rhyme with *light*?
- Yes
- No
9. Does *food* rhyme with *hood*?
- Yes
- No
10. Is *any* pronounced like *penny* or *nanny*?
- penny*
- nanny*

### Part 3: Meaning

Write Arabic equivalents next to each of the following words. You can write more than one answer for each

succumb

malleable

noisome

discomfit

impecunious

insouciance

redoubtable

rue  
magnanimous  
ruminate

## الاستنزاف اللفظي في سياق متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في جامعات مصر

د. عمرو منصور الزواوي

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية

كلية التربية، جامعة الإسكندرية

[amrzuave@yahoo.com](mailto:amrzuave@yahoo.com)

### المستخلص:

تحاول الدراسة الحالية استكشاف كيفية حدوث الاستنزاف اللفظي في حالة متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية على المستوى الجامعي. تكونت عينة الدراسة من 88 طالبة مصرية من كلية التربية جامعة الإسكندرية بمصر. الطريقة المعتمدة هي طريقة طولية، حيث تتم مقارنة نتائج الاختبارات السابقة واللاحقة للهجاء والنطق والمعنى. كشفت نتائج الدراسة عن وجود فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية في درجات الاستبقاء الإملائي والمعنى في كل من نتائج الاختبار القبلي والبعدي لنفس المجموعة. ومع ذلك، لا توجد فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية في درجات الاحتفاظ بالنطق في كل من نتائج الاختبار القبلي والبعدي لنفس المجموعة. وخلصت الدراسة أيضًا إلى أن قواعد الإملاء ليست أكثر مرونة من المعنى، وأن المقابلات السهلة ذات المعنى الصوتي المحفوظة في الذاكرة التقريرية عرضة للتداخل من نظائرها اللفظية داخل اللغة السائدة. علاوة على ذلك، يحتوي المعجم العقلي على الصوتيات، ليس فقط في شكل القدرات المتأصلة والانتقائية، ولكن أيضًا بسبب شيوعه كمستودع للأصوات الإنشائية والعمليات الصوتية الثابتة.

**الكلمات الدالة:** الاحتفاظ، متعلمو اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، مصريون، استنزاف لفظي