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Investigating Problems of Communication Encountered by Sudanese Undergraduates with Native Speakers when Using English Slang patterns

تفصي مشكلات التواصل بين الدارسين الجامعيين السودانيين والناطقين باللغة الانجليزية لغة ام عند
عند استخدام انماط العامية الإنجليزية

(A Case Study of some Sudanese English Language Learners, College of Languages, Sudan University of Science and Technology)

(دراسة حالة على بعض الطلاب السودانيين الدارسين للغة الإنجليزية بكلية اللغات جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا)

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of PhD in English Language (Applied Linguistics)

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Dedication

To my beloved parents, lovely children and to my dear wife.

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Abstract

This study aims at investigating the problems, which the Sudanese undergraduate students of formal English are encountered by when slang forms are used by English native speakers. The descriptive and analytical methods were used. A questionnaire, test and interviews were also used as instruments for data collection, study sample was drawn from (5) native- speakers, whom were interviewed and (30) Sudanese English language teachers expressed their opinions on the questionnaire statements as well as a diagnostic test answered by (30) participants of undergraduate students. Data analyzed statistically by (SPSS) programme, study has come up with the following results: Universities fail to provide students with sufficient courses in English slang, native speakers of English feel confused and embarrassed when they communicate with Sudanese undergraduate students, who use English as a foreign language. Based on the above mentioned results, the study recommended that: Ministry of high education should offer every possibility to resolve this problem by reviewing the syllabus in order to introduce students to the slang forms of English. In addition, some suggestions are proposed for further future studies.

Abstract

(Arabic Version)

المستخلص

هدفت هذه الدراسة لتقصي المشكلات التي تواجه الطلاب السودانيين في التواصل مع الناطقين بالإنجليزية عند استخدامهم انماط اللغة الانجليزية العامية.أستخدم المنهج الوصفي التحليلي في جمع المعلومات الخاصة بالبحث كما أستخدم الاستبانة والمقابلات والاختبار كأداة لجمع المعلومات وقد تم تحليل البيانات باستخدام الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الانسانية. استهدفت عينة الدراسة خمسة معلمين من الناطقين بالإنجليزية وثلاثين معلما للغة الانجليزية بالجامعات كما استهدفت الدراسة ثلاثين طالبا جامعيًا عبر اجابتهم لاختبار تحريري. توصلت الدراسة الى النتائج الآتية: لم تتمكن الجامعات من تقديم منهج كافي متعلق باللغة الانجليزية التي تستخدم في الاوساط الغير رسمية . الناطقون بالإنجليزية يصيبهم بعض الحرج والملل عند التواصل مع السودانيين الدارسين للغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية. أستناداً على هذه الدراسة توصى الدراسة بالآتي: على وزارتي التربية والتعليم العالي العمل على حل هذه المعضلة وذلك بمراجعة المنهج وتعريف الطلاب بأنماط اللغة الانجليزية العامية. كذلك أوصى الباحث بأجراء المزيد من البحوث ذات الصلة في المستقبل .

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List of Abbreviations

Word	Abbreviation
First Language Acquisition	FLA
Native language	NLA
Second language	L2
Laugh out loud	LOL
Rolling on the floor laughing	ROFL
I don't know	IDK
By the way	BTW
Shaking my head	SMH

Definitions of Terms

Term	Definition
Aggro	Short for aggravation
Any road	It is used instead of saying anyway
Arse about face	This means something is done back to front.
Bite your arm off	someone is over excited to get something

Chapter One: Introduction

1.0 Overview:

This chapter includes literary contents under the traditional sub-titles of the chapter, which are: Introduction, Questions of the study, Hypotheses Objectives, Significance, Methodology and the Limits of the study.

1.1 Background a bout this chapter:

This study aims at exploring the difficulties encountered by Sudanese undergraduates in a private conversation with the native speakers of English when using English slang. However, their Sudanese counterparts (i.e. foreign learners of English language) stick to formal English language. Meanwhile, native speakers of English tend to use English slang in a private conversation. Formal English is the English, which is used in grammar books and has nothing to do with the accent. Formal English only became the prestige dialect in 18th Century due to the power based in London. It is defined as a variety of English, which is used in print, and it is normally taught at schools and to non-native speakers, who learn the language. Many linguists have different perceptions as to what they perceive formal English to be, some believe it is the correct way to speak English meanwhile others believe that it is just a way of separating the intelligent from the unintelligent. Many different definitions are considered. According to the definition above formal English is the language that is formally taught at universities in Sudan. However, it is not spoken in countries where English language is used as the first language. Informal English is used instead.

1.1.0 Varieties of English

From around 1600, the English colonization of North America resulted in the creation of a distinct American variety of English. Some English pronunciations and words "froze" when they reached America. In some ways, American English is more like the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some expressions that the British call "Americanisms" are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain (for example *trash* for rubbish, *loan* as a verb instead of lend, and *fall* for autumn; another example, *frame-up*, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies. Spanish also had an influence on American English (and subsequently British English) like: *canyon*, *ranch*, *stampede* and *vigilante* being examples of Spanish words that entered English through the settlement of the western America. French words through Louisiana and western African words through the slave trade also influenced American English. Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA's dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology - including the internet. Moreover, there are many other varieties of English around the world as: Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Indian English and Caribbean English. Every language differs to some extent from place to place and from group to group, varying according to social characteristic of groups, their cultural background, geographical location, social class, gender or age. People who share important cultural, social and regional features commonly speak similarly. Hence, a dialect is a variety of a language typical of a given group of speakers and is characterized by the presence of certain phonetic, morphological, syntactic and vocabulary features. Although admit that Standard English is the dialect with the greatest prestige among other dialects, linguists and dialectologists point out that

none of the dialects is linguistically superior to another and the differences between Standard English is the main language in many places, an important language in others, and spoken as a second language in most of the rest of the world. However, there are some significant differences in pronunciation, spelling and word usage around the world.

1.1.1 Acquisition and Learning

Perhaps the primary difficulty for most people can be captured in terms of a distinction between acquisitions and learning. The term Acquisition when used of language, refers to gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations. The term learning. However, applies to a conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of a language (Mathematics for example is learned not acquired.) Activities associated with learning have traditionally been used in language teaching at schools when successful to result in knowledge, about the language studied. Activities associated with acquisition are those experienced by the young child and, vaguely, by those, who pick up another language from long periods spent in social interaction (daily use of the language) in another country. Those, whose second language acquisition experience is primarily a learning one, tend not to develop the proficiency of those, who have had an acquiring experience. However, even in ideal acquisition situations, very few adults seem to reach native-like proficiency in using a second language. There are individuals, who can achieve great expertise in writing, but in speaking Schnitzler. (2016). One example is the author Josef Conrad, whose novels have become classics of English literature, but whose English speech is reported to have retained the strong Polish accent of his first language. This might suggest that some features (e.g. grammar, vocabulary) of a second language are easier to acquire than others (e.g. phonology). Although it

continues to be a matter of some debate, this type of observation is sometimes taken as evidence that, after the critical period has passed, it becomes very difficult to acquire another language fully. This process is considered in terms of the language – faculty being strongly taken over by the features of the first language acquisition, with the resulting loss of flexibility or openness to receive the features of another language. Against this view, it has been demonstrated that students in their early teens are quicker and more effective second language acquisition learners than, for example, seven-year olds. Perhaps, the acquisition of a second language acquisition requires a combination of factors; the optimum age maybe during the years from ten to sixteen when the flexibility of the language acquisition faculty has not been completely lost, and the maturation of cognitive skills allows a more effective working out of the regular features of the second language acquisition encountered. A native language is generally the first one a child is exposed to. Some early studies referred to the process of learning one's first or native language as First Language Acquisition (FLA), but because many, perhaps most children in the world are exposed to more than one language almost from birth, a child may have more than one native language. As a consequence, specialists now prefer the term native language acquisition (NLA), is more accurate and includes all sorts of childhood situations. (Fredric Field, *Bilingualism in the USA: The Case of the Chicano-Latino Community*. John. (2011) Native language constantly being renewed. Though the English is spoken today and the English of Shakespeare's times are very different. Languages change as they are used by human beings, not machines. Human beings share common physiological and cognitive characteristics, but members of a speech community differ slightly in their knowledge and use of their shared language. Speakers of different regions, social classes and generations use language differently in different situations. As children acquire their natively language, they are exposed to this synchronic

variation within their language. For example, speakers of any generation use more and less formal language depending on the situation. Parents and other adults tend to use more informal language to children. Children may acquire some informal features of the language in preference to their formal alternatives, and incremental changes in the language tending toward greater informality accumulate over generations. (This may help explain why each generation seems to feel that following generations are ruder and less eloquent, and are corrupting the language! When a later generation acquires an innovation in the language introduced a previous generation, the language changes. (Shaligram Shukla Cambridge University Press, (2006).

1.1.2 First Language Acquisition

First language acquisition is remarkable for the speed with which it takes place. By the time a child enters elementary school, he or she is some extremely sophisticated language users, operating a communicative system, which another creature, or computer, comes close to matching. The speed of acquisition and the fact that it generally occurs, without overt instruction, for all children, regardless of great differences in a range of social and cultural factors, have led to the belief that there is some innate predisposition in the human infant to acquire language. It has also been suggested that the original sounds of language come from natural cries of emotion, such as: pain, anger and joy. The sounds of a person involved in physical effort could be the source of the language, especially when that physical effort involved several people and had to be coordinated. So, a group of early humans might develop a set of grunts, groans and swear words, which they used when they lifting and carrying bits of trees or large wild animal. The appeal of this theory is that it places the development of human language in some social context. Human sounds, however produced, may have had principled use within the social

life of early human groups. This is an interesting idea, which may relate to the use of humanly produced sounds. It does not, however, answer the question regarding the origins of the sound produced. Apes and other primates have grunts and social calls, but they do not seem to. First language acquisition refers to the way children learn their native language. Second language acquisition refers to the learning of another language or languages besides the native language. For children learning their native language, linguistic competence develops in stages, from babbling to one word to two word, then telegraphic speech . Simek . (2007) . Babbling is now considered the earliest form of language acquisition because infants will produce sounds based on what language input they receive. One word sentences (holophrastic speech) are generally monosyllabic in consonant-vowel clusters. During two-word stage, there are no syntactic or morphological markers, no inflections for plural or past tense, and pronouns are rare, but the intonation contour extends over the whole utterance. Telegraphic speech lacks function words and only carries the open class content words, so that the sentences sound like a telegram.

First language acquisition have been tied into arguments about particular models of language acquisition and hence about particular conceptions of language. Probably the most renowned example of the theoretical dimension is the linkage of the notion of such arguments to the innateness hypothesis, the idea that language acquisition is only possible because of an inborn language faculty. Of course, the connection between the age factor and this hypothesis is quite straightforward. If there is an innate language faculty and language develops in a way similar to, say, a physical organ Chomsky. (1988), one can expect to be able to identify age-related stages in such development and periods of particular readiness for such development. To the extent that such age-related phases are discovered, they can

be represented as supportive of the innateness hypothesis. The matter does not just rest there. The innateness hypothesis has even more ramifications. If there is a faculty concerned specially with language which is inborn, this not only sets language apart from behaviors which are acquired purely from the nurturing environment, but also suggests that language is an indispensable, perhaps defining, part of the human make-up, and renders very reasonable the notion that language is peculiar . Age effects on the acquisition of first language have been explored by many linguists and applied linguists since the 1960's. Lenneberg (1967). The existence of critical period for language acquisition has been one of the controversial issues in first language acquisition research. The results of SLA research are also both interesting and confusing. Some make an analogy between the first and second language acquisition and hypothesize that there is also an age of onset (AO) for second language learners. To put it in another way, some linguists believe that children are probably to be better at learning second languages than adults. Cook (1995). People always know one friend of acquaintance who started English as an adult and never managed to learn it properly and another, who learned it as a child and is not distinguishable from a native; whereas, the results of some other studies indicate that adult language learners can attain native like proficiency in a second or a foreign language. Still some late beginners, who in spite of their old age were able to learn a second language exactly like early beginners and some cases have been reported, who acquired near native like performance in different subparts of a language such as pronunciation . Critical period for the acquisition of any language is not normally subjected to more than rather superficial inspection. Majority of adults merely take it for granted that children are of their nature endowed with the ability to acquire their mother tongue with almost no effort. Psychologists often regard the matter in a similarly self-evident fashion but endow the assumptions they make with

scientific documentations by introducing theory and practice in language studies (2012) Academy publisher 412) concepts and terminology from such areas quite obviously the Critical Period Hypothesis, like other hypotheses, enjoys its own critics. Indeed, the question of whether there is a critical period for language acquisition has strong debates among scholars and the debates seem to rest there forever. The discussion seems to be of the same interest to both L1 and L2 acquisition researchers. For some scholars the Critical Period Hypothesis is important as the notion of maturational constraints on language acquisition is considered to be related to the idea that language acquisition is possible via special programming. With respect to language education, the Critical Period Hypothesis has corollaries regarding decision-making about the starting point for the instruction of L2 at schools. However, L1-related issues are of priority and L2-related evidence is left for SLA researchers. On the nature of critical Period Biologically point of view, Critical period, is the term used in biology to refer to a limited phase in the development of an organism during which a particular activity or competency must be acquired if the activity or the competency is to be incorporated into the behavior of that organism. The critical period for a behavior is within these time limits. The term critical period has been used by linguists and applied linguists to explain language acquisition. If language acquisition in human beings is strictly constrained by the boundaries of a critical period, the implication is that L1 acquisition begins only at the inception of this period and does not happen at any other time. An extra implication may be that even if L1 acquisition begins within the critical period it does not carry on away from the end of that period. Lenneberg , who is normally recognized as the father of the Critical Period Hypothesis, refers to the critical period as beginning at the age of two and ending about puberty. This period overlaps with the lateralization process; that is, the specialization of each hemisphere of the brain to take over different functions.

Lenneberg mentions a variety of evidence of changes in the brain happening all through the period under debate. However, that lateralization ends at puberty has been significantly challenged by later studies reinterpreting the relevant data as indicating that the process is already complete in early childhood. One can make a distinction between a weaker and a stronger version of the Critical Period Hypothesis. The weaker version argues that language acquisition has to begin within the critical period, and that if language acquisition begins immediately after the inception of the critical period it will be more effective. The stronger version presumes that even if language acquisition begins within the critical period it does not go on past the end of the period.. Lenneberg claims that the inception of the critical period is at two years of age and that puberty constituted the stop point for the critical period. Although the contribution of Lenneberg to this theoretical framework was praiseworthy. While there is some evidence to support the existence of some linguistic advantages in line with early L1 acquisition, there are no clear foundations for accepting that language acquisition definitely cannot crop up after puberty. Moreover, post-pubertal L1 acquisition in the normally developing population was looked at and the conclusion was made that L1 acquisition continues into early adulthood and at least in the realm of semantics and pragmatics, it carries on to middle age and even onwards. All things considered, the available evidence does not clearly support the notion of a critical period for L1 acquisition.

There are even bigger problems with imitation. Children do sometimes imitate what they hear, but they clearly do much more than that. Children construct rules to produce forms of the language that they could not have heard from adults, for example, words such as mouses , hitted and sentence structures such as “Don’t say me that” The ancient theories of child language acquisition explore the dilemma of

nature versus nurture. They claim that child language acquisition is governed by habit forming and reinforcement by imitation, repetition and analogy. It was a still progressive phenomenon in comparison with solely religious explanation of child language acquisition on one hand, and on the other, with person's classification through their social origin, otherwise, with a genealogical identification and evaluation of one's mental capacity by their birth in a social class. Language acquisition is a set of habits learn. Structural linguistics claims that languages differ from each other without limits linguist observes and describes only the speech, performance. According to classical behaviorism stimuli and responses create human behavior psychologist should rigorously describe only what is objectively perceived, recorded and measured. Child language acquisition originated directly to behaviorism in the late 50s of the 20th century and dominated the field until the last decade. Nativists claim that children are born with an innate ability to acquire language because they do have language innately. The Universal Grammar [UG] is hard-wired in brain, which contains a language acquisition device [LAD]. UG is the grammar of the human language, that is, the universal principles of organizing all languages. This is the reason children can accomplish cognitively a very challenging task of language acquisition even though they are still unable to do some simpler, cognitively less demanding things. A rationalist approach Chomsky. (1959) in his criticism of the behaviorist approach to language acquisition that children actively construct the rule systems of their native language aided by a brain already pre-wired with a special language capacity that is separate from other types of mental abilities. While current approaches to language acquisition all concentrate much more on the child actively building their knowledge of language, they still tend to divide along nativist and empiricist lines. A nativist approach, like Chomsky's principles and parameters theory proposes a fair amount of inborn knowledge in the child. Knowledge about the general rules

that all human languages obey (Principles), and knowledge about the permitted ways that languages can vary from one another (Parameters). Empiricist approaches, do not assume any such inborn knowledge. Some empiricists like Jean Piaget, and those working in his tradition, see language development as the result of the child's striving to make sense of the world and to extract meaningful patterns, not just about language, but about all aspects of their environment. Language acquisition is seen as a product of general intellectual development rather than of a separate language processing capacity. In one respect, the Piagetian approach is similar to Chomsky's in that it focuses largely on factors internal to the child. However, other empiricist approaches concentrate much more on the role of children's caregivers in helping them to crack the code.

1.1.3 Second Language Acquisition

The systemic study of how people acquire a second language (often refer to as an L2) is a fairly recent phenomenon, belonging to the second half of the twentieth century. Its emergence at that time was perhaps no accident. This has been a time of the global village and World Wide Web when communication between people has expanded way beyond their local speech communities as never before, people have had to learn a second language, not just as a pleasing pastime but often as a means of obtaining an education or securing employment. At such a time, there is an obvious need to discover more about how second languages are learned. At first sight, the meaning of the term 'second language acquisition, seems transparent but in fact, it requires careful explanation Beverly . (2007). . For one thing, in this context 'second' can refer to any language that is learned subsequent to the mother tongue. Thus, it can refer to learning of a third or fourth language. Also, 'second' is not intended to contrast with foreign. Whether you are learning a language naturally as a result of living in a country where it is spoken, or learning it in

a classroom through instruction, it is customary to speak generically of second language acquisition. Second language acquisition, then, can be defined as the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside the classroom, and Second Language Acquisition as the study of this. While it is true that many children, whose parents speak different languages can acquire a second language in circumstances similar to those of first language acquisition, the vast majority of people are not exposed to a second language until much later. Moreover, for most people, the ability to use their first language is rarely matched, even after years of study, by a comparable ability in the second language. There is something of vagueness here, since there is apparently no other system of acknowledgement, which one can learn better at two or three years old than at fifteen or twenty-five. A number of reasons have been put forward to account for this mystery and a number of proposals have been made, which might enable learners to become as proficient in a second language as they are in their first language.

Suggests that there is a critical age for language acquisition without the need for special teaching or learning. During this critical period, language learning proceeds quickly and easily. After this period, the acquisition of grammar is difficult, and for some people, never fully achieved. Cases of children reared in social isolation have been used for testing the critical age hypothesis. None of the children, who had little human contact, were able to speak any language once reintroduced into society. Even the children, who received linguistic input after being reintroduced to society, were unable to fully develop language skills. These cases of isolated children and of deaf children show that humans cannot fully acquire any language to which they are exposed unless they are within the critical age. Beyond this age, humans are unable to acquire much of syntax and inflectional morphology. At least

for humans, this critical age does not pertain to all of language, but to specific parts of the grammar developed the capacity of speech. Some obvious reasons for the problems experienced in second language acquisition are related to the fact that most people attempt to learn another language during their teenage or adult years, in a few hours each week of school time rather than via the constant interaction experienced by a child, with a lot of other occupation the child has little else to do, and with already known language available for most of their daily communicative requirements. Some less likely reasons include of the suggestion that adult's tongues get stiff from pronouncing one type of language (e.g. English) and just cannot cope with the new sound of another language (e.g. French or Japanese). It is a perfect idea, but there is no physical evidence to support it. As the linguistic repertoire of the child increase, it is often assumed that the child is, in some sense, being taught the language. This view seems to underestimate what the child actually does. For the vast majority of children, no one provides any instructions on how to speak the language nor should picture a little empty head gradually being filled with words and phrases, a much more realistic view would have children actively instructing, from what is said to them, possible ways of using the language. Child linguistic production, then it mostly a matter of trying out instructions and testing whether they work or not. It is simply not possible that the child is acquiring the language through the process of consistently imitating (parrot – fashion) adult speech. Of course, the child can be heard to repeat version of what adults say and is in the simply do not produce many of types of the expressions, which turn up in children's speech.

Phonology: A child's error in pronunciation is not random, but rule-governed. Typical phonological rules include: consonant cluster simplification (spoon becomes poon), devoicing of final consonants (dog becomes dok), voicing of initial consonants (truck becomes druck) and consonant harmony (doggy becomes

goggy, or big becomes gig.) Morphology: An overgeneralization of constructed rules is shown when children treat irregular verbs and nouns as regular. Instead of went as the past tense of go, children use goed because the regular verbs add an -ed ending to form the past tense. Similarly, children use geese as the plural of goose instead of geese, because regular nouns add an -s in the plural.

1.1.4 Communication Skills

Communication skills are abilities used when giving and receiving different kinds of information. Some examples include communicating ideas, feelings or what is happening around. Communication skills involve listening, speaking, observing and empathizing. It is also helpful to understand the differences in how to communicate through face-to-face interactions, phone conversations and digital communications, like email and social media. Many different types of communication skills can be learnt and practiced to help someone become an effective communicator. Great deals of these skills work together, making it important to practise communication skills in different contexts whenever possible. Different styles of communication are appropriate in different situations. To make the best use of communication skills, it is important to consider the audience and the most effective format to communicate with them in. For example, when communicating with a potential employer, it is better to send a formal email or call them on the phone. Depending on the situation, this might even need to send a formal, typed letter over other forms of communication. In a workplace it may usually be found easier to communicate complex information in person or via a video conference than in a long, dense email. Confidence is one of the most effective factors in communication. In a workplace, people are more likely to respond to ideas that are presented with confidence. Many ways to appear confident, including by making eye contact when addressing someone.

Communication confident comes in handy not just on job but during the job interview process as well. To be an active listener means paying close attention to the person, who is speaking? A person can be an active listener by focusing on the speaker, avoiding distractions like cell phones, laptops or other projects. Prepare questions, comments or ideas to thoughtfully respond. Strong communicators are able to accept critical feedback and provide constructive input to others. Feedback should answer questions, provide solutions or help strengthen the project or topic at hand. A great deal of communication happens through non-verbal cues such as body language, facial expressions and eye contact. When listening to someone attention should be paid to what is said as well as the non-verbal language. By the same measure consciousness of the body language when communicating ensures appropriate cues to others is sent

Communicative competence can be defined, in terms of three components, as the ability to use the second language acquisition accurately, appropriately and flexibly. The first component is grammatically competence, which involves the accurate use of words and structures in the second language acquisition. Concentration on grammatical competence only, however, will not provide learners with the ability to interpret or produce language appropriately. This ability is called sociolinguistic competence. It enables the learners to know when to say *can I have some water?* Versus *Give me some water?* According to the social context. Much of what discussed in terms of pragmatics has become familiar in the second language acquisition if the learner is to develop sociolinguistics competence. The third component is called strategic competence. This ability to organize a message effectively and to compensate, via strategies for any difficulties. In second language acquisition use, learners will inevitable experience moments when there is a gap between communicative intent and their ability to

express that intent. Some learners may just stop talking; others will try to express themselves via communication strategy. For example, a Dutch first language acquisition speaker wanted to refer to *een hoefijzer* in English, but did not know the English word. So, they used a communication strategy referred to things that horses wear under their feet, the iron things and the listeners understood what they meant (horseshoes). This flexibility in second language acquisition used is a key element in communicative success. In essence, strategic competence is the ability to overcome potential communication problems in interaction. British English is the standard dialect of English language as spoken and written in the United Kingdom. Variations exist in formal, written English in the United Kingdom. For example, the adjective *wee* is almost exclusively used in parts of Scotland, North East England, Ireland, and occasionally Yorkshire, whereas *little* is predominant elsewhere. Nevertheless, there is a meaningful degree of uniformity in written English within the United Kingdom, and this could be described by the term British *English*. The forms of spoken English, however, vary considerably more than in most other areas of the world where English is spoken as first or second language, therefore a uniform concept of British English is more difficult to apply to spoken language. British English shares all the ambiguities and tensions in the word. British English and as a result can be used and interpreted in two ways, more broadly or more narrowly, within a range of blurring and ambiguity.

Learning vocabulary is an essential part in foreign language learning as the meanings of new words are often emphasized, whether in books or in classrooms. However, it is central to language teaching and essential to language learners. Recent researches indicate that teaching vocabulary might be a problematic as many teachers are not competent enough about the best practice in teaching vocabulary and at times do not know where to begin to form an instructional

emphasis on word learning. Relationship between vocabulary knowledge and language uses described as complementary. Knowledge of vocabulary enables language use, and conversely, language usage leads to an increase in vocabulary knowledge. The importance of vocabulary is daily demonstrated in and out school. In classroom, students' achievements possess the most sufficient vocabulary. Researchers have realized that the acquisition of vocabulary is essential for successful second language use and plays a great role in the formation of completed spoken and written texts. In English as a second language and English as a foreign language learning vocabulary items play a vital role in all language skills? However, it is argued that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful second language use, without an extensive vocabulary, learners will not be able to use structures. Studies show that second language learners rely mainly on vocabulary knowledge, lack of that knowledge constitutes largest obstacle. When students travel, never carry grammar books, only dictionaries are carried. Researchers argue that vocabulary is one of the most important in language components. Without grammar very little could be conveyed, however without vocabulary nothing could be conveyed at all. Many reasons for devoting attention to vocabulary for instance, vocabulary is essential for mastering the language and the lack of it is a major problem. On the other hand, vocabulary has been acknowledged as a second language learners' greatest single source of problems. This remark may possibly reflect that the open of vocabulary system is perceived to be a cause of difficulty by learners. Another possible reason is that, unlike syntax and phonology, vocabulary does not have rules learners may follow to acquire and develop their knowledge. Furthermore, vocabulary is by far the most sizeable and unmanageable component in learning of any language, whether a foreign or one's mother tongue, as tens of thousands of different meanings. Vocabulary has traditionally been one of the language components

measured in language tests. Moreover, many learners see second language acquisition as an essentially matter of learning vocabulary, therefore a great deal of time spent on memorizing lists of words as well as relying on bilingual dictionary as a basic communicative resource. As a result, language teachers now generally recognize the importance of vocabulary learning and are exploring ways of promoting it more effectively. More vocabulary students have, better is learned, regardless the grammatical knowledge. Teaching words is a crucial aspect in learning a language since languages are based on words. It is almost impossible to learn a language without words, even communication between human beings is based on words. Both teachers and students agree that acquisition of vocabulary is a central factor in teaching a language.

Four skills areas of learning a foreign language need to be addressed consistently and continually. Good lesson plans incorporate all four skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading and writing as well as Vocabulary and Grammar. Native speakers do not learn the skills areas separately, nor do they use them separately, should they not be taught separately. However, it is easy to fall into the trap of teaching about the language, instead of actually teaching the language. A child growing up in the first two or three required interactions with other language. Child must also be physically capable of sending and receiving sound signals in a language. All infants make and noise during the first few months. However, diagnostically deaf infants give up after six months. In order to speak a language; a child must be able to hear that language being used. Hearing language sounds is not enough. One reported case has demonstrated that, with deaf parents, who gave their normal hearing son enough exposure to T.V and radio programme, a child did not acquire an ability to speak or understand English, what is learned effectively is by age of

three. That is the language they use to interact with parents, therefore crucial requirement appears to interact with others via language.

Most people in Britain speak with a regional accent or dialect. However, about 2% of Britons speak with an accent called Received Pronunciation (RP). It derives from a mixture of the Midlands and Southern dialects spoken in London in the early modern period. It is frequently used as a model for teaching English to foreign learners. In South East significantly different accents are used, Cockney accent spoken by some East Londoners strikingly different from Received Pronunciation (RP). Cockney rhyming slang can be and was initially intended to be difficult for outsiders to understand, although the extent of its use is often somewhat exaggerated. East and West England English has been gaining prominence in recent decade. It has some features of RP and some of Cockney. In London itself, broad local accent is still changing, partly influenced by Caribbean speech. Immigrants to UK in recent decades have brought many various languages to the country. Surveys started in 1979 by the Inner London Education Authority discovered over 100 languages being spoken domestically by the families of inner city's schoolchildren. As a result, Londoners speak with a mixture of accents, depending on ethnicity, neighborhood, class, age, upbringing, and various other factors.

1.1.5 Definition of Formal English

Formal English is more difficult to be defined; even linguists struggle to describe exactly what Formal English is. Findings revealed that Formal English has nothing to do with pronunciation but more to do with grammar and vocabulary. The only matter everyone seems to agree on is that Formal English is related to the language of educated users, which is a controversial claim. As Crowley. (1999) believes that Grammar and Formal English go hand in hand. Great debate surrounds

teaching of grammar finds most of its roots within controversies of Formal English. Formal English is used in newspapers and published words. Many linguists have different conceptions as to what they perceive Formal English to be. However, is there actually a universal definition for this term? Some believe it is the correct way to speak English, others believe that it is just a way of separating intelligent from unintelligent. Many different definitions to be considered. Formal English is the medium of writing in English language, grammatically stable and codified. Based on this, Formal English is applied to just writing, and not so much to speech, the correct way to write using Formal English. Formal English consists a set of forms, which are used with only minimal variation in written English and in a range of formal spoken contexts. With this definition, Formal English is not just limited to writing, but also applies to speech as well. Davis.(1999). With this interpretation a broader idea of what Formal English is accurate. Formal English is not just limited to written or spoken English. However, it is rather a mix between the two instead. Formal English is a variety of English, which is usually used in print, and normally taught at schools and to non-native speakers, who learn the language. After exploring the different interpretations of what other linguists believe, which Formal English to be, it is obvious that this particular term is void of an exact definition. It is not very hard to realize that, during the last few decades, English has come very close to being the single international language - *lingua franca* - a language with a greater world spread than any other language the most important dialect in English-speaking world from a social, intellectual and cultural point of view is Formal English. Formal English is a form of the language, which has acquired prestige from its use by those, who are educated persons, who carry on the affairs of English-speaking community. Trudgill defines formal English as being the dialect, which is normally used in printed books and newspapers, in the educational system, in dictionaries and grammar books.

Although he admits the higher prestige of formal English among all English dialects. Formal English comes in a number of different forms around the world. Formal English slightly differs from American formal English, from Scottish, Irish, Caribbean or Australian. Linguists claim that Formal English, like all the other formal languages, is consciously created and deliberately planned that process of the formality of a language, which never be regarded as complete. Thus, the process may take centuries and is generally caused by various: political, social, cultural and sometimes religious motivations.. Formal English is promoted in various ways, typically through the written form, although spoken language norms are sometimes modeled on the written formally and over time, the differences between the written formal and spoken forms may become substantial. Formal language should be regarded as an idea rather than a reality, as a set of abstract norms to which actual usage may adhere to various degrees. The process of formality implies converting one language variety into a formal through the process of fixing and regulating its grammar, syntax, spelling etc. Grammars and dictionaries represent the authorities in prescriptive teaching the language to both native and non-native speakers. Formal language is a language characterized by a single set of norms a single set of grammatical rules, and a finite repertoire of vocabulary. The linguistic norm of the formal English is a complex function of grammar, vocabulary and transmission, most clearly established in the written means of transmission and least clearly in pronunciation. In other words, there is a single standard for the written language in spelling but not for the spoken language in accent. The aspects of English which are most codified, and therefore standardized, are written English lexis, grammar and spelling. Grammar as being a very complex notion, essentially represented by a limited set of device for expressing certain kinds of necessary meaning that cannot be conveyed by referential vocabulary alone, a drawn set of supposedly

regular patterns, whose delineation depends on the descriptive theory, on the desired level of resolution. Linguists agree that no language can be called a language without grammar, and that without grammar a language simply grammar of any language is commonly approached in two different ways, both at the heart of the study of grammar and usage over the past two centuries

This research aims to investigate the problems encountered by Sudanese undergraduate students of formal English with the native speakers when English slang forms are used in a private conversation. This encounter between the formal and informal variety of English is a major cause of misunderstandings between the two distinct communities. However, this phenomenon has prompted the researcher to investigate this problematic area as well as highlighting the linguistic problems related to it. Few researches have been conducted to investigate this problem among Sudanese learners of formal English when encounter native speakers of English, who communicate in a different variety of English slang. Many migrants and visitors to European countries have suffered a lot due to the language they speak, some are considered as bookish or rather books-like i.e. sticking to formal English regardless of the context they are in. In order not to be misunderstood in those countries and between those nations, solutions have to be made to solve this problem. This research, undoubtedly, attempts to assist thousands of non- native speakers of English to be more intelligible to native speakers of English when English slang is used in an informal context.

1.2 Statement of the study Problem:

Formal English is used in formal settings such as: Universities and the press. This variety of English language is used by Sudanese educated group. Most of the native – speakers of English teachers do not consistently use formal English either. Many have local accents and use English slang inside the classroom. They too can

feel alienated by an insistence on formal English, which implicitly devalues their own ways of speaking. However, as Sudanese people and are non-native speakers of English, formal English is often used in all situations. Therefore, they sound boring and book - like when formal English is used. It is crucial to be intelligible to the native speakers of English in an informal context. Hence this study attempts to investigate the problems encountered by Sudanese undergraduate students in a private conversation with the native speakers of English when using English slang. However, their Sudanese counterparts (i.e. foreign learners of English language) stick to formal English language. Meanwhile, native speakers of English tend to use English slang in a private conversation.

1.3 Questions of study

This study attempts to find answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent Sudanese undergraduate students of formal English encounter problems in a private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety?
2. To what extent Sudanese Universities provide students with sufficient courses on informal language as far as the syllabuses are concerned?
3. To what extent are Sudanese teachers of English language more knowledgeable to teach English slang forms?
4. To what extent are native speakers of English more intelligible to Sudanese learners of formal English in a private conversation?

1.4 Hypotheses of the study:

1. Sudanese undergraduate students of formal English encounter problems in a private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety.

2. Sudanese Universities do not provide students with sufficient courses on informal English language as far as the syllabuses are concerned.
3. Sudanese teachers of English language do not have adequate acknowledgement of English slang forms.
4. Native speakers of English are more intelligible to Sudanese learners of formal English in a private conversation.

1.5 Objectives of the study:

This study aims at:

1. Highlighting whether Sudanese users of formal English encounter problems when they communicate with the native speakers in a private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety.
2. Exploring whether native speakers of English are intelligible to Sudanese learners of formal English in a private conversation.
3. Examining whether Sudanese learners of formal English can differentiate between formal and informal English to be intelligible to the native speakers of English.
4. Investigating whether Sudanese teachers of English Language are knowledgeable enough to teach English slang forms.
5. Finding out whether Universities can provide students with sufficient courses on English slang.

1.6 Significance of the study:

6. Study intends to find a workable solution to assist non- native speakers of English to be more familiar with informal English language when it is used in a private conversation. Furthermore, Sudanese English language teachers will definitely gain valuable information in this respect. This study positively

contributes in elaborating the significance of formal and informal English in education.

1.7 Methodology of the study:

Study will adopt the descriptive analytical method. Written interviews will be administered to (5) native speakers of English language. Questionnaire will be conducted to (30) English language teachers to collect relevant data. A language test is administered to (30) participants of undergraduate students. Test will be drawn exclusively from Sudan University.

1.8 Limits of the study:

Study is limited to investigating problems encountered by Sudanese undergraduates with native speakers when English slang is used between the two parties. The study is confined to undergraduate students majoring in English. Study is conducted in the academic year 2018 - 2021.

Chapter Two

Literature Review and Previous Studies

2.0 Introduction

This chapter involves contents under the traditional subtitles, which are: Literature Review and Previous studies. Part one reviews the literature relevant to the research topic of formal English and how it is used among the non-native speakers of English. It as well focuses on the forms of English Language slang, which are unfamiliar to the English Language learners. While part two concentrates on the previous studies conducted in the area relevant to the research topic.

2.1 History of English Language

English language is spoken and written formally in countries where it is used as a foreign language. Sudan is one of those countries, where English language is formally taught and spoken. This study is highly required upon the English language learners in Sudan.

The Anglo Frisian dialects brought to Britain by Germanic settlers from various parts of what are now northwest Germany and the northern Netherlands. The resident population at this time was generally speaking Common Brittonic The group of languages (Welsh, Cornish, Cambric) cohabited alongside English into the modern period, but due to their remoteness from the Germanic languages, influence on English was notably limited. However, the degree of influence remains debated, and it has recently been argued that its grammatical influence accounts for the substantial innovations noted between English and the other West Germanic languages. Initially, Old English was a diverse group of dialects, reflecting the varied origins of the Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms of England. One of

these dialects, Late West Saxon, eventually came to dominate. The original Old English language was then influenced by two waves of invasion: The first was by speakers of the Scandinavian branch of the Germanic family, who conquered and colonized parts of Britain in the 8th and 9th centuries and the second one was the Normans. These two invasions caused English to become mixed to some degree (though it was never a truly mixed language in the strictest sense of the word; mixed languages arise from the co-habitation of speakers of different languages, who develop a hybrid tongue for basic communication). The more idiomatic, concrete and descriptive English is, the more it is from Anglo-Saxon origins. The more intellectual and abstract English is, the more it contains Latin and French influences e.g. swine (like the Germanic schwein) is the animal in the field bred by the occupied Anglo-Saxons and pork (like the French porc) is the animal at the table eaten by the occupying Normans. Co-habitation with Scandinavians resulted in a significant grammatical simplification and lexical enrichment of the Anglo-Frisian core of English; the later Norman occupation led to the grafting onto that Germanic core of a more elaborate layer of words from the Romance branch of the European languages. This Norman influence entered English largely through the courts and government. Wodak. (1989). Thus, English developed into a borrowing language of great flexibility and with a huge vocabulary. In addition to that the history of English language mainly started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes, who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from "Englaland" [*sic*] and their language was called "Englisc" - from which the words "England" and "English" are derived.

Meanwhile, the Old English in (450-1100 AD) dated back to the Invaders of Germanic tribes ,who spoke similar languages, which is in Britain developed into what is now called Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be*, *strong* and *water*, for example, derive from Old English. Old English was spoken until around 1100. Middle English was in (1100-1500). In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors (called the Normans) brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court- ruling and business classes. For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. In 14th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. This language is called Middle English. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today. Early Modern English was between (1500-1800) towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. In 16th century British had contacted with many people around the world. The renaissance of classical learning meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common language in print. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published. The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from

principal factors as: The industrial revolution and technology created a need for new words.

2.1.0 How do Natives look to Formal English?

Native speakers of English language look to Formal English as a difficult language! Apparently critics cannot come to an agreement on what constitutes Formal English. A variety of Formal English is usually seen in print and taught to non-native speakers of English language. Formal English is purely a social dialect, and it no longer has a geographical location linked with it. Moreover, many conceptions on what makes Formal English extremely difficult for any individual to make a decision on whether it has a place in education? How can it be taught if it is unknown? Formal English is neither a language, an accent, a style nor a register. A common misconception that people tend to make is thinking that Formal English has a bearing on accent or pronunciation specifically with Received Pronunciation (RP) but this is simply not true. All RP speakers will be able to speak Formal English, but not everyone, who speaks Formal English, must speak in RP. An argument for a child is beneficial for them to learn Formal English to prepare them better in later life. This line of thought encourages elementary school teaches pupils speak Formal English. The other side to this argument however, is the notion that teaching of Formal English will result in a destruction of regional cultures. Learning Formal English can lead to devaluation of other dialects if certain elements of knowledge are ingrained in a culture of a region, a possibility of losing this information is given. Being of this argument is very similar to death of language. The loss of regional dialects means a loss of different forms of expression, which would be a disaster for creative writing. It is an extremely difficult task to teach children verbally speak Formal English; a child will continue to converse in the dialect that they use at home as it is used more

frequently. This is quite sensible when it talks about teaching of Formal English. It reports that the idea of teaching Formal English is not to alienate the child from their regional dialect, but more so to enlarge their repertoire.

2.1.1 Definition of Jargon

Jargon is a specialized set of terms and language that used in a particular context and setting. It is commonly to find jargon in an industry such as: in law, medicine, academia or an art and sport. People, who are not a part of this group may not be able to understand the jargon used as the words are either obscure terms or have different definitions. Jargon is used to provide more efficient communication between members of a certain group, though at times it can also be used to exclude others, who are not part of that group. Some jargon, which is used enough in a group can become more widely understood and adopted into common usage, such as technological terms like “byte” and “RAM,” or nautical phrases like “anchors” aweigh” and “all hands on deck.” The word jargon originally comes from the Latin term *gaggire*, which means to chatter Ross. (2014). . Chatter was a language, which the listener does not understand. This term was adopted into French and then Middle English, in which there was a verb *jargounen*, with the same meaning as Latin. The story of the word jargon dates back to the Old French word *jargoun* meaning "twittering." According to University of Bergamo professor Maurizio Gotti, author of *The Language of Thieves and Vagabonds*, the word showed up in the English language through Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*. (Chaucer referred to it as the utterance of birds, or sounds resembling it.) Dictionary.com refers to jargon today as unintelligible, or meaningless talk or writing; gibberish. Today, there are two primary definitions of jargon. The first definition refers to the specialized or technical language of a trade, industry or profession, such as legal or scientific jargon. “It is shop talk”, the shortcut

language used between one expert and another in the same field. This is the positive or neutral connotation of the word. The second definition of jargon refers to inflated or showy language, often heard in business today. The Merriam-Webster Dictionary describes this negative. Interpretation of jargon as obscure and often pretentious language marked by circumlocutions and long words, it is convoluted phrasing and vague meaning. Jargon is normally employed in a particular communicative context and may not be well understood outside that context. The context is usually a particular occupation (that is, a certain trade, profession, vernacular, or academic field), but any in group can have jargon. The main trait that distinguishes jargon from the rest of a language is special vocabulary—including some words specific to it, and often different senses or meanings of words, that outgroups would tend to take in another sense—therefore misunderstanding that communication attempt. Jargon is sometimes understood as a form of technical slang and then distinguished from the official terminology used in a particular field of activity. The terms jargon, slang, and argot are not consistently differentiated in the literature; different authors interpret these concepts in varying ways. According to one definition, jargon differs from slang in being secretive in nature; according to another understanding, it is specifically associated with professional and technical circles. Some sources, however, treat these terms as synonymous. In Russian linguistics, jargon is classified as an expressive form of language, while secret languages are referred to as argots. Jargon is the technical terminology or characteristic idiom of a special activity or group. Most jargon is technical terminology (technical terms), involving terms of art or industry terms, with particular meaning within a specific industry. A main driving force in the creation of technical jargon is precision and efficiency of communication, when a discussion must easily range from general themes to specific, finely differentiated details without circumlocution. Jargon enriches

everyday vocabulary with meaningful content and can potentially become a catchword. Jargon allows greater efficiency in communication among those familiar with it, a side-effect is that it raises the threshold of comprehensibility for outsiders. This is usually accepted as an unavoidable trade-off, but it may also be used as a means of social exclusion reinforcing in group–outgroup barriers or social aspiration when introduced as a way of showing off. Some academics promote the use of jargon-free language, as an audience may be alienated or confused by the technical terminology, and thus lose track of a speaker or writer's broader and more important arguments.

2.1.2 Understanding Professional Jargons

Jargon may serve the purpose of a gatekeeper in conversation, signaling who is allowed into certain forms of conversation. Jargon may serve this function by dictating to which direction or depth a conversation about or within the context of a certain field or profession will go. For example, a conversation between two professionals in which one person has little previous interaction or knowledge of the other person could go one of at least two possible ways. One of the professionals (who the other professional does not know) does not use, or does not correctly use the jargon of their respective field, and is little regarded or remembered beyond small talk or fairly insignificant in this conversation. Or, if the person does use particular jargon (showing their knowledge in the field to be legitimate, educated, or of particular significance) the other professional then opens the conversation up in an in-depth or professional manner. Professional jargons are often mocked by outsiders to the professions, and criticized by those within. Medical lingo is looked down upon as reason for communication break-down and possible subsequent mistrust between professionals and the lay public. While their excessive use with professions outsiders may indeed impede

communication, these discipline-specific technical languages have a number of redeeming graces. Many of the phrases are bona-fide specialist vocabularies, which encompass precise and non-ambiguous terms (for example, medical disease names, or building construction terms) learning them is a key part of acquiring a professional identity and group membership. Well-chosen words or phrases may be more economical and accurate than lengthy descriptions. However, the more common understanding of the term deems jargon as pretentious. Jargon plays a vital role in clearly and precisely communicating technical and scientific ideas, bad jargon obscures the meaning.

2.1.3 Jargon in Use

Jargon is used by different professional and social groups in so extensive and so obscure in meaning. Jargon refers to the unique vocabulary used by particular groups of people to facilitate communication providing a means of bonding, and exclude outsiders. Therefore, jargon may be used as a barrier to keep outsiders from understanding something. Jargon as special or technical vocabulary has a relationship with standard language, which provides new items to be transformed by jargon. The vocabulary items result from morpheme and transformation of lexical items borrowed from a particular language. It means that original form of the old item is hidden by the 12 transformation. For example, the word “prep” is the abbreviation from the word prepare. Jargon is some special terms that refer to the activity of occupational varieties. It is used for the purpose of not letting the meaning or other understand, to show the identity of the group that becomes a special characteristic of the group itself, and to establish the relationship between in-group’s memberships. In conclusion, jargon is a way to express the feeling of the community and also have their own specific language. They also state that jargon has two main functions as follows: First, Jargon provides speakers of

specialized domains with clear, unambiguous terms to refer to their activities. Second, Jargon provides speakers of a sub-group with a means of marking in- group membership and excluding outsiders. It can be defined that jargon is just known by the in-group of a community. People in outside cannot understand anymore about utterance or the term uttered by using jargon. Jargon can be stated as an untouchable language, whereas the meaning is not easy to be understood by all people. Jargon can leave someone's feeling excluded from the conversation. Jargon is a set of special vocabulary items used by members of some profession or specialized group. Generally, jargon cannot be understood by common people 13 outside the community. Jargon is created as the identity of a community to have a special characteristic. There are two characteristic of jargon, namely: Firstly, Jargon is only understood by those, who are in the-group. Jargon exists due to the desire of certain group or profession to show the identity of them. This group tries to remain exist in different characteristics with others by creating some special terms called jargon. Jargon creates new words or new terms. Jargons appear from new words or new terms. It means that the word and new terms do not exist before. It is normal and regular decoding practices, which make it easy to use new stock of vocabulary for new purposes.

2.1.4 Definition of Slang

Slang is the language of informal words and expressions that are not considered as formal English. Slang is used by all people of the society. Slang is described as vocabulary idioms, which is not appropriate to standard form of a language or to formal contexts. Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar 1994 describes it as words, phrases and uses that are regarded as informal and are often restricted to special contexts or are peculiar to specific profession, classes etc. Dictionary of Slang describes slang as, a counter language, the language of the rebel, outlaw,

despised and the marginal. Among many descriptions of slang, one thing is common it is a long way from English mainstream. First recorded usages of slang in Britain occurred in 16th century in plays of Thomas Dekker, Thomas Middleton and William Shakespeare. Slang is usually associated with a particular group and plays a role in constructing identities. Using slang of a particular group will associate an individual with that group. Slang is often taken from social media as a sign of social awareness and shared knowledge of popular culture. This particular branch of slang has become more prevalent since the early 2000s as a result of rise in popularity of social network services, including Face book, Twitter and Instagram. This has created new vocabularies associated to each new social media venue. Some critics believe that when slang becomes more commonplace effectively eradicates the proper use of a certain language. However, academic descriptive linguists believe that language is not static, but ever-changing, and that slang terms are valid words within a language lexicon while prescriptivism study and promote the socially preferable ways to speak, according to a language normative grammar and syntactical words, descriptivist focus on studying language to further understand the subconscious rules of how individuals speak, which makes slang important in understanding such rules. Noam Chomsky, a founder of anthropological linguistic thought, challenged structural and prescriptive grammar began to study sounds, morphemes functionally as well as their changes within a language over time, Slang is different from standard dialect, colloquialism or catchphrases. Moreover, it is not a jargon, which is limited to a certain field, or slogans used in advertising.

A slang word or term is often adopted by different groups of people and spreads from one city to another. Among English speakers, many reasons why people use slang? Slang could be used just for fun or to be witty or clever, it could also be

used as a form of expression to be different or controversial. Although it is common among young people, it is used by people of all ages. While some slang terms make their way into English language from the internet, others may appear as brand new words, a new meaning for an existing word, or a word that becomes more generalized than its former meaning. In fact, that every decade has had slang terms or phrases appear during that time. Since etymology (the study of the origin of words) is as much an art as it is a science, it can be difficult to accurately pinpoint the exact time when a particular piece of English slang came into use. Slang is used by all kinds of groups of people, who share situations or interests. Groups, which use these words are always in the minority, and often use slang to set themselves apart or make it difficult for ordinary people to understand them. When a particular new expression is known and used by a large majority of population, it is no longer slang, but part of the regular language or usage.

2.1.5 History of Slang

A living language such as English is a dynamic flow of spoken and written terms, eternally evolving. Whenever people use the language they cause it to flow in and around itself, creating new meanings and ways to express. Term slang reflects the dynamics of the language and therefore is very obscure and ambiguous. Although it spreads so much that now can easily be founded practically in all kinds of contemporary literary work, yet there is no easy mechanism for identifying it. There is hardly any other term that is as ambiguous and obscure as the term slang. Slang is a controversial topic nowadays, and the debate on its definitions, classification and linguistic relevance is still heated. Most linguists and lexicographers admit that the origin of the word slang is uncertain and unknown. Donald & Taylor (2014) . One notable exception is Skeat, a lexicographer, who claims that slang “vulgar language” Scandinavian origin and a derivation of

Icelandic *slyngva* “to sling”, which can be compared with the Norwegian verb *slengja* to sling the jaw and the Norwegian noun *slengjeord* “slang word”, used for insulting words. *Bonniers Stora Lexicon* maintains that the Swedish word *slang* comes from English *slang*, and the origin is unknown. Gitlin. (2003) . An identical opinion of Swedish encyclopedia is provided “National encyclopedin”, which states that the word *slang* was not introduced in Nordic countries until the middle of 19th century. The first occurrence of the word *slang* is dated 1756. According to which ultimate source is not apparent consequently, word *slang* appeared in English language earlier than in the languages of Scandinavian countries. Another view on the appearance of the word *slang* suggests that it is not an English word. Some others consider it derived from French. The phenomenon of *slang* appeared before it got the name *slang*. *Slang* is as old as speech, and the traces of this may be found as far as referring back Old English *Slang* was coarse, and depended more upon downright vulgarity than modern *slang*. *Slang* of those days was generally termed *language*. It is important to underline that the term *slang* was firstly recognized in 1785. The present-day meaning for *slang* began to form only in 16th or 17th century. It was a new kind of speech used by criminals in saloons and gambling houses. By the 1700’s the cultural differences in America had begun to influence the English-speaking population, and *slang* started to expand. During the 18th century *slang* was thought as incorrect usage of English and was considered forbidden in 1850’s, *slang* has been an accepted term for illegitimate colloquial speech. Term *slang* was applied in the mid-eighteen centuries, was special vocabulary used by any set of persons of a low and disreputable character. Nowadays *slang* is not associated with criminals. It is influenced by different cultures and the innovations of technology, which has left the society a variety of *slang* extremes from Street *slang* to Afro-American *slang*. Moreover, *slang* tends to originate in subcultures within a society. *Slang* expressions often embody attitudes

and values of group members. They thus contribute to a sense of group identity and may convey information to the listener concerning the speaker's background. Vocabulary of slang changes rapidly, what is new and exciting for one generation is sold-fashioned for the next. Old slang often either drifts to obsolescence or becomes accepted into standard language, losing its eccentric colour. Flapper, for instance, started life in the late 19th century as a slang term for a young or lively woman, but subsequently moved into general language as a specific term for such a young woman of the 1920s. Slang has always been difficult to locate, to explain and to grasp as a unitary phenomenon. This has discouraged overall formal accounts. Therefore, the concept of slang has been inaccurately defined by many lexicographers, who tend to restrict it to colloquial or bad language, and the term has been imprecisely used by many sociolinguists, who conflate it with such language varieties as: jargon, dialect, vernacular or accent. Other European language has singled out a special layer of vocabulary and named it slang, though all of them distinguish such groups of words as jargon. Many attempts have been made to define slang, but many have been unable to come up with a distinct meaning. In addition to the complexity involved in finding a more accurate definition to the term, is the attitude that the public and scholars alike have about slang. The word slang evokes different reactions among the general public, scholars and linguists in particular these reactions are often antagonistic and discordant, ranging from a perception of slang as simply bad English to slang as creative language variety worthy of academic investigation. Some linguists and lexicographers give a rather sweeping definition of the term slang as a variation from casual to vulgar, but the distinction cannot be specified, since it is all the matter of attitude. Others avoid definitions altogether by instead providing identifying criteria, for instance its presence will markedly lower, at least for one moment, as the dignity of formal and serious speech. Other researchers define

slang in direct opposition to the conventional and standard language, and view it in terms of deviant and rebellious nature. They argue that slang is improper, unsystematic, unacceptable language usage, and unconventional vocabulary that diverges from that of standard lexicon. Investigating the definitions provided by different scholars concludes that there are different approaches in composing a definition of slang. Most definitions of the term show tendency towards a sociological view of the phenomenon. Followers of this approach define slang as a social means of identification and cohesiveness of a group. Obviously, using of the same slang vocabulary helps gain the acceptance in a group. Slang in sociological approach serves such social purposes as being on the same speech level with one's audience, facilitating social intercourse, and inducing friendliness or intimacy. Another approach to define slang is the stylistic approach. Slang is changing rapidly; therefore, it can be regarded as a short-lived ephemeral vocabulary that is expecting either to pass into obsolescence or becomes accepted in standard language. According to linguistic approach slang is regarded as the use of ordinary words in extraordinary senses or of extraordinary words in ordinary senses. This approach emphasizes the aspects of novelty and freshness of slang. Slang is distinguished from standard language in terms of morphology and semantics. In morphology it is characterized by clear insubordination as regards the standard word-formation rules. In semantics it only renames everyday objects; but it also enriches and qualifies them. If agreed that slang is a certain lexical layer, then giving to it the rank of language leads to miscomprehension and ambiguity. But, if slang is a language or a dialect, then it should be characterized not only by its peculiar use of words but also by phonetic, morphological and syntactical peculiarities. Nowadays slang covers both the specific and general sense. Usually it consists of new words and novel or extended meanings, and develops from the attempt to find fresh, vigorous, colorful, pungent or humorous expressions,

to conclude, slang should be investigated more carefully as it is changing rapidly. Obviously those even existing researches are not enough in sphere of slang investigation. More researches and investigations should be carried out.

2.1.6 Slang among society

Different social groups often use a special vocabulary. Sometimes this is fairly widespread and well understood. Some slang is confined to small tightly knit groups, who can use it to exclude outsiders. Slang is also often sexual or scatological. Slang may be new words or old ones used with a new meaning. The desire to say old things in a new way leads to slang. When something becomes very common in the daily life, it is likely to make up new words for it. Slang is a part of every profession, trade, sport, school, and social group. In other words, Slang is the use of informal words and expressions that are not considered standard in the speaker's language or dialect but are considered and acceptable in certain social settings. Jennifer (2007). Slang is usually created by someone or a group of people have as shared expressions. Slang expressions may act as euphemisms and may be used as a means of identifying with one's peer. Jargon is originally an Old French word meaning (warbling of birds) Jargon, the terminology of a science, technology, art, profession, trade, or craft. The term has also come to mean the officials of government. Jargon is a term that is used to describe a set of words that have a specific meaning in a specific context. The philosopher Cadillac observed in 1782 that every science requires a special language as every science has its own ideas. As a rationalist member of the Enlightenment he continued. It seems that one ought to begin by composing this language, but people begin by speaking and writing, and the language remains to be composed. A standard term may be given a more precise or unique usage among practitioners of a field. Much like slang, it can develop as a kind of shorthand, to express ideas that are frequently discussed

between members of a group, though it can also be developed deliberately using chosen terms. In other words, the term covers the language used by people, who work in a particular area or who have a common interest. In earlier times, the term jargon would refer to trade languages used by people, who spoke different native tongues to communicate. The word grease means-money; a tiger hunter-is a gambler; a laxer is a student preparing for a law course. Jargon may be defined as a code within a code that is special meanings of words that are imposed on the recognized code-the dictionary meaning of the words. In the United States, Federal prose or gobbledygook (from the gobbling noise of the turkey cock). In Britain, government jargon is called “Whitehallsese”. Unfortunately, jargon, which is created to promote secrecy and keep outsiders in the dark, it now loses its special quality because it belongs to all social groups and it is easily be understood by most of people. In conclusion it can be said that slang is used to escape the dull familiarity of standard words, it suggests escaping from the established routine of everyday life. Also people use slang in order to sound modern and up-to-date.

2.1.7 Slang change

Slang changes over time and from place to place, what is slang for one person, generation or situation may not be slang for another. They go further to remark that the most important aspect of slang is that it is a language used below the level of stylistically neutral language usage. Anderson and Trudgill. (1990). In Trumble and Stevenson (2002), slang is described both as the special vocabulary and usage of a particular period, profession, social group and as a language that is regarded as very or much below standard educated level.

This definition of slang shows a tendency towards a sociological view of the phenomenon. As Eble. (1996) regards that slang as an ever changing set of

colloquial words and phrases that speakers use to establish or reinforce social identity or cohesiveness within a group or with a trend or fashion in society at large. Thus, slang is broadly construed as language that speakers deliberately use to break with the standard language and to change the level of discourse in the direction of informality. It signals the speakers' intention to refuse conventions. Dumas and Lighter. (1978) and their need to be fresh and startling in their expression, to ease social exchanges and induce friendliness, to reduce seriousness and avoid clichés, in brief, to enrich the language Partridge.(1947) . As. Mencken. (1967) points out, there is a kind of linguistic exuberance behind slang, an excess of word-making energy that revives the standard language by introducing new words and novel meanings into its lexicon. It is used because there is the desire to secure increased vivacity and the sense of intimacy in the use of language .Mallory. (2005). Consequently, the Oxford English Dictionary defines slang as language of highly colloquial type, considered as below the level of educated standard speech, International Journal of Linguistics ISSN 1948-5425 2012, Vol. 4, No. 1 134 www.macrothink.org/ijl and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense. In a related definition, it also describes slang as language of a low and vulgar type and the special vocabulary or phraseology of a particular calling or profession. This sums up the paradox slang. People look down on it, but can hardly avoid using it, for everyone has some calling or profession. Slang is therefore informal and often ephemeral linguistic forms. Language is often used in different ways, depending on the circumstances. Most often, people speak differently in formal contexts and in informal contexts. Especially when speaking informally, usually people take pleasure in resorting to slang - informal but colorful words and expressions. Slang expressions are usually introduced by the members of a particular social group; they may remain the property of that group and serve as a badge of group identity, or they may instead

become much more widely known and used. The majority of slang forms have a comparatively short life but they can be very fashionable and picturesque. In certain cases, some of these slangs have become full-fledged words such as hijack, booze (alcoholic drink), streamline, lipstick, awesome, stardom. A drunk has variously said to be loaded, soused, fried, pickled, sozzled, pissed, blitzed, bombed, smashed or tired and emotional. It is healthy to point out here that Slang, the quintessence of colloquial speech, is easy enough to use but very hard to write about with a subject apparently so simple would, at first sight, seem to demand. But the simplest things are the hardest to define, certainly the hardest to discuss, for it is usually at first sight only that their simplicity is what strikes one the most forcibly. Colloquialism, on its part, is a word or phrase that is more commonly used in informal speech and writing. Consequently, colloquial speech refers to the total set of utterances in a familiar, informal context such as at home, at a place of relaxation or at the workplace. This informal type of speech is used among friends and others in situations where empathy, rapport or lack of social barriers is important. Colloquial speech is often marked by the use of slang or idioms and by other linguistic characteristics such as deletion of subject or auxiliaries (e.g. as in “Got the time?” instead of “Do you have the time?”) Richards & Schmidt (2002). For some people, slang is equivalent to colloquial speech but for others, it means undesirable speech. Usually, colloquial speech refers to a speech variety used in informal situations with colleagues, friends or relatives, and slang is used for a very informal speech variety, which often serves as an in-group language for a particular set of people such as teenagers, army recruits, pop groups etc... As the foregoing discussion reveals, slang is the level of usage, which is certainly below colloquialism. Willis. (1973) thinks that the birth of slang comes from linguistic inventiveness especially among the young and lively people, who are in quest of fresh, original, pungent expressions in order to rename ideas, actions and objects

they feel strongly about. Slangs are usually witty and expressive (e.g. chop-brokepot, bottom-power, water-yam, Japanese-handbrake, peacemaker, boy-boy). Slang and colloquialism consist of vivid and colorful words, and phrases, which characterize various social and professional groups. Consequently, slang and colloquialism in English achieve an atmosphere of informality.

2.1.8 Social Media and Internet Slang

Slang is often taken from social media as a sign of social awareness and shared knowledge of popular culture. This particular branch of slang has become more prevalent since the early 2000s as a result of the rise in popularity of social networking services, including Face book, Twitter, and Instagram. This has created new vocabularies associated with each new social media venue, such as the use of the term “friending” on Face book, which is a verification of “friend” used to describe the process of adding a new person to one's list of friends on the website, despite the existence of an analogous term “befriend“. This term is much older than Face book, but has only recently entered the popular lexicon. Other examples of the slang found in social media include a general trend toward shortened words or acronyms. These are especially associated with services such as Twitter, which now has a 280 character limit for each message and therefore requires a briefer, more condensed manner of communication .This includes the use of ‘*hash tags*’ which explicitly state the main content. Some critics believe that when slang becomes more commonplace it effectively eradicates the proper use of a certain language. However, academic linguists believe that language is not static but ever-changing and that slang terms are valid words within a language lexicon. While prescriptivists study and promote the socially preferable. Ways to speak, according to a language grammar and words, descriptivist focus on studying language to further understand the subconscious rules of how individuals speak,

which makes slang important in understanding such rules of a message or image, such as food or photography.

2.1.9 Impact of Language Barrier & Cultural Differences

The issue of language barriers is particularly critical during intercultural service encounters for ESL (English as a Second Language) customers in a restaurant. Customers may struggle to communicate what they want or even get necessary information regarding products or services. Through a qualitative study, based on a grounded theory approach, this study identifies issues that concern ESL customers in intercultural service encounters. Findings suggest that the language barrier generates negative emotional and cognitive responses, therefore prevents ESL customers from taking certain actions such as seeking necessary information or complaining about service failures Murray. (2012)- The issue of language barriers is particularly critical during intercultural service encounters. Intercultural service encounters, where the customer and the service provider are from different cultures, is very common in the service sector, especially in countries where English is spoken as the first language. Such intercultural service encounters may be influenced not only by cultural differences but also by language barriers. The fact that most service providers only speak in English. This may greatly affect international customers. Customers may find it difficult to communicate or even get necessary information regarding products or services. Despite its importance, the effects of language barriers on ESL (English as a Second Language) customers' service experiences have been largely neglected in academic research. Language is not only a medium of communication, but is also linked to an individual's identity; therefore, these barriers may influence various aspects of the service experience. Consequently, the understanding of the link between language and social identity patterns is great importance to the international

business community. Surprisingly, literature is silent regarding the effects of language barriers on ESL customers. However, literature on intercultural service encounters and low literate consumers may be relevant. Literature on intercultural services marketing seems to run counter to the notion of the social identification theory. While the social identification theory suggests that not being able to identify with other cultural groups leads to negative consequences, studies on intercultural services argue that customers adjust their service evaluation standards and tend to be more understanding in intercultural service encounters. Customers do not perceive inter-cultural encounters to be more problematic than intercultural encounters. Customers are more forgiving of service failures in the context of intercultural encounters. However, ESL consumers can also be perceived as low literate customers in terms of their English skills. They struggle not only with reading and writing but also with listening and speaking English. Low literacy levels are associated with a range of negative market outcomes. Studies found that the problems encountered by low literate consumers ranging from choosing the wrong product to misunderstanding pricing information, also found that low literate consumers experience difficulties with effort versus accuracy trade-offs when making purchase decisions. Overall, previous studies suggest that language is more than just a communication tool. And can influence different aspects of the service encounter for ESL customers. Accordingly, it is essential to better understand how language barriers affect ESL customers' service experience.

Subculture associations often, distinct subcultures will create slang that members will use in order to associate themselves with the group. Slang terms are often known only within a group that originally popular only among certain Internet subcultures, such as software crackers and online video games. Other types of slang include SMS language used on mobile phones, and "chat speak", (e.g., "LOL", an acronym meaning "laughing out loud" or "laugh out loud" or ROFL,

"rolling on the floor laughing"), which are widely used in instant messaging on the Internet. As subcultures are also often forms of counterculture and counterculture itself can be defined as going against a standard, it follows that slang has come to be associated with counterculture.

2.2.0 English Slang in Africa and Asia

Languages change all the time. For instance, all the computer and internet terminology, which are used all the time now did not exist thirty years ago, simply because a browser and downloading did not also exist in people's lives. Furthermore, the ability to speak two or more languages is extremely widespread or has even become a norm. In many contexts it is normal for a language to exist side by side with one or more other languages in the region, or in minds of multilingual individuals. Such languages are spoken in contact with each other; quite naturally, they influence each other in many ways. As a consequence of this contact, pattern-forming habits in the minds of speakers are taken over from one language context into another, and many of them become firmly integrated in a newly emerging linguistic system. This applies to the new English of Africa and Asia, which tend to have been shaped to some extent by contact with the indigenous tongues of the region. This phenomenon enriches the expressive potential of English, like that of any other language . Martin Weber & Burant. (1997) . New sounds or newly adopted patterns allow for further means of expression in the recipient language. Cameroon for example is a multilingual country in which 286 indigenous languages co-exist side by side with two official languages French, English and four major lingua francas: Mongo Ewondo, which is spoken in the Centre and South regions where speakers of the Fang-Beti language group are found. As a result of this, linguistic borrowing, interference, code-switching, loan translation and other manifestations of language contact

characterize this particularly dense multilingual situation. In fact, the languages mutually exert some influence on one another. Such influence may be from the official languages to the indigenous languages. English thus becomes the language of education, administration, politics, culture, the media, etc, and consequently the language of communication for an important component of the populations. Since of its official status, governments have been doing everything possible to promote its use. Most efforts towards getting non –native speakers of English to acquire the language are channelled through schools system. Varying degrees of fluency and accuracy, depending on, which country they come from, the level and what type of formal education have been received. Thus, English in Africa may be defined as a complex of both functionally and developmental determined varieties. Linguists have come to talk of different English has thus become localized and indigenized in a great many different countries. It is not only viewed as a useful international language, but it fulfils important local functions. In doing so it has developed local forms and characteristics, so that not infrequently people enjoy using it in their own way. In many places local ways of speaking English has become a new home dialect, which like all local dialects, is used to express regional pride. One really interesting aspect about all of this is that this indigenization and nativity process of English in many countries, frequently former colonies in the British Empire, is a product of the very recent past and not primarily of their colonial heritage of centuries ago. It is only for the last few decades, quite a while after independence in many cases, that English has made such inroads into local cultures. In the case of English in many African countries, one can conveniently say that local norms of acceptability have developed. Recent studies point out that very few users of English in those countries ever had the opportunity of learning from native speakers of the language. The average users of English in Africa and Asia therefore speak a variety of English, which is strongly marked by the environment

in terms of its lexis, especially at the idiomatic and collocation levels. This reveals that the variety of spoken English is marked with a discrete character of its own and is credited with the status of a distinct type. Slang and Colloquial Usage is an area of lexis in a permanent state of flux consisting of vivid and colorful words and phrases, which characterize various social and professional groups, especially when these terms are used for communication group. Slang provides and reinforces social identity but it is also used in society at large to achieve an atmosphere of informality and relaxation.

2.2.1 What is the difference between jargon and slang?

Jargon is a professional vocabulary that only jobholders use. Slang is casual and often features usage that could not be used in a workplace. Jargon is common but risky. Horticulture pro might talk about a branch collar (a structure on a tree), which is more difficult for everyone to understand. Sometimes jargon is a form of showing off that causes confusion and worse problems. Think of a doctor rambling on in medical terms that the patient does not understand. Slang as (“ain’t,” “veg out,” and “gotcha!”) is fun and creates a feeling of belonging. But it should never be used in a formal setting. In order to be understood better avoid both jargon and slang for formal writing. In any profession, people do not often deal with those, who do not know the jargon in their field. Interestingly enough, jargon and slang have one main attribute in common but play two different functions within English-language. That common attribute is a kind of communicating within special groups of individuals, who understand the actual meanings behind words or phrases. Slang is a collection of words or expressions used to depict a graphic, racy, or lively thing. Slang is found in newspaper reports, films, and regular conversations. Jargon, also referred to as gobbledygook, is quite a particular kind of language most often used within professional groups and it cannot be

understood. Words or phrases used within these groups exclude others, which are not informed nor belong to these given groups; consequently, these terms are pointless to outsiders. In summary, jargon and slang are just two distinct parts of English language with one main, common attribute. Both are a kind of communicating within special groups of individuals, who understand the meanings behind words or phrases. And though they both also have one attribute in common, they perform different functions. Slang and Jargon together are parts of a colloquial vocabulary of English language. They both are very confusing processes in everyday vocabulary usage. Slang in Oxford dictionary is a type of language consisting of words and phrases that are regarded as very informal, are more common in speech than writing, and are typically restricted to a particular context or group of people. For example, in army slang'' the grass'' is slang for marijuana.2) Words and expressions that are informal and not standard English.

2.2.2 Dialects

Dialects and accents vary amongst the four countries of the United Kingdom, as well as within the countries themselves. The major divisions are normally classified as English or English as spoken in England, which encompasses Southern English dialects, East and West Midlands English dialects and North English dialect. The various British dialects also differ in words that have been borrowed from other languages. Around the middle of the 15th century, there were points where within the five major dialects were almost 500 ways to spell the word *though*. Following last major survey of English Dialects (1949–1950), University of Leeds has started work on a new project. In May 2007 the Arts and Humanities Research Council awarded a grant to Leeds to study British regional dialects. Team sifted through a large collection of examples of regional slang words and phrases turned up by the voices project run by BBC, in

which they invited the press to send in examples of English still spoken throughout the country. BBC Voices project also collected hundreds of news articles about how British speak English from swearing through to items on language schools. This information will also be collated and analyzed. Perhaps the most remarkable findings in voices study is that English language is as diverse as ever, despite the increased mobility and constant exposure to other accents and dialects through TV and radio.

2.2.3 Dialectic in different societies

Dialect is the attempt to indicate on the printed page, through spellings and misspellings, elisions, apostrophes, syntactical shifts, signals, etc., the speech of an ethnic, regional or racial group. The use of literary dialect has been a characteristic of American literature from its beginnings. While it is found in many national literatures, literary dialect appears with particular frequency and variety in American literature, A major literary function of such dialect has been as a general characterizing device. That is, a speech pattern identified by one or another spelling or syntactical pattern or by a signal like "Begorra!" or "Massa" or "Mon Dieu!" as belonging to a group for which there exists a popular stereotype can be substituted for detailed characterizing through narrative action. Thus, "Begorra!" is happy-go-lucky, given to whiskey, fighting and brag; "Massa" is cheerful, trivially dishonest, faithful and childlike; "Mon Dieu!" is meticulous about honor, partial to the ladies, vivacious and so on. Further, dialect is employed to indicate the relationship of a character to the fictional community. Degrees of social relationship can be revealed by the use of conventional signals which refer the reader to existing social attitudes or simply by the distance between the normal speech and the dialect speech, the distance being expressed by the density of orthographic cues. In both uses of dialect, its effective literary function is

dependent upon the existence of certain social conventions and stereotypes. Consequently, one might expect that as such conventions and stereotypes change, there will be a corresponding alteration of the literary dialect. The representation of Negro dialect appears to illustrate best the conventional nature of literary dialect and its responsiveness to social Literary Dialect and Social Change 41 change. One reason for this is that Negroes have appeared in American literature as an easily identified dialect speaking group for a considerably longer time than any other such group, and, from their first appearance, have been continuously represented, unlike those other dialect speaking groups which in the normal American pattern assimilate and disappear over the course of a few generations. Further, the Negro has long been associated, either centrally or peripherally, with a series of themes and subjects which have been extremely popular in American literature. At first, of course, the Negro was an important figure in that extensive body of popular romantic fiction, both pro- and anti-slavery, concerned with plantation life and then with the Civil War and later become important to the local colourists and the socially militant realists. In addition, Negroes have undergone perhaps the most radical alterations in social fortune of any of the dialect speaking groups. While the rise of the Irish, Germans and Jews in American society has been extreme in relationship to their beginnings, those groups rather quickly achieved a relative social stability, which the Negro group has yet to achieve. Finally, Negro has been almost continuously at the center of heated social controversy, so that popular attitudes toward the Negro have been sharply divided and extreme in their expressions. If literary dialect is a conventional response to the relationship between the fictional character, situation, certain social attitudes and stereotypes, an examination of the effect of social change on the conventions governing the presentation of Negro literary dialect should most clearly reveal this relationship. In the second quarter of the nineteenth century, there occurred in the United States

a significant change in the mode of indicating Negro speech on the printed page. Prior to this time, the speech of Negroes was indicated by a conventional dialect called "Guinée"; it was replaced by a dialect called "Plantation. " Both are misnomers. The "Guinée" dialect was a literary convention dating back at least to the sixteenth century, but given its broadest impact and greatest momentum by Daniel Defoe's use of it to indicate the speech of Friday in Robinson Crusoe. Friday, of course, was no Negro but a Carib Indian.

2.2.4 Role of dialect in drama

In seventeenth and eighteenth centuries one frequently discovers a persistent confusion of the races in fiction and drama. This confusion is best exemplified in George Coleman, Jr.'s *Inkle and Yarico* 1787 where Yarico, the heroine, is described at one point as an Indian princess and at another as a blackamoor, where her servant Wowski is described as black yet called an Indian maid and where the hero is pursued through the South American wilderness by black savages. Daniel Defoe himself was to use precisely the same dialect he had employed to indicate Indian speech in Robinson Crusoe to indicate Negro speech in his *Colonel Jack*. 42 *Midcontinent American Studies Journal* Following Robinson Crusoe, the "Guinée" dialect was to be employed well into the nineteenth century to indicate the speech of "savages" as various as Caribs, Negroes, North American Indians, Polynesians and "heathen Chinese. " This dialect, though at times differentiated by the occasional insertion of terms appropriate to the group being designated, normally remained fairly constant in all its uses, as the following examples will suggest: "O Master! You give me leave, me shakee te hand with him: me makee you good laugh . . . eatee me up! eateemeup! "Says Friday in Robinson Crusoe, "Me eatee him up!" Here is Chicka, a North American Indian maiden in *The Catawba Travelers*, a musical entertainment presented at Sadler s Wells in 1797. Chicka

like Sailor Man Tom like-a Chicka too; He comes home, he shakee hand, And me say how dye do? In 1850, Melville's Queequeg in *Moby Dick* exclaims, upon discovering Ishmael in his bed, "Who-e debel you? . . . You no speak-e, dam-me, I kill-e. . . . Speak-e! Tell-ee me who-ee be, or dam-me I kill-e!" In Bret Harte's *Two Men of Sandy Bar*, Hop Sing, the Chinese laundry man, bitterly exclaims, "Me washee shirt, Alexandlee Molton; he no pay washee . Alexandlee Molton no payee. He says 'go to hellee. ' " The presentation of Negro speech in "Guinée" was not distinguished from these. Here, for instance, is "the observation of a Negro" mentioned by Benjamin Franklin: "Boccarorra (meaning the white man) make de black man workee, make de Horse workee, make de Ox workee, make ebery thing workee; only de Hog. He, de hog, no workee; he eat, he drink, he walk about, he go to sleep when he please, he libb like a Gentleman. "The most obvious characteristic of this dialect is probably the addition of the extra syllable "ee" (or occasionally "a") at the end of words. A verb rarely alters its form, a general misuse of the pronoun, the substitution of "t" for "t " of "b" for "v"; above all, have the use of extremely simple and short sentence structure, delivered in a very limited vocabulary. Taken together, these various characteristics produce a kind of baby-talk which if not primitive in an anthropological sense, was certainly primitive enough as an instrument of communication. This dialect was to take its general dramatic function from its first major popular use

2.2.5 Definition of Informal Situations

When and where is Informal English appropriate? Many situations in everyday life where informal English is allowed even preferred. Some examples include: While playing sports, studying with friends at a club or informal restaurant, at a party or reunion while watching a sporting event with close family members. With friends while shopping, studying or hanging out at work, on the cinema while listening to

popular music on public transportation, when accosted on the street by strangers, in email and on the telephone with friends. Linguists focus on spoken English; Linguists appear to focus on spoken languages as opposed to written ones. Linguists may focus on spoken language for reasons outlined by other people. However, spoken English does not mean that written language is uninteresting or it does not get studied at all. Linguistics is built on an unproven assumption that all languages are equal and questioning, that belief would make it impossible to be gained, therefore nobody does it. Linguistics is the scientific study of language. A language is narrowly defined as the set of rules; which speakers acquire when they are very young. Evidence for processing language acquisition is underway at the very youngest testable ages under year old. Written language stands in sharp contrast. children learn to read and write much later usually once they start attending school than they learn to understand and produce spoken language; written language has no internalized rules; it reflects only the speaker's internal rules. Written language has to be learned explicitly often laboriously and, written language is not a universal. Many people on this planet, who have knowledge of language cannot read or write. Written language is an artefact of some human cultures. Spoken language is a kind of species-specific capacity that linguists study. This is not to say that the capacity for writing is not complex; it is in fact more complex than the capacity for language. Language is the human capacity for acquiring and using complex systems of communication. Moreover, a language is any specific example of such a system. Many researches efforts focused on understanding the psychological and neurological components of language production and processing. Morphology, phonology and syntax focus on the rules that govern the production of language. Various language acquisition researches, concentrate on how babies process pointing gestures or gazes. Strategies that children use to learn a language, has very little to do with spoken language.

Written language is a reflection of spoken, therefore spoken language can be transferred to written. The converse is not true, still a great deal of researches focus on how written language is processed. Every child will become fluent in their native language unless they suffer from massive cognitive or social deficits. Even mentally retarded children still achieve a great deal of fluency. If someone is deaf or mute, they will either acquire or invent a signed language. Acquiring literacy, on the other hand, is laborious process. Most languages do not have a written form. Spoken language is more widespread and universal, and therefore more interesting than the mostly cultural invention, which is called writing.

2.2.6 Types of Informal Situations

Two different functions fulfilled by slang, depending on, whose point of view you take. For the groups, who use slang, it is difficult to set them apart, express themselves in a distinct and individual way, and sometimes keep secrets from being known by others. For the society in general and the development of the language, slang performs another role for the language, slang is like a linguistic laboratory, where new words and forms can be tested out, applied to a variety of situations, and then either abandoned or incorporated into the regular language as a trial period for new words. When people allowed saying something that cannot be said using traditional language, and a majority of people accept them, then these words and expressions join their regular language. After a period of between a few months and many years, slang is used by limited groups with something in common. The far majority never reach the popularity and level of use to become regular words, and are soon forgotten and not used. Types of slang can be found in each new edition of the popular dictionaries. Many of words used every day, even Shakespeare used slang. Above is a vital example of the language, which is vague to non-native speakers of English to deal with. This language is not

usually taught at the Sudanese Educational institutions; therefore, slang stands as the major obstacle toward students, business men and visitors, who are there in Britain for different purposes. On the other hand, Slang influences on English language as people forget the difference between formal and informal piece of writing. Slang is not only used in instant messages (IM) or (SMS), but also in various professional fields. Many people start using and understand slang nowadays. Slang is not confined to one language but deep in every language. Slang becomes promoted and common by using mobile phones and internet. Since usage of mobile phone for chat on the internet, rapidly has increased and speeded enormously. Cannot be said for sure but a day may come when everybody talks, writes and reads in slang instead of using any other formal conventional language. Slang Influences Today's Society, instead of greeting friends with a proper "Hello" or "What's going on?" "Wassup!" is used instead or "What they do?" It is common for teens to use slang to express themselves to one another. Slang might seem inappropriate to many people meanwhile for others slang is the only preferred means of communication, slang is considered as a part of the culture in British society. Students communicate with one another through social media. Moreover, texting messages creeping into high school classrooms across England. Slang terms and text-speak such as IDK (I don't know), SMH (shaking my head), and BTW (by the way) have become a common sight on students' assignments. Language changes all the time new words and phrases appear and evolve. Words and pronunciations used by young people in UK can be very different to those used by adults. Living in a multicultural society has an effect on language, especially on young people, whose friends are often from a mix of backgrounds. T.V. and music also have a big impact on language of the young. Young British people use much language that usually could not be found in most dictionaries. These extremely informal words and expressions. It is not possible to make a complete list of

modern British slang as by the time the list was finished, it would be out of date! New words come and go like fashions.

Below are some models of slang words and expressions – Tom Keyes (2019)

Safe, sorted, sound, cool or *wicked* all mean that is good or I understand.

Instead of using different tag questions like ...isn't it? Can't you? Or don't they? People use *in nit* (e.g., *It is hot here, isn't it?* = It is hot here, in nit! He can dance really well, can't he? = He can dance really well, in nit? Or they always say that, don't they? They always say that, *in nit?*

Instead of saying very, really or completely use *well* (e.g., *I am well tired* or *you got it well wrong!*

Whatever means I do not care (e.g., A: Teacher says: we cannot leave until we finish.

B: *Whatever*. I am going.

He is *fine* or he is *fit* both mean he is good-looking. *Fineandfit* can describe a boy or a girl.

A *hoodie* is a young person, who wears a jacket with a hood (*a hood keeps head dry in rain!*). It is a negative word and suggests that the young person might be a troublemaker or even a criminal.

Ace - If something is ace it is awesome. *Last football match was ace. Kids thought all cool stuff was ace.*

Aggro - Short for aggravation, it is the sort of thing might be expected at a football match. In other words - trouble! *There is sometimes aggro in the cities after the pubs shut!*

All right? - means (*Hello, how are you?*). It is also normal used as responses: (*All right?*) Back to you. It is said as a question. Sometimes it might get expanded to all right mate? (*Mostly used by workers not professionals*) but also common among younger people.

Any road - It is used instead of saying anyway, they say "any road"!

Arse - This word basically means the same as ass, but is much ruder. It is used in phrases like pain in the arse (a nuisance) or *I cannot be arsed* (*I cannot be bothered*) or you might hear something was (*a half arsed attempt*) meaning that it was not done properly.

Arse about face - This means *something is done back to front*.

Arse over elbow - This is another way of saying (*head over heels*) but is a little more descriptive.

Ass – means the backside, but mostly *a donkey!*

Au fait - Another one of those French expressions that have slipped into the English language. This one means to be familiar with something. *I would say at the end of reading all this you would be au fait.*

Baccy - Tobacco. (*Going to get some baccy from the store*).

Barmy - If someone has gone mad or crazy (*she/he is called barmy*). For example you would have to *be barmy to visit England without trying black pudding!*

Beastly – *Someone is called beastly if they were really nasty or unpleasant*. Most people would consider that as a snob or an upper class when this expression is used.

Belt up - British common expression for *shut up*.

Bespoke - Bespoke is said *for something if it has been created especially for someone*, in the same way it is said for custom (*trade*). For example *a computer program might be bespoken for the client*.

Best of British - If someone says *the best of British to you* when someone is visiting UK, it simply means *good luck*. It is short for *best of British luck*.

Bite your arm off - This is not an aggressive behaviour that a football fan might engage in. *In fact, it just means that someone is over excited to get something*. For instance, you might say that *(kids would bite your arm off for an ice cream on a sunny day)*.

Bladdered - This rather ugly expression is another way of saying you are **drunk**. *(He was in the pub yesterday from 12 pm –by the time he left he was bladdered)*.

Blast - An exclamation of surprise. You may also hear someone shout "*blast it*", or even "*bugger and blast*"! (*Silly*)

Blatant - This word is used a lot to mean *something is really obvious*.

Bleeding - An alternative to the word bloody. *People say "bleeding hell" or "not bleeding likely" for example*.

Blinding - If something is a blinding success - it does not mean that any eyes were poked out with sharp sticks - *it means it was awesome*.

Blinkered – *Someone, who is blinkered is narrowing minded or narrow sighted*. They only see one view on a subject. It comes from when horses that pulled carriages wore blinkers to stop them seeing to the side or behind them, which stopped them from being startled and only let them see where they were going.

Bloody - One of the most useful rude words in English. Mostly used as an exclamation of surprise i.e. (*bloody hell*). *Something may be (bloody marvellous) or (bloody awful)*. It is also used to emphasize almost anything, (*you are bloody mad*). Americans should avoid saying (*bloody*) as they sound silly.

Blow me - When an English colleague exclaimed (*Blow Me*) *he/she brought the house down*. It is simply an exclamation of surprise, short for (*Blow me down*).

Blow off – *Who blew off? Means who farted?*

Blunt - *If a saw or a knife is not sharp it is blunt*. In America the knife would be (*dull*).

Bob's your uncle - This is a well used phrase. It is added to the end of sentences a bit like and (*That's it!*) For example, when someone is told how to make that fabulous banoffee pie (*sweet dish made from banana*) and they have just been served , you would tell them to boil the condensed milk for three hours, spread it onto a basic cheesecake base, slice bananas on top, add some whipped double cream, another layer of banana and ***Bob's your uncle!***

Bodge – Many people bodge things all the time here. *To do a bodge job means to do a quick and dirty*. Make it look good for the next day or two and if it falls down after that – *means it is bodged it*.

Bollocks - This is a great English word with many excellent uses. *Technically speaking it means testicles but is typically used to describe something that is no good (That's bollocks) or that someone is talking rubbish (he is talking bollocks)*. Surprisingly it is also used in a positive manner to describe something that is the best, in which case you would describe it as being (*The dog's bollocks*).

Bomb - *If something costs a bomb it means that it is really expensive.* People say it when the price of insurance is high and when the price of jeans or petrol cost over!

Bomb - If something goes like a bomb it means it is going really well or really fast. (*An event went down like a bomb*), it would mean that people really enjoyed it.

Botch - There are two expressions of botch - to botch something up or to do a botch job. They both mean that the work done was not of a high standard. (*Workmen had botched it up .The company mechanic staff should have done the work properly themselves*).

Box your ears - Many young chaps heard their parents threaten to box their ears when they are younger. (*Generally meant a slap around the head for misbehaving*).

Brill - Short for brilliant. (*Used by kids to mean cool*).

Budge up – If someone wants to sit down and another one is taking up too much space, they would ask them (*to budge up - move and make some space*).

Bugger all - If something costs bugger all, it means that it costs nothing. Meaning it is cheap. (*If someone buggered all, it means they have nothing*).

Bum - This is the part of the body people sit on. (*The ass*)! It might also be someone who is down and out, like a homeless. *Someone might also bum around, if they are doing nothing in particular, just hanging out.* Finally to bum something means to beg it from someone instead of working to get it.

Bung - To bung something means to throw it. For example: (*A street trader might bung something in for free if the amount is paid cash right now*)! A bung is also a bribe.

Butchers – *(To have a butchers at something is to have a look)*. This is a cockney rhyming slang word that has become common.

Cheeky – *(Eee you cheeky monkey)* Mothers always say that to children all the time. Cheeky means flippant not too serious. Generally someone considered to be a bit cheeky *(when they have an answer for everything and always have the last word)*.

Cheerio - *A friendly way of saying goodbye.*

Cheers - This word is obviously used when drinking with friends. However, it also has other colloquial meanings. For example: *When saying goodbye you could say (cheers), or (cheers then)*. It also means thank you.

Chin Wag - This is another word for a Chat. *(Let's chin wag)*.

Chinese Whispers - *It refers to the way a story gets changed as it passes from one person to the next so that the end result may be completely different from what was originally said. Sound familiar?*

Chuffed - Someone would be chuffed if they were really *(pleased about something)*.

Duffer - Any person that is duff could be referred to as a duffer. *The Prime Minister was a duffer (little skill or slow to learn)*.

Dull - Something that was no longer sharp was dull. Something is dull *(if it is boring)*. It can apply to things – *(like a film could be dull)*. It also applies to people.

Easy Peasy - A childish term for *(something very easy)*. It might also be *(a snap)*.

Engaged - When a phone call made and the line is (*busy*) it will get the (*engaged*) tone.

Faff - To faff is to dither (*unable to make a decision about doing something*). If children procrastinated when getting ready for bed, as kids, (*Dad used to tell them was faffing around*).

Fagged - Means too tired if someone is too lazy or tired to do something could say (*I cannot be fagged*). It means can't be Bothered.

Fagging - Fagging is the practice of (*making new boys at boarding schools into slaves for the older boys*). When they are fagging for an older boy they might find themselves running their bath, cleaning their shoes or performing more undesirable tasks.

Fancy – Means desire something. There are two basic forms in common use (*food and people*). When someone fancies a cake for example it means like it.

Full of beans - This means to have loads of energy. (*Someone is often described as being full of beans when they tell them to do something strongly*).

Gallivanting - It means fooling around or horseplay (*rough noisy behaviour*).

Gander - Means to look around (*people often used to go off for a gander when they were visiting a new town or village*). It means to look around or sightseeing.

Gen - Gen means information. (*If someone has the gen then they know what is going on*).

Gen up - To research a subject or to get some information.

Get lost! - Politely translated as (*go away*), this is really a mild way of telling someone to off!

Get stuffed! - Even a polite way to tell someone to get lost is to tell them to (*get stuffed*). However, this is still not a nice thing to say to someone.

Getting off - This seems to be the objective of most teenagers on a big night out. (*Getting off with someone means making out or song them*).

Give us a bell - This simply means (*give a call or call me*). People often use the word (*us means me*).

Good value - This is short for good value for money. (*It means something is a good deal*).

Gormless - A gormless person is someone who has absolutely no clue. They would be described as clueless. (*It is also shortened, so someone is a total gorm or completely gormy*).

Grub - Food. Similar to nosh. *When food is ready people say (grub's up)*.

When British people use a language like this, some foreigner students say they cannot understand native speakers but perhaps learners do not need to worry about communicating with native speakers so much. A research shows that most of spoken English in the world today is spoken between non-native speakers of the language. Therefore, it is important to understand these slang words and expressions? When watching films on TV in English, read magazines in English, chat online in English or interested in English song lyrics, then understanding slang can be very useful. There will not be seen much slang in English language exam though. According to all have been mentioned, English slang is necessarily to be used in countries where English language is spoken and read formally, Language changes all the time, new words and phrases appear and evolve. Words and pronunciations used by young people in UK can be very different to those

particularly that are used by adults. Living in a multicultural society has an effect on language, especially on young people, whose friends are often from a mix of backgrounds. TVs and music also have a big impact on the language of the young. So, how important it is to understand these slang words and expressions. Watching films on TV in English, reading magazines in English, chat online in English song lyrics all are extremely interesting, so that understanding slang is definitely more useful.

2.2.7 Sociolinguistics, Slang and Communication

Sociolinguistics is the study of the characteristics of language varieties, the characteristics of their functions, and the characteristics of the speaker as these three constantly interact; change from one to another within a speech community. Sociolinguistics is concerned with the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. Examining the way people use language in different social contexts provides a wealth information about the way language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through the language.

One of the goals of Sociolinguistics is to understand the correlation between social factors such as: social status, age, background and interest as well as linguistic variation and ordering of linguistic constraints with respect to variability of rules. It means that people, who have different background of life, different social status and different interest or jobs, they mainly have different ways to speak. Different ways to speak means that they have their own rules to communicate among each other. It can be different language or dialect or even in accent. Sociolinguistics will concern with investigating the relationship between language and society with the goal of a better understanding of the structure of language and of how languages

function in communication. Furthermore, language has a great role for the society in the way they communicate among each other. Language is also become a tool of communication. Without language, it will be difficult to understand what people want to share. That is why language becomes important thing; therefore, people cannot interact with each other without using language. Sociolinguistics is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and society's effect on language. It differs from sociology of language, which focuses on the effect of language on society. Sociolinguistics overlaps considerably with pragmatics. It is closely related to linguistic anthropology; some question the distinction between the two fields, emphasizing their historical interrelation. It also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables (e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc.) and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social or socioeconomic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place, language usage also varies among social classes, and it is these sociolects that sociolinguistics studies. The social aspects of language were in the modern sense first studied by Indian and Japanese linguists in the 1930s, and also by Louis Gauchat in Switzerland in the early 1900s, but none received much attention in the West until much later. The study of the social motivation of language change, on the other hand, has its foundation in the wave model of the late 19th century. The first attested use of the term sociolinguistics was by Thomas Callan Hodson in the title of his 1939. Sociolinguistics in the West first appeared in the 1960s and was pioneered by linguists such as William Labov in the US and Basil Bernstein in the UK. In the 1960s, William Stewart and Heinz Kloss introduced the basic concepts for the sociolinguistic theory of pluricentric languages, which describes how standard language varieties differ between nations.

2.2.8 Sociolinguistic changes

A commonly studied source of variation is regional dialects. Dialectology studies variations in language based primarily on geographic distribution and their associated features. Sociolinguists concerned with grammatical and phonological features that correspond to regional areas are often called dialectologists. There are several different types of age-based variation one may see within a population. They are vernacular of a subgroup with membership typically characterized by a specific age range, age-graded variation, and indications of linguistic change in progress. Variation may also be associated with gender. Men and women, on average, tend to use slightly different language styles. These differences tend to be quantitative rather than qualitative. That is, to say that women use a particular speaking style more than men do is akin to saying that men are taller than women (i.e., men are on average taller than women, but some women are taller than some men). Basil Bernstein, a well-known British socio-linguist, devised a book, *Elaborated and Restricted Codes: Their Social Origins and Some Consequences*, a method for categorizing language codes according to variable emphases on verbal and extraverbal communication. He claimed that factors like family orientation, social control, verbal feedback, and possibly social class contributed to the development of the two codes: elaborated and restricted. According to Basil Bernstein, the restricted code exemplified the predominance of extraverbal communication, with an emphasis on interpersonal connection over individual expression. The theory places this code within environments that operate according to established social structures that predetermine the roles of their members, in which the commonality of interests and intents due to a shared local identity creates a predictability of discrete intent and therefore a simplification of verbal utterances. Such environments may include military, religious, and legal

atmospheres, criminal and prison subcultures, long-term married relationships and friendships between children. Due to the strong bonds between speakers, explicit verbal communication is often rendered unnecessary and individual expression irrelevant. However, simplification is not a sign of a lack of intelligence or complexity within the code; rather, communication is performed more through extraverbal means (facial expression, touch, etc.) in order to affirm the speakers' bond. Bernstein notes the example of a young man asking a stranger to dance: there is an established manner of asking, and yet communication is performed through physical graces and the exchange of glances. As such, implied meaning plays a greater role in this code than in the elaborated code. Restricted code also operates to unify speakers and foster solidarity.

2.2.9 Speech in community

In every community there is the same variety of language that used by their members. Speech community is any human aggregate characterized by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of a verbal sign and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language uses. Speech community is a social group, which will be either mono-lingual or multilingual held together by frequency of social interaction patterns and set off from the surrounding areas by weaknesses in the lines of communication. Language community may consist of small groups bound together by face-to-face contact or may cover large regions, depending on the level of abstraction would be achieved. Speech community is a concept in sociolinguistics that describes a distinct group of people, who use language in a unique and mutually accepted way among themselves. To be considered part of a speech community, one must have a communicative competence. That is, the speaker has the ability to use language in a way that is appropriate in the given situation. It is possible for a speaker to be

communicatively competent in more than one language. Speech communities can be members of a profession with a specialized jargon, distinct social groups like high school students or hip hop fans, or even tight-knit groups like families and friends. Members of speech communities will often develop slang or jargon to serve the group's special purposes and priorities. Community of Practice allows for sociolinguistics to examine the relationship between socialization, competence, and identity. Since identity is a very complex structure, studying language socialization is a means to examine the micro-interactional level of practical activity (everyday activities). Learning of a language is greatly influenced by family. However, it is supported by the larger local surroundings, such as: school, sports teams or religion. Speech communities may exist within a larger community of practice. Interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off similar aggregates by significant differences in language usage. Speech community is not defined by any marked agreement in the usage of language elements, so much as by participation in a set of shared norms. These norms may be observed in overt types of evaluative behaviour, and by the uniformity of abstract patterns of variation, which are invariant in respect to particular levels of usage. So it can be said that speech community is the social group that has the same characteristics and aims (it can be the way they use language in communicate to each other) with the norms to show their identity to indicate the difference in their group to another group. Language variation is an important part of sociolinguistics. Language variation is the variety of languages that used to communicate each other in everyday life. In speech community, people who use language as means of communication in their community are remarkably varied. No one speaks same way all the time, and people constantly exploit the nuances of the language they speak for a wide variety purposes. The way people use language or the way they speak when they have communication is different from each other.

Social class, behaviour, tradition, culture quite influential way in speaking. So it can be assumed that the life background has an important role to determine the characteristic of every people, including the way they speak. Variety is a set of linguistics items with the sense of mutual intelligible, which means that among people, who are in communication with one another they will understand each other. It can be seen from the way they pronounce the words, how they construct phrases and the grammatical features. People participating in recurrent communication situations tend to develop similar vocabularies, similar feature of intonations, and characteristic bit of syntax and phonology that they use in these situations. The variety of the language is divided into dialect, accent, slang and jargon.

2.3. Definition of Colloquialism

The word colloquialism comes from the Latin *colloquium*, which means a conference or conversation. As a literary device, colloquialism refers to the usage of informal or everyday language in literature. Colloquialisms are generally geographic in nature, in that a colloquial expression often belongs to a regional or local dialect. They can be words, phrases, or aphorisms. Native speakers of a language understand and use colloquialisms without realizing it, while non-native speakers may find colloquial expressions hard to translate Napoleon. (2012). This is because many colloquialisms are not literal usages of words, but instead idiomatic or metaphorical sayings. Colloquialism is similar to slang, but the definition of colloquialism has some key differences. Colloquialism is used for casual communication. It is the most common functional style of speech, the idiom normally employed in conversation and other informal contexts. Colloquialism is characterized by wide usage of interjections and other expressive devices; it makes use of non-specialist terminology, and has

a rapidly changing lexicon. It can also be distinguished by its usage of formulations with incomplete logical and syntactic ordering. Colloquialism or general parlance is distinct from formal speech or formal writing. It is the form of language that speakers typically use when they are relaxed and not especially self-conscious. An expression is labelled *colloq.* for "colloquial" in dictionaries when a different expression is preferred in formal usage, but this does not mean that the colloquial expression is necessarily slang or non-standard. Some colloquial language contains a great deal of slang, but some contains no slang at all. Slang is often used in colloquial speech, but this particular register is restricted to particular in-groups, and it is not a necessary element of colloquialism. Other examples of colloquial usage in English include contractions or profanity. Colloquial should also be distinguished from non-standard. The difference between standard and non-standard is not necessarily connected to the difference between formal and colloquial. Formal, colloquial, and vulgar language is more a matter of stylistic variation and diction, rather than of the standard and non-standard dichotomy. The term colloquial is however also equated with non-standard at times, in certain contexts and terminological conventions. A colloquial name or familiar name is a name or term commonly used to identify a person or thing in non-specialist language, in place of another usually more formal or technical name. In the philosophy of language, colloquial language is ordinary natural language, as distinct from specialized forms used in logic or other areas of philosophy. In the field of logical atomism, meaning is evaluated in a different way than with more formal propositions. Colloquialisms are distinct from slang or jargon. Slang refers to words used only by specific social groups, such as teenagers or soldiers. On the other hand, jargon refers to words used only by specific trade fields or industries, such as engineers or computing. Colloquial language may include slang, but consists mostly of contractions or other informal words and phrases known to most

native speakers of the language. Jargon is terminology that is especially defined in relationship to a specific activity, profession, or group. The term refers to the language used by people, who work in a particular area or who have a common interest. Much like slang, it is a kind of shorthand used to express ideas that are frequently discussed between members of a group, though it can also be developed deliberately using chosen terms. While a standard term may be given a more precise or unique usage amongst practitioners of relevant disciplines, it is often reported that jargon is a barrier to communication for those people unfamiliar with the respective field.

2.3.0 Idioms

An idiom is a phrase that has a meaning, which cannot be understood from the knowledge of its component parts. Linguists also use the word formative to describe idioms. Some idioms are extremely difficult to decode, but other are less opaque. Idioms are more easily understandable to those with more knowledge of the world and the culture from which the idiom comes. Many idioms have their origins in metaphors. For example, to "bury the hatchet," "gnash one's teeth," and "give someone a piece of one's mind" are all rooted in metaphoric language. Polskaya. (2011). Some idioms have both a literal and an idiomatic meaning; only the context will determine the intended meaning. For example, to "pull someone's leg" and "kick the bucket" can be interpreted literally or metaphorically. If the literal meaning does not make any sense, such as "raining cats and dogs," the phrase is likely to be an idiom. Idioms can be phonologically irregular, calling for an emphasis on a word in the middle of the phrase instead of the end of the phrase. For example, "you can say that again" puts the emphasis on "that" rather than on "again." In spoken discourse, idioms are often indicated by a slight pause or an intake of breath. Additionally, speakers often first describe something in

a non-idiomatic manner then repeat the same idea with an idiom. Idioms usually evoke an image, such as to "pull someone's leg. As Lattey. (1986) found four categories of idioms that depict pictures. One type is those with a focus on the individual, such as to "die a thousand deaths." Another variety is those with a focus on the world, such as "that takes the cake." A third category contains those that refer to the interaction of individuals, such as to "lend someone a helping hand," and a fourth is idioms that describe the interaction between an individual and the world, such as "to know something inside and out." Gibbs. (1980) found that readers and listeners understand idioms as quickly as comparable literal expressions. In fact, highly familiar idioms are understood with more ease as idioms, than in their literal sense. That finding disproves the theory that idiomatic meanings are sought only if a linguistic analysis has failed. It might be that idioms are non-compositional items that must simply be retrieved from memory in order to be understood. that idioms are recognized like other long words. When a listener hears an idiom, ordinary linguistic processing, plus Swinney & Cutler (1979) postulated retrieval from the phrasal lexicon, occurs simultaneously. Usually, idiom retrieval occurs more quickly than literal expressions, because it does not require the lexical, syntactic and semantic processing involved in regular linguistic analysis. Gibbs (1984) maintained that people can bypass literal meanings when they hear idioms, avoiding the step of linguistic analysis. She uses the relative speed of idiom comprehension to back her theory. Her theory is contradicted by the fact that many idioms have both literal and metaphorical meanings, so people must have to process idioms to determine which meaning to attribute. Further disproving R. Gibbs's theory that linguistic processing of idioms is extraneous, idioms are not difficult to understand in novel formats. For example, "he didn't spill a single bean" is clearly understandable, even though it strays from its original form of "don't spill the beans." If the idiom were stored as a single retrievable

phrase, people would have difficulty extracting meaning from alternate forms of the idioms. Idioms can be useful to teachers of English to speakers of foreign languages. Many teachers of English as a Second Language avoid idioms and their complexity. However, idioms can make someone sound like a native speaker, and communicate a feeling or attitude toward an event in a way that literal phrases cannot. Idioms enliven speech, so native speakers use them frequently. Without the use of idioms, a foreigner speaking English will never "enter the spirit" of a foreign language. In order to learn idioms, foreign language speakers have to progress through several challenging steps. They have to learn the meaning, as well as words that can be substituted for each part of the idiom. They have to learn the various constructions in which an idiom may appear. To fully understand idioms, they have to recognize the feelings and emotions, as well as cultural ideas that the phrases convey. In order to use idioms properly, they have to learn to choose idioms appropriate to the message they want to communicate, and to use them in the correct social circumstances. An idiom is a phrase whose meaning isn't clear from the words in it. What a strange illogical way to communicate. There you are hearing someone say "he kicked the" which up to that point could be an ordinary literal expression. Then the word "bucket" comes along and bang, you have to quickly (and non-consciously) substitute the idiomatic meaning. Idioms are curious turns of phrase that require a sudden turn of meaning. As well as being illogical, idioms are idiotic. The words idiom and idiot come from the same root: "idios" which in ancient Greek meant "of one's own" or "private". The original meaning of an idiot was someone not interested in public affairs (considered a key duty in ancient Athens and perhaps a notion that should revive in modern democracies). Similarly, idioms are a form of private expression. They are cryptic language puzzles, solvable only if the answer is already known in advance. Despite being illogical and idiotic, idioms are emerging as being much more important to

language than previously thought. Linguists such as Steven Pinker believe that there are as many idioms and stock phrases in long-term memory as the words. Idioms turn out to be a crucial piece of evidence in the heated and ongoing debate about the evolution of language. Surprisingly, heavyweights like (Noam Chomsky) believes that language is not directly a result of natural selection. They believe it is an accidental by-product of other evolved changes, like increase in brain size. Other titans of the field, such as Pinker, believes language is like any other complex faculty and that it was directly selected for. Chomsky's view of language evolution, based on his word-centric, rule-driven generative grammar model of language cannot explain some of the observable properties of idiom use. However, they are not too important, the main point is that idioms and other stock expressions are not peripheral language oddities – they are central to how people communicate. Getting back to the original question: why on earth do people communicate like this? And everybody everywhere on earth does – all cultures use forms of non-literal language. The bottom line is that the use of idioms in language is an excellent example of how people are not built to function only logically. The scientific evidence now suggests that the way everyone thinks is built on an outdated model. That reminds of a wonderful quote from a professional cartoonist who also teaches a university level course on comedy, who said he/she thought of "humour as a necessary counterweight to the hegemony of reason". Much other scientific weight is being added to counter the hegemony of reason.

2.3.1 What is the Difference between Idioms and Slang?

Peruse just a few of the idioms on this or other sites, it may be noticed that many idioms do not look much different than which is called the slang. Why not call a spade a spade? Is there a difference between an idiom and slang? In fact, there is not. Although there is not one universally accepted definition of idiom, a fairly standard

definition is two or more words used together as a unit that has a special meaning not derived from the meanings of the words separately.” The only difference between slang and any other commonly used parts of the language is that slang is not yet (and may never be) commonly used by all speakers of the language. Here is how the Oxford English Dictionary defines it: “A type of language consisting of words and phrases that are regarded as very informal, are more common in speech than writing, and are typically restricted to a particular context or group of people.” Once a slang term or phrase is widely accepted into the culture and begins to be used by everyone, rather than by certain groups, it is no longer slang. Many idioms are used in formal books, and many informal idioms are used in everyday conversation. However, some idioms are slang phrases. These may be considered rude, annoying, uncouth, etc. but they are still idioms. Why should it be an idiom when it is said, *it’s raining cats and dogs* but slang is that’s *such a cop-out*? As common as the idiom “cop-out” is, people of all ages and walks of life will not say it, but anyone might say: “it is raining cats and dogs” to refer to a heavy downpour. Both are idioms, regardless. For that matter, a catchphrase may well be an idiom. “Read my lips” means *listen to what I’m saying very closely*. But, it’s also a catchphrase, often used mockingly and associated with President George H.W. Bush, who said it during his campaign, “Read my lips; no new taxes.” As I point out on the front page of this site, some idioms are also considered *aphorisms*. Idioms are used like words. Therefore, some are heard so much they become clichés. For example, used a cliché above, *call a spade a spade*. This phrase is often considered hackneyed (boring). It fits the definition of an idiom quite well, though. In other words, all these categories can overlap. While not all slang phrases are idioms, not all idioms are different than slang.

(B)

2.3.2 Review of Related Previous Studies

Review of previous related studies. This part discusses many related studies.

Study (1)

Language Usage of Jargon and Slang in Strategic Studies

Conducted by Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Science 7(4): 661-666

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, University Putra Malaysia,
43400 Serdang

Selangor, Malaysia

(2013)

Methods Language usage of jargon and slang is linked to strategic studies by the Speaking mnemonic. Speaking Model offers a theoretical basis for language study that accounts for both linguistic variation from individual to individual and relative linguistic coherence across the social realm. Police jargon and slang is a unique language that police use to communicate with each other. It consists of terms, body language, acronyms, codes, and abbreviations. This can quickly and concisely be used to describe many things by the police both in written and verbal form. This language can describe people, places, property and situations by using The Speaking Model. This study is relevant to ascertain the perception of usage of jargon and slang by using The Speaking Model and this model can applied to study the elaborated codes of jargon and slang in sociolinguistic. Thus, the information obtained is jargon and slang associated in every profession but police jargon and slang is the most interesting one in strategic studies because of their own identity

in communication. The Speaking Model is to look at a series of speech events and speech acts within a cultural context by using the first letters of terms for speech components and more vocabularies can be formed. Shared knowledge of the linguistic code in police identity and as well as of the socio-cultural rules, norms gives values in a community.

Study (1) argues police jargon and slang are the most interesting ones in strategic studies as it is their own identity in communication. Meanwhile the research study discusses slang in English society generally. Both researches have come to mutual result that slang represents certain groups of people.

Study (2)

Jargon Used by Stylists in Rabel Beauty Salon Galunggung Malang

University of Brawijaya.

Indonesia

Ardiyanto, Arin Andhini. (2014)

This study defines Jargon is one of the key features to register in a certain group, which can be defined as technical vocabularies associated with a special activity or a group. Two research problems of this study will be discussed: (1) What are the jargons used by stylist in Rabel beauty salon (2) What are the possible reasons of using those jargons by stylist in Rabel beauty salon. Study finds that the stylists in Rabel beauty salon use 19 jargons when they are providing salon's treatment. They use jargon for certain reasons. Firstly, it is done to keep their secret talk. Secondly, they use jargon to build their own identity.

Study (2) finds that a group of certain people uses 19 jargons when they provide salon's treatment despite the research study discusses limited slang with every limited group of society.

Study (3)

Politeness Strategies in Colloquial Cameroon English

Nordic Journal of African Studies vol 15(4): 536–544

(2006)

The aim of this paper is to examine some politeness strategies in Cameroon English. A close monitoring of colloquial or informal Cameroon English speech reveals the use of a number of pragmatic particles for expressing a broad range of attitudinal functions, among which politeness. The most conspicuous of these particles are *na*, *ya* and *eihn* generally said with a rising intonation. This paper intends to show that these particles, which are comparable to numerous others documented in other varieties of English, are used by both male and female speakers, albeit with a general tendency by female Cameroon English speakers to use them more frequently than their male counterparts. The implication is that politeness strategies are universal and that speakers of each language in general and of each variety of English in particular make use of similar strategies to express a wide range of attitudinal functions among, which politeness.

Study (3) which is a scientific paper argues an identical concept of using slang among groups of people, what was discussed is the similar of the research study.

Study (4)

Slang and Colloquialism in Cameroon English Verbal Discourse

Napoleon Kang Epoge

International Journal of Linguistics

DOI: 10.5296/ijl.v4i1.1414

Cameroon

January (2012)

The study investigates features of slang and colloquialism in Cameroon English verbal discourse which have been created through the following processes – coinage, semantic extension, clipping, double subjects, and pidgin-induced structures. It observes that these features of Cameroon verbal discourse are a quintessential development for the identity of non-native varieties of English around the world. The study contributes to the production of feature supplements to the usage of contemporary English in non-native settings. It recommends the codification of this linguistic inventiveness, especially among the young and lively people, in quest of fresh, original, pungent expressions to rename ideas, actions and entities in Cameroon English. All these juvenile qualities combine to give free reign to the impulse to play with the language, making it creative and refreshing.

Study (4) argues the modification of English language aspects around the non- native speakers in the world, whereas the research study discusses what slang is. Both researches concentrate on the role of slang in the society.

Study (5)

An analysis of students' slang terms for academic activities in a Nigerian University (A semiotic approach)

<https://doi.org/10.2989/16073614.2013.793954>

Grace E Adamo

Published online: 14 Jun (2013)

Using a semiotic approach, this article analyses Nigerian university students' slang terms for academic activities. It inquires into how students in an ESL context are able to exchange meanings with one another using their own form of English. Using a combination of Peirce's, de Saussure's and Barthes' semiotic models of analysis, the research findings present evidence of linguistic change as prescribed by youths. It reveals that slang is one of the ways in which students represent meanings that are important in their socio-cultural environment. It represents the ideology of the youths. These symbols accurately measure the range of their thoughts and values at any given time and they function in the mind of the interpreters to convey specific meanings in specific situations. Slang is therefore a symbolic semiotic system, whose signification can be unveiled.

Study (5) argues the slang, which is made by students at university; meanwhile the research topic discusses slang among British community as all. Both researches consider slang is a particular language spoken between certain groups of people.

Study (6)

English Slang Words Used by the Characters in "Deadpool II" Movie Script

University of Muhammadiyah Surakarta

Indonesia

(2020)

The purposes of this study are to classify English slang words and to analyze the reasons of using slang words by the characters in "Deadpool II" movie script. The data of this research are words that categorized as slang words. The source of data is "Deadpool II" movie script. Based on the analysis, the findings of this research are 30 data of the types of slang words and thirteen reasons of using slang words. The types of slang words are 8 data of clipping, 8 data of imitative, 5 data of fresh & creative, 8 data of flippant, and (1) data of acronym. Then, thirteen reasons of using slang words are explored by this research, they are to share a high spirit (5), to exercise for wit cleverness in humor (2), to be an identity (2), to avoid negativity (1), to avoid a seriousness situation (5), to make a statement shorten and clear (1), to stressing some words (2), to give a refusal or rejection (3), to entertain someone at daily conversation (2), to ease the social relations (3), to declare a friendly statement of intimacy (2), to establish a contact in social class (1), to be a secret (1)

Study (6) discusses the types of slang words, which are used between people and the research study argues slang between groups of people. Both researches have come to mutual results.

Study (7)

Pronunciation Problems: A Case Study of English Language Students at Sudan University of Science and Technology

Elkhair Muhammad Idriss Hassan

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November 25,(2014)

This study investigates the problems in English pronunciation experienced by learners whose first language is Sudanese Spoken Arabic. In other words to find the problematic sounds and the factors that cause these problems. The subjects for the study were fifty students from University of Sudan of Science and Technology (SUST), and thirty university teachers of English language from the same university. The instruments used for collecting the data were observation, recordings and a structured questionnaire. The data collected were analyzed both statistically and descriptively. The findings of the study revealed that Sudanese Students of English whose language background is Sudanese Spoken Arabic, had problems with the pronunciation of English vowels that have more than one way of pronunciation in addition to the consonant sound contrasts e.g. /z/ and /ð/, /s/ and /θ/, /b/ and /p/, /f/ and /tʃ/. Based on the findings, the study concluded that factors such as Interference, the differences in the sound system in the two languages, inconsistency of English sounds and spelling militate against Sudanese Students of English competence in pronunciation.

Study (8)

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Investigating Difficulties that Face Sudanese Students in Understanding English Idiomatic Expressions
Elbushari Abdoun Elbushra Mousa International University of Africa.

Issue 6, June (2017).

This study aims at investigating the difficulties of understanding English idiomatic expressions that encounter Sudanese students. This study adopted the descriptive analytical method of research. Questionnaires conducted on idiomatic expressions for ELT teachers at different Universities. Findings revealed low ability of the students in understanding English idiomatic expressions. As well as students do not use particular strategies while encountering unknown idioms? Students better understand idiom in context. Finally, the researcher proposed conducting research on the effect of context on teaching idiomatic expressions.

2.3.3 Summary of the chapter

Chapter Two Literature Review discusses the history of English language the definition of English slang, jargon and the colloquialism as well as some models of slang vocabulary presented. Moreover, Previous studies of similar and same research topic by different researchers a round the world and regional area have been written. Next chapter will be the Research Methodology, which argues the instruments of the research used for data collection.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.0 Introduction:

This chapter contains a descriptive methodology used in the study. A descriptive and analytical method is used. The research is essentially designed to obtain pertinent and precise information regarding the current status of the phenomenon and draw conclusion from what is observed.

Data collected therefore, represents native and non-native teachers of English language at Universities with their attitudes and impression towards the problems under the study. Tools used as data collection comprise of questionnaire answered by the Sudanese English language teachers, Test to undergraduate students from University of Sudan Science and Technology, interviews to native speakers of English expressed opinions on using English slang. Thus for the treatment of the raw data obtained, statistical analysis is conducted via the application of (SPSS).

3.1 Population of data collection:

The word population refers to a collection of specified group of human beings. Thus, the target group of this study consists of undergraduate students, some native speakers of English and English language teachers, who are aware of the problems under the study.

3.2 Sample of the Study:

The method used a non-probability sampling method as samples were selected at discretion of the researcher. However, the selection is arbitrary, and a good

evidence that the samples are representative of the total population. Therefore, samples of the study randomly chosen out of the target group, as each member of the population has the same opportunity of being selected as study sample. The number of English language teachers selected as samples were (30) including (5) native speakers of English and (30) undergraduate students.

3.3 Reliability:

Reliability was calculated using Cranach's alpha equation shown below:

Reliability coefficient = $\frac{n}{N-1} (1 - \frac{\text{Total variation questions}}{\text{variation college grades}})$

Cranach alpha coefficient = (0.84) a reliability coefficient is high and it indicates the stability of the scale and the validity of the study.

3.4 Validity:

Validity coefficient is the square of the reliability coefficient is (0.92), this shows that a high sincerity of the scale, and that is the benefit of the study.

3.5 Instruments:

Tools used as data collection comprise of a questionnaire answered by Sudanese English language teachers, Test to undergraduate students and interviews to the native speakers of English language. Thus for the treatment of the raw data obtained statistically and conducted via the application of (SPSS)

3.6 Validators of the Research Tools:

Name	Academic position	Place of work
Hillary Marino Pitia	Assistant. Prof	International college of Slam
Muntasir .H. Mubarak	Assistant. Prof	Sudan University Science and Technology
Omar Abdel Farag	Assistant. Prof	Al-Fagar college for science and Technology
Ahmed Abdel Basit	Assistant. Prof	Ibn-Sina University
Bashir Gubara Musa	Assistant. Prof	Emirates College of Science and Technology

3.7 Summary of the Chapter:

The case and the questionnaire are presented to supervisor to check, in addition to PhD holders, who assist in improve reading and reviewing. The reliability calculated was analyzing by using (SPSS) and a Cranach alpha coefficient to validate the data. The next is chapter four, which contest of data analysis result and discussion.

Chapter four

Data analysis, Results and Discussions

4.0 Introduction:

This chapter is devoted to the analysis, evaluation and interpretation of the data collected through the questionnaire, which was given to (30) respondents, who represent the English language teachers' community at Universities, a Test was given to (30) undergraduate students at Sudan University of Science and Technology as well as interview to (5) native speakers of English.

4.1 Responses to the Questionnaire:

Responses to the questionnaire of (30) teachers were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each item in this questionnaire is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following tables support the discussion.

4.2 Analysis of the Questionnaire:

Questionnaire distributed on determined study sample of (30), and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly disagree, disagree, Undetermined, agree, and strongly agree) to quantitative variables (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.

This course deals with the field study procedures under the following sections

First: population and sample of the study.

Cronbach's alpha method: -

Where reliability was calculated using Cronbach's alpha equation shown below:

$$\text{Reliability coefficient} = \frac{n}{n-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation total grades}}$$

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation total grades}}}$$

Cronbach's alpha coefficient = (0.84), a reliability coefficient is high and it indicates the stability of the scale and the validity of the study

Validity coefficient is the square root so reliability coefficient is (0.92), and this shows that there is a high sincerity of the scale and that the benefit of the study.

4.3 Table (1) illustrates the Cronbach's alpha method

No	Value	Reliability	Validity
1	Sudanese learners of Formal English encounter problems in private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety	0.84	0.92
2	Sudanese Universities do not provide students with sufficient courses on informal language as far as the syllabuses are concerned	0.83	0.91
3	Sudanese teachers of English language do not have adequate knowledge of English slang forms?	0.92	0.96
Total		0.84	0.92

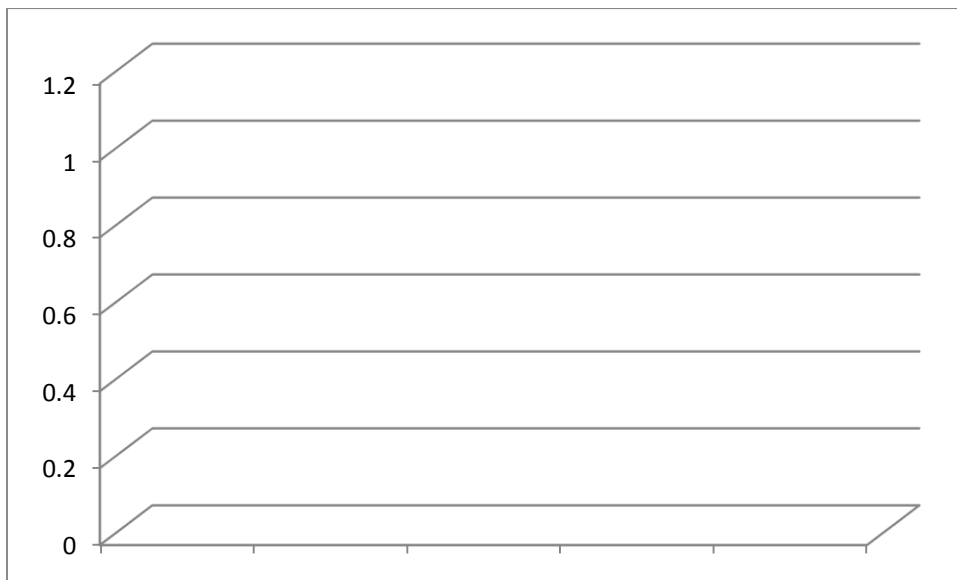
Source: IPM SPSS 24 package

Hypothesis One: (Sudanese learners of formal English encounter problems in a private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety).

Table (2) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the :(Sudanese English learners do not understand native speakers when slang words used in a private conversation).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	12	40.0%
Agree	13	43.3%
Neutral	5	16.7%
Disagree	0	0.0%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



Source: excel 2016

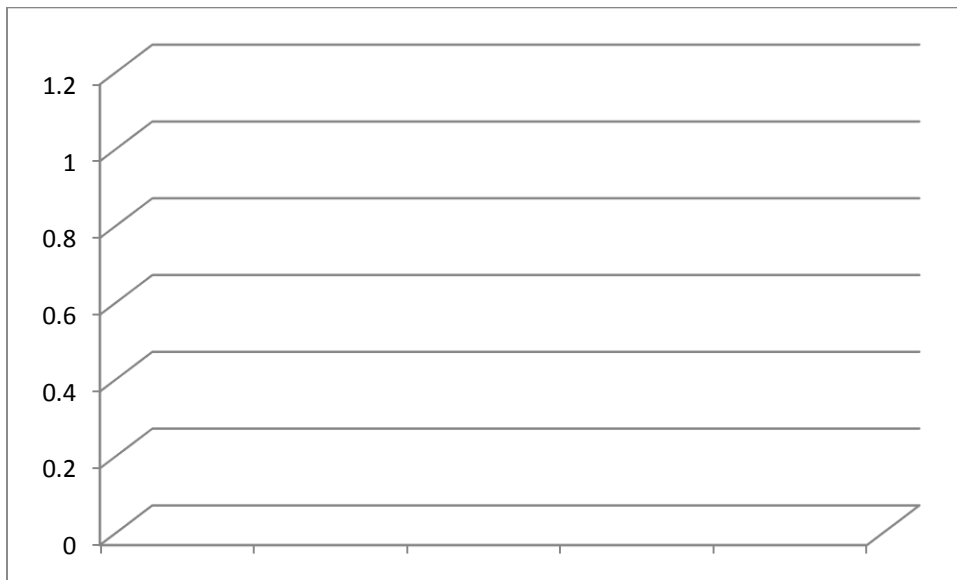
4.2 Table (2) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Sudanese English learners do not understand native speakers when slang words used in a private

conversation. Sample by strongly agree by (40.0%) Agree by (43.3%) Neutral by (16.7%) Disagree by (0.0%) and strongly disagree by (0.0%).

Table (3) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the (Sudanese English learners find difficulties in pronouncing slang words while studying).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	9	30.0%
Agree	15	50.0%
Neutral	1	3.3%
Disagree	5	16.7%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



Source: excel 2016

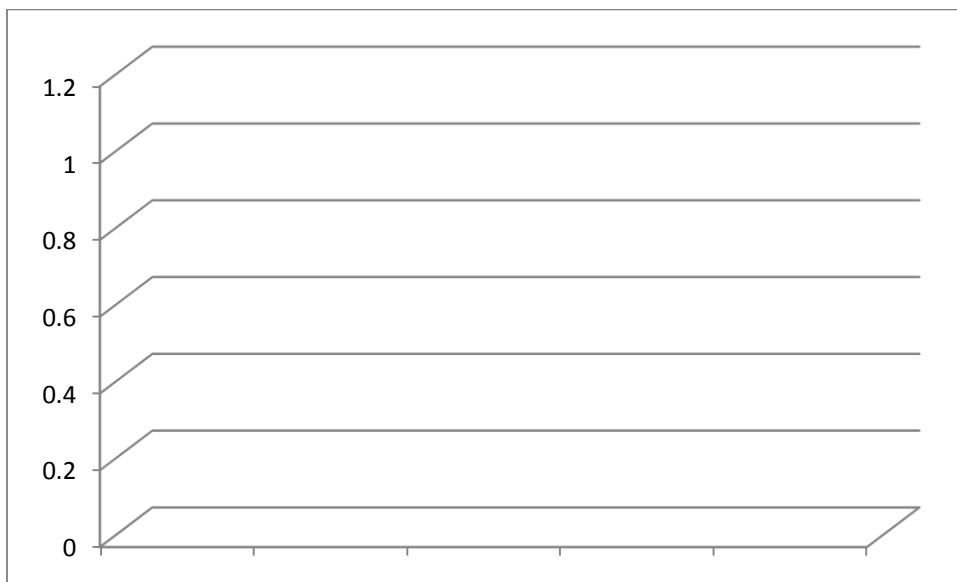
4.3 Table (3) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Sudanese English learners find difficulties in pronouncing slang words while studying. Sample by

strongly agree by (30.0%) Agree by (50.0%) Neutral by (3.3%) Disagree by (16.7%) and strongly disagree by (0.0%).

Table (4) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the (Native speakers of English usually use slang in public places such as: Bus, restaurant etc...).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	15	50.0%
Agree	11	36.7%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	2	6.7%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



Source: excel 2016

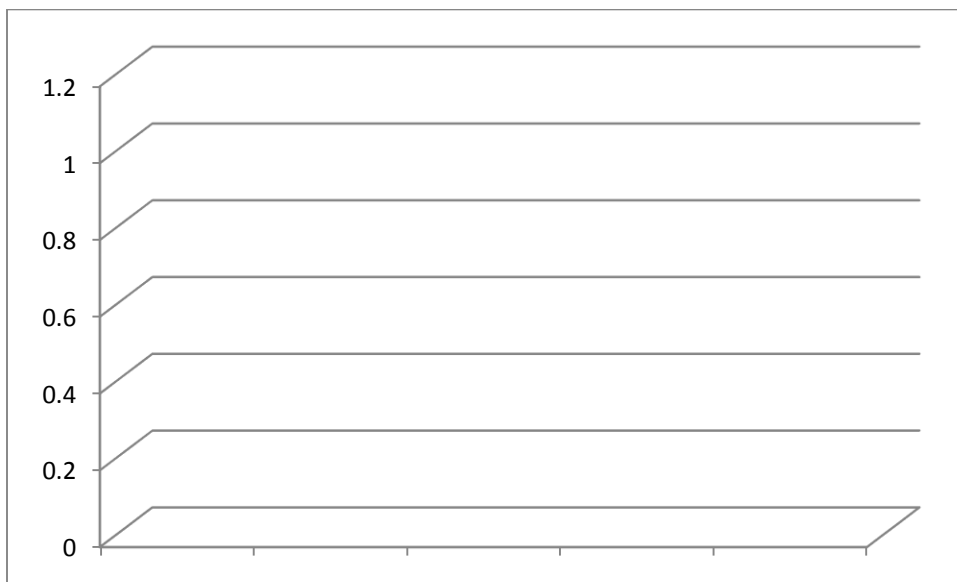
4.4 Table (4) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Native speakers of English use slang in public places such as: Bus, restaurant etc...Sample by strongly

agree by (50.0%) Agree by (36.7%) Neutral by (6.7%) Disagree by (6.7%) and strongly disagree by (0.0%).

Table (5) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the (Native speakers feel confused when they communicate with Sudanese English learners).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	6	20.0%
Agree	5	16.7%
Neutral	10	33.3%
Disagree	7	23.3%
Strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



Source: excel 2016

4.5 Table (5) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Native speakers feel confused when they communicate with Sudanese English learners sample by

strongly agree by (20.0%) Agree by (16.7%) Neutral by (33.3%) Disagree by (23.3%) and strongly disagree by (6.7%).

4.5 Table (6) illustrates chi-square test results for the hypothesis (Sudanese learners of formal English encounter problems in private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety).

No	Phrases	Chi-square value	df	Sig	Median	Interpretation
1	Sudanese English learners do not understand native speakers when slang words used in conversation	13.80	2	0.000	4.00	Agree
2	Sudanese English learners find difficulties in pronouncing slang words while studying	14.26	3	0.000	4.00	Agree
3	Native speakers of English usually use slang in public places such as: Bus, restaurant etc...	17.20	3	0.000	4.50	Strongly agree
4	Native speakers feel confused with the Sudanese learners.	15.66	4	0.000	3.00	Neutral

Results and Discussions:

In the light of the final findings in table No (6), the first statement, which was (Sudanese English learners do not understand native speakers when slang words used in conversation) regarded as an obstacle upon the Sudanese English language teachers according to the scientific calculation, which shown that the number of the teachers, who expressed their opinions to the statement (agree) is a tremendous. Meanwhile the second statement, which was, (Sudanese English learners find difficulties in pronouncing slang words while studying) constitutes a problematic area as the Sudanese learners of English experience difficulties in pronouncing slang words, the number of teachers, who express their opinions (agree) is extremely huge according to the scientific calculation in the table above. Moreover, the third statement, which was (Native speakers of English use slang in public places such as: Bus, restaurant etc...) is fairly accepted as it is calculated scientifically in the table above, the number of the teachers, who expressed their opinions (strongly agreed) is extremely huge. Meanwhile the final statement, which was (Native speakers feel confused when they communicate with Sudanese learners), is doubtfully a problematic issue as the number of those, who expressed their opinions (neutral) is great. Most or nearly all teachers, who expressed their opinions on the statements, were completely agreed with the research study topic. According to the results of the statements in the table N0 (6) the hypothesis, which was (Sudanese learners of formal English encounter problems in private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety), is fairly accepted.

4.7 Table (7) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the: Universities mainly teach formal English.

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	16	53.3%
Agree	8	26.7%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	3	10.0%
Strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package

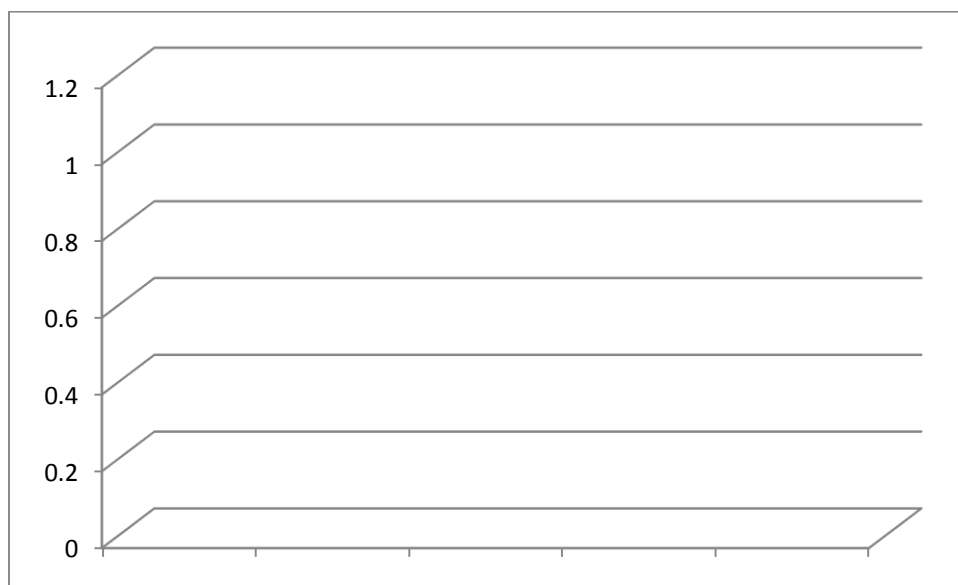
Source: excel 2016

Table (7) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Universities mainly teach formal English sample by strongly agree by (53.3%) and Agree by (26.7%) and Neutral by (6.7%) and Disagree by (10.0%) and strongly disagree by (3.3%).

4.8 Table (8) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the :(English language teachers at Universities are not familiar with English slang).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	6	20.0%
Agree	11	36.7%
Neutral	6	20.0%
Disagree	7	23.3%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



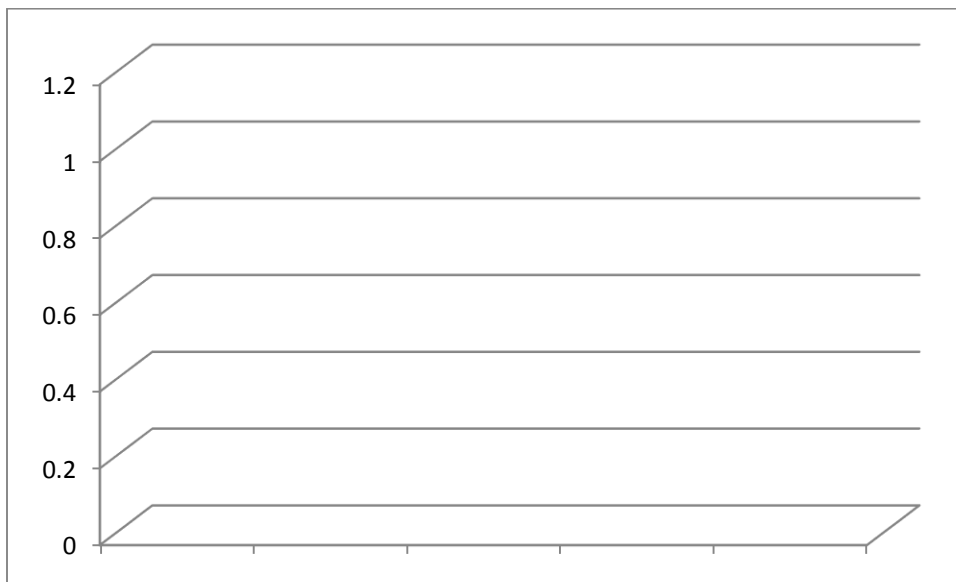
Source: excel 2016

Table (8) illustrates the views of the distribution of the English language teachers at Universities are not familiar with English slang. Sample by strongly agree by (20.0%) Agree by (36.7%) Neutral by (20.0%) Disagree by (23.3%) and strongly disagree by (0.0%)

4.9 Table (9) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the (Universities are lacking English native teachers).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	13	43.3%
Agree	13	43.3%
Neutral	3	10.0%
Disagree	1	3.3%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



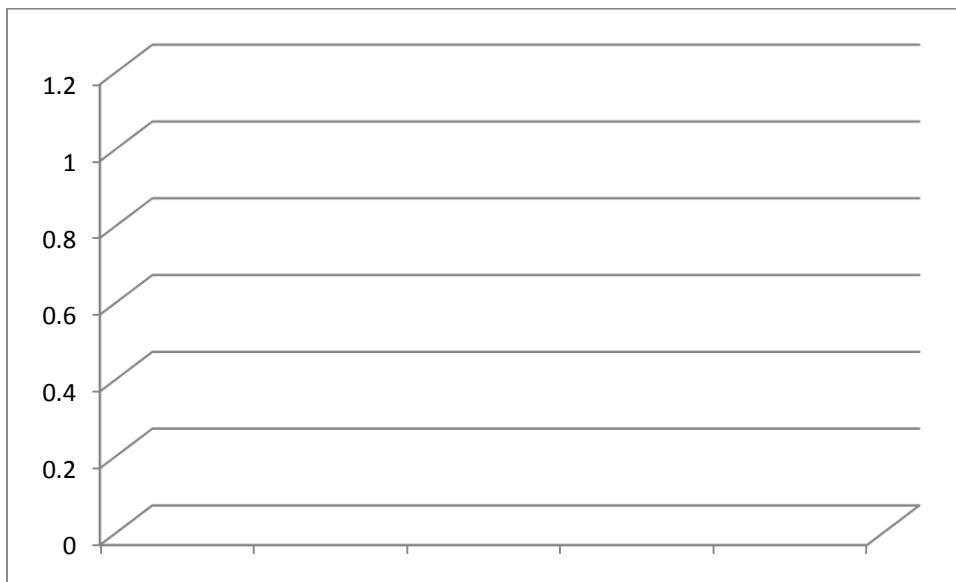
Source: excel 2016

Table (9) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Universities are lacking English native teachers. Sample by strongly agree by (43.3%) agree by (43.3%) neutral by (10.0%) disagree by (3.3%) and strongly disagree by (0.0%).

4.10 Table (10) illustrates the frequency and percentage for(Less priority is given to teaching slang at Universities).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	15	50.0%
Agree	13	43.3%
Neutral	1	3.3%
Disagree	1	3.3%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



Source: excel 2016

Table (10) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Less priority is given to teaching slang at Universities. Sample by strongly agree by (50.0%) Agree by (43.3%) Neutral by (3.3%) Disagree by (3.3%) and strongly disagree by (0.0%).

4.11 Table (11) illustrates chi-square test results for the hypothesis: (Sudanese Universities do not provide students with sufficient courses on informal language as far as the syllabuses are concerned).

No	Phrases	Chi-square value	df	Sig.	Median	Interpretation
1	Universities mainly teach formal English.	25.66	4	0.000	5.00	strongly agree
2	English teachers at Universities are not familiar with English slang.	12.26	3	0.000	4.00	Agree
3	Universities lack English native teachers.	16.40	3	0.000	4.00	Agree
4	Less priority is given to teaching slang at Universities.	22.80	3	0.000	4.50	strongly agree

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package

Results and Discussions:

With the reference to the statistical table No (11) the first statement, which was (Universities mainly teach formal English) is merely a problematic area at the Sudanese Universities where formal English is regularly taught and spoken. The number of those, who expressed their opinions (strongly agreed), is the greatest one according to the scientific calculation in the table. While the second statement, which was (English teachers at Universities are not familiar with English slang), is no doubt constitutes a great hindrance in teaching English slang regarding to the scientific calculation in the table above. Furthermore, the third statement, which

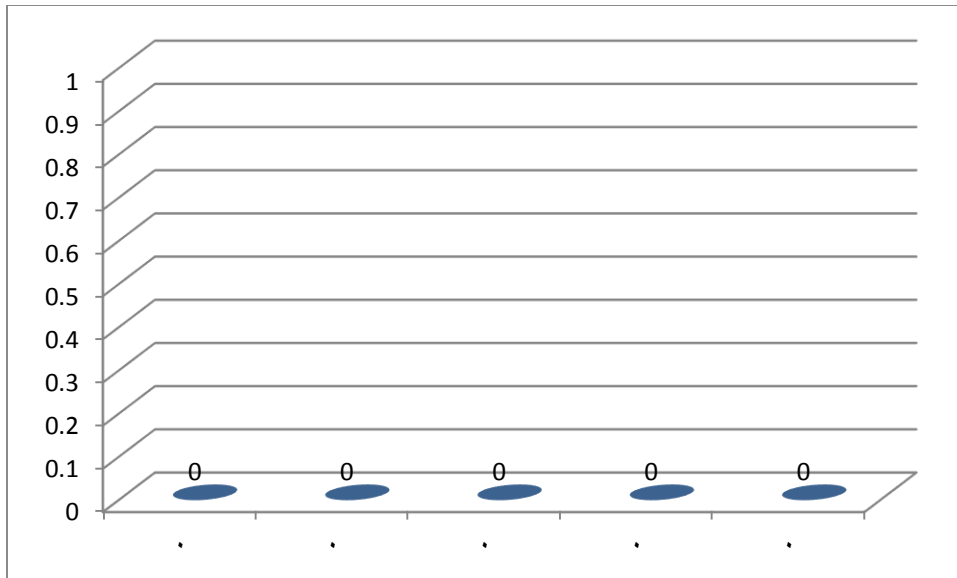
was (Universities lack English native teachers) is clearly includes some difficulties as there are not native speakers of English language teachers available at the Sudanese Universities, who teach the language and make it easier in terms of using slang. Results clearly calculated and showed scientifically in the table above .The final statement, which was (Less priority is given to teaching slang at Universities) is absolutelya problematic area as it is scientifically calculated in the table. The number of those, who expressed their opinions, is the second greatest one in the table. Most or nearly all teachers, who expressed their opinions on the statements, were completely agreed with the research study topic. According to the results above the hypothesis, which was (Sudanese Universities do not provide students with sufficient courses on informal language as far as the syllabuses are concerned) is accepted.

Hypothesis Three: Sudanese teachers of English language do not have adequate knowledge of English slang forms.

4.12 Table (12) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the :(English language teachers teach only formal English at universities).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	9	30.0%
Agree	15	50.0%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	4	13.3%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



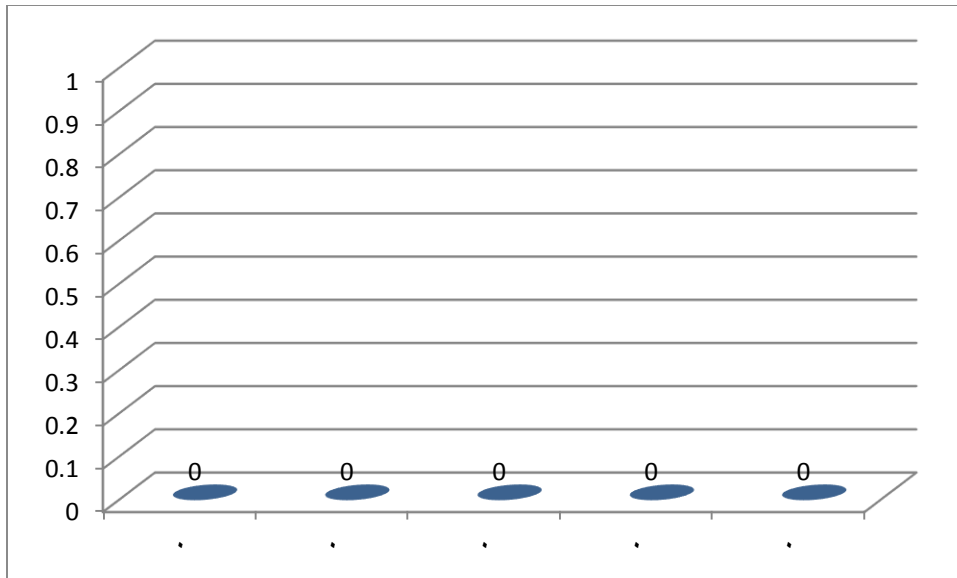
Source: excel 2016

Table (12) illustrates the views of the distribution of English language teachers teach only formal English at universities. Sample by strongly agree by (30.0%) Agree by (50.0%) Neutral by (6.7%) Disagree by (13.3%) and strongly disagree by (0.0%).

4.13 Table (13) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the (Sudanese English language teachers have little background about slang).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	3	10.0%
Agree	15	50.0%
Neutral	7	23.3%
Disagree	5	16.7%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



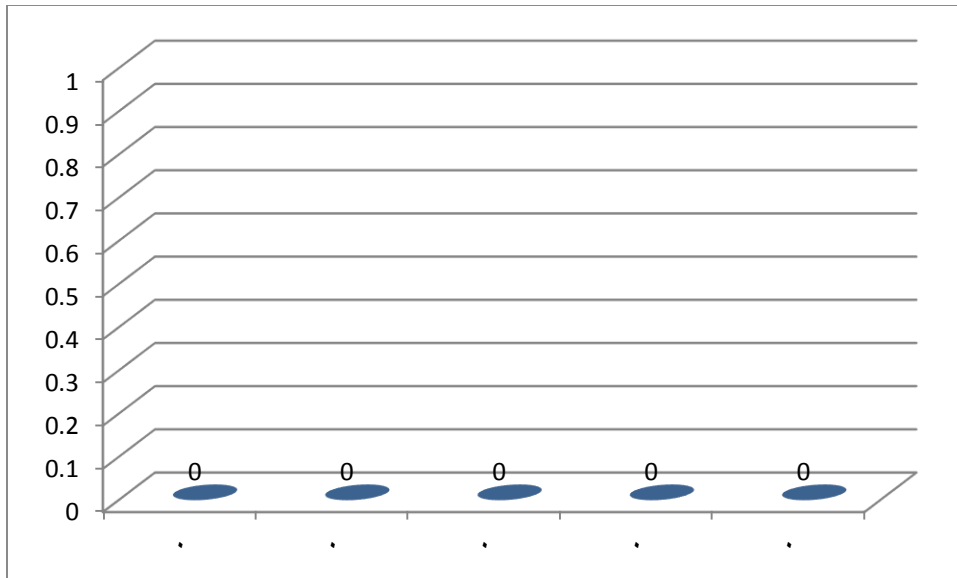
Source: excel 2016

Table (13) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Sudanese English language teachers have little background about slang. Sample by strongly agree by (10.0%) Agree by (50.0%) Neutral by (23.3%) Disagree by (16.7%) and strongly disagree by (0.0%).

4.14 Table (14) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the (Sudanese English language teachers are not interested in slang).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	8	26.7%
Agree	13	43.3%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	6	20.0%
Strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



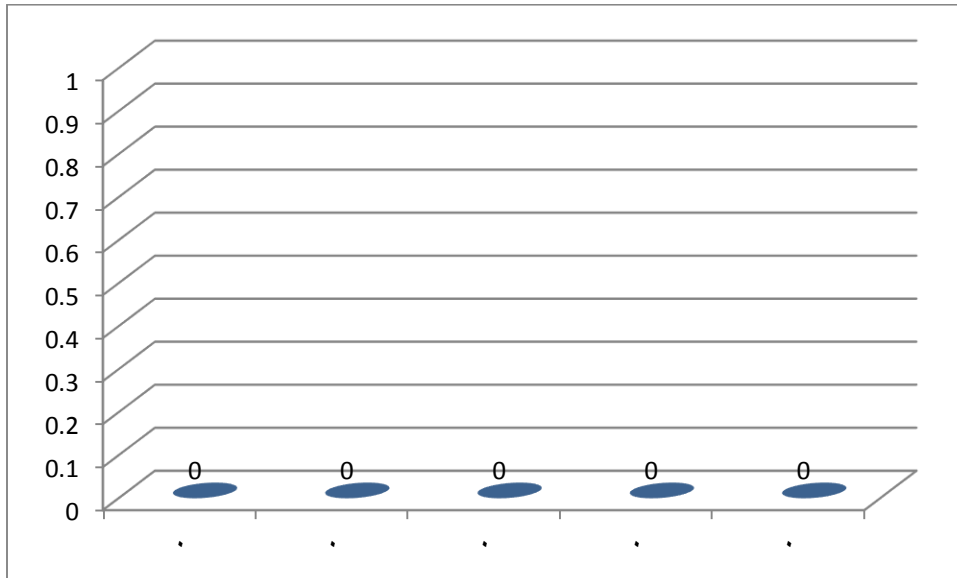
Source: excel 2016

Table (14) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Sudanese English language teachers are not interested in slang. Sample by strongly agree by (26.7%) Agree by (43.3%) Neutral by (6.7%) Disagree by (20.0%) and strongly disagree by (3.3%)

4.15 Table (15) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the: (Slang is not important in English as it is viewed by English language teachers).

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Strongly agree	3	10.0%
Agree	8	26.7%
Neutral	8	26.7%
Disagree	7	23.3%
Strongly disagree	4	13.3%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



Source: excel 2016

Table (15) illustrates the views of the distribution of the Slang is not important in English as it is viewed by English language teachers. Sample by strongly agree by (10.0%) Agree by (26.7%) Neutral by (26.7%) Disagree by (23.3%) and strongly disagree by (13.3%).

4.16 Table (16) illustrates chi-square test results for the hypothesis: (Sudanese teachers of English language do not have adequate knowledge of English slang forms).

No	Phrases	Chi-square value	df	Sig.	Median	Interpretation
1	English language teachers teach only formal English at universities	13.46	3	0.000	4.00	Agree
2	Sudanese English language teachers have little background about slang	11.06	3	0.000	4.00	Agree
3	Sudanese English language teachers are not interested in slang	15.66	4	0.000	4.00	Agree
4	Slang is not important in English as it is viewed by English language teachers	13.66	4	0.000	3.00	Neutral

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package

Results and Discussions:

Based on the above table No (16) results show that the first statement, which was (English language teachers teach only formal English at universities) is clearly a problematic area for the Sudanese English language teachers, who teach English as a foreign language regarding the scientific calculation results in this table. The current results in the table show that the number of the agreements by those, who expressed their opinions (agree) to the statement, is extremely larger. Moreover,

the second statement, which was (Sudanese English language teachers have little background about slang) is absolutely an obstacle for the Sudanese teachers as they have little background about English slang according to the statistical calculation in the table. The number of those, who stated their opinions (agree), is larger than those, who disagreed with the statement. While the third statement in the table, which was (Sudanese English language teachers are not interested in slang) is a crystal clear a problematic area for the Sudanese English language teachers as they do not often have the conversation environment where English slang is spoken. Results in the table scientifically calculated and showed the differences. Thus, the last statement in the table, which was (Slang is not important in English as it is viewed by English language teachers) is doubtfully accepted. Most of those, who expressed their opinions on the statement, were neutrals. The reservations might be attributed to the background of the Sudanese teachers' culture toward the British community when they use English slang in their daily life routine. Most or nearly all teachers, who expressed their opinions on the statements, were completely agreed with the research study target. Regarding the results above the hypothesis, which was (Sudanese teachers of English language do not have adequate knowledge of English slang forms) is fairly accepted.

4.17 Test analysis:

In this part a test description, which represents the second tool of the data analysis is provided. The test was answered by undergraduate students. Data analyzed as below:

Cronbach's alpha method: -

Where reliability was calculated using Cronbach's alpha equation shown below:

$$\text{Reliability coefficient} = \frac{n}{n-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation total grades}}$$

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-1} * \frac{1 - \text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation total grades}}}$$

Cronbach's alpha coefficient = (0.77), a reliability coefficient is high and it indicates the stability of the scale and the validity of the study.

Validity coefficient is the square of the islands so reliability coefficient is (0.88), and this shows that there is a high sincerity of the scale and that the benefit of the study.

Cranach's alpha method

No	Value	Reliability	Validity
1	question one	0.82	0.91
2	question two	0.62	0.79
Total		0.77	0.88

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package.

Source: excel 2016

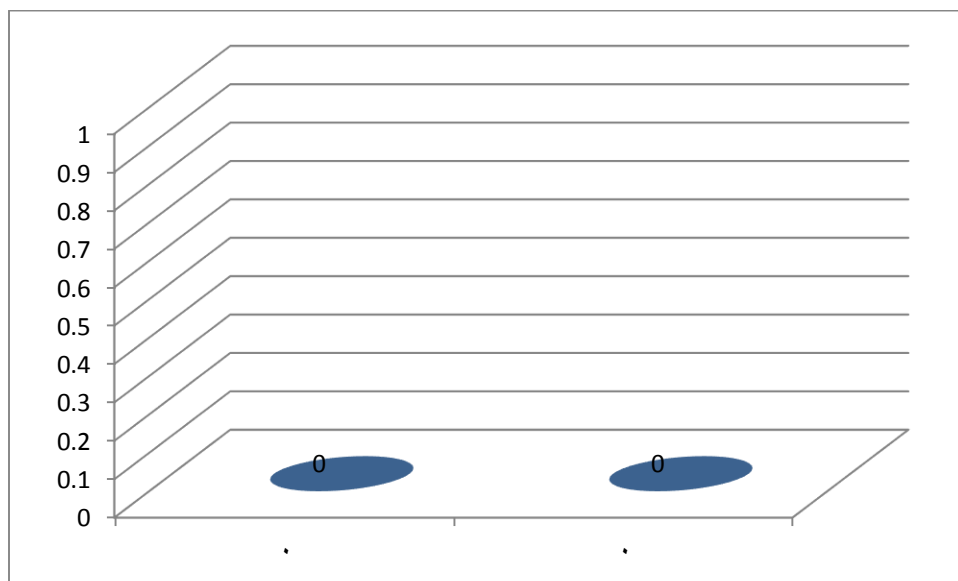
4.18 Table (18) illustrates the views of the distribution of the question one by pass by (60.0%) and failure by (40.0%).

Table (2) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the question one.

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Pass	4	13.3%
Failure	26	86.7%

Total	30	100.0%
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Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



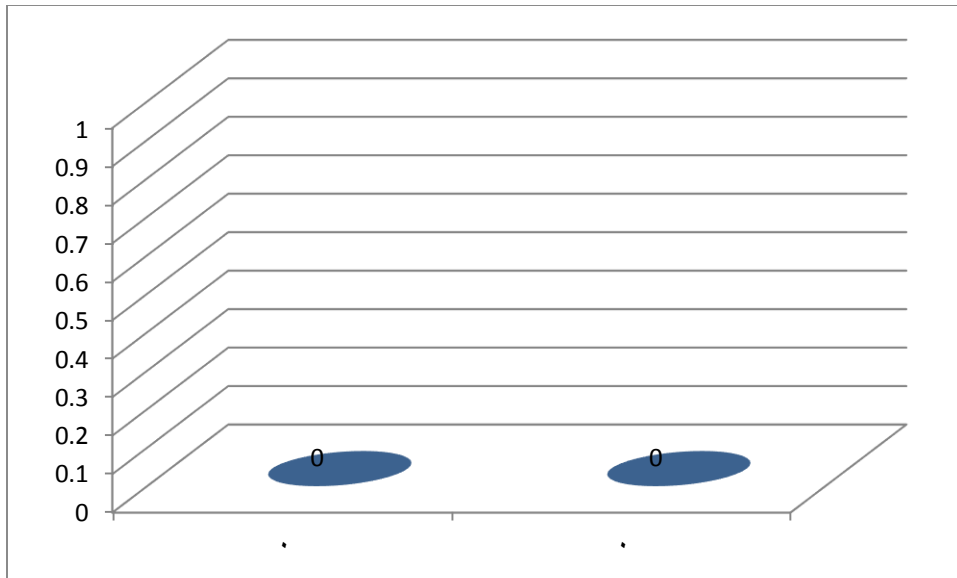
Source: excel 2016

4.19 Table (19) illustrates the views of the distribution of the question one by pass by (13.3%) and failure by (86.7%).

Table (19) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the question two.

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Pass	25	83.3%
Failure	5	16.7%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



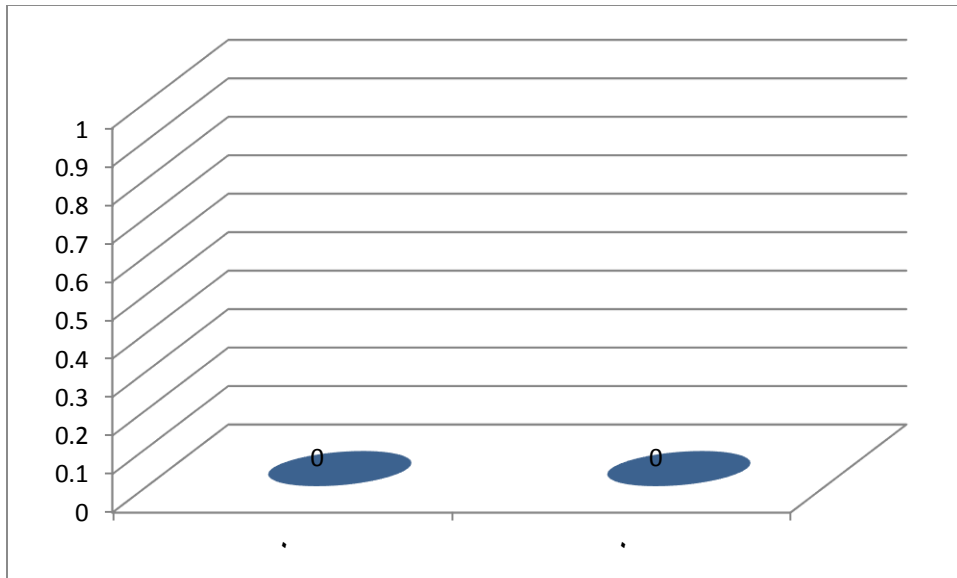
Source: excel 2016

4.20 Table (20) illustrates the views of the distribution of the question twoby pass by (83.3%) and failure by (16.7%)

Table (20) illustrates the frequency and percentage for the total degree

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
Pass	22	73.3%
Failure	8	26.7%
Total	30	100.0%

Source: IPM SPSS 24 package



Source: excel 2016

Materials and Methods:

Study adopted a descriptive analytical method. A diagnostic test designed for the BA undergraduate students from Sudan University of Science and Technology was used as a crucial tool. Study used a (SPSS) to analyze the data collected. Study discussed the history of English slang and the importance of using it. Study recommended that slang must be taught at universities as it is important.

Results and Discussions:

Table (2) shows that few of the respondents with a lower percentage were able to answer the test question two correctly, meanwhile many of the respondents with a higher percentage failed to answer the test question two correctly. Let's fairly say that question two was mainly focusing on the English slang (research topic) rather than checking students' intelligence in answering the question. Respondents find it difficult to deal with such slang vocabulary as: abunny boiler, thrash, adoodle, sussed out, hacked off etc... This clearly shows that the Sudanese learners of formal English are far away from the British slang culture, which is used upon the

British community .No doubt that the result clearly indicates English slang constitutes a big problematic area in comprehending by the Sudanese learners of formal English. Furthermore, the result of this question emphasizes that the research question, which was (Do Sudanese Universities and provide students with sufficient courses on informal language as far as the syllabuses are concerned?) is accepted.

Table (3) and the chart above show the calculation and the analysis of the test question three. As it is noticed that many of the respondents with a higher percentage were able to answer the test question one correctly, whereas few of the respondents with a lower percentage failed to answer the test question correctly. It is clear that the type of the question is straight forward (Matching list - A to B). That type of question is more accessible to be answered correctly since the given options in hand, for the reason mentioned respondents needed not to think deeply and guess of what the meaning exactly. Therefore respondents did find it easy to answer the question. According to the respondents' answers above it is clear that the question which was (To what extent do Sudanese formal learners of English encounter problems in a private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety?) is rejected.

The third tool of the research study was an interview for native speakers of English language. The interview was drawn from five native speakers as below:

Dear Sir / Madam,

I would be most grateful if you could read and respond to the following questions. This interview has been formed to collect honest data regarding native English teachers' opinions. This is a PhD thesis in English Language (Applied Linguistics)

entitled: “**Investigating Problems of Communication Encountered by Sudanese Undergraduates with Native Speakers when using English slang between the Two Parties**”.

Hypothesis Four: Native speakers of English are more intelligible to Sudanese undergraduate students of formal English in a private conversation.

Question (1) of the interview, which was (How do you feel when you encounter non-native speakers of English in terms of their pronunciation?) Most of the native speakers, who answered this question, assumed that the pronunciation problem varies from one person to another depending on the educational level of a non- native speaker. Regarding question (2) which was (To what extent do you view the non-native speakers of English in terms of their degree of formality in a private conversation in a club or a restaurant?). Many of the interviewees’ responses came as it is: They confirmed that there was a real misunderstanding between them and the non- native speakers of English language as they one day were invited by some Sudanese friends in a restaurant, the huge gap between them was absolutely clear in terms of the formality degree. They also claim that EFL students use more formal expressions than ESL students / speakers. Idiomatic expressions require extensive exposure to the language in a variety of all the situations. Question (3) which was (As a native speaker of English, could the above difficulties mentioned be regarded as a barrier to understand each other?). Most of the respondents replied “Yes” The pronunciation is extremely bad, without doubt. Otherwise speaker is needed to repeat or the native speaker must take it. The last question of the interview, which was (What do you ultimately recommend to solve this problem?) Nearly all the interviewees came to an agreement that non – native speakers of English need to be aware that every thing is read on books or watched on the T.V is not always appreciated for every conversational situation,

they too assumed that teaching slang and pronunciation throughout English education is a great benefit of all.

Summary of the chapter :

From the above results of the questionnaire and the interview by English language teachers and the native speakers of English, shown that using English slang with native speakers of English represents a problematic area for the Sudanese learners of formal English particularly in pronunciation and structure. Furthermore, the statistical results of the study test shows that the percentage of the respondents who were not able to answer the question was extremely higher than those, who were able to answer the question correctly. This indication reveals that Sudanese learners of formal English experience difficulties with the native speakers when using English slang in conversation. In the light of the findings the hypothesis four which was (Native speakers of English are more intelligible to Sudanese undergraduate students of formal English in a private conversation is accepted . Based on the findings above of this study, the following points are recommended: English language teachers should make comparison of using formal English and English slang while they teach students and enlighten them about these differences. Students at Universities should be informed with the necessity of formal and English slang. Students should be encouraged to use English slang outside the classroom. Students should be on the internet to explore more about English slang to enhance their acknowledgement.

Chapter Five

Main findings, Conclusions Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

5.0 Introduction:

This chapter includes the summary of the previous chapters, in addition to the findings and recommendations built on what was achieved throughout this study.

5.1 Findings of the study:

After analyzing the data, study revealed the following findings:

- 1- Non-native speakers of English language encounter problems in communication with the native speakers of English.
- 2- Universities fail to provide students with sufficient courses on English slang.
- 3- One of the reasons, which revealed by the study and led to this problem, is the lack of knowledge in English slang upon the non-native speakers of English Language.
- 4- Native speakers of English feel little confused and embarrassed when they communicate with those, who speak English as the foreign language.

5.2 Conclusions:

This study aims at investigating problems encountered by Sudanese learners of formal English when using slang forms with English native speakers.

Chapter one provides general description of the study outlined field, the purpose of the study and the study objectives. To achieve these objectives four hypotheses are determined, which stated to be tested. In chapter two a general review of literature in the field of formal and English slang is written and the previous studies of the

same topic provided. Chapter three contains the methodology of the research with regard to population, sampling, instruments validity and reliability. In chapter four, data obtained from the questionnaire and the test was analyzed through (SPSS) analysis and discussed.

5.3 Recommendations:

In the light of the study findings the following are the recommendations:

Since English language teachers are responsible to shoulder the heavy burdens of education problems and treat all the problematic area that faces their learners, some tips are provided to assist them in paving the way towards the performance in teaching students to learn the English slang and make it more familiar. Regarding the above results following, recommendations presented in an attempt to improve students' performance in learning slang. Ministry of high Education has to be aware enough to solve this problem by adding syllabus, which assist learners to be familiar to English slang variety. Students and teachers should accept to:

- 1- English language teachers should make comparison of using formal and English slang while they teach students in order to enlighten them about these differences.
- 2- Students at Universities should be informed with the necessity of formal and English slang.
- 3- Students should be encouraged to use English slang outside the classroom.
- 4- Students should be on the internet to explore more about the English slang.

5.4 Suggestions for the further studies:

Based on the findings studies, the researcher proposes the following suggestions for further studies: Universities should have a syllabus of teaching English slang. English language teachers should inform students about the slang words. Students should be encouraged to practise speaking English with forms of slang.

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Appendices

Appendices

Appendix: (1)

Teachers' questionnaire:

Dear Teacher,

Kindly read these statements and offer your opinion toward each one. This questionnaire has been designed to collect honest data about teachers' opinions, who are non-native speakers of English. This is a PhD thesis in English Language (Applied Linguistics) entitled "**Investigating Problems of Communication Encountered by Sudanese Undergraduates with Native Speakers when using English slang between the two Parties**".

- 1- Hypothesis One:** Sudanese learners of Formal English encounter problems in private conversation in terms of lexical choice of informal variety.

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Sudanese English learners do not understand native speakers when slang words used in conversation.					
2. Sudanese English learners find difficulties in pronouncing slang words while studying.					
3. Native speakers of English usually use slang in public places such as: Bus, restaurant etc...					
4. Native speakers feel confused when they communicate with Sudanese English learners.					

2- Hypothesis Two: Sudanese Universities do not provide students with sufficient courses on informal language as far as the syllabuses are concerned.

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5. Universities mainly teach formal English.					
6. English teachers at Universities are not familiar with English slang.					
7. Universities lack English native teachers.					
8. Less priority is given to teaching slang at Universities.					

3- Hypothesis Three: Sudanese teachers of English language do not have adequate knowledge of teaching English slang forms.

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
<p>9. English language teachers teach only formal English at universities.</p>					
<p>10. Sudanese English language teachers have little background about slang.</p>					
<p>11. Sudanese English language teachers are not interested in slang.</p>					
<p>12. Slang is not important in English as it is viewed by English language teachers.</p>					

Appendix (2)

Test for undergraduate students English Language College

Dear student,

I will be grateful if you read the test and answer the questions below. This written test is to collect honest data about the students' ability to understand English slang. This is a PhD thesis in English Language (Applied Linguistics) entitled "**Investigating Problems of Communication Encountered by Sudanese Undergraduates with Native Speakers when using English slang between the two Parties**".

Question One:

Read the dialogue and answer the questions below:

Bloke A: Did you see the **game** last night?

Bloke B: Nah couldn't, was out with that **blond** we met last week, but won't be seeing her again, as talking to her; she sounded like a bunny boiler!

Bloke A: Sorry **mate** but you must've had your **beer goggles** on. I'd already **sussed** that **out** and I think she's a total **moose!**

Bloke B: Yeh, you're right, that's the last time I take someone's number when I'm **off my face**. I'm **hacked off** I missed the footie but will **defo** watch Chelsea thrash Man U next week.

Bloke A: It won't be a doddle but we should do it as long as we don't get any **iffy** decisions against us and they don't get a **jammy** goal.

Bloke A: Cheers.

Write the meaning of the underlined words:

1. **Nah**.....
2. **A bunny boiler**.....
3. **Thrash**.....
4. **Adoodle**.....

(B)

Match the meaning of words in list (A) To (B)

- | | | |
|---------------|-----------------|-----|
| 1. Game | a. annoyed | () |
| 2. Blond | b. Friend | () |
| 3. Mate | c. Football | () |
| 4. Sussed out | d. Haired woman | () |
| 5. Hacked off | e. Discovered | () |

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2- To what extent do you view the non-native speakers of English in terms of their degree of formality in a private conversation in a club or a restaurant?

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3- As a native speaker of English, could the above difficulties mentioned be regarded as a barrier to understand each other?

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