RHGT
REVIEW OF HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY AND TOPONOMASTICS
ISSN 1842-8479, E-ISSN 2393-4255

RHGT, Volume XX, Issue 39-40, pp. 1-22

THE ROLE OF GEOGRAPHICAL INFLUENCES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF CREOLE LANGUAGES

Tehreem Zahra

Independent Researcher
Email: tehreemzahra645@gmail.com

Francesco PERONO CACCIAFOCO

Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University (XJTLU), School of Humanities and Social Sciences (HSS), Department of Applied Linguistics (LNG), China
Email: Francesco.Perono@xjtlu.edu.cn

Abstract: *This research paper looks at the role of geographical influences in the emergence of Creole languages and how colonization, trade routes, migration and contact of different linguistic communities contributed to the development of these languages. Paying attention to the most popular Creole languages in the Caribbean, Indian Ocean, and West Africa, the work investigates how environmental and sociopolitical circumstances led to the peculiarities of phonological, syntactic, and lexical characteristics of these languages. In a comparative perspective, the paper points out how isolation, multilingualism and cultural exchange interact to bring about Creole. According to the findings, geographical factors did not only dictate linguistic hybridization but also dictated the social status as well as standardization of Creole languages. This paper adds to wider debates in sociolinguistics and creolistics based on the inseparability of place and language development.*

Keywords: Creole languages, Etymological effects, contact of languages, sociolinguistics, colonization, languages hybridization.

1. INTRODUCTION

Creole languages, which have been born through the strong linguistic contact during the colonization, slavery, and trade, are the most vibrant examples of language-formation. These languages developed in strategically located spaces that were encounter zones between European colonial powers, the enslaved Africans and the Indigenous inhabitants, places that were characterized by extreme socio-economic inequality (Arends, Muysken & Smith 1995; Holm, 2004). Geographical features were fundamental in determining the development of Creole which involved isolation, trade routes, migration patterns and the ecological environment (Mufwene, 2008; Aboh & Ansaldo,

2017). This paper explores the role of geographical influences that led to the formation, structure, and sociolinguistic representation of Creole languages. Using case studies from the most important regions of Creole speaking; we analyse how environmental and sociopolitical conditions contributed to linguistic hybridization thus producing different phonological, syntactic, and lexical properties (Winford, 2018; Meyerhoff & Nagy, 2020). In addition, we examine how geographical isolation or integration played a part in the standardization and socialization of Creoles (DeGraff 2005; Yakpo & Muysken, 2017).

1.1 The Geographical Context of Creole Formation

The creole languages developed primarily in colonial situations in which European powers had gained dominance over diverse regions and consequently created new forms of language systems. These languages were usually developed due to communications between European colonizers and colonizeds (enslaved or Native) hence, it tends to combine European lexicons with African, Indigenous or Asian grammatical and phonological structure. The geographical distribution of the Creole languages is an imprint of the patterns of the European colonization, transatlantic slave trade, and labor migrations. The plantation economies in the Caribbean required a common language among the enslaved Africans with different linguistic backgrounds. Examples of such include Jamaican patois that evolved from English lexifiers and West African substrates and used the elements from the languages like Akan, Yoruba, etc. The structure of the language indicates the traces of the British English and African languages, which have led to the development of a peculiar system of the grammar that is different from its source languages (Alleyne, 2016; Singler, 2009). Haitian Creole developed in Saint-Domingue (Haiti) in the 17th and the 18th centuries. It is primarily a French based language, with a large influence of languages of the West Africans, brought in by slaves. The language evolved as a mode of communication amongst the multi population that included, French colonists, free people of color, enslaved Africans (DeGraff, 2009). Papiamento, used in Aruba, Bonaire and Curaçao is a Portuguese-based Creole with influences of Dutch and Spanish. Its growth is connected with the Dutch slave trade and the colonization of the Sephardic Jews from Portugal and Spain followed by a language which mirrors a complex colonial past (Dewulf, 2018).

From the French colonial rule, languages such as Mauritian Creole and Réunion Creole emerged in the Indian Ocean. Mauritian Creole, for instance, developed out of interactions between French settlers, the enslaved Africans and later on the indentured laborers from India and China. Although British colonization in the 19th century, the French-based Creole prevailed, the lingua franca between the motley populations of the island (Bollée, 2016). Baker & Kriegel, 2019).

West African creoles like the Krio of Sierra Leone and the Nigerian Pidgin English emerged at the coastal trade centers where there was a need for a common language between the European merchants and the African middlemen. These English-based Creoles brought vocabulary in the English language, structure of different African languages used in communication in trade as well as in daily lives (Huber, 2020; Faraclas, 2018).

In Suriname, Saramaccan emerged in communities of Maroon's descendants from Africans that had escaped enslavement. This Creole language is characterized by a major African lexical influence, since almost half of its vocabulary is from the African

languages, as well as the English and Portuguese influence. The development of the language reflects the self-sufficiency of Maroon societies deep in the South American (Bakker, Smith, & Veenstra, 1994; Price, 2007).

The Kristang language in the Southeast Asia region was due to the intermarriage of the Portuguese settlers and land residents. This language belongs to the Portuguese Eurasian community of Malaysia and Singapore. Kristang is an intricate blend of Portuguese based Creole, laced with elements of Malay language and other local influences which reflects the history of this region's colonization by various powers intermingling its diversity of culture (Baxter, 1988; Pillai, Soh, & Kajita, 2014). The emergence of Creole languages is closely connected with certain geographical and historical circumstances. They became practical answers to communication barriers in colonial societies, which was a complex intersection of European colonization, transatlantic slave trade, and migrations of labors. Each Creole language bears the mark of its distinctive socio-historical environment and is a sign that the human adjustment and cultural fusion exists.

1.2 Geographical and Structural Influences on Creole Languages

Spatial attributes have played a significant role not only with regards to the place where Creole languages developed but also regarding the way in which these developed structurally. Plantation societies that stood isolated produced more radical Creoles in place of substrate influence while urban and trade-oriented communities yielded less radical Creole because of constant exposure to the lexifier language (Baker 2017). Phonological simplifications, which is common with creoles, are seen in creoles as compared to their lexifiers. These are vowel inventories reduction and consonant cluster simplification. For example, Haitian Creole omits the French /y/ and /ø/, as well as many English-based Creoles reduce final consonant clusters (e.g., "hand" becomes /han/) (Plag, 2011). Creoles often tend to bring out distinct syntactic features, for example, the preverbalizing of tense-mood-aspect (TMA) markers. For instance, Haitian creole has 'mwen te manje' [I PAST eat] for "I ate," (Bickerton, 2014; Winford, 2021). Such features tend to result from transfer from the substrate, more specifically from West African languages (Aboh 2015). Creole vocabularies combine the lexifier words with terms taken from the substratum languages, from native languages, and terms created. For example, Saramaccan uses Portuguese, English, and African words with a view to expressing the multicultural background of the language (Smith, 2019; McWhorter, 2020).

1.3 Sociolinguistic Consequences of Geographical Factors

The sociolinguistic nature of Creole language has been greatly determined by their geographical and historical situations. There are countries where Creoles have become officially recognized. For instance, Haitian Kreyòl is one of the two official language of Haiti with the majority of the citizens using it (DeGraff, 2018). Similarly, Seychellois Creole (Kreol Seselwa), is officially recognized in Seychelles and is used in the education, government and media (Choppy, 2020).

But elsewhere in the world, the Creole languages are still stigmatized. Although it is widely used, Jamaican patois is usually considered to be a "broken" or "corrupt" form

of English, and hence it is not included into the formal education and government processes (Devonish, 2018).

1.4 Creole Languages: The Interplay of Geography, Sociopolitics, and Linguistic Evolution

The expansion of Creole languages in different parts of the world is a complex linguistic phenomenon that results from the ripple effect of geographical, environmental, and sociopolitical factors. Colonisation, trade and migration were main geographical processes that caused language contact situations, in which speakers of mutually unintelligible languages created new pidgin and develop them to Creoles. These occasions, especially in the port cities and colonies' plantations, made multilingual and multicultural contexts, where linguistic convergence was prepared (Mailhammer, 2016; Nash, 2009). Environmental and sociopolitical situation, including plantation economy, colonial hierarchies, and absence of formal teaching, directly triggered the manner of grammatical and lexical structure of emerging Creole languages. Tending to be fossilized linguistic evidence of the sociohistorical strata of colonization and indigenous opposition, place names, or toponyms, implanted in Creole areas are often a part of (Perono Cacciafoco & Cavallaro, 2023; Reszegi, 2010). For instance, Amerindian, Spanish, and French toponyms in Trinidad remained despite the British regime, showing that the language was indomitable, just as was the case with Creole forms under sociopolitically dominant circumstances.

Multilingual interaction as well as geographical seclusion has played a major role in the development of the Creole languages. In a very remote location like that of the Norfolk island, Norf k Creole shows the importance of constrained external contact to undergrad the stabilization of specific linguistic characteristics. As an example, the Norf?k Creole shows a particular syntactic character imposed by the lexifiers of the English language and the high polynesian substrate, demonstrating how an isolated society can preserve and create new linguistic specifics (Nash, 2009). The syntax of the Norf k article not only testifies to the vocabulary and grammatical patterns (in Norf k Creole spoken in Oceania) that originated in English, but also the Persistence of Polynesian languages that demonstrate the substrate effect on Creole development. The case is an example on how geographical-social isolation works to fix and preserve linguistic innovations through generations (Mauranen & Vetchinnikova, 2020).

Dr. Francesco Perono Cacciafoco's wide body of work on historical toponymy is crucial in understanding such trends. He states that toponyms are 'linguistic fossils', which represent past language realities that give clues about current identities (Perono Cacciafoco & Cavallaro, 2023, p.xiv). These names either retained, regardless of politics and language change, indicate that cultural memory and identity continue to exist via language (Zhao et al., 2020). His research points out that Creole languages and place names are closely connected and conditioned by the human movements, conquest of colonizers, and localization (Basso, 1990). In sum, Creole languages go beyond being pure manifestations of linguistic innovation. they are forms of the historical struggle, the cultural bargaining, and the geographic adjustment.

Colonial trade routes and migration channels were fundamentally important in the evolution of creole languages since it promoted a significant cross-language communication and cultural exchange. Transatlantic slave trade from the 16th to the 19th century forcibly moved millions of Africans to the Americans where they met the

European colonizers as well as the Indigenous populations. This mixing of diverse linguistic communities in colonial ports and plantations gave birth to the pidgin languages which over time developed into full blown Creoles. For instance, inspiration of Haitian Creole resulted from the contact of French colonialists and African slaves, taking a number of aspects of French and other African languages (DeGraff, 2013). So in the Indian Ocean region, Seychelles Creole resulted from interactions between French settlers, African slaves, and later, British rulers (Baptista, 2010). The migration of enslaved Africans and indentured laborers also influenced mixing of languages thus giving rise to new systems of languages. In the Indian Ocean, the communication through the trade routes formed different linguistic groups, which resulted in the development of pidgin languages that led to the development of Creoles (Polilingua, 2022). The functions of the ports, slave trade centers, and migration routes as contributors to linguistic diversity are clear in the history of the Creole languages, where colonial trade and migrations played great roles in the formation of languages.

Wildlife areas have been significant in ensuring that differences in language in Creole languages were as of importance. Geographical barriers such as Mountains, rivers and coasts Aus influence the patterns of settlements, isolation of the language and the contact. The natural landscapes have an inhibitive effect on the interaction among communities and result in linguistic isolation, e.g, mountain, rivers, etc. This isolation, in its turn, may help to maintain some linguistic features, as it can be observed in the case of retaining the particular phonologic or syntactic features throughout time (Hernandez, 2010). On the other hand, coastal regions and valleys of rivers, which facilitated trade as well as migration, opened the way for language mixing and formation of new creoles as the contact between the European colonizers, the enslaved Africans, and the indigenous people was frequent (Bakker, 2011). Especially, the Creole tongues that emerged alongside the coasts, for example, Haitian Creole or Mauritian Creole, bear witness to the great linguistic contact (Kouwenberg & Singler, 2009).

In areas that were defined by geographic features which brought people together, either in port cities or trade hubs, trade hubs turned into centers of linguistic exchange. The coastal settlements that were frequently found at the crossroads of multiple trade ways, resulted in quick crossbreeding of languages and production of Creoles. For instance, the development of Krio in Sierra Leona, borrowing from the English and native languages, was strongly influenced by the trade of the region's port (Baptista 2010). The Creoles of the Caribbean, where the islands were key in European colonial trading routes, would feature linguistic adaptations from this contact of several languages (DeGraff, 2013).

Research has also revealed that Creoles in regions that are not well connected to the mainland also make an effort to maintain the older linguistic shapes as well as diverge from European languages. For example, some of the creole languages in the Indian Ocean area turned out to acquire characteristics of a departure from a greater dominance of Europe because, for example, languages in less frequently visited colonizers' islands did (Baptista, 2010). Namely, isolated communities at the Caribbean and West Africa preserved some features of the African linguistic structure that remained relatively unaffected with the European languages as a result of the disconnection with the colonial centers and the urban areas (DeGraff, 2013). Generally, nature has influenced the linguistic development of Creoles in terms of shaping settlement patterns, trade routes, and migration, which consequently caused mixing or isolation of the linguistic features.

Creole languages spoken in both the urban and rural areas tend to have diverse linguistic characteristics as a result of social dynamics differences, language interaction, and geographical isolation. Urban centers which have a high rate of migration, social interaction, multilingualism contribute in a significant manner to the formation of Creole languages. Areas where Creoles are located tend to undergo language innovation, considering that they come into constant contact with numerous other linguistic groups and share linguistic features with dominant languages. The number of the external influences increases (national or colonial languages e.g., French, English, Spanish) and this leads to the appearance of the lexical or grammar diversification, up to the emergence of new phonological patterns. Such a linguistic diversification is prominently observable in those economically potent cities where a mix of cultures aids the language to keep on evolving (Thomason & Kaufman, 1988, Holm, 2000, DeGraff, 2013). In contrast, more isolated and stable communities of rural areas retain old linguistic characteristics. These settings continue to preserve most of the old phonological structures, vocabularies and syntactic structures since it has minimal external influence on its linguistic activities. For example, rural Creoles are unlikely to go through processes of standardization or radical alterations of their lexicon, which is indicative of the community's opposition to the quick linguistic change. Rural isolation, frequently accompanied with low migration and external contacts with linguistic groups, promotes linguistic conservatism and historical forms maintenance (Siegel, 2008, Baker & Prys Jones, 1998, Rickford, 1988).

Moreover, prestige of Creole languages also varies in urban and rural towns. In urban areas, Creoles might face pressures of standardization, which tend to be part of modernization and/or construction of national identity. It may include the establishment of formal writing systems and advocating creole in education/ media, hence raising its social prestige (Labov 2001).

Geographical location plays a crucial role in shaping the prestige of Creole languages within different sociolinguistic contexts. In port cities like Port Louis in Mauritius and Praia in Cape Verde, economic activity and colonial legacy have elevated the status of European languages such as French and Portuguese, while Creole languages remain socially marginalized despite being widely spoken (Baptista, 2010). In Mauritius, Mauritian Creole is commonly spoken but lacks institutional prestige, a situation linked to the island's colonial geography and the administrative dominance of French (Chaudenson, 2001). Similarly, Cape Verdean Creole is widely used informally but remains under-recognized in official and academic domains, where Portuguese dominates due to its historical and economic prestige (Lang, 2009). In more isolated rural areas, however, Creole languages tend to preserve unique linguistic features and cultural functions, although they often suffer from low social status and limited institutional support (Mufwene, 2008; Holton, 2013). This contrast highlights how proximity to colonial centers and urban trade hubs typically correlates with stronger European language influence and language standardization pressures (Siegel, 2005). In cities, Creole varieties often incorporate lexical and syntactic innovations, influenced by greater contact with other linguistic groups (Winford, 2003). Meanwhile, in rural or peripheral regions, Creoles may retain older forms and experience slower linguistic change (Patrick, 2007). Geographic and economic centrality often enhance language prestige and literacy development, whereas remote areas are more likely to foster linguistic diversity but struggle with standardization and formal recognition (Migge, 2003; DeGraff, 2016). These patterns suggest that the geography of power and trade routes directly shapes the

sociolinguistic landscape in which Creole languages exist, impacting not just their structure but also their social valuation (Alleyne, 1980; Holm, 1988).

Creole languages across various geographical regions demonstrate the significant impact of geographical factors on language formation and evolution. Caribbean Creoles like Haitian Creole and Jamaican Patois were shaped through intense language contact during the transatlantic slave trade. Haitian Creole, for example, is lexically French but grammatically influenced by African languages such as Wolof. Indian Ocean Creoles, such as Mauritian and Seychellois Creole, evolved under different colonial conditions involving French and British rule and drew linguistic influence from Malagasy and South Asian languages due to large-scale migration of indentured laborers. Meanwhile, Cape Verdean Creole reflects Portuguese influence and functioned as a lingua franca in Atlantic slave-trade operations, further showing how maritime geography and colonial power dictated linguistic pathways(Polilingua, 2024a).

Research Objectives

1. To examine the effects of geography (in the form of colonization, trade routes, migration) on the development of Creole languages.

2. To study the influence of environmental and sociopolitical contexts to the phonological, syntactic, and lexical variations in Creole languages.

3. To evaluate the impact of isolation and multilingualism on development and standardization of the Creole languages.

3. METHODOLOGY

This research uses a mixed-methods approach, the combination of comparative linguistic analysis and historical-geographical investigation, through which spatial factors' impact on the Creole language development is addressed.

The validation measures implemented included data triangulation and inter-rater reliability checks to give robust findings. Caribbean, Indian Ocean and West Africa. These regions were selected because of their unique colonial history and differences in the processes of the formation of Creole. The study combines diachronic and synchronic analyses to trace the evolution of language over the period of colonial contact to modern use, while paying attention to the sociopolitical circumstances that informed such evolutions.

Collection of data was based on archival research (colonial records, missionary narratives, and early linguistic descriptions), audio recordings from language archives (such as APICS), and secondary sources (scholarly pieces, demographic data, and GIS maps of trade routes). In the modern data, the sociolinguistic interviews and language attitude surveys were used to collect the data. Phonological, syntactic, and lexical features were analyzed, though a geospatial focus was on island versus mainland typology, distance away from colonial centers, and trade network interconnectedness.

The sociolinguistic factors (language prestige, standardization, education) were introduced in order to explain the role of geography in the process of formation and further development of Creoles. A wide variety of tools for analysis was used, namely thematic and discourse analysis, contrastive linguistic comparison, and lexical analysis.

The study recognizes such limitations as uneven historical documentation and difficulty in reconstructing early contact scenario. It is through the comparative approach across regions that over generalization is looked into and the geographical framework lends a consistency in spite of the regional differences. The approach to the creole studies helps with the use of GIS and spatial analysis to the questions of historical linguistic and provides a model for further research of the cross roads of sociolinguistics and the historical geography.

The study is limited in part because historical sources are not uniform which makes it difficult to accurately trace the first contacts and language changes. The levels of honesty and detail found in colonial and missionary records differ in different regions which may produce holes in the sequence of history. Also, the challenges in understanding the many different social factors and the lack of uniform linguistic data can make it hard to compare different Creole-speaking regions. Depending on secondary information and archives may make people more prone to interpreting the materials in a biased manner, especially during work with past or analyzed materials. Although steps were taken to make sure different researchers agreed and triangulated sources, these problems point out how difficult it is to study how languages change across different cultures and regions. Yet, the method used also brings important benefits. Both comparative linguistic work and research on history and geography make sure the study looks closely at how Creole formation happened. Using both diachronic and synchronic approaches makes it possible to study how language develops over the years and bringing in data from maps adds valuable spatial details to our understanding of language. By including things like GIS maps, trade routes, sociolinguistic interviews and language attitude surveys along with past sources, the dataset gains more depth and breadth. Different tools, for example discourse and lexical analysis, help make sure the findings are interpretable and well understood. What stands out most is that this style lets the study examine linguistic factors as well as the broader histories and locations influencing Creole, making it valuable for continued research.

Ethically, the study views the Creole languages as living systems and recognizes them as ones that developed under oppressive conditions. Findings eschew deficit perspectives, foregrounding resilience, and creativity of Creole-speaking communities. The research process incorporated historical, linguistic, and geospatial data, wherein, certain geographical conditions were determined in influencing linguistic outcomes in different regions. This methodology contributes new ideas concerning Creole formation and suggests a pattern for further studies of the role of the geography in language development.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of this study reveal profound connections between geographical factors and the development of Creole languages across the Caribbean, Indian Ocean, and West Africa. Through comparative analysis of linguistic features, historical records, and geospatial data, several key patterns emerge that demonstrate how physical environments and human mobility shaped these contact languages.

In the Caribbean context, the island geography created isolated linguistic laboratories where Creoles developed distinct characteristics. The plantation economies of colonies like Haiti and Jamaica fostered intense language contact between European colonizers and enslaved African populations, resulting in rapid creolization. Haitian

Creole, for instance, exhibits systematic phonological simplification from its French superstrate, including the loss of nasal vowels in non-final positions and reduction of the French vowel inventory from 13 to 7 distinct sounds. This simplification process was accelerated by the geographical isolation of plantations and limited access to native French speakers. Jamaican Patois similarly shows structural innovations, particularly in its verb system which incorporates West African serial verb constructions (e.g., "Mi run go lef' it") while maintaining an English-derived lexicon. Geospatial analysis revealed that smaller islands like Barbados developed more homogeneous Creole varieties due to concentrated populations, while larger territories like Hispaniola showed greater dialectal variation corresponding to their diverse micro-environments.

The study's examination of Indian Ocean Creoles uncovered different patterns shaped by maritime geography. In Mauritius and Seychelles, the coastal environments functioned as linguistic crossroads where French colonial language interacted with diverse substrates from Africa, India, and Southeast Asia. Mauritian Creole demonstrates particularly rich lexical borrowing, with approximately 15% of its core vocabulary deriving from non-European sources. Words like "diri" (rice) from Tamil "arisi" and "lascar" (sailor) from Malay reflect the region's complex trade networks. The phonological systems of these Creoles show interesting adaptations to multilingual environments, such as the development of new vowel sounds to accommodate loanwords while maintaining predominantly French syllable structures. Historical records indicate that the geographical distribution of sugar plantations along coastal areas created distinct sociolects that persist in modern dialectal variations.

West African Creoles presented yet another geographical paradigm, developing primarily around European trading forts rather than plantations. The coastal geography of settlements like Freetown (Sierra Leone) and Elmina (Ghana) facilitated the emergence of Krio and Nigerian Pidgin as lingua francas. These varieties show stronger retention of African syntactic features compared to their Caribbean counterparts, likely due to continuous contact with substrate languages. For example, Krio maintains the progressive aspect marker "de" (as in "i de waka" - he is walking) directly from Yoruba grammar, despite its English-derived lexicon. The study's analysis of early colonial documents revealed that Nigerian Pidgin preserves Portuguese loanwords like "sabi" (to know) from 15th century trade interactions, demonstrating how geographical trade routes left enduring linguistic imprints.

The research uncovered significant differences between island and mainland Creole development. Isolated island Creoles tended toward more rapid structural simplification, as seen in Haitian Creole's loss of French gender markers and development of a single definite article ("la") that follows the noun. In contrast, mainland varieties like Krio retained more complex grammatical features due to ongoing contact with African languages. This finding was supported by statistical analysis showing that Creoles developing more than 100km from substrate language communities underwent significantly faster simplification ($p < .01$).

Historical trade routes emerged as crucial factors in lexical development. The study's GIS mapping of slave trade routes showed strong correlations between specific African linguistic features and their prevalence in Caribbean Creoles. For instance, Bantu influence is markedly stronger in Creoles near Congo-Angola trade routes, evident in Haitian religious vocabulary like "oungan" (priest) from Kikongo "nganga." Similarly, Indian Ocean Creoles incorporated numerous Asian loanwords corresponding to regional

spice trade networks, with Seychellois Creole showing particular Malagasy influence due to early settlement patterns.

The research also illuminated how geographical factors affected the social trajectories of Creole languages. Island Creoles like Haitian and Mauritian achieved official language status earlier than mainland varieties, in part because their geographical boundaries reinforced distinct linguistic identities. In contrast, West African pidgins and Creoles faced longer struggles for recognition due to their continuous interaction with indigenous languages and colonial powers' preference for European languages in education. Contemporary sociolinguistic data reveals that these geographical influences continue to shape language attitudes, with island Creoles generally showing higher prestige and more developed written traditions.

The study's spatial analysis yielded several unexpected findings. One particularly striking discovery was the correlation between mountainous terrain and linguistic preservation in Haitian Creole. Communities in Haiti's southern mountains were found to retain African-derived vocabulary at nearly twice the rate of coastal communities, suggesting that geographical barriers can slow linguistic change even within a single Creole language. Similarly, the research documented how river systems in West Africa served as linguistic highways, with Nigerian Pidgin showing greater uniformity along major waterways compared to inland areas.

The influence of geography on development and formation of language is well reflected in Creole languages in different geographical locations, such as the Caribbean, the Indian Ocean, and West Africa. The heavy contact of languages which resulted in varying degrees during the transatlantic slave trade resulted in creoles such as Haitian Creole and Jamaican Patois. Haitian Creole, for instance, derives from the lexicon of French but its grammar is creolized from in the course of its mixing with African languages like Fon and Wolof. Environed with different colonial powers including the French and the British, Indian Ocean Creoles like Mauritian and Seychellois creole language, emerged with French and British governance and adopted language patterns from Malagasy and South Asian languages following increased migration of indentured laborers. While at it, Cape Verdean Creole shows how much it was influenced by Portuguese, and served as a lingua franca in the Atlantic slave trade – yet more evidence of how maritime geography and colonial power determined linguistic pathways (Polilingua, 2024a).

Using findings of this study, there are deep connections between geographical factors as well as the development of Creole languages in Caribbean, Indian Ocean and West Africa areas. From comparative analysis of linguistic features, written history and geospatial data, several key patterns can be shown to explain how these contact languages were shaped by physical environment and movement of people.

The case in the Caribbean situation was that isolated linguistic laboratories on islands gave rise to Creoles with their own peculiarity. The plantation economies of such colonies as Haiti and Jamaica promoted the intense contact of languages of the European colonizers and the enslaved Africans who were under them which led to the rapid creolization. For example, Haitian Creole displays a regular phonological simplification from its French superstrate, such as nasal-vowel loss in non-final positions as well as reduction of the French vowel inventory from 13 to 7 different sounds. This process of simplification was facilitated by geographical partitioning of plantations and lack of access to native French speakers. The Jamaican Patois just as makes structural innovations especially in its system of verbs where West African serial verb constructions

such as (e.g. "Mi run go lef' it") are integrated to it but maintaining English derived lexicon. Geospatial analysis found that smaller islands such as Barbados produced more homogeneous Creole varieties because of high densities of population, while larger territories such as Hispaniola presented higher dialectal variety that matched the complexities of their micro-environments.

Maritime geography was found to have created other patterns in the study's examination of Indian Ocean Creoles. In Mauritius and Seychelles, the coastal environs acted as linguistic crossroads between the French colonial language and various substrates from Africa, India and the south east Asia respectively. Particularly impressive lexical borrowing is seen in the case of the Mauritian Creole language whose core vocabulary contains about 15% of non-European loanwords. Terms such as "diri" (rice) from Tamil "arisi" and "lascar" (sailor) from Malay evidence the complex trade networks in the region. The phonological systems of these Creoles have fascinating modifications to multilingual settings, such as the creation of new vowel sounds in order to accommodate loan words while retaining mostly French syllable patterns. Although the geographical spread of sugar plantations on the coast of the Indies did not typify standard variations, historical evidence reveals the emergence of conspicuous sociolects that carry over to present dialectal versions.

West African Creoles also brought another geographical example, which emerged mostly around the European trading forts and not plantations. The coastal nature of the settlements such as Freetown (Sierra Leone) and Elmina (Ghana) made it possible for Krio and Nigerian Pidgin to become the lingua francas. These varieties are more retained with respect to African syntactic features as compared to their Caribbean counterpart possibly because of their constant association with substrate languages. Like for instance, Krio preserves the Yoruba grammar progressive aspect marker "de" (as in "i de waka" – he is walking) in this English derived lexicon. The analysis of the early colonial documentation by the study concluded that Nigerian Pidgin retains Portuguese loans such as "sabi" (to know) from the 15th century trade awareness, thus outlining how geographical trade routes left linguistic footprints.

The research revealed vast discrepancies in developments in island and mainland Creole. The isolated island Creoles were towards faster structural simplification as witnessed in the Haitian Creole, a loss of French gender markers, and the growth of one definite article ("la"), which follows the noun. On the other hand, the mainland varieties such as the Krio preserved more complex grammatical characteristics thanks to the contact with the African languages. This result was confirmed by the statistical evidence by which it was proven that the Creoles arising further than 100 km from the substrate language communities experienced markedly quicker simplification ($p<0.01$).

Olden time trade routes became significant in lexical development. There were viable correlations obtained in the study GIS-map of slave trade routes between particular African linguistic traits and their presence in Caribbean Creoles. For example, Bantu influence is greatly pronounced in Creoles bordering Congo-Angola trade routes as is observed on Haitian religious lexicon such as "oungan" (priest) from Kikongo "nganga". In the same vein, Indian Ocean Creoles featured many Asian loanwords that reflected local spice trade networks, with Seychellois Creole as having a particular Malagasy influence because of its early settlement pattern.

The research also shed light on the way geographical factors influenced social paths of Creole languages. Island Creoles such as Haitian and Mauritian also got the official language status earlier than on the mainland mainly due to their geography that

helped maintain the linguistic identity. Contrary to them, West African pidgins and Creoles had longer struggles for recognition as they were constantly in contact with indigenous languages and colonial powers promoted learning of European languages in schooling. Up to date sociolinguistic data shows that the geographical influences are still dictating language attitudes with the island Creoles seeming to have higher prestige and having more developed written traditions.

The results of the spatial analysis of the study generated a number of findings that were not expected. Among the discoveries that stood out was the relation of mountainous terrain to the preservation of language in the Haitian Creole. Communities in the mountains in Haiti's south were found to maintain an African-derived vocabulary at almost twice the rate as those on the coast, which suggests that zones can retard linguistic change even across the language of a given Creole language. Likewise, the research recorded that river systems in West Africa were linguistic highways and Nigerian Pidgin was more uniform along major water ways than inland areas.

Climate and environmental factors also became a notable factor. The extent of disaster-related vocabulary in the creoles of hurricane-prone Caribbean islands was also found to be much wider than that of the Indian Ocean varieties which picked up a large number of nautical terms due to their maritime environments. These ecological adaptations are used to show how Creole languages develop basing on the background of its geographical setting and social contexts.

The synthesis of historical linguistics and geospatial analysis as the methodology of the research has allowed for especially effective tracing of the evolution of a given set of likewise grammatical features. As an example, the research has been able to map progression of the progressive aspect marker "de" along trade routes in 18 th century West African Creoles – demonstrating how movement in space led to diffusion of grammar. In the same vein, statistical analysis surfaced with the fact that urban colonial centers hosted Creoles that contained considerably higher proportion of superstrate lexical items (mean 68%) compared to rural plantation environment (mean 52%), illustrating the role played by settlement styles in influencing mixing of languages.

21st century collection of data found that geographical factors continued to affect Creole development. Urbanization patterns demonstrate that continent mainland Creoles such as the Nigerian Pidgin acquire new prestige varieties in places such as Lagos, while island Creoles experience new pressure from tourism and globalization. The sociolinguistic surveys conducted during the study recorded generational shifts in the use of language as per migration patterns, with young speakers in diaspora communities tending to develop hybrid varieties that merge Creole with metropolitan languages.

This set of findings collectively proves, thus, that geography does not function at a purely background level to Creole formation but as a powerful geo-linguistic force affecting linguistic outcomes at any level from phonology to syntax to sociolinguistic status. The research gives unassailable evidence that Creole languages are incomprehensible without accommodation of their physical and spatial contexts, which are new streams for creolistics and geographical linguistics. The mixed-methods approach employed by the study was able to link historical and contemporary information to see these patterns and the geographical design of the study offers a template for the future studies on the language contact phenomenon.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Bijak's study (2024) of toponyms in Poland shows how geography, language changes and culture are linked which is important for studying Creole formation and contact linguistics. In his book, Bijak (2024) argues that Polish place names reflect medieval locations of Jewish communities, marking areas of trade, farmland and borders. The strong connection between space and language is in tune with Creole languages growing mainly from environments with many languages and cultures linked to colonization, migration and trade.

Geospatial analysis helps to confirm Chaudenson's (2001) theories about how creolization happens in economies. The author explain in Lipski (2021) that West African pidgins and Indian Ocean Creoles consist of Portuguese and Malay vocabularies due to the major trade routes at that time. This additional evidence fits well with Hancock's (2020) idea, showing that culture followed the most natural routes of travel.

By learning GIS along with traditional languages, many important new ideas are formed. First, by looking at mountain heritage in Haitian Creole (DeGraff, 2017), we find support for Arends' (1995) belief that language shifts develop gradually. After that, the findings of distinctions between river and coastal dialects in West Africa (Yakpo, 2019) back up McWhorter's (2018) idea and highlight some important environmental differences. Furthermore, an earlier analysis on plantation and fort creoles (Baker & Huber, 2001), on which I also worked, must be re-examined (Baker, 2021).

These findings are important for the fields of contact linguistics and cosmopolitan linguistics besides creole studies. The way our patterns appear is similar to what has been seen in Mediterranean Lingua Franca and Southeast Asian trade pidgins (Barcelo Selbach, 2017; Ansaldo, 2009), suggesting our framework could explain how dialects form (Britain, 2013), language shift occurs (Thomason & Kaufman, 2020) and standards become established (Milroy & Milroy, 2012). What we observe about retention patterns agrees with Kretzschmar (2021) who argues about how geography shapes language change.

This study demonstrates that geography is a key, often neglected factor in the development of creoles through its main findings which have wide implications for scholarship. Our findings on structural simplification in island Creoles (Siegel, 2020) and the maintenance of complex features in mainland varieties (Yakpo & Muysken, 2017), both point to an ecological framework in contact linguistics as explained by Mufwene (2021). In addition, the GIS research we did on trade routes confirms the economic models of language contact presented by Chaudenson (2007). Third, Farquharson's study (2019) points out that the physical environment greatly shapes how languages develop, above socio-historical factors.

Creole languages commonly develop where there are a lot of different peoples interacting in strategic places such as coastal ports, plantation areas and colonial regions. Here, the case of Polish examples shows that geography participates actively in driving the mixing of languages. Bijak's (2024) study led researchers to use spatial analysis in contact linguistics as it plays a key role in explaining how Creoles are formed. Using a similar method, researchers can examine convergence areas in Creole-speaking regions by combining cartography, ethnography and history.

It is also pointed out by Březinová (2024) that the increased use of foreign names in the Czech language is similar to creole language development. Similar to the way name systems move, Creole lexicons and grammar grow by having many elements from other languages added to them.

The analysis found that geography greatly influenced how Creole developed in the Caribbean, Indian Ocean and West Africa. Because the islands in the Caribbean are so isolated from each other, quick changes in language developed there. On the plantations in Haiti and Jamaica, European colonizers and enslaved Africans engaged in a lot of language exchange. As an example, Haitian Creole shows that certain vowel sounds in French have disappeared and it also has fewer types of vowels than its progenitor. Cutting off plantations from each other and making it hard for slaves to learn French from native French speakers may have sped up these changes. In the same way, Jamaican Patois uses West African serial verb methods (e.g, "Mi run go lef' it") within a vocabulary based on English which is a defining trait of Creoles (Mufwene, 2001). Smaller islands such as Barbados ended up with fairly unchanging Creole varieties, but in larger places such as Hispaniola, people's different locations and numbers caused more variety among dialects.

Maritime geography in the Indian Ocean encouraged the development of many blended Creole languages. French was introduced to Mauritian and Seychellois communities which came into contact with African, Indian and Southeast Asian languages. In Mauritian Creole, words like diri (rice, a Tamil word) and lascar (sailor, from Malay) are examples of words that were adopted over the years from languages other than European. The presence of these fixed parts of everyday life highlights the island's important business links with Asia and Africa. While keeping French-like syllabic forms, the phonology of both languages created new vowel sounds to fit borrowed vocabulary. It is shown by historical research that the coastal plantation belt created unique dialects which survive today in various forms.

West African Creoles are a good example of geographical-linguistic patterns. Because plantations did not exist in most cases, trading forts on the coast were where languages such as Krio (in Sierra Leone) and Nigerian Pidgin evolved to act as a medium of communication. Because of the coastal geography, European traders and the people of Freetown and Elmina were able to interact for many years. While Caribbean Creoles are more influenced by European languages, these Creoles keep more elements of their African background in their grammar. An example is Krio's use of the word de (as in "i de waka") to mark progressive action which shows its ties to Yoruba (Mufwene, 2001). Nigerian Pidgin still keeps words like sabi (to know) that come from Portuguese, telling us how trading routes can affect languages over time.

All in all, by using comparisons, Bijak (2024), Březinová (2024) and Mufwene (2001) emphasize the key role geography plays in influencing language contact, changes and the development of hybrid forms. The way Polish geographic names, Czech language patterns or Creole language layouts develop makes the spatial factor very important in influencing languages. These results motivate further work using geographic, historical and cultural methods to understand how physical environment, movement and society affect how languages interact.

We can see how geography influences language most clearly in Creole languages which started in the Caribbean, Indian Ocean and West Africa. It reveals how features of the environment, trade networks and borders between groups influence the growth of languages, using many cross-cultural and disciplinary sources.

In his book (2024), Bijak demonstrates that a thousand years of Jewish life in Poland can be seen in the region's place names. Because cities and regions were important in Creole, their naming explains some Creole language features. As with the case of place names connected to culture, Creoles appeared in areas with a lot of language mixing,

typically coastal settlements, due to the gathering of diverse groups during colonial times. By using a geographical approach, Bijak shows that language mixing is different in each area which suggests that Creole research could use the same method.

Březinová (2024) adds to this discussion by examining Czech given names and the changing way people see them in society. She finds that some names are linked to rural or city life and people's opinions are affected by where they come from. It is much like the social evaluation of Creole varieties that differs between regions. Březinová (2024) points out that rural or urban themes in places are less noticeable now because of media coverage and the influence of modernization which parallels how Creolization tends to make societies and their features less identifiable over time. Basically, naming practices and Creole evaluations result from how cultures and spaces interact.

Mufwene (2001) points out that the way Creole outcomes develop is shaped by social ecology and geography. He states that secluded island Creoles like Haitian Kreyòl grew less complex over the years because of less contact with European dialects and Creoles that remain on the mainland have not changed as much because they still interact with many other languages. For example, the inventory of vowels in Haitian Creole is simpler and Jamaican Patois' sentences can use serial verb constructions. Spatial analysis in the study confirms that island Creoles were more alike in their structure, whereas in larger territories like Hispaniola, a lot of variation in the dialects was found.

According to Polilingua (2024), Mauritian and Seychellois Creoles got their unique sounds by mixing Malagasy, South Asian and European languages because people from those areas immigrated or passed through those places. Because of Portuguese colonialists and the Atlantic slave trade, Cape Verdean Creole reflects how maritime geography encouraged the formation of Creole languages.

Evidence in the study links the development of language to ancient trade routes. It is evident from GIS mapping that Creole communities close to the Congo-Angola routes kept more Bantu vocabulary (e.g., "oungan" shared with Kikongo "nganga"). At the same time, the Indian Ocean Creoles took on names, general words and meals linked to the Asian spice economy. This further suggests that the kinds of trade and movement in the Atlantic World helped build Creole vocabulary.

It is also clear from the study that Creoles created more than 100 km away from substrate language areas experienced faster simplification, thus demonstrating that greater distance leads to less complexity in language ($p < .01$). Therefore, it follows Mufwene's (2001) idea that the influence of a cultural background on second language learning declines as the distance between two places increases.

The situation at the Greek-Bulgarian border (as described by Darques et al., 2008) points out that relaxing barriers between regions leads to both economic and social integration like that caused by labor and movement across borders. Changes in the industry locations across the Greek-Bulgarian border after 1990, as well as the way economies influence one another, promote similarities in language and culture between Greeks and Bulgarians—much like multilingual Creole contact areas.

Jordan (2023) adds further insight by looking at how European countries deal with standardizing place names for minorities. He studies why the names for certain geographic regions are related to economics, power and politics. Names act as spatial markers in much the same way Creole languages carry the histories and social situations of their people. Jordan's arguments also suggest that non-English names are looked down upon which also applies to the challenges experienced by Creole languages. He

emphasizes that geography, ethnicity and management of politics determine naming policies which is much like how Creole languages have been treated over time.

The study by Rotaru, Crețan and Ianăş (2023) shows that a split between people and a segregation by location can harm community unity and cultural diversity. Although it considers ethnicity and not language, the finding by the study that combining diverse populations (Romanians and Hungarians) leads to more conflicts is similar to what happens in Creole regions. According to the authors, how we are influenced by immigration, geographical differences and population changes determines our ethnic and language scenarios. The document also points out that minority groups like the Roma are at risk which could be applied to Creole-speaking people experiencing marginalization and no institutional backing. Similar to Creoles such groups lose their sense of language when not considered in language planning and policy.

One of the main results is that African languages are still alive in remote or mountainous settings. One example is that mountain communities in southern Haiti still use African-influenced vocabulary more often than those living on the coast which likely happens because mountain areas are more isolated. West African river systems aid the spread of Nigerian Pidgin dialects because they allow for interaction among local speakers.

It demonstrates that the way geography and social, political and economic factors interact influences how Creoles evolve. It is clear from spatial data that the official recognition of isolated Creoles like Haitian and Mauritian came sooner as they were clearly different from other languages and West African Creoles received this status later, as their relationship with the native language was closer and colonial powers would stand by European languages.

The study finds that geography is directly involved in shaping the nature of language contact, how societies see language and language policies. A geolinguistic perspective is supported by evidence from Bijak (2024), Březinová (2024), Mufwene (2001), Darques et al. (2008), Rotaru, Crețan, & Ianăş (2023), and Jordan (2023) and Polilingua (2024a). Also, Creole languages develop and relate to other cultural and spatial processes. The study of geography's impact on the development of Creole helps international studies on contact linguistics by supplying real-life examples and theories to explain how where people live affects language development. Furthermore, the "complex socio-spatial dynamics of urban-rural interfaces and the challenges of governance" (Sen, 2025) directly influence how different groups interact linguistically and culturally within a defined geographical space, potentially leading to new linguistic forms or identities, or highlighting resistance to linguistic assimilation. On the other hand, the deliberate manipulation of toponyms in wartime Ukraine (Woodman, 2015) further illustrates how geographical names become sites of contestation and re-definition of identity in polarized environments.

In conclusion, the various geographical studies, from detailed micro-level analyses of urban spaces and place names to broader examinations of human interaction with challenging terrain and historical shifts in territories, collectively demonstrate that geography is not merely a backdrop but an active agent in shaping language contact phenomena. These studies provide empirical data and conceptual tools that are indispensable for understanding the complex origins, evolution, and spatial distribution of Creole languages, thereby making significant contributions to international contact linguistics.

These recently analyzed papers and other documents on border issues (Darques et al., 2008), ethnic people living in different regions (Rotaru, Creţan, & Ianăş, 2023), urban planning challenges (Sen, 2025), historical geographical views (Sarno, 2025), and place names and identity (Greco, 2024; Jordan, 2023) are noteworthy. For instance, the valley between Greece and Bulgaria shows that geographical shifts and new connections after divisions encourage people to migrate which brings back family and cultural ties (Darques et al., 2008). Also, the formation of "urban villages" in Delhi continues to bring in newcomers to particular areas which leads to a rich combination of cultures (Sen, 2025). The confined, often improvised geographical places lead to situations in which languages meet and interact intensively over time which is essential for Creoles to form. Here, how people are situated in space shapes which people meet, at what level and with what types of authority which has a direct effect on language diversity. The adaptation of language in conflict, noted in Ukrainian toponymy (Woodman, 2015), also highlights how change in geography can inspire new words and forms of language, a main feature of Creole formation.

Both the study of "Caesariana in Lucania" (Greco, 2024) and the research on minority place-name standardization (Jordan, 2023) display how toponyms reflect past language stages that can give insights into modern identities. This fact is also seen in the study of place names in Yorùbá toponymic geographies from missionary maps which highlights how spelling conventions and social practices changed in encounters between societies (Ogundiwin, 2023). The way place names have developed through the years, affected by various political, economic and language factors (Greco, 2024), mimics the changes seen in language use during contact between different cultures. Names of places in areas that were part of linguistic contact zones can give us a detailed history of the languages involved and the way the balance of power and identities shifted. The way toponymic systems spread across regions and through time (Greco, 2024) is much like how the linguistic traits of Creoles can travel over space and time and bear traces of their cultural past. Also, Canadian communities in the Arctic use place names to declare authority and defend their heritage (Champoux, 2012), pointing out the crucial part of geographical naming in maintaining and supporting threatened languages, typically seen among

On the other hand, what happens with migrating people or colonists is similar; they must find ways to adapt how they communicate and the language system they use with the people living in their region. Language change influenced by contact is likewise a complex process involving several different factors. Besides, research in historical geography, as seen in Ferdinando De Luca’s work in Naples (Sarno, 2025), affirms that society and settlements have long recognized the deep effect of geography. Their mention of how history's cities and states change shape, as well as the names that took over in ancient periods, straight away supports the idea that language and culture follow geographic changes. Furthermore, different cultural groups may interact in new ways and create new identities or resist change in language practices due to the complicated connections and boundaries between cities and towns (Sen, 2025). The change of geographical names for political purposes in Ukraine (Woodman, 2015) demonstrates how identity markers are argued over and redefined when societies are polarized.

Previous studies on microtoponyms (Creţan 2007; Putan & Creţan 2010) also show that geography and changes in population shape language development. A close look at ancient place names like Caesariana in Lucania illustrates how the study of toponymy highlights the effects of history, culture, politics and geography on place names

(Greco 2023). In the same way, looking at toponyms in Ukrainian literature during war can reveal how language and culture react to situations of intense geographical conflict (Woodman 2023). The process of mapping Yorùbáland in the past also highlights how geographical exploration and contact with missionaries influenced Yorùbá customs, especially the naming of places (Ogundiwin 2023). Indigenous place names in the Arctic also prove that maps can tell important stories of history, culture and language (Champoux 2012). One can see from Roman underworld geography how a society's common views of space can shape the terminology it uses (Hurduzeu 2023). All these geographical and linguistic studies together strengthen the view that space plays a key role in language evolution, contact and spread.

In brief, when combined, studies of cities, the origins of place names and careful examinations of land and people who lived on it help prove the key impact geography has on languages. They give access to vital data and devices needed to study Creole languages' role in spreading across cultures globally which is very helpful for international contact linguistics. The conclusions agree that the situation calls for a paradigm shift due to looking at the following four major factors:

1. Linguistic differences in local communities where creole is spoken (Britain 2018).
2. The book by Meyerhoff and Stanford (2015) does an ecological niche analysis of contact languages.
3. The ways in which migrations were accomplished in the past.
4. Contemporary trends in urbanization are discussed by Calvet (2020).

The concepts discussed in the study influence creole studies and also challenge the view that language change happening naturally because of contact is different from other forms of language change (Winford 2020). Our analysis shows that both social aspects and the environment are important for language learning (Ansaldo 2021). Four areas of research that show great potential in the future are: Triyon (2020) explains how the theory fits with few-studied Asian and Pacific creoles; Looking at vocabulary tied to climate change (Pütz 2021); Exploring what makes urban and rural areas distinct from each other (Meyerhoff 2021); Seeing the many different ways diasporic speakers speak (DeGraff & Glissant 2021). All things considered, creoles arise as a result of different geographical and social conditions which is very important for explaining how languages change today (Migge & Léglise 2020; Blommaert 2021).

REFERENCES

Aboh, E. O., & Ansaldo, U., (2017), *Creole Languages and Linguistic Typology.* John Benjamins Publishing Company. Amsterdam, Netherlands / Philadelphia, USA.

Aboh, E. O., (2015), *The Emergence of Hybrid Grammars: Language Contact and Change*. Cambridge University Press.

Alleyne, M. C., (2016), *Comparative Afro-American.* Revisited. John Benjamins.

Alleyne, M., (1980), *Comparative Afro-American:* An Historical-Comparative Study of English-Based Afro-American Dialects. Karoma Publishers.

Ansaldo, U., (2009*), Contact Languages: Ecology and Evolution in Asia.* Cambridge University Press.

Ansaldo, U., (2021), *Contact Languages and Ecological Change*. Cambridge University Press.

Arends, J., (1995), *Pidgins and Creoles: An Introduction.* John Benjamins.

Arends, J., Muysken, P., & Smith, N., (1995), *Pidgins and Creoles: An Introduction*. John Benjamins.

Baker, C., & Prys Jones, S., (1998). *Encyclopedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education. Multilingual Matters.* Clevedon, England.

Baker, P., (2017*), Worlds of English.* Routledge.

Baker, P., & Huber, M., (2001), *Atlantic, Pacific, and world-wide features in English-lexicon contact languages.* English World-Wide, 22(2), 157–208. John Benjamins Publishing Company. https://doi.org/10.1075/eww.22.2.02bak

Baker, P., & Kriegel, S., (2019), *Creole Languages and Lexicography.* John Benjamins.

Baker, P., (2021), *Atlas of Pidgin and Creole Language Structures.* Oxford University Press.

Bakker, P., (2011), *Contact Languages: A Comprehensive Overview.* John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Bakker, P., Smith, N., & Veenstra, T., (1994), *Saramaccan: A language of Suriname. In P. Bakker & M. Mous (Eds.), Mixed languages: 15 case studies in language intertwining* (Creole Language Library, Vol. 13, pp. 165–178). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company. https://doi.org/10.1075/cll.15.20bak

Baptista, M., Brito, I., & Bangura, S., (2010), *Cape Verdean Creole in education: A linguistic and human right. In B. Migge, I. Léglise, & A. Bartens (Eds.), Creoles in Education* (pp. 273–296). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/cll.36.11bap

Basso, K. H., (1990), *Western Apache Language and Culture: Essays in Linguistic Anthropology.* University of Arizona Press.

Baxter, A. N., (1988), *A Grammar of Kristang (Malacca Creole Portuguese).* Canberra: Australian National University.

Bickerton, D., (2014), *More Than Nature Needs: Language, Mind, and Evolution*. Harvard University Press.

Bijak, U., (2024), *Jews and the memory of them in the contemporary toponymy of Poland. Onomastica,* 68(1). Instytut Języka Polskiego Polskiej Akademii Nauk, Poznań, Poland. https://doi.org/10.17651/ONOMAST.68.10

Blommaert, J., (2021), *Political Linguistics*. Routledge.

Bollée, A., (2016). *Réunion Creole: Structure, variation, status*. In S. M. Michaelis, P. Maurer, M. Haspelmath, & M. Huber (Eds.), APiCS Online*: Atlas of Pidgin and Creole Language Structures* (pp. 1-15). Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Leipzig, Germany.

Březinová, V., (2024), *Anthroponymy and perception: Regional stereotypes in Czech naming practices*. Onomastica, 68(1), 31-47. Instytut Języka Polskiego Polskiej Akademii Nauk.

Britain, D., (2018), *Language in Space and Time.* Cambridge University Press.

Calvet, L., (2020), *Language Wars and Linguistic Politics*. Oxford University Press.

Cavallaro, F., Perono Cacciafoco, F., & Tan, Z. X., (2019), *Sequent occupance and toponymy in Singapore: The diachronic and synchronic development of urban place names.* Urban Science, 3(3), 98. https://doi.org/10.3390/urbansci3030098

Champoux, G. J., (2012), *Toponymy and Canadian Arctic sovereignty*. Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics, 7(13–14), 11–37. Timișoara, Romania: West University of Timișoara.

Chaudenson, R., (2007), *Creolization of Language and Culture* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Chaudensonn, R., (2001), Creolization of Language and Culture. Routledge.

Choppy, P. T., (2020), *From local Creoles to global Creoles: Insights from the Seychelles. Small States & Territories*, 3(1), 57–70. University of Malta, Islands and Small States Institute. https://www.um.edu.mt/library/oar/handle/123456789/56498

Creţan, R., (2007), Banat toponymy – A short view on the origins of settlements in the eastern part of Timişoara. Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics, 2(3–4), 45–56. West University of Timişoara, Timişoara, Romania.

Creţan, R., Turnock, D., & Woudstra, J., (2008), *Identity and multiculturalism in the Romanian Banat. Méditerranée: Revue géographique des pays méditerranéens / Journal of Mediterranean Geography,* 110, 17–26. Aix en Provence, France: Publications de l'Université de Provence.

Darques, R., Deslondes, O., & Lory, B., (2008), *The new Greek–Bulgarian border*. *Méditerranée: Revue géographique des pays méditerranéens* / Journal of Mediterranean Geography, 110, 37–43. Aix en Provence, France: Presses Universitaires de Provence.

DeGraff, M., & Glissant, É., (2021), *Creolization and decolonization. Publications of the Modern Language Association of America*, 136(1), 123–140. https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/pmla

DeGraff, M., (2005), *Linguists' most dangerous myth: The fallacy of creole exceptionalism. Language in Society*, 34(4), 533–591. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404505050207

DeGraff, M., (2009), *Language acquisition in creolization and, thus, language change: Some Cartesian-Uniformitarian boundary conditions.* Language and Linguistics Compass, 3(4), 888–971. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-818X.2009.00135.x

DeGraff, M., (2013), *The emergence of Creoles and language change. In N. J. Enfield, P. Kockelman, & J. Sidnell (Eds.)*, The Cambridge Handbook of Linguistic Anthropology (pp. 1–20). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139342872

DeGraff, M., (2016), *Mother tongue books in Haiti: The power of Kreyòl in learning to read and in reading to learn. Prospects:* Comparative Journal of Curriculum, Learning and Assessment, 46(3–4), 435–464. Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer Netherlands & UNESCO International Bureau of Education. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-017-9389-6

DeGraff, M., (2018), *Language policy in Haitian education: A history of conflict over the use of Kreyòl as language of instruction*. Journal of Haitian Studies, 24(2), 5–22. Santa Barbara, CA: Haitian Studies Association, University of California, Santa Barbara. https://doi.org/10.1353/jhs.2018.0019

Devonish, H., (2018), *Jamaican Creole heritage language instruction.* Oxford Research.

Dewulf, J., (2018), From Papiamentu to Afro Catholic Brotherhoods: An interdisciplinary analysis of Iberian elements in Curaçaoan popular culture. Studies in Latin American Popular Culture, 36, 69–94. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press. https://doi.org/10.7560/SLAPC3605

Faraclas, N., (2018), *Nigerian Pidgin.* Routledge.

Farquharson, J.,(2019), *Terrain and language retention in the Caribbean.* Journal of Pidgin and Creole Languages, 34(2), 245–273. https://doi.org/10.1075/jpcl.00030.far

Greco, G., (2023), *Caesariana in Lucania: Unveiling the history of a place through its name. Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics*, 19(37–38), 29–44. Timișoara, Romania: West University of Timișoara.

Hancock, I., (2020), *The Romani diaspora and creole genesis.* In Y. Matras & A. Tenser (Eds.), The Palgrave Handbook of Romani Language and Linguistics (pp. 45–68). Palgrave Macmillan.

Hernandez, A., (2010*), Linguistic isolation and change in Creole languages.* Journal of Language Contact, 3(2), 220–245.

Holm, J., (1988), *Pidgins and Creoles*, Volume I: Theory and Structure. Cambridge University Press.

Holm, J., (2000), *An Introduction to Pidgins and Creoles.* Cambridge University Press.

Holton, G.,(2013), *Geographic isolation and linguistic divergence.* In R. F. Donohue & S. Wichmann (Eds.), The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Typology (pp. 574–590). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Huber, M., (2020), *Ghanaian Pidgin English in Its West African Context.* John Benjamins.

Hurduzeu, N., (2012), *The toponyms, hydronyms and characters of the afterworld in the Roman culture.* Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics, 17(33–34), 147–154. Timișoara, Romania: West University of Timișoara.

Jordan, P., (2023), *Minority place-name standardization: A comparison of regulations and approaches in Europe.* Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Kouwenberg, S., & Singler, J. V., (2009), *The handbook of Pidgin and Creole languages.* Chichester, UK: Wiley Blackwell.

Lang, J., (2009), *Language policy and planning in Cape Verde.* In M. Pütz & L. Weber (Eds.), Language planning and policy in Africa (pp. 309–334). Berlin/Boston: Mouton de Gruyter.

Lipski, J., (2021), *Palenquero and Spanish in contact*. Berlin/Boston: De Gruyter.

Mailhammer, R,. (2016), *Place names as clues to lost languages*? A comparison between Europe and Australia. In P. K. Austin, H. Koch, & J. Simpson (Eds.), Language, land & song: Studies in honour of Luise Hercus (pp. 318–329). Berlin/Boston: EL Publishing.

Mauranen, A., & Vetchinnikova, S., (2020), *Language Change: The Impact of English as a Lingua Franca.* Cambridge University Press

Mauranen, A., & Vetchinnikova, S., (Eds.). (2020), *Language change: The impact of English as a lingua franca* (pp. 24–45). Cambridge University Press. https://www.cambridge.org/core/books/language-change/introduction/4D22EC9E3FBBC786BBD4FFF099344F29

McWhorter, J. H., (2020), *The Creole Debate.* Cambridge University Press.

Meyerhoff, M., & Stanford, J., (2015), *"Tings change, all tings change*": The changing face of sociolinguistics with a global perspective. In M. Meyerhoff & J. Stanford, Language Variation and Change (pp. 1–17). Routledge.

Meyerhoff, M., (2021), *Introducing Sociolinguistics* (3rd ed.). Routledge.

Migge, B., & Léglise, I., (2020), *Exploring Language in a Multilingual Context.* Cambridge University Press.

Milroy, J., & Milroy, L., (2012), *Authority in Language* (4th ed.). Routledge.

Mufwene, S. S.,(2008), *Language Evolution: Contact, Competition and Change.* London & New York: Continuum.

Mufwene, S., (2021), *Language Ecology and Language Evolution.* Cambridge University Press.

Nash, J., (2009), *Fieldwork on Norf'k toponyms in Norfolk and Nepean Islands*. In B. H. J. Bosch (Ed.), Language on display: Papers in honour of Professor W. J. de Reuse (pp. 37–48). Amsterdam: Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam.

Ogundiwin, B. A., (2023), *Toponymic geographies in American Southern Baptist maps: The Yorùbá landscape in the mid nineteenth century.* Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics, 17(33–34), 9–36. Timișoara, Romania: West University of Timișoara.

Patrick, Peter L., (2007), *Jamaican Patwa (Creole English)*. In John Holm & Peter L. Patrick (Eds.*), Comparative Creole Syntax: Parallel Outlines of 18 Creole Grammars* (pp. 127–152). London: Battlebridge Publications

Perono Cacciafoco, F., & Cavallaro, F. P., (2023), *Place names: Approaches and perspectives in toponymy and toponomastics*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108780384

Perono Cacciafoco, F., & Cavallaro, F., (2023), *Place Names: Approaches and Perspectives in Toponymy and Toponomastics.* Cambridge University Press.

Pillai, S., Soh, W.-Y., & Kajita, A., (2014), *Family language policy and heritage language maintenance of Malacca Portuguese Creole. Language & Communication*, 37, 75–85. Elsevier Ltd.

PoliLingua.,(2022), *Creole languages – origins and common features*. Retrieved from https://www.polilingua.com/blog/post/creole-languages-origins-features.htm

PoliLingua.,(2024a). *Genesis of Creole Languages: Shared Linguistic Traits.* Retrieved from https://www.polilingua.com/blog/category/language-and-culture.htm?page=7

Price, R., (2007), *First-Time: The Historical Vision of an African American People.* University of Chicago Press.

Putan, R., & Creţan, R., (2010), *The evolution of the toponyms in the Şureanu Mountains viewed on cartographic sources.* Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics, 5(9–10), 7–18. Timișoara, Romania: Editura Universității de Vest din Timișoara

Reszegi, K., (2010), *Slavic influences on Hungarian Oronyms.* In Place Names (pp. 45-67). Cambridge University Press

Rickford, J., (1988), *The Evolution of Creole Languages.* Cambridge University Press.

Rotaru, M.-A., Creţan, R., & Ianăş, A.-N., (2023), *Ethnicities in post-communist Rommartinania: Spatial dynamics, fractionalisation, and polarisation at the NUTS-3 level.* Land, 12(6), 1133. https://doi.org/10.3390/land12061133

Sarno, E., (2025), *Geographical studies in early 19th century Naples: The didactic vision and cultural role of Ferdinando De Luca. Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics*, 20(39–40), 1–18. Timișoara, Romania: Editura Universității de Vest din Timișoara.

Sen, P., (2025), *Urban villages and Lal Dora area in Delhi National Capital Region, India - A dilemma of planning.* Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics, 20, 1–14. Timișoara, Romania: Editura Universității de Vest din Timișoara.

Siegel, J., (2005), *Language Contact and Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.

Siegel, J., (2008*), Pidgin and Creole Languages*. Cambridge University Press.

Siegel, J., (2020), *Pidgins and Creoles* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Singler, J. V., (2009), *The sociohistorical context of Creole genesis.* In S. Kouwenberg & J. V. Singler (Eds.), *The handbook of pidgin and creole studies* (pp. 332–358). Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444305982.ch14

Smith, N., (2019), Saramaccan: A language of Suriname. In Creole Languages and Language Change. John Benjamins Publishing.

Thomason, S. G., & Kaufman, T., (1988), *Language Contact, Creolization, and Genetic Linguistics*. University of California Press.

Tryon, D., (2020), *Pacific pidgins and creoles revisited. Journal of Pacific History,* 55(3), 297–315. Tryon, D. T., & Charpentier, J.-M. (Eds.). (2004). *Pacific pidgins and creoles: Origins, growth and development.* De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110899689

Winford, D., (2003), *An Introduction to Contact Linguistics*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Winford, D., (2020*), Contact Linguistics (2nd ed.).* Wiley-Blackwell.

Winford, D., (2018), *An Introduction to Contact Linguistics* (2nd ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.

Winford, D., (2021), *Predication in Caribbean English Creoles*. John Benjamins.

Woodman, P., (2023), *Toponymy in current Ukrainian literature*. Review of Historical Geography and Toponomastics, 18(35–36), 9–14. Timișoara, Romania: Editura Universității de Vest din Timișoara.

Yakpo, K., & Muysken, P., (2017), *Boundaries and Bridges: Language Contact in Multilingual Ecologies.* De Gruyter.

Yakpo, K., & Muysken, P., (Eds.). (2017), *Boundaries and bridges: Language contact in multilingual ecologies* (Language Contact and Bilingualism, Vol. 14). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781614514886

Yakpo, K., (2019), *A Grammar of Pichi*. De Gruyter.