What is this seminar about?

The aim of the present seminar will be to examine the varieties of English used in small countries around the world. Instead of looking at Canadian, US or Australian English, the focus will be on places like Malta, Tristan da Cunha, Newfoundland, the Channel Islands, or the various anglophone islands in the Pacific such as Hawaii, Fiji or Vanuatu. The reason for doing this is to see under what particular conditions the English language developed in these smaller places. How did English-speaking communities arise in these locations? What other languages were involved? What do these communities tell us about possible scenarios for language development? These are just some of the questions for which answers will be sought.

In this presentation you will find information on the lesser-known varieties of the anglophone world. Students should study the presentation and think about what location they might like to concern themselves with during the course of the term. Literature about varieties of English can be found in the Reference Guide on the ELE website (www.uni-due.de).
Spread of English in the colonial period

Routes taken during the spread of English from the British Isles in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries by the English, Scottish and Irish
Division of the anglophone world by hemisphere

Anglophone Northern Hemisphere
Settled from c. 1600 onwards

Anglophone Southern Hemisphere
Settled from c. 1600 onwards
Division of the anglophone world by region
The anglophone world today

Dark blue regions: English as first language
Light blue regions: English as second language
Locations of lesser-known varieties of English:
Continental Europe
The Channel Islands
Gibraltar
Locations of lesser-known varieties of English:

North America
Newfoundland in Canada
Newfoundland English
Europeans reach Newfoundland

Newfoundland was (re)discovered in 1497 by John Cabot, seeking like Columbus before him, a short route to Asia.

Newfoundland later formally annexed for Britain by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1583.
Early map showing Newfoundland (with Grand Banks)

The Grand Banks are fishing grounds off the south-east coast of Newfoundland which gave the Irish name for the island: *Talamh an Éisc* ‘Ground of Fish’
History of Canada

Newfoundland is the oldest English colony in Canada. It was settled at least two centuries before the United Province of Canada was set up in 1841 with the Dominion of Canada following in 1867. The province was independent until it decided by a narrow majority to join the Canadian Federation in 1949, after having experienced considerable economic difficulties (with technical bankruptcy in 1934) and direct administration by Britain until shortly after the Second World War.
Relevant locations for English in Newfoundland

Seasonal migration with later settlement from:
1) West country of England
2) South-east of Ireland
St. John’s, capital of Newfoundland (view from Signal Hill)
How was English taken to Newfoundland?

Transatlantic route for seasonal fishing on the Grand Banks
Journey from S-W England to S-E Ireland, then to Newfoundland
Why is Newfoundland English special?

In the constellation of overseas varieties, forms of English in Newfoundland represent a unique situation. These derive from two clear sources, English in the south-east of Ireland and English in the south-west of England, leading to two specific varieties of English in Newfoundland.

Until well into the 20th century English in Newfoundland was largely isolated from other forms of English in North America. Furthermore, during their genesis both varieties were reinforced due to repeated contact between the Old and New World populations as a consequence of seasonal migration for fishing.
Early European involvement in Newfoundland

In the initial phase of European involvement with Newfoundland there was little if any wintering on the island. Rather the Europeans (English, Irish, French, Basque) came for the summer months to avail of the favourable weather for fishing (such people were later termed *transients*).

Only in the 18th century did settlers from Britain and Ireland begin to remain on the island for the entire year (yielding *residents*). Immigration to Newfoundland from south-west England and south-east Ireland continued up to the 1830s.
Relationship of the Irish and English in Newfoundland

At the period of initial involvement the Irish had to accommodate themselves to the more prosperous and socially superior English settlers — even if this status was only relative. The main settlement was St John’s, the capital of the island, and the southern shore along with the Placentia Bay area and the rest of the Avalon peninsula.

In smaller settlements there was a clearer division according to origin in the British Isles. An example of an Irish settlement is Tilting (on Fogo Island) in the north-central coast along with the many coves and inlets — so-called outports, the people from such localities being outporters.
Appalachian English
The Appalachian Region
Most people equate eastern North America with a megalopolis--Boston, New York City, Washington DC, Atlanta, and the other sprawling concrete jungles that drive the area's economy and, indeed, much of the world's. Yet nature also survives and is making a comeback in much of this region, particularly its wilderness. Here, we focus on the most extensive and pristine of its parks and protected areas; running along the 3,200 km of the Appalachian Mountains, from northern Alabama, USA, to New Brunswick, Canada, and encompassing approximately 249,000 km²
Cajun English
Cajun culture: Music and cuisine
CELEBRATE THE 24TH ANNUAL
LOUISIANA SWAMPFEST

BeauSoleil Avec Michael Doucet
Roddie Romero and the Hub City All Stars
Terrance Simien & the Zydeco Experience
Gal Holiday & the Honky Tonk Revue and more...

Sat, Nov 1+ Sun, Nov 2 at Audubon Zoo
Acadia in Canada

The deportation and settlement in Louisiana in the mid 18th century
Gullah: an African American creole

Gullah is spoken mainly on the Sea Islands off the coast of South Carolina and Georgia in the South-East of the United States.
Location of Sea Islands
African American Diaspora
Samaná Peninsula, the destination of freed African Americans in the early 19th century.

Dominican Republic (with Haiti to the west the two states on the island of Hispaniola)
Nova Scotia in eastern Canada
Liberia in west Africa
Locations of lesser-known varieties of English:
The Caribbean
English in the Caribbean
English settlement in North America began in the Caribbean

• Pre-Columbian Period

• The Spanish Period

• British Involvement
The Caribbean Sea with its islands
The Anglophone Caribbean

The Caribbean

(names of main anglophone pidgins are shown in red)

- Bahamas
- Jamaica
- Gullah
- Samaná Pensinsula (African American diaspora)
- British Virgin Islands
- St. Kitts & Nevis
- Montserrat
- Guadeloupe
- Martinique
- St. Lucia
- St. Vincent
- Dominica
- Barbados
- Trinidad and Tobago
- Netherlands Antilles
- Grenada
- Aruba
- South America
- Mexico
- North America

anglophone settlement after mid 17th century

first English settlers arrive in 1620s
Anglophone locations in the Caribbean

Greater Antilles
Lesser Antilles
The Leeward Islands
The Windward Islands
Other islands
The Caribbean Rim
Jamaica
Jamaica
English in Jamaica

The English language in Jamaica has a history which reaches back to the mid 17th century when the English wrenched the island from the Spanish.

A creole developed on the plantations of Jamaica and spread to the entire country where it is still used as a vernacular medium.

There are also other forms which are closer to more standard varieties of English. Linguists speak of a basilect (the creole), the mesolect (a middle form) and the acrolect (the form closest to standard English).
Barbados
The settlement of Barbados

The English took control of the small island of Barbados in the south-east of the Caribbean in 1627. The first decades of their presence there are term the homestead phase because there only whites from the British Isles went to the island.

Working in the fields in the tropical climate proved difficult for the British and Irish indentured labourers (people bound to work for some years to defray the cost of passage). The British then decided to capture natives in West Africa and transport them to the Caribbean and use them as slave labour on the plantations. This happened in the later 17th century and afterwards.
English on Barbados

English on Barbados developed out of transported varieties from the British Isles and later came under the influence of varieties which were created by Africans who were kept on the island as slaves.

Because of the small size of the island many people left and moved to other locations in the Caribbean carrying their forms of English with them. Some went to larger islands like Trinidad and Jamaica, some up the south-east coast of America, some indeed to the area of the Guyanas on the northern coast of South America.

These movements have meant that Barbadian English has had a significant influence on the formation of other varieties of English in the Caribbean region.
Locations of lesser-known varieties of English:
The South Atlantic
St Helena
St Helena
Tristan da Cunha
Tristan da Cunha
The Falklands (Las Malvinas)
The Falklands (Las Malvinas)
Locations of lesser-known varieties of English:

South Asia
Sri Lanka
Issues in Sri Lankan English:

1) Historical background, early settlement, colonial period, independence
2) Present-day Sri Lankan society
3) Demography of Sri Lanka
4) Language situation in Sri Lanka
5) Sociolinguistics and language policy today
6) Previous linguistic studies of Sri Lankan English
7) An outline of Sri Lankan English

More ...
Locations of lesser-known varieties of English:

South-East Asia
Hong Kong on south China coast
Hong Kong
Hong Kong
English in Hong Kong

The English language in Hong Kong was taken there by the British when they were colonially involved with China during the 18th and 19th centuries. After the British leased Hong Kong from the Chinese in 1898 for 99 years, English became the language of public life and of the government.

However, since the handover in 1997 there has been a certain decline in the colloquial usage of English which is being replaced more and more by Chinese, especially by Cantonese (a southern Chinese language spoken in the hinterland of Hong Kong.)
Singapore to the south of Malaysia
A closer look at Singapore
Singapore
Ethnic composition of Singapore

There are three main ethnic groups comprising a total of some 4.4 million speakers (2002): (1) Malay 14%, (2) Chinese 77%, (3) Indian 7%. The Republic of Singapore has four official languages — English, Chinese, Malay and Tamil of which the national language is, for historical reasons, Malay.
English in Singapore

The English language in the city state of Singapore is continuously increasing in importance. The authorities are concerned with establishing it as the first language of public life. The other main languages are Chinese, Malay and Tamil.

To this end they have instituted school programs which expose young Singaporeans to English from the beginning onwards.

A linguistically interesting question is whether new generations of native speakers of English can result from this kind of language planning.
‘New Englishes’
Second language varieties of English

The main New Englishes regions of South-East Asia

Main New Englishes regions in Africa
‘New Englishes’ in Asia: the case of Singapore
**Background**

New Englishes are not historically continuous forms of English, that is they do not arise, or have not arisen, in scenarios in which native speakers transmitted English from one generation to the next, though the countries in question do have a British colonial past. They arise in an environment in which other languages, so-called ‘background’ languages are spoken natively by the community in question.

**Genesis**

These forms of English arise largely through the educational system. They can develop in those states where English is taught in primary education and is the medium of instruction. A common feature in the genesis of ‘New Englishes’ is the use of English — at least partially — in the domestic environment and on a wider scale in the public sphere.
Function

Mature New Englishes are characterised by partaking fully in all public functions in the societies which use them, e.g. in education, the media, politics and also in most domestic functions. The latter sphere is one in which various background languages may also be competing with English, especially in the early phase, thus in Singapore, forms of Chinese (Putonghua/Mandarin having largely replaced Hokkien), Malay and Tamil may be used parallel to English by speakers in private discourse. There would appear to be no country in which a New English has supplanted any background language which may be present. This fact renders the New English scenario, either in Africa or South/South-East Asia, essentially different from a language-shift situation which one has historically in Ireland, parts of Scotland, in KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa for the Indian population, etc.
Features of language acquisition in a non-prescriptive environment

Because of the unguided quality of acquisition in this context and because of the restricted nature of the input, certain elements may be at a premium.

1) Foregrounding of pragmatic information to compensate for insufficient competence in the target language. Certain devices are employed to this end, e.g. topicalisation through fronting to highlight new information in an exchange (*It's wedding of my brother soon*). Left dislocation of the given information can also be found (*My brother, there is wedding soon*).

2) Backgrounding of morphology and complex syntax. Preference for word order over inflection, parataxis over hypotaxis. Preference of intonation over syntax in interrogative sentences (*You like new car?*).

3) An adherence to natural order in syntax (*He drink much wine when he come home* rather than *After he come home he drink much wine*).
Redundancy in English

Use of ‘be’ in equative sentences.

*I (am) a lecturer in linguistics.*

Double marking of various kinds, e.g. nouns immediately preceded by numerals

*This book costs twenty pound(s).*

Relative clauses with a relative pronoun and an unambiguous word order

*There is a man outside Ø waiting for you.*
Typologically unusual features in English

1) Inversion in embedded interrogative clauses

2) Inflection on only third person singular present tense

N.B.: In the colonial situation people may have been exposed to varieties in which a reanalysis and reallocation of verbal $s$ had already taken place.

3) The existence of a present-perfect tense

4) Negative attraction (*Nobody has come* for *Anybody hasn’t come*)

5) The use of tags with number agreement and inverse polarity (*Linguistics is interesting, isn’t it?*)
Dealing with afunctional syntactic and morphological irregularity

There are three basic options:

1) It is carried forward as irregularity, the less prescriptive the acquisitional environment the less likely this is.

2) It is neglected in the emergent target variety. This is likely to take place in a non-prescriptive environment, assuming that the formal markers of this irregularity are not subject to innovative interpretation (or later to re-functionalisation).
Dealing with a functional syntactic and morphological irregularity

3) a. formal regularisation with innovative interpretation

This innovation is normally motivated by the search for equivalents to categories in a background language and not evident in the target variety as it presents itself to those engaged in acquiring it.

b. subsequent functionalisation

This may have a similar motivation to innovative interpretation but crucially it takes place after the establishment of the target variety. Thus this refunctionalisation is not motivated by universals of unguided second language acquisition.
Metaphorical extension

This occurs after the acquisition / establishment of a new variety

Colloquial Singapore English:

Extension: Use of *get* as a possessive or existential marker
Trajectory: action of receiving/acquiring something > generalised possession > generalised existence

*You got nice shirt.* ‘You have a nice shirt.’
*Here got very many people.* ‘There are very many people here.’
Neglect of categories and distinctions in English

The neglect of categorial distinctions in English is common in New Englishes and older language shift varieties when these distinctions are/were not present in the background languages. For instance, Malay does not distinguish pronominally between *he* and *she*. It has a determiner *itu*. Tamil has a system of vowel prefixes (i, e, a, u) which are the rough equivalents of demonstratives in English. Sino-Tibetan languages (including Putonghua/Mandarin and Hokkien) do not have definite and indefinite articles.

The upshot of this is that pronominal distinctions and the use of articles do not correspond to usage in standard varieties of English.

There may be a mixture of motivations here: the influence of the background languages combined with more general aspects of unguided language acquisition which might favour a neglect of formal distinctions which are pragmatically obvious.
Summary

Given that non-standard features in new varieties of English can have a number of sources which may overlap to a greater or lesser extent it is a clear desideratum in variety studies that scholars examine emerging varieties of English wherever possible.

Investigations in situ, if possible, can supply clues about how features become established in emerging varieties and can offer documentation of early steps on trajectories which are perhaps attested at later stages in more established varieties. Such investigations can also help in the relative weighting of the chief factors, namely L1 transfer, input varieties of the target language and general principles of second acquisition in non-prescriptive environments.

These are areas in which there is an increasingly amount of research being done and the near future will certainly bring results from this research which is of relevance to a wider audience of linguists.
Locations of lesser-known varieties of English:
Australia and New Zealand
Australia

[Map of Australia with major cities and regions labeled]
Australia:

History and settlement
Australia, the southern land, has known three colonial periods. The first is the brief one of the Spanish, remarkable by simply involving the initial discovery of Australia by de Quirós in 1606. The Spanish did not however follow up the matter with an expedition.

Almost at the same time as the Spanish a Dutch expedition under Willem Jansz arrived at the Torres Strait at approximately the same time as Luis de Torres himself. In 1611 some Dutch ships sailing eastward from the Cape of Good Hope reached west Australia. In 1626-7 a further expedition came under Abel Tasman after whom the name of Tasmania, the large island off the south west coast of Australia is named (formerly Van Diemens Land). Tasman also explored New Zealand. An expedition in 1644 explored north Australia. The British In 1688 William Dampier explored north east Australia; in 1699-1700 he explored further, both times writing an exhaustive account of his journeys.

British involvement in Australia really got underway with James Cook who, in three major explorations in 1768-1770, 1772-1775 and 1776-1779, firmly established Australia as an object of colonial interest. In the last two decades of the 18th century some more explorations by the French and English were undertaken, colonisation began in earnest at this time.
Originally Australia was used as a release for the overcrowded British prisons, for example the First Fleet in 1787 sailed with 730 convicts on board, some 250 free persons also sailed. Britain established several penal colonies and by the first quarter of the 19th century most of coastal Australia had been settled by the British. By 1830 an estimated 58,000 convicts had been settled.

The Great Shift from 1830 to 1860 saw the rise of Australia with its agricultural and mining economy, the formation of four of Australia’s six states and the beginning of the period of non-convict settlers (often political or religious dissidents from England). The economy centred mainly around the production of wool and grain on the one hand and the exploitation of Australia’s mineral resources on the other hand (copper, nickel, etc.). For a time in the late 19th century gold and silver mining was important. The infrastructure of Australia was greatly improved by the construction of railways in the 1880’s. In 1901 the Federation of Australia (consisting of the following states: Victoria, New South Wales, Queensland, Western Australia, Southern Australia and the island Tasmania) was formed. Today Australia is independent but still a member of the British Commonwealth.
Before colonization there were between 200 and 250 Aboriginal languages spoken throughout the continent of Australia. In other words the Aborigines did not speak the same or 'one' language. It has also been estimated that there were as many as 600 languages spoken at the time of colonization. However, it has also been said, that there was one language and several dialects. The 'one language' theory fits with the theory of the migratory origins of the people in the continent.

When the Europeans arrived in Australia some Aborigines quickly learned to speak English while the Europeans themselves often struggled to speak even a few Aboriginal words.

Some Aboriginal words are still used today. For example the word Bundi is the basis for the name Bondi Sydney's eastern suburbs which has become the most famous beach in the world. Bennelong Point (the site of the Sydney Opera House) is named after Bennelong an Aborigine of the Manly area who was kidnapped by Governor Arthur Philip); Botany Bay was known as Kamay to the Aborigines of the area.
The Indigenous languages of mainland Australia and Tasmania have not been shown to be related to any languages outside Australia. In the late 18th century, there were anywhere between 350 and 750 distinct groupings and a similar number of languages and dialects. At the start of the 21st century, fewer than 200 Indigenous Australian languages remain in use and all but about 20 of these are highly endangered.

Linguists classify mainland Australian languages into two distinct groups: the Pama-Nyungan languages and the non-Pama Nyungan. The Pama-Nyungan languages comprise the majority, covering most of Australia, and are a family of related languages. In the north, stretching from the Western Kimberley to the Gulf of Carpentaria, are found a number of groups of languages which have not been shown to be related to the Pama-Nyungan family or to each other; these are known as the non-Pama-Nyungan languages.
New Zealand
Background to New Zealand

New Zealand had been discovered by various south sea peoples in the pre-colonial period (by Tahitians around 950 and by Polynesians in the 13th century). The first European to discover New Zealand was Tasman in 1642. James Cook took possession of the country for Britain in 1769. Not until 1840 did New Zealand formally become a British colony with the seat of administration in Auckland, later in Wellington. Within the framework of the Westminster Statutes New Zealand achieved more or less complete independence in 1928 and 1931.

New Zealand consists of two main islands, a northern island comprising of seven administrative districts and a southern island comprising of six such districts. It has an area of 268,670 sq km and a population of 3.2 m. The capital is Wellington, while the largest city is Auckland with 800,000. The official language is English; there are also native languages spoken by the Maori (native New Zealanders) who represent less than 8% of the population of present-day New Zealand.
Maori English – the variety of indigenous New Zealanders
Maori English – the variety of indigenous New Zealanders
Maori English – the variety of indigenous New Zealanders
Locations of lesser-known varieties of English:

The Pacific
The main divisions of the Pacific Ocean
The main islands of the Pacific Ocean

- Hawaii
- Fiji
- Samoa
- Cooks
- Tonga
- Tahiti
- New Zealand
- New Caledonia
- Vanuatu
- Solomon
- Tuvalu
- Micronesia
- PNG
- Kiribati
- Easter Island
- USA
- Mexico
- South America
- Australia
- China
- Japan
English in Hawaii
The archipelago of Hawai‘i with its main island of Honolulu has been the 50th state of the United States since 1959. The islands were first known as the Sandwich Islands after their discovery by James Cook in 1778. The dominant language is English and the influence of mainland American English is quite obvious. The influence of Hawai‘ian is restricted to a few lexical items. Before its annexation by Americans in 1898 the island was largely Hawai‘ian in population but today the number of speakers of the indigenous language is merely a few percent.

The ethnic composition of the islands is now somewhat more complex due to immigration from the Philippines, Japan and from China. The workers from the latter country were responsible for the formation of Hawai‘ian Pidgin English on the plantations in the late 19th century in a similar fashion to the plantation pidgins and later creoles in other parts of the world, such as the southern United States and on various Anglophone Caribbean islands.
Emigration to Hawaii
English in Fiji
Fiji (to the east of Vanuatu) consists of approximately 300 islands. It experienced ethnic mixing as a result of the colonial presence in previous centuries. The British introduced English to the Fiji islands, but also transported South Asians (speakers of Hindi from India) to Fiji as labourers on the plantations. This led to continuing tension between South Asians and the native Fijians who are of original Melanesian stock. A pidgin developed on the plantations in the 19th century (partially through input of Melanesian Pidgin English speakers from other Pacific islands) but it failed to stabilise and has not been continued.
English in Samoa
English in the
Cook Islands
The **Niuean language** or **Niue language** is a Polynesian language, belonging to the Malayo-Polynesian subgroup of the Austronesian languages. It is most closely related to Tongan and slightly more distantly to other Polynesian languages such as Māori, Sāmoan, and Hawaiian. Together, Tongan and Niuean form the Tongic subgroup of the Polynesian languages. Niuean also has a number of influences from Samoan and Eastern Polynesian languages.
Niuean is spoken by 2,240 people on Niue Island (97.4% of the inhabitants) as of 1991, as well as by speakers in the Cook Islands, New Zealand, and Tonga, for a total of around 8,000 speakers. There are thus more speakers of Niuean outside the island itself than on the island. Most inhabitants of Niue are bilingual in English. In the early 1990s 70% of the speakers of Niuean lived in New Zealand.

Niuean consists of two main dialects, the older motu dialect from the north of the island and the tafiti dialect of the south. The words mean, respectively, the people of the island and the strangers (or people from a distance).
Groups of anglophone pidgins and creoles
Pidgins and Creoles in the South-West Pacific

Melanesian Pidgin English
(19th century pidgin in the south-west Pacific)

- Tok Pisin (Papua New Guinea)
- Pijin (Solomon Islands)
- Bislama (Vanuatu)
English in Papua New Guinea
One or two smaller locations can be mentioned here. The former Gilbert Islands, called Kiribati since independence in 1979, are located just south of the equator towards the centre of the Pacific. The population is about 100,000. Kiribati (formerly called Gilbertese) and English are the official languages of the archipelago.
The smallest anglophone location with a claim to a separate identity must be Pitcairn Island with a population of not more than 50. The inhabitants of the island are all descendants of the mutineers of the English ship, the Bounty, and their Tahitian companions, who sought refuge on the island in 1790. In 1838 the island became a British colony and has remained so since. At the beginning of the 20th century the population was over 200 but many inhabitants left, resettling mostly in New Zealand. Pitcairnese is the name given to the mixture of 18th century English dialects and varieties of Tahitian which arose on the island during the 19th century.
World Englishes
Inner circle: English as a native language

Outer circle: English as a second language

Expanding circle: English as a foreign language

Kachru (1992: 356)
— Inner Circle —

United Kingdom
(England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland)

United States
(Anglo-American varieties)

Canada
(Anglo-Canadian varieties)

South Africa
(white, non-Afrikaans English)

Australia and New Zealand
(original Anglo-Celtic varieties)
— Inner Circle —

The varieties contained in the inner circle are those in England along with settler varieties overseas. The original list was approximate and could include settler varieties in the Caribbean (a minority in that area) and in parts of Africa such as South Africa and Zimbabwe.

These varieties show an historically continuous transmission through emigration and settlement at overseas locations. They are acquired as first language varieties in early childhood and show a clear phonological and grammatical derivation from varieties in Britain and Ireland.
— Outer Circle —

West Africa
Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroon

East Africa
Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia

South Asia
India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka

South-East Asia
Malaysia, Singapore, Philippines, Hong Kong
— Outer Circle —

The outer circle varieties are to be found in Asia and Africa (with exceptions like white South Africa). They are spoken by people for whom English is a second-language, whatever degree of competence they may show. This issue is becoming increasingly disputed, largely by self-assertion of native-speaker ability, e.g. by many Singaporeans.

Outer circle varieties are easily recognised by their phonologies. These show influence from background languages and reflect the fact that they were acquired after an indigenous language. This may not always be a clear-cut matter, again Singapore represents a more complex scenario than other Asian countries.
— Outer Circle —

The outer circle varieties are to be found in Asia and Africa (with exceptions like white South Africa). They are spoken by people for whom English is a second-language, whatever degree of competence they may show. This issue is becoming increasingly disputed, largely by self-assertion of native-speaker ability, e.g. by many Singaporeans.
For want of a better term, I will use ‘New Englishes’ for the non-settler varieties in Africa and especially in Asia which are the object of interest today. Despite criticism of this term it is still favoured by authorities in the field, e.g. Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008).
'New Englishes' regions in Africa and Asia

- East Africa
- West Africa
- Northern South Africa
- South Asia
- South-East Asia
‘New Englishes’
Second language varieties of English
The rise of ‘New Englishes’ in Asia and Africa
Background

New Englishes are not historically continuous forms of English, that is they do not arise, or have not arisen, in scenarios in which native speakers transmitted English from one generation to the next, though the countries in question do have a British colonial past. They arise in an environment in which other languages, so-called ‘background’ languages are spoken natively by the community in question.

Genesis

These forms of English arise largely through the educational system. They can develop in those states where English is taught in primary education and is the medium of instruction. A common feature in the genesis of ‘New Englishes’ is the use of English — at least partially — in the domestic environment and on a wider scale in the public sphere.
Function

Mature New Englishes are characterised by partaking fully in all public functions in the societies which use them, e.g. in education, the media, politics and also in most domestic functions. The latter sphere is one in which various background languages may also be competing with English, especially in the early phase, thus in Singapore, forms of Chinese (Putonghua/Mandarin having largely replaced Hokkien), Malay and Tamil may be used parallel to English by speakers in private discourse. There would appear to be no country in which a New English has supplanted any background language which may be present. This fact renders the New English scenario, either in Africa or South/South-East Asia, essentially different from a language-shift situation which one has historically in Ireland, parts of Scotland, in KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa for the Indian population, etc.
Linguistic features of ‘New Englishes’
Features of language acquisition in a non-prescriptive environment

Because of the unguided quality of acquisition in this context and because of the restricted nature of the input, certain elements may be at a premium.

1) Foregrounding of pragmatic information to compensate for insufficient competence in the target language. Certain devices are employed to this end, e.g. topicalisation through fronting to highlight new information in an exchange (Lts wedding of my brother soon). Left dislocation of the given information can also be found (My brother, there is wedding soon).

2) Backgrounding of morphology and complex syntax. Preference for word order over inflection, parataxis over hypotaxis. Preference of intonation over syntax in interrogative sentences (You like new car?).

3) An adherence to natural order in syntax (He drink much wine when he come home rather than After he come home he drink much wine).
Redundancy in English

Use of ‘be’ in equative sentences.

*I (am) a lecturer in linguistics.*

Double marking of various kinds, e.g. nouns immediately preceded by numerals

*This book costs twenty pound(s).*

Relative clauses with a relative pronoun and an unambiguous word order

*There is a man outside Ø waiting for you.*
Typologically unusual features in English

1) Inversion in embedded interrogative clauses

2) Inflection on only third person singular present tense

N.B.: In the colonial situation people may have been exposed to varieties in which a reanalysis and reallocation of verbal s had already taken place.

3) The existence of a present-perfect tense

4) Negative attraction (*Nobody has come* for *Anybody hasn’t come*)

5) The use of tags with number agreement and inverse polarity (*Linguistics is interesting, isn’t it?*)
Dealing with afunctional syntactic and morphological irregularity

There are three basic options:

1) It is carried forward as irregularity, the less prescriptive the acquisitional environment the less likely this is.

2) It is neglected in the emergent target variety. This is likely to take place in a non-prescriptive environment, assuming that the formal markers of this irregularity are not subject to innovative interpretation (or later to re-functionalisation).
Dealing with a functional syntactic and morphological irregularity

3) a. *formal regularisation with innovative interpretation*

This innovation is normally motivated by the search for equivalents to categories in a background language and not evident in the target variety as it presents itself to those engaged in acquiring it.

b. *subsequent functionalisation*

This may have a similar motivation to innovative interpretation but crucially it takes place after the establishment of the target variety. Thus this refunctionalisation is not motivated by universals of unguided second language acquisition.
Neglect of categories and distinctions in English

The neglect of categorial distinctions in English is common in New Englishes and older language shift varieties when these distinctions are/were not present in the background languages. For instance, Malay does not distinguish pronominally between he and she. It has a determiner itu. Tamil has a system of vowel prefixes (i, e, a, u) which are the rough equivalents of demonstratives in English. Sino-Tibetan languages (including Putonghua/Mandarin and Hokkien) do not have definite and indefinite articles.

The upshot of this is that pronominal distinctions and the use of articles do not correspond to usage in standard varieties of English.

There may be a mixture of motivations here: the influence of the background languages combined with more general aspects of unguided language acquisition which might favour a neglect of formal distinctions which are pragmatically obvious.
Summary

Given that non-standard features in new varieties of English can have a number of sources which may overlap to a greater or lesser extent it is a clear desideratum in variety studies that scholars examine emerging varieties of English wherever possible.

Investigations in situ, if possible, can supply clues about how features become established in emerging varieties and can offer documentation of early steps on trajectories which are perhaps attested at later stages in more established varieties. Such investigations can also help in the relative weighting of the chief factors, namely L1 transfer, input varieties of the target language and general principles of second acquisition in non-prescriptive environments.

These are areas in which there is an increasingly amount of research being done and the near future will certainly bring results from this research which is of relevance to a wider audience of linguists.
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