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DEPARTAMENTO DE IDIOMAS EXTRANJEROS**

# **APUNTES DE CLASES LENGUA INGLESA Y SOCIEDAD**

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**ARICA-CHILE**

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Handbook



# English Language and Society

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## INTRODUCTION

# English Language and Society



The following handbook is a compilation of different authentic readings and videos about **the history of the English language** and its speakers from its birth until its new status as a Global Language today.

The handbook follows a **chronological order of the main social and linguistic changes** that triggered the evolution of the English language from the Celtic migration in 200 BCE until today. Some readings are done independently and others in-class. The videos have been carefully selected to reflect on the role of the English language from different angles.

Each section is first introduced by an illustration that will generate in-class discussion. Then, you will have to do a reading. All the tasks aim to trigger critical thinking. I hope you enjoy learning about the life of this beautiful language as much as I do.

## INTRODUCTION

# Goals

## Language Objectives

Reinforce reading strategies such as graphic organizers, visualizing, paraphrasing, annotating, inferring, identifying main ideas and details, predicting by reading or authentic texts or watching authentic videos in the target language.

Creating habits of discussion about topics related to the evolution of the English Language and its present status in the target language.

Describing historical events that have triggered the presence of the English Language in the "Inner Circle", "Outer Circle", and "Expanding Circle".



## Content Objectives

Understand the tight relationship between society and the English language and the on-going evolution of the English language through time.

Be aware that the English language is a means of communication used around the world whose cultural values transcend to other cultures.

Value the impact of the English language as a Lingua Franca in the speech communities of the so-called Expanding Circle and so estimate its influence in the transculturation and acculturation of non native speakers putting other languages in danger.

Reflect on the advantages and disadvantages of the status of English as a Global Language today.

Evaluate the impact of the English language as an international one.

## TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE!

# How Well Do You Know the History of the English Language?

Before beginning to read about the history of the English language. Give yourself a couple of minutes to complete this trivia quiz.

**1. The ultimate origins of the English language lie in which language family?**

A. Indo-European   B. Latin   C. North American

**2. What is another name for Old English?**

A. Middle English   B. Anglo-Saxon   C. Celtic

**3. Which one of the following texts was composed during the Old English period?**

A. The Canterbury Tales   B. Romeo and Juliet   C. Beowulf

**4. During the Middle English period, many words were borrowed from which two languages?**

A. Celtic and Old Norse   B. Urdu and Iroquoian   C. Latin and French

**5. During which decade did the number of speakers of English as a second language exceed the number of NSs for the first time?**

A. 1920s   B. 1950s   C. 1990s

## TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE!

**6. What English king had the most wives?**

A. King Richard I   B. King Charles   C. King Henry VIII

**7. When did The United States of America become a world power?**

A. After Vietnam War   B. Before World War II   C. After World War II

**8. Which of the following British colonies was the first to gain full independence?**

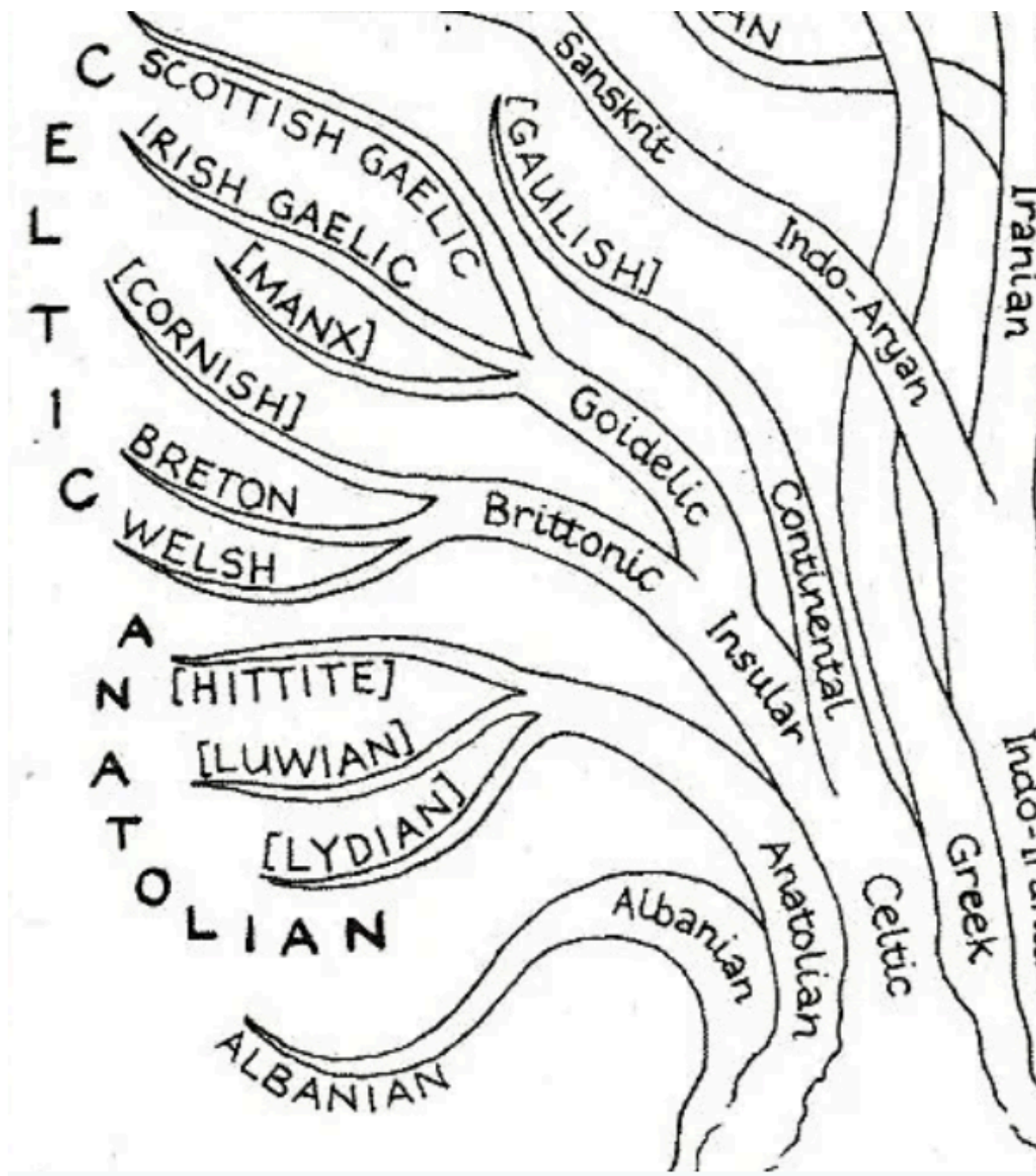
A. India   B. Belize   C. Ghana

**9. What happened in 1776 that made Britain more determined to create a large empire?**

A. The independence of the USA   B. France conquered British India  
C. Spain invaded England

**10. When was the Commonwealth set up?**

A. 1926   B. 1950   C. 1936



Look closely at the small bit of image that is revealed

**What do you see or notice?**

What is your **hypothesis or interpretation** of what this might be based on what you are seeing?

## IN-CLASS READING #1

# Language Family taken from National Geographic Education

When a group of languages shares a common origin language, or a protolanguage, they can be considered a language family.

Certain languages are related to each other. Just as a person's family consists of people who share common ancestry, related languages also come from shared lineages. A language family is a group of different languages that all descend from a particular common language. The one language that generated those other languages in its family is known as a **protolanguage**.

Some languages do not come from a protolanguage. These are known as **language isolates**, and include languages, such as Basque, spoken by some in southwestern Europe, and Pirahã, spoken by the Pirahã people of the Brazilian Amazon. However, most languages spoken throughout the world belong to a language family.

For example, languages, such as Spanish, Italian, Romanian, Portuguese, and French, all belong to the language family known as "Romance languages." The Romance languages evolved from Latin, the language used in ancient Rome. The Latin word *Romanicus*, meaning "Roman," was later shortened to "Romance," which is where the language family name came from. Latin itself, however, evolved from the Indo-European language, an ancient protolanguage, which is the origin of most of the languages spoken in modern Europe and parts of Asia.

Other branches of the Indo-European language family have evolved into completely different groups. One example is the Germanic languages. Linguists generally describe Germanic languages in three groups: West Germanic, North Germanic, and East Germanic. The West Germanic group includes German, English, and Dutch. North Germanic includes Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Icelandic, and Faroese.

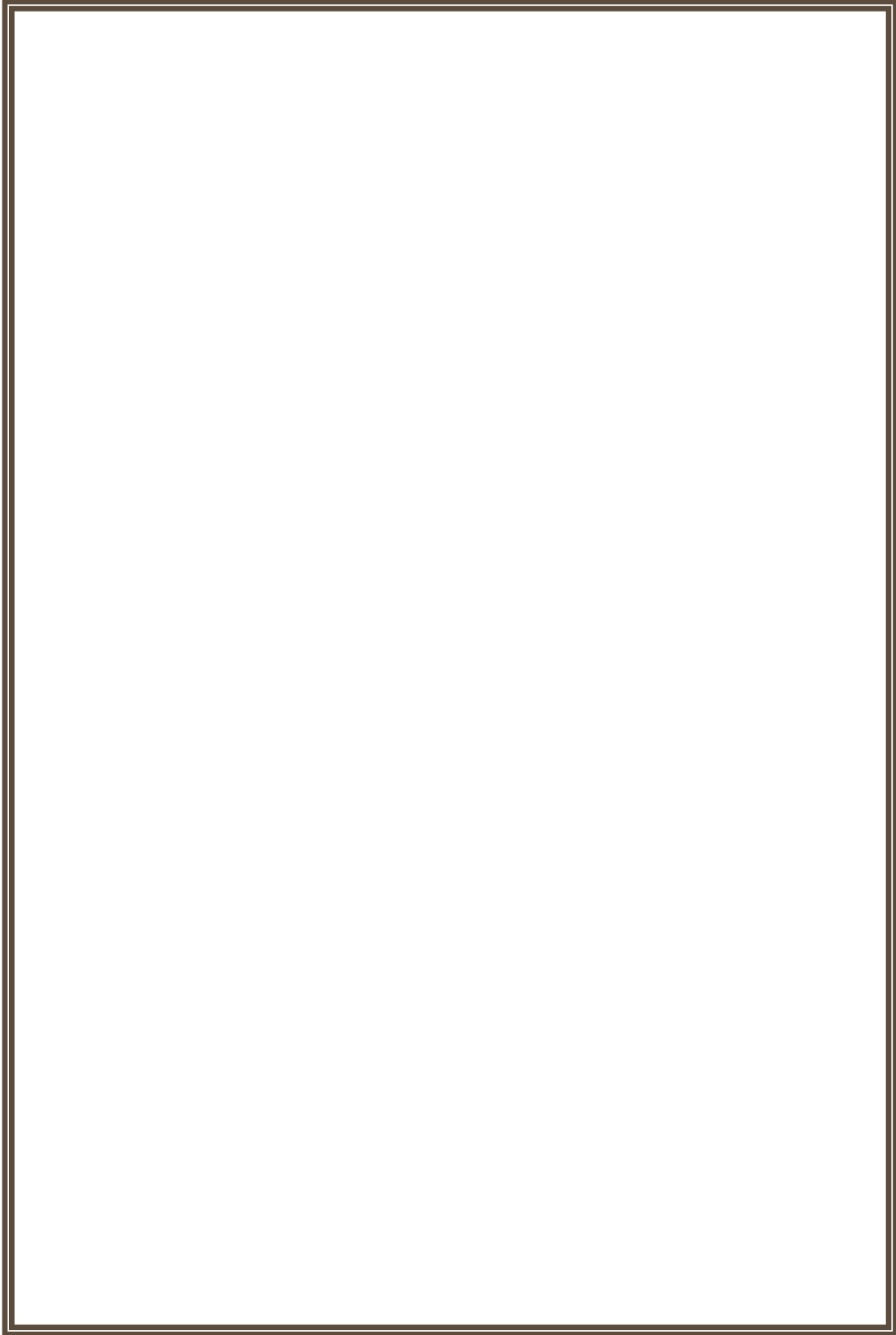
## IN-CLASS READING #1

East Germanic includes Gothic and the languages once spoken by members of peoples like the Vandals and the Burgundians. While the languages in the West Germanic and North Germanic groups are still spoken, those of the East Germanic group are now extinct.

Another important language family is the Sino-Tibetan family. It is the world's second largest language family, with more than one billion speakers of its hundreds of different languages. It includes both the Sinitic languages (known as the Chinese dialects) and the Tibeto-Burman languages (such as Tibetan and Burmese). Mandarin Chinese is the most widely spoken language in this family. Like many Sino-Tibetan languages, Mandarin Chinese is tonal. In tonal languages (which also include Thai and Hmong), the vocal pitch the speaker uses when saying a word helps determine its meaning.

Although the Indo-European and Sino-Tibetan language families, two of the largest in the world, linguists have categorized more than one hundred language families around the globe. As linguists continue to study language and its origins, our understanding of language families will continue to evolve.

**TASK #1: DESIGN A DIAGRAM WITH SOME  
LANGUAGE FAMILIES MENTIONED IN THE  
ARTICLE**





## **CELTIC CULTURE**

What do you **see**?

What do you **think** about that?

What does it make you **wonder**?

## IN-CLASS READING #2

# A rich Celtic Iron Age tomb discovered with stunning artifacts

In 2015, archaeologists in France excavated the huge funerary chamber of what they believe was a rich 5th century BC Celtic Prince. The burial held his chariot, a decorated bronze cauldron, a vase depicting the ancient Greek god of wine and ecstasy Dionysus, a giant knife, and other important artifacts.

The treasures of the tomb in the Champagne region are “fitting for one of the highest elite of the end of the first Iron Age,” the French archaeological agency INRAP told *The Connexion*, a French English-language newspaper. The agency said it is one of the most remarkable finds of the Celtic Hallstatt period of 800 to 450 BC.

“Archaeologists from French national agency INRAP made the find under a 40m (131 feet) tumulus on the edge of a business park at Lavau. Covering nearly 7,000 m<sup>2</sup> (7,655 square yards) and surrounded by a palisade and ditch, the tomb is larger than the cathedral in nearby Troyes,” the article said. A tumulus is a burial mound or barrow.

INRAP’s Facebook page says the center of the 40-meter (43.8-yard) diameter tumulus includes his chariot “at the heart of a vast funeral chamber” of 14 meters squared (15.3 yards squared).



*“The huge burial mound of the prince and other personages”  
(INRAP photo).*

## IN-CLASS READING #2

Archaeologists have found only parts of a skeleton and have not yet identified the princes' remains. They've identified other graves and funeral urns, including the body of a woman whom they suspect may have been a relative of the prince. They have dated some of the ashes in the urns to 1400 BC.

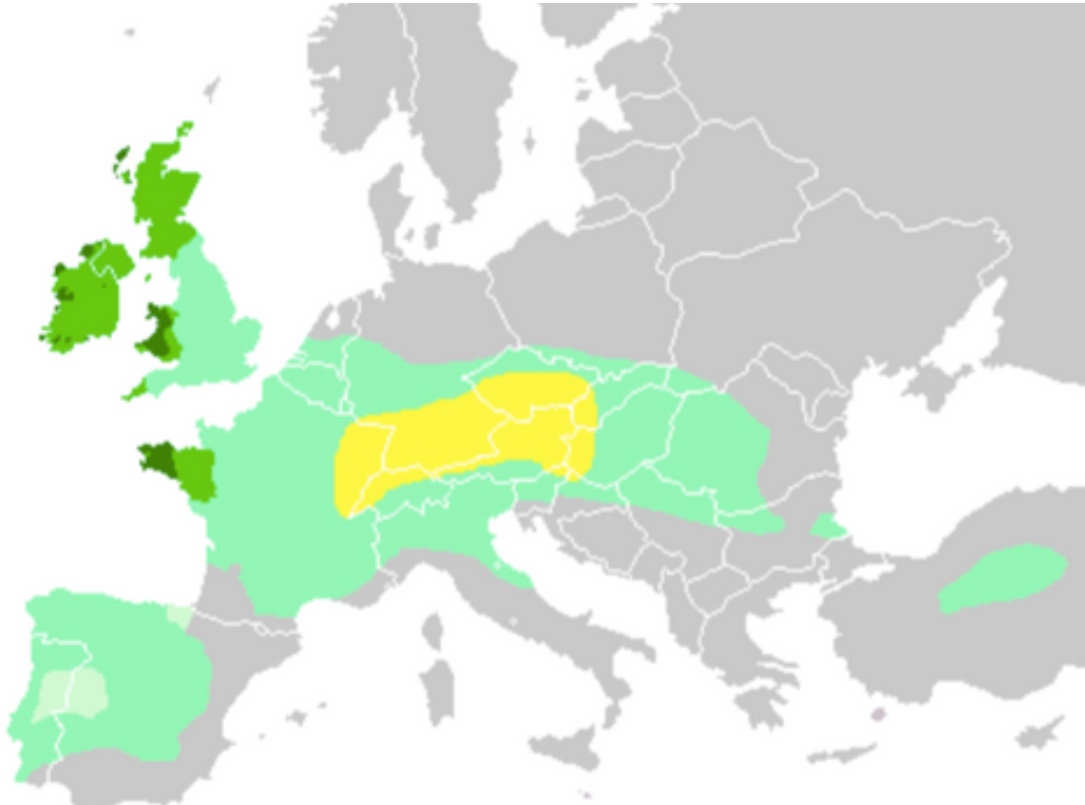
They were exploring the site in preparation for construction of a new commercial center when they found the tomb. INRAP President Dominique Garcia said they thought the tomb was a prince's because they found a giant knife in it.

However, there was a question for a time if the remains were actually of a Celtic princess instead, due to the large quantity of rich golden jewelry also unearthed in the tomb. In 2017, an analysis on the shape of the pelvic bones finally led expert's to call the burial 'Lavau prince's' tomb.'



Archaeologists consider the biggest find to be the 1 meter-diameter (1 yard) bronze cauldron. It has four handles decorated with the head of Achelous, a horned river god of the ancient Greeks. The cauldron also has eight heads of lionesses. **INRAP analysis** of the bronze cauldron has shown researchers that its creator(s) had mastered smelting and advanced engraving techniques. In the cauldron was a ceramic oinochoe wine jug with a drawing of Dionysus under a grapevine. They said the wine set may have been a centerpiece of an aristocratic Celtic banquet. INRAP says it's a Greco-Latin wine set and confirms exchanges between the Celts and people of the Mediterranean region.

## IN-CLASS READING #2



*The Celts in Europe: Yellow area is the Hallstatt territory by 6<sup>th</sup> century BC; light green is maximum Celtic expansion by 275 BC; dark green shows areas where Celtic languages are still spoken (Zorion upload/ **Wikimedia Commons**).*

"At the time [of the burial] Mediterranean traders were extending their economic range, seeking slaves and precious metals and jewels. The Celts, who controlled the main communication routes along the Seine, Rhône, Saône, Rhine and Danube, benefited from the exchanges to get prestigious objects," said the Connexion article.

Today Celtic peoples are in Brittany, Cornwall, Wales, Scotland, the Isle of Man and Ireland.

"At one time, however, the Celts were spread over a large part of the [European] continent, and in 278 BC one roving band even penetrated as far east as Asia Minor, where they gave their name to Galatia," says The Ultimate Encyclopedia of Mythology.

## IN-CLASS READING #2

"Until the **rise of the Roman power**, the Celts were a force to be reckoned with. Rome itself had been sacked by them in 385 BC, a historical fact not forgotten by the legionnaires who gave Julius Caesar victory between 59 and 49 BC over the Celtic tribes living in Gaul, present-day France. Although largely incorporated into the Roman Empire, the Celts continued to worship their own gods and goddesses right up to the time of the official adoption by the Romans of the Christian faith."

One of the most important Celtic heroes was Cuchulainn of Ireland, whose death at an early age was prophesied to him if he went to battle on a certain day but did so anyway and was slain in a heroic defense of Ulster.

The chief Celtic god of the Irish, Dagda, which means "the good god," was wise, knowledgeable and a great magician. He could slay his enemies with one end of his club and heal and resurrect his allies with the other. His magical cauldron could serve up an inexhaustible bounty.

The Dagda visited the camp of the enemy Fomorii during a truce before the second battle of Magh Tuireadh. The Fomorii required him to eat a porridge of flour, fat, milk, pigs and goats that could have fed 50 men or they'd kill him.

*"This test turned Dagda temporarily into a gross old man, but it did not prevent him from making love to a Fomorii girl, who promised to use her magic on behalf of the Tuatha De Danann. The story may recall, in a distorted form, a holy marriage between a chieftain and a maiden at the beginning of each year; similar to the sacred rite that was performed by a Sumerian ruler and a priestess in Mesopotamia. This union was meant to ensure prosperity, strength and peace".*

*Featured image: The handles of a large cauldron in the tomb are decorated with the Greek river God Achelous (INRAP photo)*

By **Mark Miller**

## TASK #2: READING FOR SPECIFIC INFORMATION

# Questionnaire

1. Where is this tumulus located?

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2. What artifacts were found in this burial mound?

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3. Who was buried in this funerary chamber?

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4. What may be inferred about the owner of the artifacts?

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5. Why did the Celts possess so many impressive objects from other cultures?

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6. What similarities may be found between the Celts and ancient societies in South America?

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***\*tumulus n. singular plural form tumuli, an ancient burial mound or barrow.***



### OLD ENGLISH

What do you **see**?

What do you **think** about that?

What does it make you **wonder**?

# The History of the English Language

English is a Germanic language that originated from the dialects brought to Britain by invaders from north-west Germany and Denmark in the 5th century. The development of English can be divided into three periods – Old English (400 A.D. to 1066), Middle English (1066 to about 1500), and Modern English (1500s-2000s).

## INDEPENDENT READING #1

### Old English

The Jutes, Angles, and Saxons lived in Jutland, Schleswig, and Holstein, respectively, before settling in Britain. According to the Venerable Bede, the first historian of the English people, the first Jutes, Hengist and Horsa, landed at Ebbsfleet in the Isle of Thanet in 449; and the Jutes later settled in Kent, southern Hampshire, and the Isle of Wight.

The Saxons occupied the rest of England south of the Thames, as well as modern Middlesex and Essex. The Angles eventually took the remainder of England as far north as the Firth of Forth, including the future Edinburgh and the Scottish Lowlands. In both Latin and Common Germanic the Angles' name was Angli, later mutated in Old English to Engle (nominative) and Engla (genitive).

Engla land designated the home of all three tribes collectively, and both King Alfred (known as



Alfred the Great) and Abbot Aelfric, author and grammarian, subsequently referred to their speech as Englisc. Nevertheless, all the evidence indicates that Jutes, Angles, and Saxons retained their distinctive dialects.

The River Humber was an important boundary, and the Anglian-speaking region developed two speech groups: to the north of the river, Northumbrian, and, to the south, Southumbrian, usually referred to as Mercian. There were thus four dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish.

## INDEPENDENT READING #1

In the 8th century, the Northumbrian speech group led in literature and culture, but that leadership was destroyed by the Viking invaders, who sacked Lindisfarne, an island near the Northumbrian mainland, in 793. They landed in strength in 865. The first raiders were Danes, but they were later joined by Norwegians from Ireland and the Western Isles who settled in modern Cumberland, Westmorland, northwest Yorkshire, Lancashire, north Cheshire, and the Isle of Man. In the 9th century, as a result of the Norwegian invasions, cultural leadership passed from Northumbria to Wessex. During King Alfred's reign, in the last three decades of the 9th century, Winchester became the chief centre of learning. There the Parker Chronicle (a manuscript of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle) was written; there the Latin works of the priest and historian Paulus Orosius, St. Augustine, St. Gregory, and the Venerable Bede were translated; and there the native poetry of Northumbria and Mercia was transcribed into the West Saxon dialect. This resulted in West Saxon's becoming "standard Old English." About a century later, when Aelfric wrote his lucid and mature prose at Winchester, Cerne Abbas, and Eynsham, the hegemony of Wessex was strengthened.

In standard Old English, adjectives, nouns, pronouns, and verbs were fully inflected. Nouns were inflected for four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative) in singular and plural. Five nouns of first kinship—faeder, mōdor, brōthor, sweostor, and dohtor ("father," "mother," "brother," "sister," and "daughter," respectively)—had their own set of inflections. There were 25 nouns such as mon, men ("man," "men") with mutated, or umlauted, stems.

Adjectives had strong and weak declensions, the strong showing a mixture of noun and pronoun endings and the weak following the pattern of weak nouns. Personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite, and relative pronouns had full inflections. The pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons still had distinctive dual forms:

iċ "I"    wit "we two"    wē "we"  
thū (þū) "thou"    ġit "you two"    ġē "you"

There were two demonstratives: sē, sēo, thaet, meaning "that," and thes, thēos, this, meaning "this," but no articles, the definite article being expressed by use of the demonstrative for "that" or not expressed at all. Thus, "the good man" was sē gōda mon or plain gōd mon. The function of the indefinite article was performed by the numeral ān "one" in ān mon "a man," by the adjective-pronoun sum in sum mon "a (certain) man," or not expressed, as in thū eart gōd mon "you are a good man."

## INDEPENDENT READING #1

Verbs had two tenses only (present-future and past), three moods (indicative, subjunctive, and imperative), two numbers (singular and plural), and three persons (1st, 2nd, and 3rd). There were two classes of verb stems. (A verb stem is that part of a verb to which inflectional changes—changes indicating tense, mood, number, etc.—are added.) One type of verb stem, called vocalic because an internal vowel shows variations, is exemplified by the verb for “sing”: *singan*, *singth*, *sang*, *sungon*, *gesungen*. The word for “deem” is an example of the other, called consonantal: *dēman*, *dēmth*, *dēmdē*, *dēmdon*, *gedēmed*. Such verbs are called strong and weak, respectively.

All new verbs, whether derived from existing verbs or from nouns, belonged to the consonantal type. Some verbs of great frequency (antecedents of the modern words *be*, *shall*, *will*, *do*, *go*, *can*, *may*, and *so on*) had their own peculiar patterns of inflections.

Grammatical gender persisted throughout the Old English period. Just as Germans now say *der Fuss*, *die Hand*, and *das Auge* (masculine, feminine, and neuter terms for “the foot,” “the hand,” and “the eye”), so, for these same structures, Aelfric said *sē fōt*, *sēo hond*, and *thaet ēaġe*, also masculine, feminine, and neuter. The three words for “woman,” *wīfmon*, *cwene*, and *wīf*, were masculine, feminine, and neuter, respectively. Hors “horse,” *sōēap* “sheep,” and *maegden* “maiden” were all neuter. Eorthe “earth” was feminine, but *lond* “land” was neuter.

Sunne “sun” was feminine, but *mōna* “moon” was masculine. This simplification of grammatical gender resulted from the fact that the gender of Old English substantives was not always indicated by the ending but rather by the terminations of the adjectives and demonstrative pronouns used with the substantives. When these endings were lost, all outward marks of gender disappeared with them. Thus, the weakening of inflections and loss of gender occurred together. In the North, where inflections weakened earlier, the marks of gender likewise disappeared first. They survived in the South as late as the 14th century.

Because of the greater use of inflections in Old English, word order was freer than today. The sequence of subject, verb, and complement was normal, but when there were outer and inner complements the second was put in the dative case after *to*: *Sē biscop hālgode Ēadrēd tō cyninge* “The bishop consecrated Edred king.” After an introductory adverb or adverbial phrase the verb generally took second place as in modern German: *Nū bydde ic ān thing* “Now I ask [literally, “ask I”] one thing”; *Thȳ ilcan gēare gesette Aelfrēd cyning Lundenburg* “In that same year Alfred the king occupied London.”

Impersonal verbs had no subject expressed. Infinitives constructed with auxiliary verbs were placed at the ends of clauses or sentences: Hīe ne dorston forth bī thære ēa siglan “They dared not sail beyond that river” (siglan is the infinitive); Ic wolde thās lytlan bōc āwenden “I wanted to translate this little book” (āwenden is the infinitive). The verb usually came last in a dependent clause—e.g., āwritan wile in gif hwā thās bōc āwritan wile (gerihte hē hīe be thære bysene) “If anyone wants to copy this book (let him correct his copy by the original).” Prepositions (or postpositions) frequently followed their objects. Negation was often repeated for emphasis.

## TASK # 3: DOUBLE-ENTRY CHART FOR CLOSE READING

Use the chart below as you read about Old English to record and consider the aspects that you find most important or interesting. First, on the left side, note a specific line or detail from either the language or its speakers; next, on the right side, tell what you noticed about it, why you chose it, or what questions it raises for you.

Notable Quote or Detail From the Text	Your Observation, Comment or Question

## IN-CLASS READING #3

# Beowulf Shrinklit by Maurice Sagoff

Monster Grendel's tastes are plainish.

Breakfast? Just a couple Dannish.

King of Danes is frantic, very.

Wait! Here comes the Malmö ferry

Bring Beowulf, his neighbor,

Mighty swinger with a saber!

Hrothgar's warriors hail the Swede,

knocking back a lot of mead;

Then, when night engulfs the Hall

And the Monster make his call,

Beowulf, with body-slam

Wrenches of his arm, Shazam!

Monster's mother finds him slain,

Grabs and eats another Dane!

Down her lair our hero jumps

Gives all Grendel's dam her lumps.

Later on, as King of Geats

He performed prodigious feats

Till he met a foe too tough

and that scaly-armored dragon

scooped him up and fixed his wagon.

sorrow-stricken half the nation

flock to Beowulf's cremation;

Round his pyre, with drums a-muffle

Did a Nordic soft-shoe shuffle.

**Activity:** Annotate what you understand about each line. For example the plot, characters, and main events of this epic poem.



## TASK# 4: THINK PAIR SHARE

# Read the following question or problem

**How does *Beowulf* reflect the ideals\* of the Anglo-Saxon society at that time?**

**Think on your own:** write three ideas you have about this question or problem:

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

**Pair:** Discuss your ideas with a partner. Put a check by any ideas, above, that your partner also wrote down. Then, write down ideas your partner had that you did not have:

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

**Share:** Review all of your ideas and circle the one you think is most important. One of you will share this idea with the whole group. As you listen to the ideas of the whole group, write down three more ideas you liked:

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

**Bonus Question:** Is *Beowulf* still regarded as an ideal to be emulated in today's society?



### Middle English

What do you **see**?

What do you **think** about that?

What does it make you **wonder**?

## INDEPENDENT READING #2

# Middle English: How the Norman Conquest Shaped the English Language

The Norman Conquest of England in 1066 was a watershed moment, not just for the political landscape of the country but for its language as well. With the victory of William the Conqueror and the establishment of Norman rule, England entered a new era where Old English would gradually evolve into Middle English, largely influenced by the language and culture of the Norman elite.

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Before the Normans arrived, England had already been exposed to various linguistic influences, most notably from the Vikings, whose Old Norse had left an imprint on Old English vocabulary and grammar. However, the arrival of the Normans marked the most significant shift. Norman French, a dialect of Old French, became the language of the ruling class, law, the court, and the church. Meanwhile, Old English continued to be spoken by the majority of the population, creating a bilingual society that would blend over the centuries. This societal divide—French spoken by the elite and English by the commoners—set the stage for a gradual fusion of the two languages. Over time, French words seeped into everyday English, particularly in areas related to governance, law, art, fashion, and aristocratic life.

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The most obvious impact of the Norman Conquest was on English vocabulary. Thousands of Norman French words were adopted into English, many of which are still in use today. These words often had specific connotations of authority, culture, or refinement.

- **Government and Law:** Terms like government, court, judge, and parliament entered English through Norman French.
- **Art and Literature:** Words such as poetry, painting, and romance were introduced.

## INDEPENDENT READING #2

- **Everyday Life:** Even common words related to food, clothing, and household items came from French. For instance, English took beef from French boeuf, while the native Old English term cow remained to describe the animal. This division of labor between the French words for prepared food and English words for the animals themselves reflects the class differences of the time.

By the 14th century, English had absorbed a vast number of French-derived terms, which significantly enriched the language and expanded its capacity for nuanced expression.

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Beyond vocabulary, the Norman influence also led to structural changes in English. Old English was a highly inflected language, relying on case endings and verb conjugations to convey grammatical relationships. However, after the Norman Conquest, English began to simplify its grammatical system.

- **Loss of the Case System:** Middle English saw a decline in the use of inflectional endings that indicated case (such as nominative, accusative, and dative). Instead, the language became more dependent on word order to convey meaning, similar to how modern English operates today.
  - **Increased Use of Prepositions:** As the case system eroded, prepositions became more critical to clarifying relationships between words. This shift allowed for greater flexibility in sentence structure.
  - **Simplification of Verb Conjugations:** The complex system of verb conjugations also began to simplify, with many strong (irregular) verbs becoming weak (regular). For example, Old English *drifan* (to drive) became the Middle English *driven*, and many verbs lost their irregular forms.
- 

Norman French also introduced new spelling conventions, and the way words were pronounced began to change as well. Middle English pronunciation was more fluid, with regional variations, but several changes can be directly linked to the Norman influence:

- The pronunciation of certain consonants softened, and some vowel sounds shifted.

## INDEPENDENT READING #2

- New spelling rules were adopted, often reflecting French phonetic patterns. This explains why English has so many words today that are spelled differently than they sound.

The sounds of the native speech changed slowly. Even in late Old English short vowels had been lengthened before *ld*, *rd*, *mb*, and *nd*, and long vowels had been shortened before all other consonant groups and before double consonants. In early Middle English short vowels of whatever origin were lengthened in the open stressed syllables of disyllabic words. An open syllable is one ending in a vowel. Both syllables in Old English *nama* "name," *mete* "meat, food," *nosu* "nose," *wicu* "week," and *duru* "door" were short, and the first syllables, being stressed, were lengthened to *nāme*, *mēte*, *nōse*, *wēke*, and *dōre* in the 13th and 14th centuries. A similar change occurred in 4th-century Latin, in 13th-century German, and at different times in other languages. The popular notion has arisen that final mute *-e* in English makes a preceding vowel long; in fact, it is the lengthening of the vowel that has caused *e* to be lost in pronunciation. On the other hand, Old English long vowels were shortened in the first syllables of trisyllabic words, even when those syllables were open; e.g., *hāligdaeg* "holy day," *ærende* "message, errand," *crīstendōm* "Christianity," and *sūtherne* "southern" became *hōliday* (Northern *hǣliday*), *ěrende*, *chrīstendom*, and *sŭtherne*. This principle still operates in current English. Compare, for example, trisyllabic derivatives such as the words *chastity*, *criminal*, *fabulous*, *gradual*, *gravity*, *linear*, *national*, *ominous*, *sanity*, and *tabulate* with the simple nouns and adjectives *chaste*, *crime*, *fable*, *grade*, *grave*, *line*, *nation*, *omen*, *sane*, and *table*.

Another outcome of the Norman Conquest was to change the writing of English from the clear and easily readable insular hand of Irish origin to the delicate Carolingian script then in use on the Continent. With the change in appearance came a change in spelling. Norman scribes wrote Old English *y* as *u*, *ȳ* as *ui*, *ū* as *ou* (*ow* when final). Thus, *mycel* ("much") appeared as *muchel*, *fȳr* ("fire") as *fuir*, *hūs* ("house") as *hous*, and *hū* ("how") as *how*. For the sake of clarity (i.e., legibility) *u* was often written *o* before and after *m*, *n*, *u*, *v*, and *w*; and *i* was sometimes written *y* before and after *m* and *n*. So *sunu* ("son") appeared as *sone* and *him* ("him") as *hym*. Old English *cw* was changed to *qu*; *hw* to *wh*, *qu*, or *quh*; *ċ* to *ch* or *tch*; *sc* to *sh*; *-ċg-* to *-gg-*; and *-ht* to *ght*. So Old English *cwēn* appeared as *queen*; *hwaet* as *what*, *quat*, or *quhat*; *dīċ* as *ditch*; *scīp* as *ship*; *secge* as *segge*; and *miht* as *might*.

## INDEPENDENT READING #2

For the first few centuries after the Norman Conquest, England remained a largely bilingual society. French was spoken by the elite, while English was used by the common folk. However, by the late 13th century, the distinctions between these two groups started to blur as the Normans integrated into English society. The influence of French on English was solidified as the two languages blended into one.

The Middle English period also saw significant linguistic variation, with dialects differing across regions. The English spoken in London and the East Midlands, where political power was concentrated, eventually emerged as the dominant dialect, and this version of English is what would evolve into Modern English.

### Literary Milestones: Chaucer and the Flourishing of Middle English

By the time of Geoffrey Chaucer in the 14th century, Middle English had fully emerged. In *The Canterbury Tales*, Chaucer's use of English marked a turning point in English literature. While earlier English writers had often relied on Latin or French, Chaucer's works demonstrated that English had become a language rich enough to convey complex ideas, humor, and storytelling.

Chaucer's works highlight the linguistic evolution that had taken place: a language that was still recognizably Germanic in its core structure, but filled with French vocabulary and adapted to a simplified grammatical system.

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The Norman Conquest and the subsequent transition to Middle English left a profound and lasting mark on the English language. Today, nearly 60% of English vocabulary has roots in Latin or French, largely due to this period. Additionally, many aspects of modern English grammar and syntax, including its reliance on word order and prepositions, stem from this linguistic evolution.

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The transition from Old English to Middle English was not merely a linguistic change but a reflection of broader societal shifts brought about by the Norman Conquest.

The blending of Old English and Norman French created a more flexible, expressive language, laying the groundwork for the global language that English would eventually become. Without this crucial period of linguistic fusion, English as we know it today—a language with deep Germanic roots and a rich overlay of Romance vocabulary—would be unrecognizable.

## TASK #5: READ AND REWRITE THE CORRECT SUBHEADING FOR EACH SECTION ABOVE

1. A Language Transformed
2. Phonological and Spelling Changes
3. The Influence of Norman French on English Vocabulary
4. The Lasting Legacy of Middle English
5. Changes in Grammar and Syntax
6. A Bilingual Society and the Gradual Blending of Languages
7. A Shifting Political and Cultural Landscape

## IN-CLASS READING #4

### The Canterbury Tales Prologue



*When April with his showers sweet with fruit  
The drought of March has pierced unto the root  
And bathed each vein with liquor that has power  
To generate therein and sire the flower;  
When Zephyr also has, with his sweet breath,  
Quickened again, in every holt and heath,  
The tender shoots and buds, and the young sun  
Into the Ram one half his course has run,  
And many little birds make melody  
That sleep through all the night with open eye  
(So Nature pricks them on to ramp and rage)-  
Then do folk long to go on pilgrimage,  
And palmers to go seeking out strange strands,  
To distant shrines well known in sundry lands.  
And specially from every shire's end*

*Of England they to Canterbury wend,  
The holy blessed martyr there to seek  
Who helped them when they lay so ill and weak.*

*Befell that, in that season, on a day  
In Southwark, at the Tabard, as I lay  
Ready to start upon my pilgrimage  
To Canterbury, full of devout homage,  
There came at nightfall to that hostelry  
Some nine and twenty in a company  
Of sundry persons who had chanced to fall  
In fellowship, and pilgrims were they all  
That toward Canterbury town would ride.  
The rooms and stables spacious were and wide,  
And well we there were eased, and of the best.  
And briefly, when the sun had gone to rest,  
So had I spoken with them, every one,  
That I was of their fellowship anon,  
And made agreement that we'd early rise  
To take the road, as you I will apprise.*

*But nonetheless, whilst I have time and space,  
Before yet farther in this tale I pace,  
It seems to me accordant with reason  
To inform you of the state of everyone  
Of all of these, as it appeared to me,  
And who they were, and what was their degree,  
And even how arrayed there at the inn;*



## TASK #8: CHARACTERIZATION AND COSTUME

Now that you have read the introduction of the prologue and the reason for the pilgrimage – CHOOSE ONE pilgrim to look at in a little more detail.

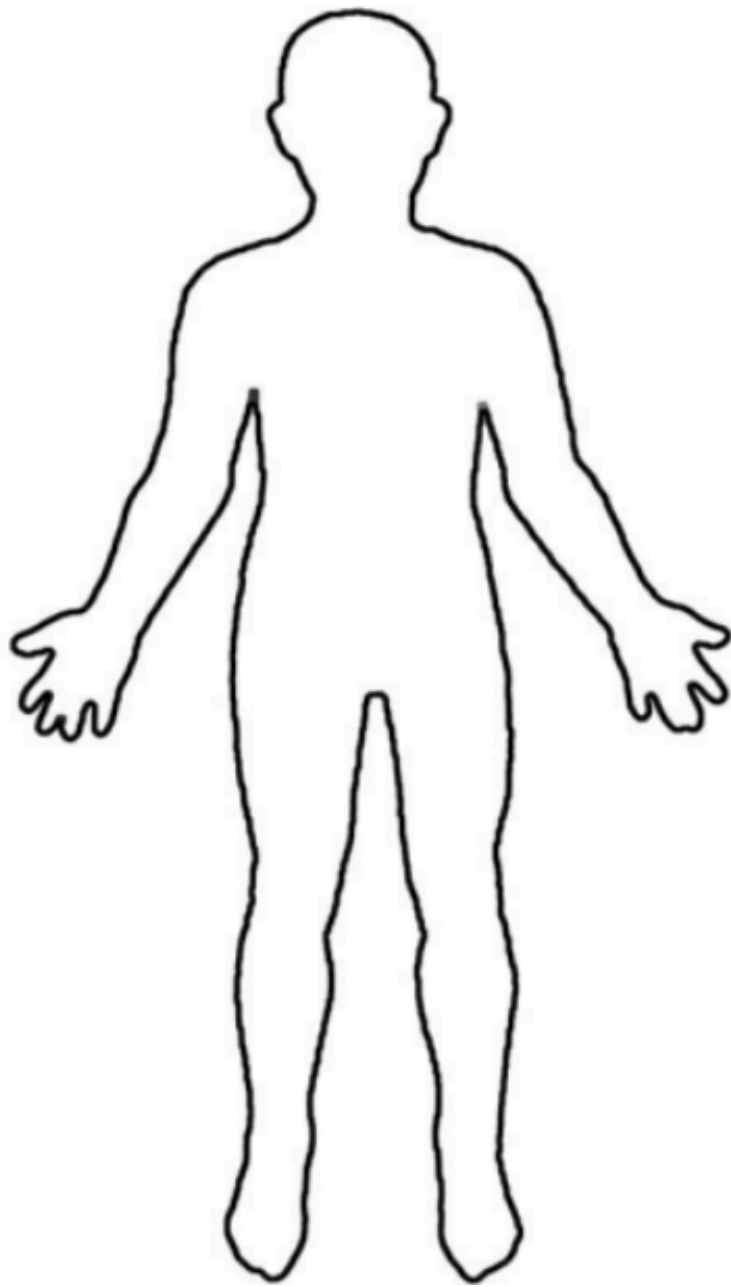
For this activity, keep these definitions in mind:

Characterization – refers to the techniques that writers use to develop characters. There are four basic methods of characterization:

1. A writer may describe the physical appearance of the character. (Direct Characterization)
2. A character's nature may be revealed through his or her own speech, thoughts, feelings or actions. (What the Character Thinks, Says, or Does)
3. The speech, thoughts, feelings, or actions of other characters can be used to develop a character. (What Others Think, Say, or Do Regarding the Character)
4. The narrator can make direct comments about a character's nature. (The Narrator Reveals Info – Look at the TONE).

Tone – the writer's/narrator's attitude toward the works' subject or characters. Follow the directions to study a pilgrim in more depth:

1. Reread the section describing this pilgrim.
2. Using the details from the text, DRAW/ILLUSTRATE this pilgrim. Costume this pilgrim like If you were making a movie or costuming a play, how would you dress this character? Make sure that your drawing reflects the words from the passage. If a pilgrim is wearing green, then he needs to be wearing green in your drawing. He can wear a cool new sort of green. You can design the green costume however you like, just don't change the absolute facts. If the text does not describe a certain part of the pilgrim's outward appearance, however, just make it up in your head and be creative.
3. Annotate your drawing with quotes from the text. You must include a minimum of FIVE quotes and explanations about your design.
4. After you have finished your drawing and quote writing, you will present your character to the rest of the pilgrims. Discuss whether this pilgrim seems to be painted in a positive or negative light by Chaucer. What does Chaucer tell us directly and what does he hint at in his description of this pilgrim?



Pilgrim:\_\_\_\_\_



### Early Modern English

What do you **see**?

What do you **think** about that?

What does it make you **wonder**?

## INDEPENDENT READING #3

# Early Modern English (c. 1500 – c. 1800) by Richard Barker

A major factor separating Middle English from Modern English is known as the Great Vowel Shift, a radical change in pronunciation during the 15th, 16th and 17th Century, as a result of which long vowel sounds began to be made higher and further forward in the mouth (short vowel sounds were largely unchanged). In fact, the shift probably started very gradually some centuries before 1400, and continued long after 1700 (some subtle changes arguably continue even to this day). Many languages have undergone vowel shifts, but the major changes of the English vowel shift occurred within the relatively short space of a century or two, quite a sudden and dramatic shift in linguistic terms. It was largely during this short period of time that English lost the purer vowel sounds of most European languages, as well as the phonetic pairing between long and short vowel sounds.

The causes of the shift are still highly debated, although an important factor may have been the very fact of the large intake of loanwords from the Romance languages of Europe during this time, which required a different kind of pronunciation. It was, however, a peculiarly English phenomenon, and contemporary and neighbouring languages like French, German and Spanish were entirely unaffected. It affected words of both native ancestry as well as borrowings from French and Latin.

In Middle English (for instance in the time of Chaucer), the long vowels were generally pronounced very much like the Latin-derived Romance languages of Europe (e.g. *sheep* would have been pronounced more like "shape"; *me* as "may"; *mine* as "meen"; *shire* as "sheer"; *mate* as "maat"; *out* as "oot"; *house* as "hoose"; *flour* as "floor"; *boot* as "boat"; *mode* as "mood"; etc). William the Conqueror's "*Domesday Book*", for example, would have been pronounced "doomsday", as indeed it is often erroneously spelled today. After the Great Vowel Shift, the pronunciations of these and similar words would have been much more like they are spoken today. The Shift comprises a series of connected changes, with changes in one vowel pushing another to change in order to "keep its distance", although there is some dispute as to the order of these movements. The changes also proceeded at different times and speeds in different parts of the country.

Thus, Chaucer's word *lyf* (pronounced "leef") became the modern word *life*, and the word *five* (originally pronounced "feef") gradually acquired its modern pronunciation. Some of the changes occurred in stages: although *lyf* was spelled *life* by the time of Shakespeare in the late 16th Century, it would have been pronounced more like "lafe" at that time, and only later did it acquire its modern pronunciation. It should be noted, though, that the tendency of upper-classes of southern England to pronounce a broad "a" in words like *dance*, *bath* and *castle* (to sound like "dahnce", "bahth" and "cahstle") was merely an 18th Century fashionable affectation which happened to stick, and nothing to do with a general shifting in vowel pronunciation.

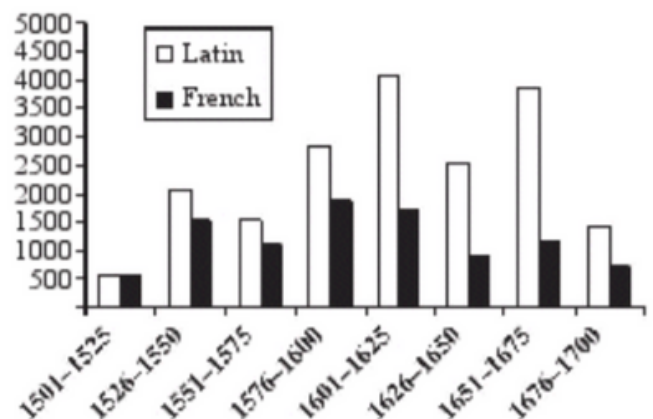
The Great Vowel Shift gave rise to many of the oddities of English pronunciation, and now obscures the relationships between many English words and their foreign counterparts. The spellings of some words changed to reflect the change in pronunciation (e.g. *stone* from *stan*, *rope* from *rap*, *dark* from *derk*, *barn* from *bern*, *heart* from *herte*, etc), but most did not. In some cases, two separate forms with different meanings continued (e.g. *parson*, which is the old pronunciation of *person*). The effects of the vowel shift generally occurred earlier, and were more pronounced, in the south, and some northern words like *uncouth* and *dour* still retain their pre-vowel shift pronunciation ("uncooth" and "door" rather than "uncowth" and "dowr"). *Busy* has kept its old West Midlands spelling, but an East Midlands/London pronunciation; *bury* has a West Midlands spelling but a Kentish pronunciation. It is also due to irregularities and regional variations in the vowel shift that we have ended up with inconsistencies in pronunciation such as *food* (as compared to *good*, *stood*, *blood*, etc) and *roof* (which still has variable pronunciation), and the different pronunciations of the "o" in *shove*, *move*, *hove*, etc.

Other changes in spelling and pronunciation also occurred during this period. Many other consonants ceased to be pronounced at all (e.g. the final "b" in words like *dumb* and *comb*; the "l" between some vowels and consonants such as *half*, *walk*, *talk* and *folk*; the initial "k" or "g" in words like *knee*, *knight*, *gnaw* and *gnat*; etc). As late as the 18th Century, the "r" after a vowel gradually lost its force, although the "r" before a vowel remained unchanged (e.g. *render*, *terror*, etc), unlike in American usage where the "r" is fully pronounced.

So, while modern English speakers can read Chaucer's Middle English (with some difficulty admittedly), Chaucer's pronunciation would have been almost completely unintelligible to the modern ear. The English of William Shakespeare and his contemporaries in the late 16th and early 17th Century, on the other hand, would be accented, but quite understandable, and it has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer.

Even in Shakespeare's time, though, and probably for quite some time afterwards, short vowels were almost interchangeable (e.g. *not* was often pronounced, and even written, as *nat*, *when* as *whan*, etc), and the pronunciation of words like *boiled* as "byled", *join* as "jine", *poison* as "pison", *merchant* as "marchant", *certain* as "sartin", *person* as "parson", *heard* as "hard", *speak* as "spake", *work* as "wark", etc, continued well into the 19th Century. We retain even today the old pronunciations of a few words like *derby* and *clerk* (as "darby" and "clark"), and place names like *Berkeley* and *Berkshire* (as "Barkley" and "Barkshire"), except in America where more phonetic pronunciations were adopted.

The next wave of innovation in English vocabulary came with the revival of classical scholarship known as the Renaissance. The English Renaissance roughly covers the 16th and early 17th Century (the European Renaissance had begun in Italy as early as the 14th Century), and is often referred to as the "Elizabethan Era" or the "Age of Shakespeare" after the most important monarch and most famous writer of the period. The additions to English vocabulary during this period were deliberate borrowings, and not the result of any invasion or influx of new nationalities or any top-down decrees.



Latin (and to a lesser extent Greek and French) was still very much considered the language of education and scholarship at this time, and the great enthusiasm for the classical languages during the English Renaissance brought thousands of new words into the language, peaking around 1600. A huge number of classical works were being translated into English during the 16th Century, and many new terms were introduced where a satisfactory English equivalent did not exist.

## IN-CLASS READING #5

# Romeo and Juliet by William Shakespeare

Romantic or cheesy compliments? Read the compliments below and decide which are friendly (F), which are romantic (R) and which are cheesy (C). Circle the letter you think describes each compliment best and then compare your answers with your partner.

1. You're the most attractive person I've ever met. F R C
2. You look nice today. F R C
3. Flowers are jealous of your beauty. F R C
4. You're my favourite cook. F R C
5. You cook very well. F R C
6. I would walk a thousand miles for one of your meals. F R C

## TASK #9: ROMEO'S IN LOVE

When Juliet appears on the balcony, Romeo is full of compliments for her. Read his speech and answer the questions below.

1. But soft! What light through yonder window breaks?
2. It is the east, and Juliet is the sun.
3. Arise, fair sun, and kill the envious moon.
4. Who is already sick and pale with grief.
5. That thou, her maid, art far more fair than she.
6. Be not her maid since she is envious.
7. Her vestal livery is but sick and green.
8. And none but fools do wear it. Cast it off.
9. It is my lady. Oh, it is my love.
10. Oh, that she knew she were!
11. She speaks, yet she says nothing. What of that?
12. Her eye discourses. I will answer it.
13. I am too bold. 'Tis not to me she speaks.
14. Two of the fairest stars in all the heaven.
15. Having some business, do entreat her eyes.
16. To twinkle in their spheres till they return.
17. What if her eyes were there, they in her head?
18. The brightness of her cheek would shame those stars.
19. As daylight doth a lamp. Her eye in heaven.
20. Would through the airy region stream so bright.

21. That birds would sing and think it were not night.
22. See how she leans her cheek upon her hand.
23. Oh, that I were a glove upon that hand.
24. That I might touch that cheek!



1. Is Romeo actually talking to Juliet? How do you know?

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2. What three things does Romeo compare Juliet to?

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3. Can you find the six other words associated with light in his speech? What is their effect?

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---

4. Do you think that Romeo's compliments are romantic or cheesy?

---

---

5. Why do you think Shakespeare has written such a complimentary speech for Romeo?

---

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## TASK# 10: JULIET'S CONFESSION

Now it is Juliet's turn to speak. Read the first few lines of her speech and answer the question below.

1. O Romeo, Romeo.
2. Wherefore art thou Romeo?
3. Deny thy father and refuse thy name.
4. Or if thou wilt not, be but sworn my love.
5. And I'll no longer be a Capulet.

### Question 1

What is Juliet worried about?

- A. Romeo's language      B. Romeo's father      C. Romeo's name

### Question 2

What does Juliet want Romeo to do?

- A. Pledge his love for her    B. Stop swearing so much    C. Tell her where he is.

## TASK# 11: WHAT'S IN A NAME?

Here is the second half of Juliet's speech, but some of the words are missing. Work with a partner and decide where the missing words go.

1. 'Tis but thy name that is my \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Thou art thyself, though not a Montague.
3. What's Montague? It is nor \_\_\_\_\_, nor foot.
4. Nor arm, nor face, nor any other part.
5. Belonging to a \_\_\_\_\_. O, be some other name!
6. What's in a name? That which we call a \_\_\_\_\_.
7. By any other word would smell as \_\_\_\_\_.
8. So Romeo would, were he not Romeo called.
9. Retain that dear perfection which he owes.
10. Without that title. Romeo, doff thy name.
11. And for that \_\_\_\_\_, which is no part of thee.
12. Take all myself.

## TASK# 12: REWRITING SHAKESPEARE

Work with a partner. Choose any four consecutive lines from the two speeches and try to rewrite them in contemporary English. Read your lines to the rest of the class and see if they can guess which lines you changed.

[illegible]

IN-CLASS VIDEO TASK #1

# The Industrial Revolution

Before watching the video about the Industrial Revolution, write what you already know about the topic in the first column. In the second column, write what you want to know about the topic. After you have completed your watching the video , write what you learned in the third column.

What I Know	What I want to Know	What I Learned



### **World Englishes**

What do you **see**?

What do you **think** about that?

What does it make you **wonder**?

# Anticipation Guide plus, Why?

Mark whether or not you agree or disagree with each statement to the left of the statement. When you're finished with the reading **"What Makes a Global language?"** , decide whether you still agree or disagree and explain why.

Agree	Disagree	Statement	Agree	Disagree	Why?
		A global language is a language with the highest number of speakers all over the world.			
		English is the global language because it has fewer grammatical rules.			
		English is the global language today because it is present in music and movies.			

Agree	Disagree	Statement	Agree	Disagree	Why?
		Global languages have a rich lexicon to refer to everything. That is the case of English and its terminology for technology.			
		Some international languages from the past are still alive today.			
		Spanish may become the global language in the near future.			

## IN-CLASS READING #6

# What makes a global language?

*Why a language becomes a global language has little to do with the number of people who speak it. It is much more to do with who those speakers are. Latin became an international language throughout the Roman Empire, but this was not because the Romans were more numerous than the peoples they subjugated. They were simply more powerful. And later, when Roman military power declined, Latin remained for a millennium as the international language of education, thanks to a different sort of power –the ecclesiastical power of Roman Catholicism.*

*There is the closest of links between language dominance and economic, technological, and cultural power, too, and this relationship will become increasingly clear as the history of English is told (see chapters 2 –4). Without a strong power-base, of whatever kind, no language can make progress as an international medium of communication. Language has no independent existence, living in some sort of mystical space apart from the people who speak it. Language exists only in the brains and mouths and ears and hands and eyes of its users. When they succeed, on the international stage, their language succeeds. When they fail, their language fails.*

*This point may seem obvious, but it needs to be made at the outset, because over the years many popular and misleading beliefs have grown up about why a language should become internationally successful. It is quite common to hear people claim that a language is a paragon, on account of its perceived aesthetic qualities, clarity of expression, literary power, or religious standing. Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Arabic and French are among those which at various times have been lauded in such terms, and English is no exception. It is often suggested, for example, that there must be something inherently beautiful or logical about the structure of English, in order to explain why it is now so widely used. 'It has less grammar than other languages', some have suggested. 'English doesn't have a lot of endings on its words, nor do we have to remember the difference between masculine, feminine, and neuter gender, so it must be easier to learn'. In 1848, a reviewer in the British periodical *The Athenaeum* wrote:*

*In its easiness of grammatical construction, in its paucity of inflection, in its almost total disregard of the distinctions of gender excepting those of nature, in the simplicity and precision of its terminations and auxiliary verbs, not less than in the majesty, vigour and copiousness of its expression, our mother-tongue seems well adapted by organization to become the language of the world.*

## IN-CLASS READING #6

*Such arguments are misconceived. Latin was once a major international language, despite its many inflectional endings and gender differences. French, too, has been such a language, despite its nouns being masculine or feminine; and so – at different times and places – have the heavily inflected Greek, Arabic, Spanish and Russian. Ease of learning has nothing to do with it. Children of all cultures learn to talk over more or less the same period of time, regardless of the differences in the grammar of their languages. And as for the notion that English has ‘no grammar’ – a claim that is risible to anyone who has ever had to learn it as a foreign language – the point can be dismissed by a glance at any of the large twentieth-century reference grammars. The Comprehensive grammar of the English language, for example, contains 1,800 pages and some 3,500 points requiring grammatical exposition.*

*This is not to deny that a language may have certain properties which make it internationally appealing. For example, learners sometimes comment on the ‘familiarity’ of English vocabulary, deriving from the way English has over the centuries borrowed thousands of new words from the languages with which it has been in contact. The ‘welcome’ given to foreign vocabulary places English in contrast to some languages (notably, French) which have tried to keep it out, and gives it a cosmopolitan character which many see as an advantage for a global language. From a lexical point of view, English is in fact far more a Romance than a Germanic language. And there have been comments made about other structural aspects, too, such as the absence in English*

Largely points to do with syntax, of course, rather than the morphological emphasis which is what many people, brought up in the Latinate tradition, think grammar to be about. The figure of 3,500 is derived from the index which I compiled for Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985), excluding entries which related solely to lexical items.

grammar of a system of coding social class differences, which can make the language appear more ‘democratic’ to those who speak a language (e.g. Javanese) that does express an intricate system of class relationships. But these supposed traits of appeal are incidental, and need to be weighed against linguistic features which would seem to be internationally much less desirable – notably, in the case of English, the accumulated irregularities of its spelling system.

A language does not become a global language because of its intrinsic structural properties, or because of the size of its vocabulary, or because it has been a vehicle of a great literature in the past, or because it was once associated with a great culture or religion.

## IN-CLASS READING #6

*These are all factors which can motivate someone to learn a language, of course, but none of them alone, or in combination, can ensure a language's world spread. Indeed, such factors cannot even guarantee survival as a living language – as is clear from the case of Latin, learned today as a classical language by only a scholarly and religious few. Correspondingly, inconvenient structural properties (such as awkward spelling) do not stop a language achieving international status either.*

*A language has traditionally become an international language for one chief reason: the power of its people – especially their political and military power. The explanation is the same throughout history. Why did Greek become a language of international communication in the Middle East over 2,000 years ago? Not because of the intellects of Plato and Aristotle: the answer lies in the swords and spears wielded by the armies of Alexander the Great. Why did Latin become known throughout Europe? Ask the legions of the Roman Empire. Why did Arabic come to be spoken so widely across northern Africa and the Middle East? Follow the spread of Islam, carried along by the force of the Moorish armies from the eighth century. Why did Spanish, Portuguese, and French find their way into the Americas, Africa and the Far East? Study the colonial policies of the Renaissance kings and queens, and the way these policies were ruthlessly implemented by armies and navies all over the known world. The history of a global language can be traced through the successful expeditions of its soldier/sailor speakers. And English, as we shall see in chapter 2, has been no exception.*

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

# Global Englishes

*This chapter explores language and power by considering the use of Englishes around the world. It is important to note that we use the term in the plural form (Englishes, not English). While there have been some efforts to identify a single variety of English, which would be known as 'global English' and capable of functioning as an international '**lingua franca**', linguists don't believe there is one variety of English that could or should be labelled as 'global English'. There are, nevertheless, strong opinions among non-linguists about which variety of English used around the world should be called 'global English' or a 'lingua franca'. This chapter explores what different perceptions of global English mean and how society negotiates these ideologies.*

*We begin by considering how 'global English' might be defined and the issues and ideologies that play a role in that definition. Different models for describing the multiple Englishes around the world are explored and the ramifications of these models, especially with regard to teaching and learning, are considered. Examples of UK, 'Singlish' and Indian English are presented to illustrate differences that exist among them. We then explore how different varieties of English play a role in social capital in the global linguistic marketplace and how perspectives on the position of English as a global language as active **linguistic imperialism** are presented. Finally we consider variation and subjectivity in the meaning of English by considering how it is used in linguistic landscapes around the world.*

## WHAT DOES GLOBAL ENGLISH MEAN?

*In the first chapter of this book, we examined the question 'what is **language**?' To that end, we considered how language is a structured system that speakers inherently understand and learn along with linguistic and communicative competence. We also raised the topic of politics and power in relation to how languages are defined; that is, whether a variety counts as 'language' rather than simply a **variety** of another language is more a question of power and other ideologies than it is a question of linguistic structure or fact. These are key issues to keep in mind as we consider global Englishes.*

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

*In order to understand what global Englishes means, we begin with Kachru's model of 'World Englishes' (1985), which considers the different kinds of English around the world and provides a visual representation of these varieties that can be interpreted in different ways.*

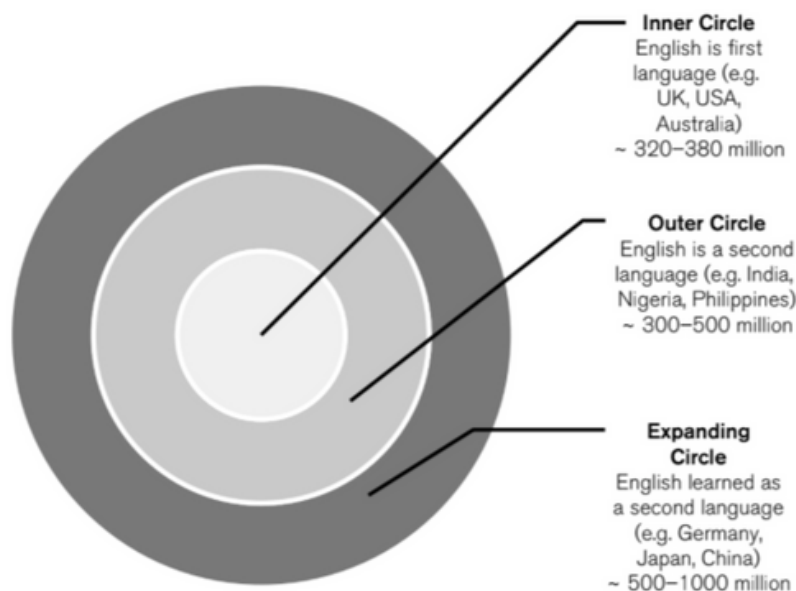


Figure 10.1 Kachru's Circles of English

The concentric circles in Figure 10.1 outline the distinction that Kachru makes between inner, outer and expanding circle nations in the World Englishes context. **Inner circle** nations are countries where English is spoken as a first language ('mother tongue' or L1). They are very often nations to which very large numbers of people migrated from the UK. For example, the US and Australia are inner circle nations. **Outer circle** nations are countries where English is often one of the official languages and may even be an L1 for a section of the population, but it isn't the only official language. Outer circle nations are often countries that have previously been colonised by the UK and the relatively smaller number of migrants brought with them the English language. The **expanding circle** includes countries where English is used in addition to other languages. English may well be widely taught and learnt in the expanding circle, but it tends to be neither official nor the L1 of a majority of the population.

Whether a country is in the inner, outer or expanding circle, then, has little to do with geography but more to do with history, migration patterns and language policy. The circles in Figure 10.1 may nevertheless suggest a transmission from one circle to the other. Seeing the image in this way suggests that inner circle nations are the 'origin' of English and the language reaches other countries through a kind of diffusion, like ripples in a pond of water.

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

*Such a reading implies a one directional relationship between these nations with inner circle nations at the centre. This might suggest to some that inner circle nations are the originators of English. However, as Kirkpatrick observes, while Kachru's model does not suggest that one variety is better than any other (2007: 28), inner circle nations are, in fact, perceived as having greater ownership over the language, in that they have inherited English as their L1. Even among inner circle nations, not all nations can claim authenticity of the English language. The UK is widely perceived as being the 'origin' of the English language and is seen as the authority on what counts as **'standard' English**; inner circle nations tend to be regarded as 'authentic' speakers of English (Evans 2005). However, as we will show, the English used even in inner circle nations is not homogenous.*

*Nevertheless, the ideologies about 'authentic' language are strong. Kachru describes inner circle Englishes as **'norm providing'** (Kachru 1992:5); inner-circle varieties, especially UK English, are considered the model for all Englishes to emulate. Therefore, expanding circle nations are not afforded permission to change the form of English and are therefore **'norm dependent'** (Kachru 1992: 5). Even the many outer circle speakers for whom English is their L1 are not considered to have ownership of English that inner circle users have. Outer circle speakers are said to be **'norm developing'** (Kachru 1992: 5). The norms they are developing come together in distinctive varieties of English that differ in a systematic way from those of inner circle nations. So far, we've been discussing the 'origin' and ownership of English as it is connected to the inner circle. This raises serious issues about power and hierarchy. Before we consider these in more depth, it's worth considering Figure 10.1 again. Even though it is possible to understand this image as presenting inner circle nations as the originators of English, there is at least one other way to interpret it.*

The number of speakers in each group indicates that there are far more expanding circle speakers of English than inner and outer circle speakers (Crystal 2003: 61). The numbers could be interpreted as representing sets of speakers, where inner circle speakers are – numerically speaking – a subset of both outer and expanding circle speakers. Acknowledging both the number of speakers outside the inner circle and the prejudice that can attach to outer and expanding circle varieties of English, Jennifer Jenkins (2009) suggests that we should cease making a distinction between speakers of English. Jenkins uses the term **'World Englishes'** for any English – irrespective of which 'circle' it fits into: 'In other words, my interpretation does not draw distinctions in terms of linguistic legitimacy between say, Canadian, Indian, or Japanese English in the way that governments, prescriptive grammarians, and the general public tend to do' (2009: 200).

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

The power and prevalence of **attitudes** about different varieties of English are captured by Jenkins' inclusion of governments, prescriptivists and the general public; and while Jenkins' position is very attractive as it acknowledges that all these varieties of English count as 'English', it is nevertheless important to pay some attention to the attitudes to English that are so prevalent.

If all varieties of English are included in a visual model of World Englishes, the possible 'circles' can be redrawn (see Figure 10.2). Figure 10.2 seems to support Jenkins' interpretation of 'World Englishes' by including all varieties. Significantly, what this representation calls into question is the possibility of talking about 'English' as unspecified. At best, 'English' is a convenient abstraction that hides a great deal of variation in terms of phonology, syntax, lexis and also in terms of domain and power.

What these two different representations suggest is that we can approach World Englishes from a number of perspectives. The perspective chosen depends very much on the argument one wants to make.

The idea that there is a global English that is the same all over the world is unfounded. If it could be developed, it is unlikely that it would remain unchanged. As Mufwene remarks: 'If WSSE [World Standard Spoken English] were to arise spontaneously, or could do so at all, it would be the first such evolution toward linguistic uniformity in the history of language spread and contact' (2010: 46). In a sense, there is no such language as English – at least, it exists only in the most abstract of conceptions.



Figure 10.2 McArthur's Circle of World English

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

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## LEARNING ENGLISH

*Learning English or any language as a second or additional language will usually mean that speakers will be found wanting when compared to the L1 standard. As we will discuss, linguists have argued that to use inner circle English norms as the 'standard' that all speakers should aim for is to create a goal that is both impossible (see Image 10.1) and stigmatising.*

### **Two models**

*In the case of English around the world, then, there are at least two competing models. One is the English as a lingua franca model and the other a World Englishes model. Both have consequences for the kind of English that is taught.*

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

Quirk argues for the importance of English teachers having English as their L1 (1990). Further, he argues that valuing regional ethnic and social varieties results in insufficient attention being given to the importance of teaching a standard variety (1990: 7). Despite the existence of other varieties of English, such as Indian English, Quirk argues that students should also aspire to and be instructed in **standard English**. "It is neither liberal nor liberating to permit learners to settle for lower standards than the best, and it is travesty of liberalism to tolerate low standards which will lock the least fortunate into the least rewarding careers' (1990: 9). Quirk's argument may seem unappealing in the sense that it values local varieties of English less than standard varieties. Kachru argues that Quirk's position is essentially 'deficit linguistics' (1991: 4) that portrays varieties that are not standard as deficient in some way.



Image 10.1 Learning English

Lay people rate some varieties of English more highly than others (e.g. Bayard, Weatherall, Gallois & Pittam 2001, Cowie 2007, Deuber 2013, Evans 2005/2010, Ladegård & Sachdev 2006, Zhang 2013); however, the context and the prevailing linguistic market (see Chapter 6) play important roles in the esteem of the variety:

Certainly, if I were a foreign student paying good money in Tokyo or Madrid to be taught English, I would feel cheated by such tolerant pluralism [of language varieties]. My goal would be to acquire English precisely because of its power as an instrument of international communication.

(Quirk 1990: 10)

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

*Indeed, students are aware of the hierarchy of Englishes. Marr (2005) describes the attitudes of Chinese students studying English in London. He found that they had chosen to study in the UK because they believed it was a place where they could learn 'standard' English. One student stated that the 'English language in England is the pure and original' (Marr 2005: 243). If the goal is a high power job in an inner circle nation, then standard English is precisely what is required. Until negative attitudes to outer and expanding varieties of English change, a local variety of English will not be as valuable as Standard English. However, Kachru argues that we 'cannot develop a language policy merely on attitudes' (1991: 9). Moreover, the particular linguistic market in which Quirk assumes speakers to be using language is not that in which many speakers live. Most outer and expanding circle speakers are using English to interact locally rather than to compete for jobs with the global elite. Kachru notes that 'English has become the main vehicle for interaction among its non-native users, with distinct linguistic and cultural backgrounds – Indians interacting with Nigerians, Japanese, Sri Lankans, Germans with Singaporeans and so on' (1991: 10).*

*As such, English is not simply used to interact with native speakers nor to understand British and American values, nor with any goal of 'nativeness' in mind. Kachru urges a full consideration of language use, in its social and cultural context, while also attending to the dimensions of power that the deficit model at least implicitly condones. There is no reason why there cannot be more than one standard (see also Jenkins 2009). The idea that there is, or should be, only one standard is an ideological exercise of power in which only those who 'own' the standard benefit. These benefits are both personal (in terms of what the variety gives speakers access to in the linguistic market) and also financial for those who produce materials using these standards for instruction.*

*Those who argue for more democratic standards acknowledge the current benefits of standard English. In order for a system of multiple standard Englishes to be accepted, however, there needs to be a paradigm shift (Kachru 1991: 11) that takes seriously the social, cultural and linguistic context in which many speakers of English actually live and work. The linguist Suresh Canagarajah argues that the teaching of English (or any language) must take into account the social, linguistic, and cultural context in which it takes place. Rather than inner and outer circle, he refers to the 'core' or 'centre' and 'periphery'. This highlights the power differential among language varieties.*

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

*My position, then, is that while we must recognize the contextual appropriacy of different Englishes and teach students as many variants as possible ... It is equally important to teach students that any dialect has to be personally and communally appropriated to varying degrees in order to be meaningful and relevant for its users.*

*(Canagarajah 1999: 181)*

*Canagarajah's position emphasises the importance of developing learners' use of many varieties. However, if the paradigm of hierarchies of English is to be changed, it also needs to be addressed in the inner circle community.*

*Referring to varieties of English as 'better' or 'worse' is – of course – vexing and technically inaccurate. This is exactly what Jenkins' concept of 'World Englishes' aims to remedy. For Jenkins, 'World Englishes' 'refers to all local English varieties regardless of which of Kachru's three circles they come from' (Jenkins 2009: 200). All these varieties are 'bona fide varieties of English regardless of whether or not they are considered to be "standard", "educated", and the like, or who their speakers are' (Jenkins 2009: 200). She is particularly interested in the use of English as a lingua franca, 'the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different linguacultural backgrounds' (Jenkins 2009: 200).*

*It is often the case that speakers of outer and expanding circle varieties accept the negative attitudes toward their English as accurate. This belief is referred to as linguistic insecurity (Labov 1966). Lippi-Green (1997) suggests that by accepting their own variety as inferior, speakers contribute to the marginalisation of their variety: 'When persons who speak languages which are devalued and stigmatized consent to the standard language ideology, they become complicit in its propagation against themselves, their own interests, and identities' (Lippi-Green 1997: 66).*

*Wee (2005) argues that the defence of varieties of languages (like Singlish) is often forgotten in arguments about the protection of languages. While there are many who support the protection of endangered and indigenous languages, he argues that we also need to pay attention to intra-language variation and the maintenance of these varieties. Wee reports that views like those espoused by MP Chok Tong in Activity 10.1 led to the Speak Good English Movement (SGEM) in 2000, which endorsed inner circle varieties as 'good' while arguing that Singlish was not (Wee 2005: 58).*

## INDEPENDENT READING #4

*While the denigration of Singlish is common, there is evidence that speakers of varieties such as Singlish want to protect these languages because of the way they express both culture and identity for Singaporeans (Chye 2000; TalkingCock website; Wee 2005). Before teachers are likely to promote L2 inter-speaker variation in the classroom, they will need to experience a change of attitude towards it and, in turn, be equipped with the means of changing their students' attitudes (and this includes L1 students, possibly at secondary school level). (Jenkins 1998: 125)*

*For the purposes of English language instruction or teaching in the English language medium, the most important thing is probably to interrogate and investigate attitudes. Only then can learners make informed choices and – more importantly – perhaps start to shift the perceived value on different varieties.*

*To prevent language attitudes from serving as false prophecies, or worse yet becoming themselves self-fulfilled prophecies, teachers should be trained to be sensitive to the variations in social dialects and the variations in performance. Language evaluation, which incorporates the attitudinal side of the social dialect coin, should be included as part of the teacher training process.*

*(Williams, Whitehead & Miller 1972: 276)*

Williams, Whitehead and Miller (1972) show that debates about attitudes to language and their impact on teaching have been around for some time.

## TASK# 13: GLOSSARY AND TERMS

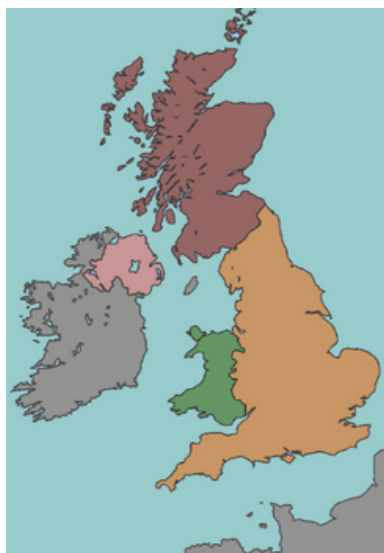
After reading "Global Englishes", design a glossary with the terms in bold. Highlight the definitions you may find in the text.

Word	Definition

## IN-CLASS VIDEO TASK #2 : WATCH LANGUAGE MATTERS WITH BOB HOLMAN

Answer the questions about the **Welsh** language:

1. Look at the map of the UK and label Wales, England, Scotland.



2. What difficulties did the Welsh experience in the past? Refer to the event that happened in 1956.

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3. What were the political consequences of the destruction of the rural town Capel Celyn?

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4. What is the story behind **Welsh Not**?

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5. How have the Welsh maintained their minority language alive?

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## IN-CLASS VIDEO TASK #3 : WATCH LANGUAGE MATTERS WITH BOB HOLMAN

Answer the questions about the **Hawaiian** language.

1. Look at the map of the state of Hawaii. How many islands belong to this state?



2. Where are they located in the world?

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3. Name some general characteristics of the Hawaiian language.

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4. When was Hawaii annexed as the 50th state of America and what were the consequences of the annexation?

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5. How have the Hawaiians maintained their minority language alive?

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Never stop learning because life  
never stops teaching!

Anonymus

