**Lecture 9**

**Varieties of English.**

1. The English of India–Pakistan.
2. African English.
3. Creoles and Pidgins.

Australian and New Zealand English.

Unlike Canada, Australia has few speakers of European languages other than English within its borders. There are still many Aboriginal languages, though they are spoken by only a few hundred speakers each and their continued existence is threatened. More than 80 percent of the population is British. By the mid-20th century, with rapid decline of its Aboriginal tongues, English was without rivals in Australia.

During colonial times the new settlers had to find names for a fauna and flora (e.g., banksia, iron bark, whee whee) different from anything previously known to them: trees that shed bark instead of leaves and cherries with external stones. The words brush, bush, creek, paddock, and scrub acquired wider senses, whereas the terms brook, dale, field, forest, and meadow were seldom used. A creek leading out of a river and entering it again downstream was called an anastomizing branch (a term from anatomy), or an anabranch, whereas a creek coming to a dead end was called by its native name, a billabong. The giant kingfisher with its raucous bray was long referred to as a laughing jackass, later as a bushman's clock, but now it is a kookaburra. Cattle so intractable that only roping could control them were said to be ropable, a term now used as a synonym for „angry” or “extremely annoyed.”

A deadbeat was a penniless “sundowner” at the very end of his tether, and a no-hoper was an incompetent fellow, hopeless and helpless. An offsider (strictly, the offside driver of a bullock

team) was any assistant or partner. A rouseabout was first an odd-job man on a sheep station and then any kind of handyman. He was, in fact, the “down-under” counterpart of the wharf labourer, or roustabout, on the Mississippi River. Both words originated in Cornwall, and many other terms, now exclusively Australian, came ultimately from British dialects.

“Dinkum,” for instance, meaning “true, authentic, genuine,” echoed the “fair dinkum,” or fair deal, of Lincolnshire dialect. “Fossicking” about for surface gold, and then rummaging about in general, perpetuated the term fossick (“to elicit information, ferret out the facts”) from the

Cornish dialect of English. To “barrack,” or jeer noisily, recalled Irish “barrack” (“to brag, boast”), whereas “skerrick” in the phrase “not a skerrick left” was obviously identical with the “skerrick” meaning “small fragment, particle,”still heard in English dialects from

Westmorland to Hampshire.

Some Australian English terms came from Aboriginal speech: the words boomerang, corroboree (warlike dance and then any large and noisy gathering), dingo (reddish-brown wild dog), galah (cockatoo), gunyah (bush hut), kangaroo, karri (dark-red eucalyptus tree), nonda (rosaceous tree yielding edible fruit), wallaby (small marsupial), and wallaroo (large rock kangaroo). Australian English has slower rhythms and flatter intonations than RP. Although there is remarkably little regional variation throughout the entire continent, there is significant social variation. The neutral vowel /ə/ (as the a in “sofa”) is frequently used, as in London Cockney: “arches” and “archers” are both pronounced [a:t∫əz], and the pronunciations of RP “day” and “go” are, respectively, [dəi] and [gəu].

The English of India–Pakistan. In 1950 India became a federal republic within the Commonwealth of Nations, and Hindi was declared the first national language. English, it was stated, would “continue to be used for all official purposes until 1965.” In 1967, however, by the terms of the English Language Amendment Bill, English was proclaimed “an alternative official or associate language with Hindi until such time as all non-Hindi states had agreed to its being dropped.” English is therefore acknowledged to be indispensable. It is the only practicable means of day-to-day communication between the central government at New Delhi and states with non-Hindi speaking populations, especially with the Deccan, or “South,” where millions speak Dravidian (non-Indo-European) languages—Telugu, Tamil, Kannada, and Malayalam. English is widely used in business, and, although its use as a medium in higher education is decreasing, it remains the principal language of scientific research.

In 1956 Pakistan became an autonomous republic comprising two states, East and West.

Bengali and Urdu were made the national languages of East and West Pakistan, respectively, but English was adopted as a third official language and functioned as the medium of interstate communication. (In 1971East Pakistan broke away from its western partner and became the independent state of Bangladesh.)

African English. Africa is the most multilingual area in the world, if people are measured against languages. Upon a large number of indigenous languages rests a slowly changing superstructure of world languages (Arabic, English, French, and Portuguese). The problems of language are everywhere linked with political, social, economic, and educational factors.

The Republic of South Africa, the oldest British settlement in the continent, resembles Canada in having two recognized European languages within its borders: English and Afrikaans, or Cape Dutch. Both British and Dutch traders followed in the wake of 15th-century Portuguese explorers and have lived in widely varying war-and-peace relationships ever since. Although the Union of South Africa, comprising Cape Province, Transvaal, Natal, and Orange Free State, was for more than a half century (1910–61) a member of the British Empire and

Commonwealth, its four prime ministers (Botha, Smuts, Hertzog, and Malan) were all

Dutchmen. In the early 1980s Afrikaners outnumbered British by three to two. The Afrikaans language began to diverge seriously from European Dutch in the late 18th century and has gradually come to be recognized as a separate language. Although the English spoken in

South Africa differs in some respects from standard British English, its speakers do not regard the language as a separate one. They have naturally come to use many Afrikanerisms, such as kloof, kopje, krans, veld, and vlei, to denote features of the landscape and occasionally employ African names to designate local animals and plants. The words trek and commando, notorious in South African history, have acquired almost worldwide currency.

**Pidgin**. Pidgin, language based on another language, but with a sharply curtailed vocabulary (often 700 to 2000 words) and grammar; native to none of its speakers; and used as a lingua franca, or a language used as a means of communication between peoples with different native languages. Pidgins develop when people who speak different languages are brought together and forced to develop a means of communication without having sufficient time to learn each other's native languages. A pidgin usually derives its vocabulary from one principal language, but its grammar will either reflect the structures of each speaker's native tongue, or it will evolve a distinct grammar. Among languages that have given rise to pidgins are English, French, Spanish, Italian, Zulu, and Chinook. In a pidgin, words may change meaning—for example, the English word belong becomes blong (“is”) in Chinese Pidgin and bilong (“of”) in Tok Pisin, spoken in Papua New Guinea. Many concepts are expressed by phrases—for example, lait bilong klaut (“lightning,” literally “light of cloud”) in Tok Pisin.

Borrowings from other languages may be added—Tok Pisin, for instance, has two forms of the word we: mipela,”I and others but not you” (from mi,”I,” plus plural ending -pela, derived from “fellow”); and yumi,”we, including you.” If a pidgin survives for several generations, it may displace other languages and become the tongue of its region; it is then called a creole, and its vocabulary is gradually reexpanded. Examples include the French-based Haitian Creole; Papiamento, based on Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch, and spoken in the Netherlands Antilles; and the English-based Krio, spoken in Sierra Leone.

Creole (language), language that began as a pidgin but has become the native language of a

community. Creoles and pidgins develop as a means of communication between members of two mutually unintelligible language communities. Both creoles and pidgins have simple grammatical structures and limited vocabularies, although the grammar of a Creole is more complex than that of a pidgin. Moreover, the rules of Creole grammar remain uniform from speaker to speaker, whereas pidgin grammar varies among speakers. Pidgins have no native speakers; when a pidgin does acquire native speakers through years of use it is called a Creole.

 Creole languages exist throughout the world, although they develop primarily in isolated areas, especially islands, in which colonial governments have established economies based on immigrant or slave labor. The Creole that develops merges elements of the colonial language, especially vocabulary, with elements of the language or languages of the laborers, typically grammatical structure. The primary creoles spoken in North America and the Caribbean include English-based Gullah, French-based Louisiana Creole, English-based Jamaican Creole, and French-based Haitian Creole. All of these creoles draw upon African languages.

One feature that distinguishes a Creole language from English is the use of the anterior tense, which resembles the past perfect tense in English. The anterior tense uses bin or wen instead of the suffix -ed, so that hadwalked in English becomes bin walk in Creole. Some common linguistic characteristics of the various Creole languages include questions and statements being identified by intonation alone, and patterns in verb conjugation. For example, Krio, the English-based Creole of Sierra Leone, and Guianese Crйole, the French-based Creole of Guiana, follow similar patterns of adding verb particles to change tense. In Krio the word chop for “eat” becomes a chop to indicate “I ate”and a de chop for “I am eating.” In Guianese Crйole the word mгze for “eat” becomes mo mгze to mean “I ate” and mo ka mгze to indicate

“I am eating.” A Creole language often changes as its speakers become linguistically assimilated into the dominant society. This transformation is known as decreolization. In the case of Gullah, a Creole language spoken along the southeastern coast of the United States, decreolization involves a gradual decrease of African linguistic components and an increase in English components.

Questions to lecture 9:

1. What are the most common characteristic features of Australian and New-Zealand English?

2. What is the role of English in most African countries?

3. How do Pidgin and Creole evolve? What are the most significant peculiarities of them?