

Using Translation to Teach Native and Non-native Varieties of International English

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Abstract | The term “New Englishes” attempts to cover the large number of varieties of English, far from uniform among themselves in their features and use and different from the historically and culturally established British and American standards. Over the past years, these New Englishes have been more acknowledged in the foreign language class. Linguists have called attention to the importance of increasing the learner’s linguistic awareness by covering topics of “linguistic variation and varieties of many types: national, regional, social, functional, international” (Gnutzmann 167). This paper aims at discussing the advantages and possibilities of teaching native and non-native English varieties in the foreign language class. It presents some data included in a Foreign Language and Translation course which attempted to integrate linguistics and translation by analysing the features of African American Vernacular English, Singapore English, Indian English and Australian English in terms of their phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic levels.

Key words | World Englishes, native/non-native varieties

1. Introduction

Applied linguists and language educators have been promoting lively debates over how globalization has been affecting the English language and how English has been influencing globalization. The increasing numbers of non-native speakers, the emergence of New Englishes, the use of English for intercultural communications, the intelligibility of standard and non-standard varieties of English, are just a few of the most talked about topics.

Discussing the worldwide development of English, Crystal (1997) proposed that the English language has achieved its present global status due to the two ways in which it has been employed by countries all over the world. First, where English has some kind of special status, it has been made the official language of several countries and used in diverse contexts such as the government, the legal system, commerce, the media, and the educational system. In such countries, English is characterised as a “second language”, as a complement to the speaker’s native language. Second, in other countries English has no official status and it is learnt in schools as a “foreign language”. Though Crystal makes use of the distinction between second or foreign use of the language to explain the worldwide importance of English, he points out that such distinction has lost some of the relevance it may have had. It is argued that one may find more use of English in some countries where it is learnt as a foreign language than in some of the countries where it has been described as a second language.

In an attempt to describe the cultural and linguistic developments of the English language at the turn of the century, McArthur was able to identify three different backgrounds as far as the existence of standard varieties of English are concerned. First, that at the end of the twentieth century two standard varieties, British English and American English, were long-established and broadly accepted, and for many the only legitimate varieties of English. Second, that some Anglophone nations (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa) had already developed their “clear-cut national standards” (5) becoming less dependent on the British and American norms. Finally, though not as consensual as in the previous context, that standardizing processes

have begun in some countries such as India, Nigeria, Singapore and Malaysia, leading to the development of the so-called World Englishes.

2. New Englishes or World Englishes

According to Jenkins, “the term ‘New Englishes’ covers a large number of varieties of English which are far from uniform in their characteristics and current use” (22) although they might share some features. Platt, Weber and Ho define New English as a variety which fulfils the following criteria: 1) it has developed through the education system; 2) it has developed in an area where a native variety of English was *not* the language spoken by most of the population; 3) it is used for a range of functions *among* those who speak or write it in the region where it is used; and 4) it has become “localized” or “nativized” by adopting some language features of its own.

Currently, there are a considerable number of texts on World Englishes. Platt, Platt, Weber and Ho highlight the importance of linguistic features (i.e. sounds, sentence structures and special expressions) which make it possible to define a particular New English and provide an extensive list of the functions of the New Englishes in several parts of the world, their similarities and differences in terms of accents and stress patterns, vocabulary, morphological, syntactic and pragmatic features.

Mesthrie and Bhatt carried out a similar analysis of World Englishes. However, they take a broad view of the term, including prototypical varieties like Indian English or Nigerian English, but also varieties like Black South African English or individual varieties of native American Indian English, varieties which have undergone language shift (i.e. Indian South African English) or are in the process of doing (i.e. Singapore English). Essentially, Mesthrie and Bhatt identify the “regular and widely, informally accepted features” (47) of World Englishes in the realm of phonetics and phonology, syntax, lexis and pragmatics.

Equally, Melchers and Shaw presented an overview of the varieties of English around the globe in their phonological, lexical, grammatical and pragmatic dimensions. Alternatively, Melchers and Shaw’s description of world Englishes follow Kachru’s concentric circles (the *Inner Circle of*

English, made up of “norm-providing varieties”, the *Outer Circle of English*, including “norm-developing varieties” and the *Expanding Circle of English*, with “norm-dependent varieties”) and on the geographical location of the varieties. Their description focuses mainly on varieties of the Inner Circle (England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Liberia and the Caribbean) and the Outer Circle (South Asia, Africa and South East Asia).

Significantly, Kirkpatrick offers a thorough description of a wide range of native and non-native varieties and then discusses the implications of these varieties for English language learning and teaching. In essence, Kirkpatrick’s description of selected varieties of World Englishes takes into consideration the pedagogical consequences of adopting an alternative approach to English varieties in the language classroom.

3. World Englishes and Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language

As early as the 1980s, some linguists attempted to establish a framework for teaching English as an international language (EIL). In order to identify the major features of EIL, Campbell et al. introduced three principles of teaching international English: 1) knowledge of the different social and cultural patterns and rules present in communicative exchanges involving speakers of more than one country or culture; 2) training native speakers in the use of English in international contexts; and 3) training non-native speakers in the use of language with native as well as with non-native speakers.

Several other authors have reported on significant changes to be introduced in teaching the language. If we are to accept English as an international language of communication and incorporate these characteristics into the classroom, educators in the field of English language teaching will have to take on some responsibilities. Trifonovitch pointed out some aspects that need to be emphasised in the classroom. Among those, he suggests that as speakers of English will be contacting a variety of cultures – native and non-native – teachers should not concentrate on the cultures of the native speakers.

Modiano identified two major areas in the teaching of EIL and their scope: language varieties and culture. Modiano believes that when teachers only emphasize AmE or BrE, students tend to perceive other varieties as less valued. Such approach to teaching “presents English as the property of a specified faction of the native-speaker contingency” (“Linguistic Imperialism, Cultural Integrity, and EIL” 340). Modiano also stresses that when students need to learn English as a tool for intercultural communication seeking competence in an international perspective on the language, they are supposed

to develop the ability to comprehend a wide range of varieties but also strive to utilize language which has a high likelihood of being comprehensible among a broad cross-section of the peoples who comprise the English-using world. (“Ideology and the ELT Practitioner” 162)

In Modiano’s opinion, teaching and learning English based on an international frame of reference aiming at developing such competence is superior “when compared to the conventional integration-orientated practices associated with the learning of culture-specific varieties such as British English”, what he calls a “nation-state centred view” (“Linguistic Imperialism” 340).

According to Modiano, in order to promote cultural equality, “a multiplicity of teaching practices, and a view of the language as belonging to a broad range of peoples and cultures, is the best that language instructors can do” (340). Baxter seems to share the same viewpoint when he says that “teaching materials should be drawn from all the various English-using communities, not only L1 communities, so as to introduce students to the different manners of speaking English and to build an attitudinal base of acceptance” (67).

Kirkpatrick suggests that “courses in World Englishes are becoming ever more popular and are seen, especially among ELT practitioners and professionals, as relevant for those who plan to become English language teachers” (1). Kirkpatrick acknowledges that “the model of English that should be used in the classrooms in expanding (EFL) circle countries has been a subject of discussion for some time” (3). Moreover, he believes that “the curriculum should

comprise the cultures of the people using the language for cross-cultural communication rather than Anglo-American cultures” (3), thus questioning the appropriateness of native speaker models and their cultures.

Moreover, Kirkpatrick adds that the current model for the language classrooms in outer and expanding circle countries may follow one of these alternatives: 1) adoption of an exonormative (Inner Circle) native speaker model, or 2) adoption of an endonormative nativised model. Regardless of the model adopted, but especially in the case of the expanding circle countries which have usually followed the native speaker model, ELT should incorporate activities which allow students to develop awareness of the multiple forms of English. As Kirkpatrick puts forward,

in aiming to teach and learn English in ways that would allow for effective communication across linguistic and cultural boundaries the focus of the classroom moves from the acquisition of the norms associated with a standard model to a focus on learning linguistic features, cultural information and communication strategies that will facilitate communication. (194)

Brown suggests ways to reconceptualise ELT when using the sociolinguistic features of the international varieties of English. For her,

attention to a world Englishes perspective in choice of methodology and curriculum design will result in an ecologically sound approach to language education, one that is attentive to the role that shifts in context bring to language education. (689)

Conveniently, Baumgardner and Friedrich provide some examples to include Outer- and Expanding-Circle Englishes into ELT classrooms. Friedrich suggests that “by bringing awareness to the different varieties of English that the students will encounter and by teaching them to view these varieties as legitimate expressions of a language in constant change and spread, a World Englishes approach can greatly facilitate learning” (444). Moreover, Baumgardner proposes that

“whether in Inner-, Outer-, or Expanding-Circle classrooms students’ sensitivity towards the unprecedented spread and diversification of the English language should be one of all teachers’ goals” (668).

Finally, Medgyes reinforces this idea by saying that teaching English as an international language is basically “teaching a large stock of native and non-native varieties of English” (185).

In these circumstances, it is vital that teachers integrate activities emphasizing the linguistic and cultural diversity of the English language. However, in a study to identify the representations of native and non-native varieties and cultures on Portuguese basic and secondary textbooks, Guerra concluded that few of the materials analysed made references to or used non-native varieties or native varieties other than British and American English. Obviously, there is a gap between the proposed theory of World Englishes in the EFL classroom and the actual use of representations of international English varieties.

In view of this, one effective way of filling this gap can be through the use of translation activities.

4. Using Native and Non-native Varieties in Translation Activities in the EFL Class

Due to the type of distinctive features of native and non-native varieties of English, employing translation activities in the language class might prove to be a motivating and enriching learning experience.

The following are some examples of activities which can be done in advanced EFL classes. As students are usually familiar with a standard variety of English (American or British), the translation activity should take two main steps: first, “translating” the original text into Standard English, and second, translating the Standard English text into the students’ native language.

The translation activities are structured as follows. Each variety of English is introduced separately (African American Vernacular English, Singapore English, Indian English and Australian English) and some of the main features of the variety (phonological, morphological, syntactic, vocabulary) are identified. Then, excerpts of the materials used in class (texts in the

variety and the Standard English counterpart) for analysis and translation are provided. The texts in Singapore English, Indian English and Australian English were created to be used in the activity attempting to include several features of the variety.

4.1. African-American Vernacular English (AAVE)

According to Sidnell, although some features of AAVE might be unique to this variety, it shares many similarities in its structure with other standard and nonstandard varieties of English spoken in the US and the Caribbean. Some linguists believe that AAVE developed out of the contact between speakers of West African languages and speakers of vernacular English varieties. For these scholars, West Africans learned English on plantations in the southern states of the US leading to the development of a pidgin which was later expanded through a process of creolization. For this reason, many linguists would argue that, because AAVE shares so many characteristics with Creole dialects all over the world, AAVE itself is a creole.

The pronunciation of AAVE is in many ways similar to varieties of Southern American English. However, there is little regional variation among speakers of AAVE. Some research has tried to suggest that AAVE has grammatical structures in common with West African languages but this is disputed. Similar to what happens with any language variety, topic, status, age, and setting influence the usage of AAVE. Remarkably, there are many literary uses of AAVE, especially in African-American literature.

Phonology:

- Word-initially, /θ/ is normally as in SE (so *thin* is [θɪn])
- Word-initially, /ð/ is [d] (so *this* is [dɪs])
- Word-medially and -finally, /θ/ is realized as either [f] or [t] (so [mʌmf] or [mʌnt] for *month*); /ð/ as either [v] or [d] (so [smuv] for *smooth*)
- /r/ is usually dropped if not followed by a vowel. Intervocalic /r/ may also be dropped, e.g. SE *story* ([stɔːri]) can be pronounced [stɔ.i]

- /l/ is often deleted in patterns similar to that of /r/ and can make homophones of *toll* and *toe*, *fault* and *fought*, and *tool* and *too*.
- /ɪŋ/ → /æŋ/, *thang*
- Front-shifting of stress, *PO-lice*
- Consonant cluster simplification, one *tes*, two *tesses*
- Unstressed initial syllables are deleted, *'bout it*
- Word-final devoicing of /b/, /d/, and /g/, *cub* sounds like *cup*
- Use of metathesized forms like *aks* for *ask* or *graps* for *grasp*

Morphology and Syntax:

- Third person -<s> deletion: *I walk, he walk*
- Genitive ending: *Rosemary house*
- Nominative forms of some pronouns rather than genitive ones: *They house*
- Deletion of copula: *He here* (He's here), *She a teacher* (She's a teacher)
- No copula deletion where it cannot be reduced in SE: *I ain' the one did it, he is. Allah is God. He ain' home, is he?*
- *He workin'*. (He is working [right now])
- *He be workin'*. (He works frequently or habitually. Better illustrated with "He be workin' Tuesdays.")
- *He stay workin'*. (He is always working)
- 'Been': *She been married*. (She married a long time ago and still is married), *He been workin'*. (He has been working)
- Completive 'done': *He done worked*. (He has worked). Syntactically, "He worked" is valid, but "done" is used to emphasize the completed nature of the action.
- Future perfective *be done* (combination of future tense and completive aspect): *She be done graduated by June* (spoken in December of previous year)

- Use of *ain't* as a general negative indicator (SE *am not*, *isn't*, *aren't*, *haven't* and *hasn't*).
Some speakers of AAVE also use *ain't* instead of *don't*, *doesn't*, or *didn't* (e.g. *I ain't know that*)
- Multiple negation: *I don't know nothing about no one no more*.
- *It* or *is* denotes the existence of something (SE "there is" or "there are"): *Is a doughnut in the cabinet*. (There's a doughnut in the cabinet), *It ain't no spoon*. (There isn't a spoon)
- Altered syntax in questions: *Why they ain't growing?* (Why aren't they growing?), *Who the hell she think she is?* (Who the hell does she think she is?)

Lexicon:

bogus 'fake/fraudulent', **hep, hip** 'well informed, up-to-date', **cat** 'a friend, a fellow', **cool** 'calm, controlled', **dig** 'to understand, appreciate, pay attention', **bad** 'really good', **bad-eye** 'nasty look', **big-eye** 'greedy', **bread** 'money', **crib** 'house', **mojo** 'personal magic', **wigga, wigger** 'white youth who identify with AA culture', **Mickey D's** 'McDonald's', **dig** 'to understand/appreciate', **gray** 'an adjective for whites' (gray dude), **The Man** 'white authority', **Miss Ann** 'white woman', **bogus** 'fake/fraudulent', **hep, hip** 'well informed, up-to-date', **cool** 'calm, controlled', **bad** 'really good'.

AAVE text:

The text used in the translation activity was taken from Alice Walker's *The Color Purple* due to the diversity of AAVE features (phonological, morphological and syntactic) it presents.

Dear God,

He beat me today cause he say I winked at a boy in church. I may have got somethin in my eye but I didn't wink. I don't even look at mens. That's the truth. I look at women, tho, cause I'm not scared of them. Maybe cause my mama cuss me you think I kept mad at her. But I ain't. I felt sorry for mama. Trying to believe his story kilt her.

Sometime he still be looking at Nettie, but I always git in his light. Now I tell her to marry Mr. _____. I don't tell her why.

I say Marry him, Nettie, an try to have one good year out your life. After that, I know she be big.

But me, never again. A girl at church say you git big if you bleed every month. I don't bleed no more.

Standard English:

The following table identifies the features of AAVE which appear in the text and provides their standard English form and an explanation of these differences.

AAVE	SE	Explanation
cause	because	deletion of unstressed initial syllable
say	said	tense (Pres → Past)
somethin	something	/tj/ deletion → /n/
mens	men	use of regular plural
tho	though	simplified speling
cuss	(used to) cuss (at)	(old fash.) to swear at somebody; Pres → 'used to'
think	would think	pres → modal 'would'
ain't	didn't	use of <i>ain't</i>
kilt	killed	/d/ → /t/ (devoicing)
sometime	sometimes	-s deletion
(still) be looking	is usually looking/ usually looks	'be' + -ing
git	get	/ɪ/ vs /ɛ/
an	and	final -d deletion (/d/)
out your life	... of ...	preposition
be 'big'	will be	future tense (will be)
big	pregnant	lexicon
don't ... no	don't ... any	double negative

Table 1. Comparison of AAVE features and Standard English

4.2. Singapore English (Singlish)

According to Brown, Singapore English can be seen as a legitimate variety of English in its own right, as it helps to convey Singaporean identity and can be taken as a sign of a growing national self-confidence. And for that reason, it should be analysed as a unique variety, not as an imitation

of Standard English. Such attitude to Singapore English can be found in the Introduction to *The Oxford Singlish Dictionary*, whose unknown author states that Singlish is a “mish-mash of various languages and dialects . . . not merely badly spoken English” (viii) which should be celebrated as a cultural phenomenon unique to Singapore. At the other end of the scale, Shelley remarks that “Singlish is an amorphous body of deviations from Standard English; and Standard English is something equally wooly, vague and lumpy” (5-6) or, as A. Brown puts it, “deficient in certain aspects and in need of correction” (vi). However, Gartshore provides a clear definition of Singlish, underlining its basic linguistic features:

Singlish is the informal, spoken Asian English indigenous to Singapore – a language academics call ‘Singapore Colloquial English’. Most Singaporeans are multi-lingual and speak Singlish as a second language to Chinese and Malay dialects, Tamil, or Standard English. Standard English grammar rarely applies to Singlish. Grammatical endings, tenses, plurals, and the definite article are ignored for the most part, allowing for a more direct rhythmic discourse. Particles and sentence endings feature in Singlish and can be heard in most conversations. ‘Okay lah’ is one example in which ‘lah’ lends emphasis and conveys a sense of agreement. (8)

Basically, the features that distinguish Singapore English from British or American Standard English can be found in phonology and in the use of some culturally-based lexical items. It is also important to note that Singapore English has been influenced by many varieties throughout its history: British English, for historical reasons, and more recently, Indian English and American English.

Phonology:

- word stress: *Ar-RAB-ic*, *cal-LEN-dar*, *in-DUS-try*, *pur-CHASE*, *PHO-tography*
- lack of distinction between initial /p/ and /d/, /t/ and /d/, /k/ and /g/, /t/ and /θ/, /d/ and /ð/: *bark (=park)*, *dan (=tan)*, *gum (=come)*, *though (=taught)*, *they (=day)*

- omission of final sound /l/ and /n/: *drawl* (=draw), *brown* (=brow)
- simplification of final consonant clusters (loss of /t/, /d/, /s/ and /z/): *based on* (=base on), *difference* (=different)
- mid-word voicing: *December*, /z/
- lack of distinction between long and short vowels: *bead* (=bid), *pool* (=pull)

Morphology and Syntax:

- 'got' to express location (as in there is/are): *Singapore got two universities*
- elimination of uncountable nouns: *furnitures, clothings, equipments, informations*
- no distinction between 'very' and 'too'
- 'yes' and 'no' are often not given as the reply to yes-no questions: *Can you swim? Can;*
Do you like hot food? I like; Can I take this road? Cannot
- deletion of 'it': *Don't miss! You can't resist! You'll regret if you miss it.*
- omission of preposition: *to participate [in] a game, to pick someone [up] in a car*
- use of a different preposition: *in campus, to take out shoes, to hand up homework*
- inclusion of a preposition: *to consider about something, to tolerate with someone*
- use of 'just' at the end of a sentence: *She was here just; When did the train leave? Just.*

Lexicon:

cager 'basketball player', **air-con** 'air conditioning', **to chop** 'to stamp', **to call** 'to ask, to tell', **blanco** 'correction fluid', **wash (photos)** 'develop and print', **to use** 'to wear', **stylo(-mylo)** 'stylish', **stoned** 'tired', **to stay** 'to live', **medical hall** 'chemist's, drugstore'

Singlish text:

1. – Tom, you need to relax lah.
– Very stoned lah. Now must koon. I'll just open my shoes. Can you diam? Off the radio please.

2. That char bor is very the chio but she always like to action and she's so hiao.
3. – Borrow me twenty sing? I want to buy new stylo mylo shoes.
– Can.
4. – You join me for makan?
– I no mood. I've just taken my dinner. You go head, later I catch up.
– Ok, but can you send me to the bus stop?
5. – I cannot tahan my job. I'll open a medical hall.
– What talking you?
6. – Nice to meet you. What you doing now?
– I'm a hawker.
– And where do you stay?
– In a maisonette.

Standard English text:

1. – Tom, you need to RELAX.
– I'M very TIRED. I must SLEEP NOW. I'll just TAKE OFF my shoes. Can you BE QUIET? TURN OFF the radio please.
2. That FEMALE/GIRL is very PRETTY but she always likes to SHOW OFF and she's so VAIN.
3. – CAN YOU LEND me twenty (SINGAPORE) DOLLARS? I want to buy new STYLISH shoes.
– YES, NO PROBLEM.
4. – WOULD YOU LIKE TO JOIN ME TO EAT?
– I AM NOT IN THE MOOD. I've just EATEN my dinner. You GO AHEAD, I WILL catch YOU up LATER.
– Ok, but can you DROP ME OFF BY the bus stop?
5. – I cannot TOLERATE my job. I'll open a CHEMIST'S/DRUGSTORE.
– What ARE YOU TALKING ABOUT?

6. – Nice to meet you. What DO YOU DO FOR A LIVING?
– I'm a HAWKER (FOOD SELLER AT 'HAWKER CENTRES' = OUTDOOR FOOD COURTS)
– And where do you LIVE?
– In a MAISONETTE (a flat on two floors).

4.3. Indian English

According to Mehrotra, for historical reasons users of English in India have looked upon British English as a model and a point of reference. However, due to language contact and the distinct socio-cultural reality of the South Asian subcontinent, the English used in India has acquired features distinct from the native British variety.

Jacob has also pointed out that when English interacted with a number of regional languages, a new variety of English, often labelled Indian English, has developed. He adds that as a non-native language for most Indian bilinguals, Indian English “is bound to have certain characteristics of its own in grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary” (15).

Phonology:

- diphthongs /eɪ/ and /ou/ tend to be monophthongal /e:/ and /o:/'
- (southern India) word-initial front vowels tend to receive a preceding /j/ and back vowels a preceding /w/: *eight* /je:t/, *own* /wo:n/
- (northern India) word-initial /sk/, /st/ or /sp/ tend to receive a preceding /i/: *speak* /ispi:k/
- non-rhotic for most educated speakers
- /r/ tends to be flap [ɾ]
- /p/, /t/ and /k/ tend to be unaspirated
- in some varieties, /v/ and /w/ are not distinguished; similarly /p/ and /f/; /t/ and /θ/; /d/ and /ð/

Morphology and Syntax:

- pluralization of mass nouns: *fruits, furnitures*
- use of nouns alone: *clothes (I have bought two clothes today = items of clothing), toasts (I'd like two toasts, please = slices of toast)*
- compound formation: *chalk-piece* (piece of chalk), *key-bunch* (bunch of keys), *schoolgoer* (one who goes to school)
- nominal forms of adjectives: *colour pencils* (coloured), *schedule flight* (scheduled)
- use of preposition: *to fear of, to return back, to pay attention on, to get down (from a vehicle)*
- use of *itself* and *only* to emphasize time or place: *Can I meet with you tomorrow itself?, We arrived today only*
- use of adverbial *there* for 'dummy' *there*: *I'm sure an explanation is there*
- use of present tense with durational phrases: *I am here since two o'clock*
- use of progressive aspect with habitual action: *I am doing it often*
- use of progressive aspect with stative verbs: *Are you wanting anything?*
- use of perfect aspect instead of simple past: *We have already finished it last week*
- direct question with no subject-verb inversion: *What this is made of?*
- indirect question with inversion: *I asked him where does he work*
- use of *isn't it* as a universal undifferentiated tag question: *They said they will be here, isn't it?*

Lexicon:

biodata 'curriculum vitae', **co-brother** 'wife's sister's husband', **cousin-sister** 'female cousin', **to half-fry** 'to fry (an egg) on one side', **hotel** 'restaurant, cafe' (not necessarily with lodgings), **stepney** 'a spare wheel', **tiffin** 'lunch', **the needful** 'whatever is necessary', **batch-mate** 'a person in the same class at school or college', **head-bath** 'a complete bath'.

Indian English text:

Sanjay is awake since five o'clock. He was too excited to stay in bed that morning. He couldn't even have his bed-tea. He took a head-bath in five minutes so he could spend more time choosing what to wear from his three favourite clothes. Sanjay has already prepared his school materials two days ago: colour pencils, rule paper, textbooks, among other items. He is a dedicated student and is having excellent grades in school. So it was no surprise when he got freeship this year. Sanjay is no back-bencher and will do the needful to be doctor.

Sanjay went to the convent in a tempo and as he got down he ran to meet his cousin-sister who was going to be his batch-mate this year. He didn't want to waste time chatting so he rushed into his classroom. It was a spacious room with lots of furnitures. The teacher, Ms. Prasad, stood by the door to greet each and every student.

"Are you wanting anything, Sanjay?" asked the teacher.

"No, thanks, Ms. Prasad", replied Sanjay.

Before sitting, Sanjay wiped off the blackboard as he wanted to make a good impression on Ms. Prasad.

Although Sanjay paid attention on the teacher, he was having difficulties to solve a Maths problem.

"I'm sure an explanation is there!"

Ms. Prasad approached Sanjay and said:

"You could finish it tomorrow, isn't it?"

"No, Ms. Prasad, I'll keep trying."

After some minutes struggling with the problem, Sanjay seemed to have arrived at a solution:

"Now only I have understood the problem!"

Standard English text:

Sanjay HAS BEEN awake since five o'clock. He was too excited to stay in bed that morning. He couldn't even have his EARLY MORNING CUP OF TEA. He took a BATH in five minutes so he could spend more time choosing what to wear from his THREE favourite ITEMS OF CLOTHING. Sanjay already PREPARED his school materials two days ago: COLOURED pencils, RULED paper, textbooks, among other items. He is a dedicated student and IS HAS excellent grades in school. So it was no surprise when he got FREESHIP (EXEMPTION FROM THE PAYMENT OF SCHOOL FEE) this year. Sanjay is NOT SOMEONE UNINTERESTED IN HIS STUDIES and will DO WHATEVER IS NECESSARY to be A doctor.

Sanjay went to the CONVENT (ENGLISH-MEDIUM SCHOOL, ESP. ONE RUN BY A CHRISTIAN MISSION) in a TEMPO (A THREE-WHEELED MOTORIZED VEHICLE) and as he GOT OFF he ran to meet his COUSIN who was going to be his CLASSMATE this year. He didn't want to waste time chatting so he rushed into his classroom. It was a spacious room with lots of PIECES OF FURNITURE. The teacher, Ms. Prasad, stood by the door to greet each and every student.

"DO YOU WANT anything, Sanjay?" asked the teacher.

"No, thanks, Ms. Prasad", replied Sanjay.

Before sitting, Sanjay CLEANED the blackboard as he wanted to make a good impression on Ms. Prasad.

Although Sanjay paid attention TO the teacher, he was having difficulties to solve a Maths problem.

"I'm sure THERE IS AN EXPLANATION!"

Ms. Prasad approached Sanjay and said:

"You could finish it tomorrow, COULDN'T YOU?"

"No, Ms. Prasad, I'll keep trying."

After some minutes struggling with the problem, Sanjay seemed to have arrived at a solution:

"JUST NOW I have understood the problem!"

4.4. Australian English

In a brief analysis of the features of Australian English, Todd and Hancock (1990) state that this variety is less differentiated than the varieties of any other English-speaking society of comparable size “because of the small population, the relative classlessness of Australian society and the homogeneity of the original settlers” (65) although one can clearly identify regional and class variation in Australia.

Australian English began to diverge from British English after the Colony of New South Wales was founded in 1788. Later on, in the 1850s, the wave of immigration as a result of the first Australian gold rush also had a significant influence on Australian English. Since then, Australian English has borrowed increasingly from non-British sources.

Phonology:

- a non-rhotic variety with a reasonably standard consonant inventory
- the long monophthong /i/ tends to be diphthongised: *beat* /bɛɪt/
- some diphthongs tend to be monophthongized: *here, there, sure*
- the diphthong /eɪ/ is lowered and realized by many as in /aɪ/: *tail* (= RP, tile)

Morphology, Syntax and Spelling:

- the exposure to the different spellings of British and American English leads to a certain amount of spelling variation such as *organise/organize*. British spelling is generally preferred, although some words are usually written in the American form, such as *program* and *jail* rather than *programme* and *gaol* (although commonly one could be ‘jailed’ in a ‘gaol’)
- both *_ise* and *_ize* are accepted, as in British English, but ‘*_ise*’ is the preferred form in Australian English by a ratio of about 3:1 according to the Macquarie’s Australian Corpus of English
- tendency to excise the ‘u’
- use of *but* at the end of a sentence as a modifier (equivalent to *though*): *I didn’t do it but*

- use of *thanks* in requests: *Can I have a cup of tea, thanks?*
- use of feminine pronoun *she* to refer to inanimate nouns and in impersonal constructions:
She'll be all right (Everything will be all right), *She's a stinker today* (The weather is excessively hot today)

Lexicon:

- use of diminutives:
 - * adding *-o* or *-ie* to the ends of abbreviated words. They can be used to indicate familiarity, although in many speech communities the diminutive form is more common than the original word or phrase: *arvo* (afternoon), *docco* (documentary), *servo* (service station, known in other countries as a “petrol station” or “gas station”), *bottle-o* (bottle-shop or liquor store), *rego* (still pronounced with a /dʒ/) (annual motor vehicle registration), *traino* (train station), *compo* (compensation), *lebo* (Lebanese), *lezzo* (lesbian) or *ambo* (ambulance officer). The same applies to names: *Jono* (John), *Freo* (Fremantle), and *The Salvos* (The Salvation Army); *barbie* (barbecue), *bikkie* (biscuit), *bikie* (member of a motorcycle club), *brekkie* (breakfast), *blowie* (blowfly or occasionally meaning oral sex), *brickie* (brick layer), *mozzie* (mosquito), *pollie* (politician), *chippie* (carpenter) and *sparkie* (electrician).
 - * occasionally, a *-za* diminutive is used, usually for personal names where the first of multiple syllables ends in an “r”: *Kazza* (Karen), *Jezza* (Jeremy).
 - * first syllable plus “-s”: *turps*, turpentine (usually referring to drinking alcohol, e.g. “a night on the turps”) or Ian Turpie; Gabs, pet form of Gabrielle.

a cuppa ‘a cup of tea’, **take a load off** ‘sit down’, **in the hols** ‘during the holidays’, **fair dinkum** ‘genuine’, **yapping** ‘talking a lot’, **take one for Ron** ‘take another one for later on’, **good on ya** ‘good for you’, **Pommy** ‘an English person (unflattering), **Kiwi** ‘a New Zealander’, **footpath** ‘pavement’, **picture theatre** ‘cinema’.

Australian English text:

- G'day, cobber! What are you doing this arvo?
- Not sure. I might meet Sue for a cuppa and some bikkies.
- We're meeting at Bob's for a barbie. And you know there's no barbie without some tinnies.
- Is Amanda going to be there?
- Yeah, why?
- She's always yapping and she's so ugly she looks like a bitzer, fair dinkum, mate!
- Don't worry, there'll be plenty of people to talk to, a bunch of Pommies, Kiwis, Aussies...
- All right, then. I better leave now before the travel agency closes. I need to pick up my ticket to Paris. I'm visiting my sister in the hols.
- Good on ya, mate!
- Take care.

Standard English:

- Hello, friend! What are you doing this afternoon?
- Not sure. I might meet Sue for a cup of tea and some biscuits.
- We're meeting at Bob's for a barbecue. And you know there's no barbecue without some cans of beer.
- Is Amanda going to be there?
- Yeah, why?
- She's always talking a lot and she's so ugly she looks like a mongrel dog, really, man!
- Don't worry, there'll be plenty of people to talk to, a bunch of English people, New Zealanders, Australians...
- All right, then. I better leave now before the travel agency closes. I need to pick up my ticket to Paris. I'm visiting my sister in the holidays.
- Good for you, man!
- Take care.

5. Conclusions

In a study conducted with Portuguese EFL university students and teachers, Guerra found out that there is an overall positive attitude towards learning and teaching about native and non-native varieties of English although they hold more positive attitudes toward the British and American Standard varieties. However, few subjects reported being familiar with other native and non-native varieties of English which might be explained by the little or no contact they had with them in their English language education.

All in all, the vast majority of subjects believed it is very important to learn about international features of English, and a high percentage of teachers reacted positively to incorporating non-native varieties in class.

Fundamentally, it is up to the EFL teachers to establish and fulfil these objectives. Dealing with native and non-native varieties has proven to be an essential tool to develop the students' awareness of the interdependent relationship between language and culture and to illustrate the linguistic, cultural and intercultural diversity of English. Using translation activities seem to be an effective approach to achieve this purpose.

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