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Incorporating Lexical Features of New Englishes into Vocabulary Instruction

MODUPE M. ALIMI

University Of Botswana

Botswana

Abstract

Many scholars have argued that New Englishes need to be recognised as appropriate models that can be taught in schools. This view strongly challenges the 'centrifugal' (Bolton, 2004, p. 368) perspective of adopting the native speaker standard as the only appropriate model for English language instruction. This paper proposes the inclusion of the lexical features of New Englishes in vocabulary instruction in schools in the outer circle in general and specifically in Botswana. The paper addresses four questions: What measures can be adopted to promote the incorporation of the lexical features of Botswana English (BE) into vocabulary instruction in high schools and what benefits will accrue to learners? What are the challenges that teachers, teacher trainers and language policy makers will encounter and what are the implications of this move for the global expansion of English? The paper demonstrates that the selection and use of materials that reflect features of BE and the adoption of locally produced textbooks for teaching English in high schools in Botswana are practical measures that will facilitate the inclusion of BE features in vocabulary instruction. Amongst the benefits to be derived by the learners are the expansion of their lexical competence and the development of a broader understanding of the various cultures represented by these new varieties. The paper highlights the issue of codification and acceptability as major challenges that teachers and policy makers will be confronted with noting, however, that the teaching of

the vocabulary of BE and other varieties of New Englishes will culturally enrich English as a global language through the intermingling of the different cultures depicted by these different varieties.

KEYWORDS: New Englishes, Botswana English, vocabulary instruction, authentic and contextualised learning materials, cultural and pedagogic benefits.

Introduction

Vocabulary instruction is an integral component of language learning. There are many research findings that support this view. For example, Meara (1984) reports many more lexical errors than grammatical errors in L2 university students' writing while Leki and Carson (1994) observe that L2 students identified vocabulary as a major impediment to their academic writing tasks. In fact, Laufer (1986, p. 72) argues that lexical competence is more important than grammatical accuracy if fluency is "the ability to convey a message with ease and comprehensibility". In spite of its importance however, vocabulary instruction has not been accorded the recognition it deserves in the language curriculum. In the non-native environment, the situation presents different sets of challenges. Not only is vocabulary instruction minimal in the non-native environment, but also its scope is very narrow. The issue of the scope of vocabulary instruction in non-native environments has become pertinent in the context of the debate on the variety/model of English that is appropriate for instruction in these environments.

There is now quantum evidence from research that the New Englishes are in no way substandard or inferior to the native or mother tongue varieties. Many scholars have in fact argued that the New Englishes should be recognised as appropriate models for instruction in schools. This view challenges strongly the 'centrifugal' (Bolton, 2004, p. 368) perspective of adopting the native speaker standard as the only appropriate model for English language instruction. The view also questions the interlanguage (IL) theory, propounded by Selinker (1972 & 1992), which according to Jenkins (2006, p. 167), posits that "a second language speaker's competence lies on an interlanguage continuum at some point between their first language (L1) and their second language (L2)". IL further assumes that it is the fossilisation of errors that is responsible for the growth of non-native varieties. The claim considers errors as usage (different from native or mother tongue speakers) that is peculiar to second language users, which results in L1 interference. The deficits of IL have been highlighted by many World Englishes scholars including Kachru, (1996), Kachru and Nelson, (1996), Mufwene (2001) and Sridhar, (1994). Such deficits include IL's denial of the historical and cultural realities of the non-native environment and its assumption that outer circle users of English make a conscious effort to approximate inner circle norms and in the process produce non-standard forms. Jenkins (2006, p. 167) notes that this claim cannot be corroborated by both the facts of history and principles of language contact.

Mufwene (2001) makes a very strong case for the recognition of New Englishes as legitimate varieties in their own right by drawing a parallel between language contact

with its resulting changes on one hand and biological evolution on the other. His thesis, as summarised by Yee (2003), is that "languages are like parasitic organisms" that can be hosted by "biological human species, individuals". The ultimate product of this union is influenced by "the presence of other languages and socioeconomic factors". The import of these arguments is that New Englishes are in no way deviant forms; rather they are products of a natural and expected phenomenon. If this is the case, then they should be considered as potential norm providing varieties in the different language communities where they are used.

This paper contributes to the debate on the New Englishes by proposing the inclusion of their lexical features into vocabulary instruction in schools in Botswana and other outer circle nations. The proposal is anchored on the abundance of research findings on the lexical characteristics of the different varieties of New Englishes. Specifically, the paper addresses four questions: What specific measures can be adopted to promote the incorporation of the lexical features of BE into vocabulary instruction in high schools? What benefits will learners derive from the inclusion of such features into their curriculum? What are the challenges that teachers, teacher trainers and language policy makers will encounter? What are the implications of this move for the global expansion of English? However, before addressing these questions, a brief survey of some salient points on the development of New Englishes in general and BE in particular will serve to place this discussion in perspective.

New Englishes

The development of New Englishes is closely linked with the colonial heritage of British colonies or protectorates. For example, English was introduced to India in 1600 when Queen Elizabeth I allowed English merchants to start trading in India. This was followed by the arrival of missionaries in the country in about 1659 (Kachru, 1983, p. 20-22). Subsequently, English was institutionalised in the country which implied that a group of Indians needed to be taught the language to facilitate communication between the colonial government and the populace who spoke well over 1000 languages (Kachru, 1983, p. 22). In West Africa, trade and missionary influence were the major reasons for the introduction of English in many of the British colonies. Banjo (1995, p. 203) posits that though "the inhabitants of the area now known as Nigeria have been in continuous contact with English since the 16th century", the formal learning of the language did not commence until the arrival of missionaries who established schools at the beginning of the 19th century and, to date, English remains the official language of the country.

English has a much longer history in South Africa than in Nigeria and other Anglo-phone West African countries. The first contact of South Africa with English, according to Lass (1995), is linked with the British occupation of the Cape of Good Hope in 1795. Prior to the arrival of the British, the Dutch had colonised the area between 1625 and 1795. Though the colony was given back to the Dutch in 1806, the British took it back in 1809 and intensified the policy of Anglicisation which "required knowledge of English for access to whatever resources were available in the colony" (Kamwangamalu, 2002, p. 1).

The entrenchment of English as the official language of the colony implied the suppression of Dutch and Afrikaans until the Union of South Africa was created in 1910, and English and Dutch were adopted as co-official languages. Afrikaans became the language of the state when the Afrikaners took over the reins of power in 1948. When the Bantu Education Act which sought to 'impose Afrikaans' as the language of instruction in black schools was adopted, English rose to prominence as the language of liberation. In South Africa today, "English enjoys far more prestige than any other official language" as "the medium of instruction at most schools except at historically Afrikaans medium schools and universities" (Kamwangamalu, 2002, p. 3).

Botswana English (BE)

Botswana has had a long relationship with the English language. Gabatshwane (1957) indicates that English speaking Europeans and Batswana[1] had their earliest contact in the middle of the 19th century when the former came on hunting, mineral and missionary expeditions. The missionaries who established schools were the most influential of the groups as English became a medium of communication in the community. When Bechuanaland became a British protectorate in 1885, the linguistic ecology of the area changed. English became the language of administration while Setswana was used for oral communication, in traditional settings and in small administrative sectors. At independence in 1966, the country retained English as its official language, while

Setswana, spoken by 78.6% of the population (Batibo, 2008, p. 17) became the national language. After independence, British English officially retained its status as the norm providing variety. However, the emergence of nationhood and the quest for national identity led to the adoption of Setswana as the national language. This seemed to weaken the dependence on an externally provided linguistic norm in the country. Consequently, English in Botswana began to change in terms of its pronunciation, syntax and lexicon.

Studies on Botswana English (BE) which span about two decades have shown that the variety exhibits distinctive characteristics, some of which are products of its coexistence with Setswana, the national language. Arthur (1994, p. 65) observes that "English used in Botswana is clearly an identifiable variety characterised by distinctive formal features on multiple linguistic levels." According to her, the process of 'conversion' or 'functional shift' has produced certain expressions in BE, including *to foot it* in place of Standard British English (StBrE) "to walk." Similarly, a person may ask to be *lifted to the next village* rather than "be given a lift in a vehicle." Merkstein (1998, p. 176) argues that BE is a "variety in development." Though his preoccupation is to examine the text types of government circulars in three time periods, 1958- 1964, 1971-1977 and 1983-1989, his conclusion is that English in Botswana in the colonial days was "faceless", "impersonal" and "formulaic". In the post colonial periods however, the language had become less rigid, exhibiting more features of the spoken form. For example, in the colonial days, "nominalisations" were preferred in referring to addressees to avoid directness, as in

arrangements will be made while in the post colonial days, the choice of words in the circulars reflected "accessibility and inter-personality", as in *I believe you are all aware*.

Arua (2004: 270), in his study of the syntactic and lexical characteristics of BE, demonstrates that the variety is very closely related, syntactically, to other dialects of English in Southern Africa but lexically distinct. Some of the distinct lexical characteristics of BE discussed in his study are Setswana words borrowed and/or translated into English including titles or terms of address such as *Rra* (Sir), *Mma* (Madame), *Rre* (Mr.). Bagwasi (2006) describes BE as a developing variety. She discusses its linguistic innovations between 1884 and 2000 noting that there were more borrowings between 1884 and 1950. Her account shows that items such as *bagaetsho* (compatriots) and *pula* (rain), are examples of borrowed items from Setswana in BE, while *uncle* and *combi*, (also found in native usage) whose meanings have been modified to reflect local usage, are examples of lexical innovation.

Alimi and Bagwasi (2009) discuss the lexical and pragmatic/discourse features of BE by relating them to Setswana and Batswana culture. They observe that the new words in the BE lexicon can be classified into two broad groups: borrowed and semantically modified items from Setswana. Such items may relate to traditional governance and social structure: *royal kraal* (chief's territory and worth) and *mophato* (initiation school or regiment). There are other items that relate to the cattle culture, such as *matimela* (stray

cattle) and *Bulela Ditswe* (to open the kraal and let out the cattle to graze). Examples of semantically modified items and coinages discussed in their study include: *the lands* (open wide expanse of land for growing grains) and *brigades* (vocational institutions). Alimi and Bagwasi (2009) also indicate that the fact that some aspects of the discourse of BE correlate significantly with those of Setswana and Batswana culture is one of the reasons for the preponderance of local expressions including greetings, proverbs and wise sayings in BE: *Dumelang Bagaetsho* (I greet you my compatriots), *May the All Mighty bring us pula* (May you have rain).

In terms of the influence of BE on English usage, there is ample evidence to show that high school and tertiary learners' usage exhibit features of BE. Alimi (2007) demonstrates, for instance, that the expression *can be able*, is a product of the conflation of two verb forms, *ka* and *kgona*, 'can' and 'be able' respectively which usually co-occur in Setswana. Arua (2004) in fact reckons this usage as a syntactic feature of BE. In another study, Alimi (2008) observes that the expression *the other…the other* bears some resemblance to the Setswana morphology of the English words *one*, *other* and *another,* all denoted by the same lexical item *ngwe*. This type of usage is also characterised in Arua (2004) as a syntactic feature of BE. The import of these findings is that BE, like other non native varieties, seems to feature prominently in the English language classroom.

With respect to people's awareness of the existence of BE, Arua & Magocha's (2000) study on attitudes of parents to their children's use of English in Botswana shows that parents are not only aware of its existence, but also approve of it as a means of communication. This is because the respondents in their study indicate that BE is "inherently good", and that "it is not inferior to any other variety, native or non-native" (p. 279). In addition, the study indicates that BE is considered intelligible to any other English speech communities worldwide and is therefore an appropriate variety for educational purposes in the country. This view is however not supported by teachers as indicated by Arua (2007, p. 1) in another study on the use of BE and StBrE in the English language classroom, in which he reports that teachers are uncertain "regarding the model of English to use in the classroom." While the teachers are uncertain as to whether spoken BE is acceptable in the classroom, they object to it being used in formal writing even though they themselves speak and write BE. Arua (2007) explains that the teachers' unfavourable disposition to using BE in formal writing might be a result of the uncertainty regarding its syntactic and lexical features. Arthur (1994, p. 65) however, suggests that BE is perceived by many, including teachers, as "deviant and unacceptable" and that this attitude is an offshoot of the historical imposition of StBrE as the model to be taught and to be aspired to in Botswana. She further notes that the attitude is strengthened by the "prescriptive influence of expatriate British teachers and teacher trainers" even though many of them speak British regional varieties of English (p.65).

Regarding the processes by which the vocabulary of the New Englishes is developed, the literature identifies borrowing, semantic shift, semantic extension and coinages as some of the productive processes. Borrowing, also referred to as retention by Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008, p. 110), involves the incorporation of lexical items from the native languages into English. Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008, p. 110) prefer the term 'retention' to borrowing on the premise that the latter "is not entirely appropriate since speakers have not been adopting a new word or acquiring a new concept". Semantic shift, on the other hand, involves assigning new meanings to existing lexical items (Kamwangamalu, 1996, p. 303). Alimi & Bagwasi (2009, p. 201) indicate that "shift may also involve the transfer of culture or direct meaning translation from the new culture". In semantic extension, words usually acquire additional meanings though they still retain the old meaning as part of the new meaning while coinage employs compounding for the creation of new words that are suitable for expressing specific meanings. They note however, that the newly created item may not have any cultural undertone. Tables 1 and 2 provide some examples of the lexical features of BE. While Table 1 deals with examples of borrowed words, Table 2 provides examples of semantically modified words and coinages.

Table 1. Some examples of borrowed words in Botswana English

Lexical item	**Meaning**
kgosikgolo/kgosi	paramount chief/chief
barena	princes

monnga-mmu	the owner of the soil
kgotla	traditional meeting place
morafe	an ethnic group
mohumagadi	a chief's wife
mophato; bogwera/ bojale	initiation school; initiation schools for boys and girls respectively
royal kraal	chief's territory and worth
bulela ditswe	a political slogan derived from the cattle culture which means 'let them all out to graze'
matimela	stray cattle
kgamelo	portion of milk that is due to one who takes care of cattle on behalf of the owner
kgola disana	removing stumps meaning removing conflict
bagaetsho	compatriots
pula	rain or slogan for greeting which means let there be rain
omang	national identity card
botho	to be humane
bogobe	sorghum meal
seswaa	pounded meat
bashi	street kid
masa	means new dawn and by extension hope for HIV/AIDS patients

Source: Alimi & Bagwasi, (2009); Bagwasi (2006); Arua (2004)

Table 1 shows that in BE as it is elsewhere, (see Table 3 for examples of borrowing from other varieties of New Englishes) the major sources of borrowed or retained items, which constitute a very large percentage of the vocabulary of New Englishes, are local customs and culture such as traditional institutions and social structure, ceremonies, food and clothing and fauna (Alimi & Bagwasi, 2009; Arua, 2004; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Platt et al, 1984).

Table 2. Some examples of semantically modified words and coinages in Botswana English

Lexical item	**New /modified meaning**
the lands	farm where grains are grown
brigades	vocational institution
deadwoods	unproductive civil servants
combi	mini vans for commuting
uncle	mother's younger brother, mother/father's brother as well as one's parents' uncles.
corn	all round small grains
you like things	you are arrogant/ you have a superiority complex
royal uncles	relations of the kgosi/chief
food basket	government's monthly provision for orphans
condomise	use condoms

diarise	note in your diary
shame/o shames	shame is the equivalent of the Setswana term *o batho* an expression of sympathy. Therefore shame/o shames in BE means 'what a pity or what a terrible thing'

Source: Alimi & Bagwasi, (2009); Arua (2004);Bagwasi (2006).

Table 2 provides examples of words that have been semantically modified by the process of semantic shift or semantic extension in BE (see Table 4 for similar items from other varieties of New Englishes). The term *deadwoods* and *the lands,* which are always pluralised, illustrate semantic shift since their meanings have been modified to accommodate specific local needs. *Royal uncles* and *food basket,* on the other hand, illustrate coinages. The term *condomise* and *diarise* are particularly interesting though they are primarily products of derivation. The adoption of the term *condomise*, "which is a shorter form than *use condoms* is quite appropriate in that it mirrors the urgency required for combating the HIV /AIDS pandemic" (Arua, 2004, p. 267).

Table 3. Some examples of borrowed words in other varieties of New Englishes

Lexical item	**Meaning**	**Source**
kampong/kampung	a structured community with a strong sense of belonging	Malaysia/Singapore
bomoh	medicine man	Malaysia

penghulu	village chief	Malaysia
agbada	long robe worn by men	Nigeria
buka	a cheap eating place	Nigeria
baju kurong	Malay dress for women	Singapore
sinker	new comer	Singapore
dhobi	laundry man	India
dhoti	loin cloth for men	India
curry	hot spice	India
indaba	tribal meeting; large meeting of professionals; difficulty	South Africa
braai	Barbecue	South Africa

Schneider (2008); Platt et al, (1984); OALD (2010)[2]

Table 4. Some examples of semantically modified words and coinages in other varieties of New Englishes

Lexical item	**New /modified meaning**	**Source**
cut	overtake or beat	Malaysia
outstation	smaller places in the country	Malaysia/Singapore
fellow	any person, male or female	Singapore
knock	remove a dent from a car	Singapore
boy	a male servant/a porter in a hotel	India

mother	a term of respect	India
stranger	Guest	Nigeria
fellow	any person	Nigeria
boys quarters	servants quarters	Nigeria
drift	Ford	South Africa
blue ground	diamond bearing ground	South Africa

Source: Ohia (2008); Platt et al, (1984); Schneider (2008)

The preceding discussions have highlighted some of the features of BE. In the subsequent sections, the measures that can be adopted to infuse BE features into vocabulary instruction as well as the benefits of such a move will be discussed.

Vocabulary instruction and Botswana English

One of the questions that this paper addresses is how can the lexical features of New Englishes be incorporated into vocabulary instruction. Kilickaya's (2009, p. 37) observations on "what kind of English or which English should be taught in the Expanding Circle" is quite illuminating and relevant. Her argument is that "if we are teaching Turkish students to use English well in an educational institution in the USA, the best answer will be American English". She explains further that "if we have the aim

of allowing our students to communicate across cultures, then we should teach English so that they will be able to understand/tolerate many accents and varieties through exposure." These observations underscore the importance of reconceptualising and broadening the goals of language instruction to satisfy both intranational and international communication. In this respect, two practical steps to infuse the lexical features of BE into vocabulary instructions are examined.

The first practical measure that can be adopted is the selection and use of materials that reflect features of BE for the teaching of the language skills. Currently, the prescribed text books, *English in Action*, Books 1-3 for the Community Junior Secondary School (CJSS) and *Certificate English* for Senior Secondary School (SSS) English syllabi are deficient in this respect. Most of the reading and listening passages in these textbooks do not depict the distinguishing characteristics of BE. However, newspaper articles as well as literary texts written by Batswana are rich in these distinguishing features and are readily available for adaptation as reading and listening texts. For illustration purposes, portions of a recent newspaper article which could be exploited for vocabulary instruction are provided below:

> The cultural renaissance in Kgatleng in the past year or so has been a source of inspiration and pride for many Batswana groups in this regard. *Bakgatla* are therefore to

> be praised as a group for re-establishing *mephato* to restore order and dignity as understood by them within the *Kgatla* cultural framework. …. Yes we love Setswana culture, and we wish to protect it, but we see the flogging of older members of the community as perverse, outright barbaric and lacking in *botho*… Certainly, something must be done to restrain the chief from doing as he wishes in the name of being *monnga-mmu*…The challenge would especially arise for a *Mokgatla* academic who feels hurt that his chief, his *kgosikgolo*, his *barena* and a host of *mephato* militia are under siege from outsiders. (A broken window into Kgatleng, *The Telegr*aph, November 10, 2010)

The extract above could be used for exercises on word groups, firstly to teach learners the names of the different tribes/ethnic groups in Botswana since the focus is on one such group, the *Bakgatla.* The exercise could be extended to teach learners the different people/ethnic groups and their characteristics in Africa and beyond and thus encourage learning by association. Doing an exercise of this nature will necessarily involve drawing examples from other non-native varieties across the African continent and beyond. For example, the names of chiefs/ethnic/tribal leaders from different cultures would be

informative to the learners; while the chief of a tribe in Botswana is a *kgosi*, in Malaysia, a village chief is a *penghulu.*

Secondly, the extract could be used to teach nouns, their types and their plural forms in English by first drawing attention to the singular/ plural forms in Setswana. For example, the following nouns: *botho* (to be humane), *barena* (princes) and *mephato* (traditional regiments) are all in their plural forms[3]. Hence students could be asked to produce their singular forms and thereafter the exercise could be extended to nouns in English noting the differences in the way nouns are pluralized in both languages. Thirdly, the extract could be used to teach word derivation and word meaning by drawing up different paradigms using examples such as *reestablish*, *renaissance, restore* and *restrain.* These exercises could be varied depending on the ability level of the learners. Other text types such as literary texts produced by Batswana could be used to develop exercises to teach word relations/semantic pairs such as synonyms, antonyms and hyponyms and commonly confused words.

Apart from selecting and using materials that reflect the features of BE for the teaching of the language skills, it would also be desirable to use materials produced locally in high schools in Botswana. The Curriculum Development Division of the Ministry of Education needs to consider the adoption of textbooks written by Batswana as prescribed texts. This is because such textbooks originate from those who speak the local variety

which implies that the lexical features of BE should be readily available in the reading and listening passages in those text books. In this respect, the Department of English at the University of Botswana has an important role to play in initiating the process of change by promoting overtly and covertly BE. The Department needs to use its position and expertise through its advisory board to influence policy in favour of the locally produced textbooks by highlighting the advantages that will eventually accrue to the students. Currently the Department is building a multimillion word Botswana English corpus. It should be part of its research agenda to produce a dictionary of Botswana English to be made available to high school teachers. The dictionary will not only be invaluable reference material for clarifying teachers' uncertainty regarding the lexical features of BE, but also critical for initiating the codification of the variety.

Cultural and pedagogic benefits

We now go on to the cultural and pedagogic benefits that will accrue to learners, generally and specifically in Botswana, by incorporating the lexical features of New Englishes into vocabulary instruction. The first is that learners' word knowledge, which is more than just being able "to define a given number of words", (Zimmerman, 1997, p. 122) will be broadened. The scope of word knowledge includes the sociolinguistic and the cultural dimensions, which hitherto have been relegated in many language curricula primarily because the focus of classroom instruction has been restricted to the 'Standard'

variety. Exposing learners in Botswana to the vocabulary of BE and New Englishes elsewhere through the use of word groups, semantic sets and paired equivalents referred to earlier will enable them to interact first with their respective cultures and second with other cultures. Consequently, learners' lexical competence, both in terms of number and depth will be enhanced. In addition, the learners will also be indirectly equipped to interact better with people within and outside their immediate culture. Furthermore, the learners will boost their pragmatic competence by developing a wider range of choices of vocabulary from exposure to terms of address, greetings and discourse markers in different cultures.

The role of contextualising teaching and learning activities in a successful learning enterprise cannot be underestimated. The inclusion of the lexical features of BE in vocabulary instruction provides the opportunity to contextualise teaching and learning activities. In this respect, the use of authentic and contextualised materials for reading and listening activities as demonstrated earlier will facilitate implicit vocabulary acquisition. Zimmerman (1997, p. 121) alludes to findings by Nagy and Anderson, (1984) and Nation, (1990) that "a native English-speaking university freshman has been acquiring vocabulary at the rate of at least 1,000 words per year throughout childhood and knows 20,000 to 25,000 words upon college entrance." By implication, a non- native speaker who has had much less exposure has a grossly inadequate vocabulary which could result in other linguistic difficulties. Meara's (1984) study of L2 University students referred to earlier also corroborates this view. There are other studies (see Leki

& Carson, 1994, Laufer, 1986) that confirm vocabulary related problems as a major impediment to successful L2 academic advancement. At the University of Botswana, many lecturers allude informally to vocabulary inadequacy especially among first year students, which results in their inability to describe appropriately their experiences and situations. The second pedagogic benefit therefore, is that contextualising learning and teaching activities through the use of reading and listening materials drawn from BE and other New Englishes will serve as a means of expanding learners' repertoire of words.

The third benefit is that the inclusion of the lexical features of BE into vocabulary instruction will serve as a means of activating and reinforcing learner's background knowledge, which will ultimately promote the learning of unfamiliar concepts especially for beginners, and stimulate learning for intermediate and advanced learners. This view is premised on the notion that some significant amount of learning takes place by association. Thus, presenting learners, particularly beginners, with concepts with which they are familiar, represented or embodied in the vocabulary of BE, as demonstrated earlier could serve as a useful road map for discovering foreign vocabulary that they are intending to learn. It will also enable learners to integrate new and unfamiliar concepts more readily into a "broader lexical network" (Huckin & Coady, 1999, p. 183). The learners will also be able to "analyse and rehearse the new word and its meaning" with ease, "elaborate the word meaning complex and establish it within a suitable network of meaning" (Lawson & Hogben, 1996, p.104). In essence, incorporating words from New

Englishes into vocabulary instruction will aid learners' long term recall and promote successful learning.

From the cultural perspective, the inclusion of the vocabulary of BE and other New Englishes in classroom instruction in Botswana will promote the appropriate depiction and understanding of the various cultures represented by these new varieties. This is Kirkpatrick's (2007, p. 23) view in his argument that "if English is used primarily for communication between so-called non-native speakers of English, then the cultures and backgrounds of those people become more important than any culture traditionally associated with native speakers". Also, since individual groups of people are "likely to warm towards those who can discuss with them, in English, aspects of their culture" (2007, p. 23), then it can be postulated that the teaching of the vocabulary of New Englishes will improve trans-cultural flow.

Incorporating features of New Englishes into vocabulary instructions: Challenges

The third question that this paper addresses deals with the challenges associated with the incorporation of the lexical features of BE into vocabulary instruction. The ultimate goal of outer circle countries should not only be to incorporate the lexical features of New Englishes into vocabulary instruction, but also to formulate language policies that endorse and promote these varieties as viable models of instruction in schools. There are

two important but related issues connected with endorsing BE and other varieties of New Englishes as viable models of instruction. The first is the issue of codification, which in Bamgbose's (1998, p. 4) view "is too obvious to be laboured" and the model /target that should be adopted for codification. It may be assumed that the research and documentation of the features of the New Englishes, including BE alluded to earlier, is the beginning of the process of codification. However, more large scale institutional corpus research is required to ensure the success of codification. The Botswana English Corpus Project currently being done by the Department of English at the University of Botswana should address the need for large scale corpus research in Botswana. The model/target that should be considered for codification in the New Englishes environment has also been controversial. Writing on Hong Kong English, Kirpatrick (2007, p. 29) suggests "a bilingual target or model based on the English of highly proficient users who are L1 speakers of Cantonese" because such a model will not only be "more attainable", but it will also be "more locally relevant". Similarly in Botswana, it is proposed that the target model should be based on the English of highly proficient users who are L1 speakers of Setswana, the national language.

The second issue is that of the acceptance of the New Englishes by policy makers, teachers, parents and stakeholders. In many non-native environments, parents are generally not positively disposed to the use of an endornormative variety as the medium of instruction probably because they consider it inferior and inadequate to accord their children the kind of global functional mobility that they expect. This is not the case in

Botswana as attested to by Arua and Magocha's (2000) study on the attitudes of parents to their children's use of English. As noted earlier, the respondents in their study indicate that BE is "inherently good", and that "it is not inferior to any other variety, native or non-native" (p. 279). The study shows further that BE is considered intelligible to any other English speech communities worldwide and is therefore an appropriate variety for educational purposes in the country. Teachers, generally, who in fact speak, use, and instruct in the local varieties are averse to adopting it probably because of the fear of diminished prestige. Teachers in Botswana as reported earlier are uncertain "regarding the model of English to use in the classroom" (Arua, 2007, p. 1). Thus, teachers and parents appear polarised regarding the use of BE as the model/variety for instruction. It can however be postulated that adopting BE will eventually "advantage and legitimise local English language teachers", and "validate their variety of English as opposed to classifying it as deficient" (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 29). For this to be realised, the role of prior intensive awareness raising for teachers, parents, policy makers and other stake holders is crucial.

Another challenge that the inclusion of the lexical features of the New Englishes into vocabulary instruction will be confronted with in high schools is that of appropriate and relevant textbooks and other teaching resources. As noted earlier, the prescribed textbooks for schools in Botswana are inadequate because they do not correctly depict English as it is used in the country. There are efforts on the part of some publishers working in conjunction with Batswana to produce English language textbooks locally. It

is hoped that the concerted efforts at raising the awareness of teachers, parents and government agencies responsible for English language teaching such as the Curriculum Development Division in the Ministry of Education will yield a more positive attitude to the locally produced textbooks and BE.

Lexical features of New Englishes and the global expansion of English: Implications

In this section of the paper, the implications of teaching the vocabulary of New Englishes for the global expansion of English are highlighted. Warschauer (2000, p. 513) notes that the effect of globalisation is visible not only in businesses and the media but also in the English language which has transformed itself into the world's lingua franca. In fact Graddol's (2006) publication, *English Next* ironically predicts that the rise of global English is the end of English as a foreign language. It can be justifiably inferred that the teaching of the vocabulary of BE and other varieties of New Englishes will culturally enrich English as a global language through the intermingling of the different cultures represented by these different varieties. In essence, English, as a global language, is being equipped to embrace and express multiculturalism which will in turn eliminate the rigid native/non-native speaker divide.

One other implication of the teaching of the lexical features of the New Englishes for English as the world's lingua franca is in the expansion of the vocabulary of the language,

a phenomenon that is not new to English. Historically, English expanded its lexicon significantly as a result of the Norman Conquest which heralded the rapid 'frenchification' of the language (Graddol, 2006, p. 58). In recent times, as Schneider (2008, p. 165) observes, "a wide range of 'Indianisms', words which denote indigenous culture and lifestyles were taken over into international English". Examples of such words include *calico, cheroot, chitty/chit, dhoti, curry, loot, nabob, sahib, thug, ghaut/ghat* and *veranda*. There is also evidence that dictionary compilers are making conscious efforts to include words from the New Englishes as in the following examples: *agbada, rondavel*, *bakkie, juju* and *indaba* that have been documented in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2010).

Conclusion

This paper has proposed the inclusion of features of BE and other New Englishes in vocabulary instruction in schools in Botswana and outer circle countries. Specifically the paper addressed four questions: What measures can be adopted to promote the incorporation of the lexical features of BE into vocabulary instruction in high schools? What benefits will learners derive from the inclusion of such features in their vocabulary curriculum? What are the challenges that teachers, teacher trainers and language policy

makers will encounter and what are the implications of teaching the lexical features of New Englishes for the global expansion of English?

With respect to the first question, the paper has shown that the use of authentic texts as well as the adoption of locally produced textbooks from Botswana will provide adequate support for the infusion of the lexical features of BE into vocabulary instruction. Two major groups of benefits were discussed. Culturally, the inclusion of the lexical features of New Englishes into vocabulary instruction offers learners the opportunity to understand and appreciate the diverse cultures depicted by the varieties. In terms of their pedagogic benefits, teaching the vocabulary of New Englishes will enhance the learners' lexical and pragmatic competence. It is also a means of contextualising learning and teaching activities, and activating and reinforcing learner's background knowledge. All of these benefits together promote learning. In terms of the challenges, the paper has highlighted three challenges: the issue of codification, acceptability of the New Englishes and the model/target that should be considered for codification in Botswana and other New Englishes environments, noting that each of these challenges can be surmounted by the various organs responsible for English language teaching working together and in concert. Finally the paper has observed that the teaching of the vocabulary of the New Englishes has implications for the global expansion of English in that it will promote the intermingling of cultures as well as foster the expansion of the lexicon of the language.

Notes

1. Batswana is the name of the people of Botswana.
2. *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*.
3. Setswana as a Bantu language has a unique noun classification system characterised by affixation. It has between 18 and 20 noun classes grouped into about 9 singular/plural pairings. Each class is distinguished by specific affixes in the singular and plural forms.

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