Approaches to World Englishes Print Media

Mohammad Nurul Islam
Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia;
Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Azirah Hashim
Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Abstract—This article provides a study of important frameworks expected to interpret and analyse World Englishes print media (newspapers). It is clear that the frameworks of Kachruvian and Strevens initially theorize print media and lexical borrowing. This leads to the introduction of numerous paradigms and ideas suggested by other prominent theorists about the World Englishes news media perspective. All in all, a summary of such frameworks contributes to building distinct approaches to the print media of World Englishes.

Index Items—approaches, world Englishes print media, the Kachruvian framework

I. INTRODUCTION

Most of the research on World Englishes in the media focuses on news discourse (e.g. printed news) and advertising (Martin, 2019, p. 553). Since the most famous approach to World Englishes, specifically ‘Concentric Circles of English’, was officially founded in 1985 (Kachru, 1985), Kachru himself and his successors (e.g. Stevens, 1987; Y. Kachru, 1987; Nelson, 1988; Smith, 1992) and other scholars (McArthur, 1998; Schneider, 2007; Trudgill and Hannah, 2008; Leitner, 2012) formed several frameworks for learning English in non-Anglophone contexts. No theorists, except for Kachru, seem to propose frameworks comprising three World Englishes fields—linguistics, literature and pedagogy. Even though focus on these three aspects of English studies traces Kachru’s approach, only the linguistic domain seems the most exceptional. The linguistic and pedagogical disciplines of World Englishes have frequently been expressed in a range of research on aspects of linguistic characteristics, lexicon in use, and English teaching-learning in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, and the South Pacific. In proposing the concept of World Englishes, Kachru’s approach to World Englishes points to non-native English linguistics. A number of his supporters have supported this idea through various paradigms provided with theoretical perspectives aimed at exploring linguistic works and their related artistic products produced by non-Anglo English users.

Based on the disciplines varying from structural linguistics, sociolinguistics, textual and discourse studies, gender and media studies to communication, the concept of World Englishes print media has been formed. These multidisciplinary factors motivate a canon of media studies of World Englishes. This paper expects to depict the key ideas and standards as well as theoretical structures that form ‘World Englishes print media’ in order to understand the significance of this concept and its application. It also illustrates the strengths of these approaches in other comparative empirical studies. This account will thus enrich an incisive recognition of the print media of World Englishes as a substitute field of linguistic research.

Before certain frameworks are to be explained by key scholars, their diagrammatic illustration needs to be shown as follows for an outline:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scholars</th>
<th>Framework(s)/Paradigm(s) for World Englishes Print Media (Newspapers)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Edgar Schneider</td>
<td>Dynamic Model of Postcolonial English (2007); Linguistic Aspects of Nativisation (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom McArthur</td>
<td>Circle Model of World Englishes (1987)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gerhard Leitner</td>
<td>Habitat Model (2004ab)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trudgill and Hanna</td>
<td>Varieties of Standard English (1982)</td>
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Figure 1.1: Frameworks for ‘World Englishes print media’ by key scholars

II. KACHRU’S APPROACH TO WORLD ENGLISHES

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The Kachruvian approach to World Englishes media is the strongest, as it includes a wide range of structures such as various styles of mass media, national identity, linguistic structures, and functional uses. Kachru’s four World Englishes standards reinforce the approach of this study. Each is described as follows:

A. Models of Non-native Englishes

Kachru’s (1983a) states, since both the number of English users and the level of English usage are increasing, non-native English varieties are emerging. Models of non-native Englishes are presented through the types, development and functions framework.

If we look at the global spectrum of English as a non-native language, we can clearly divide the non-native uses of English into two broad categories, namely, the performance varieties and the institutional varieties. Initially, performance varieties include essentially those varieties which are used as foreign languages. Identification modifiers, such as Japanese English or Iranian English, are indicative of geological or national performance characteristics. The performance varieties of English have a highly restricted functional range in specific contexts; for example, those of tourism, commerce, and other international transactions (Kachru, 1992, p. 55). The institutional second language varieties have a long tradition of acculturating new geographic and cultural situations; they have a wide range of local, educational, administrative, and legal functions. The result of such uses is that such varieties have created nativized types of discourse and style, and functionally defined sublanguages (registers), that are used in different genres as a linguistic device for media studies. We find such uses of English on almost every continent, for example, in Nigeria, Kenya, the Republic of South Africa, and Ghana in Africa; Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka in South Asia; and the Philippines, Singapore, and Malaysia in Southeast Asia (Kachru, 1990, p. 19). According to Kachru (1992), an institutionalized variety always begins as a variety of performance, with unique features gradually offering it another status. Two systems seem to operate concurrently in creating non-native models: the attitudinal system, and the linguistic system. Attitudinally, a majority of L2 speakers should identify with the modifying label that marks a model’s non-nativity: for instance, Indian English speakers, Lankan English speakers and Ghanaian English speakers. In linguistic terms, it is usual that a part of the lexicon would be nativized in two ways in a range. On the one hand, the native items will be used to contextualize the language in localized registers and styles. English lexical objects, on the other hand, may have gained, expanded or confined semantic markers. The cycle then extends to other language levels (pp. 55-56).

Moreover, Kachru (1992b) has highlighted that non-native institutionalized varieties of English have developed through several phases. There is a non-recognition of the local variety at the initial level, and conscious identification with the native speakers. An ‘imitation model’ at this stage is elitist, powerful, and perhaps politically advantageous, because it recognizes a person with the ‘inner circle speaker’. The second stage is related to extensive diffusion of bilingualism in English, which slowly leads to the development of varieties within variety. South Asian is a prime example of that attitude. Typical Indian (Indianized) English was used at actual performance. The third stage begins when the non-native variety is slowly accepted as the norm, thereby reducing the division between linguistic norms and behaviour. The last phase seems to be the one of recognition. This recognition can manifest in two ways; attitudinally, firstly, and second, the teaching materials are contextualized in the native sociocultural milieu.

Similarly, Kachru (1992b) points outs the sociolinguistic profile of English in South Asia via the following four functions: (i) the instrumental function; (ii) the regulative function (iii) the interpersonal function and (iv) The imaginative/innovative function concerns the use of English in different literary genres. The non-native English users have demonstrated great creativity in using the English language in ‘un-English’ contexts in that function. Those functional uses also expand to range and depth. The term range means English being extended into different social, cultural, commercial and educational contexts. The wider the range, the greater the variety of uses. By ‘depth’ we mean the penetration of English-knowing bilingualism to various societal levels.

B. Contextualization and Lexical Innovation

Kachru (1983b, pp. 99-127) suggests contextualization and lexical innovation as a framework for new Englishes analysis. The word ‘contextualization’ adopted from the ‘Firthian Framework of Linguistic Science’ (1957). This definition was used to examine Indian English (IE) contextualization from creative writing about four forms of lexicogrammatical transition. Such types include: lexical transfers (loans), translations (established equivalent L1-L2 items), shifts (adaptation of items in L1 to L2), and calques (rank-bound translation). Other types of transfer are speech and collocation functions (cited in Bennui, 2013, p. 62).

For lexical innovation, only two from South Asian (SA) Englishes are mentioned (Kachru, 1975, pp. 60-72; 1983b, pp. 152-162) single items (shifts and loan translation) and hybrid items. By shifts, Kachru means those items which are adaptations of underlying formal items from South Asian languages which provide the source for the South Asian English item. A loan translation includes a structured equality between an item in South Asian language and SAE. These objects are to be sub-grouped into two extra classifications. First of all, there are certain items that have formed part of the English language lexical inventory and are found in both in British and American English, and thus can be considered ‘assimilated items’. In British English, the borrowing of South Asian objects is greater than in American English for cultural, political and administrative purposes. Secondly, there are certain elements which were not originally included in the dictionaries of the native English varieties, yet have a recurrence in different registers of SAE.
For the first sort, Kachru, utilized the terms ‘non-restricted lexical items’ (or ‘assimilated items’) and the second sort, ‘restricted lexical items’. The first are ‘non-restricted’ as in they do not happen just in SAE. An investigation of these lexical things reveals that only a couple of South Asian words have discovered their way into the native English varieties. Then again, SAE writing, especially in journalism, uses considerably more. The borrowing of lexical things from south Asian dialects into SAE does not appear to be arbitrary; these are register-restricted and might be grouped by their semantic areas. Those lexical items which are restricted to SAE and which are frequently used in SAE writing (especially in journalism) provide an interesting example of the ‘distinctiveness’ of SAE at the lexical level. The later sort (hybridization) is featured as the significant agent of loanwords. Hybridization is one of SAE’s data-oriented lexical developments of taxonomic research. A hybridized lexical thing is a lexical thing included at least two components, of which at least one is from a South Asian language and one is from English. As indicated to Kachru (1975), the advancement of SAE vocabulary has been practised more than 200 years of managerial, social, cultural, political and instructive contact with the English-speaking world. This component of SAE is hence fascinating both from the purpose of language acculturation and from that of contact with the language.

Overall, Kachru points to these features as a model for studying vocabulary in other Englishes in literary and non-literary texts (Kachru, 1983). Obviously, this framework could serve as a model for analyzing and interpreting contextualization and creativity of lexical items of any other Englishes print media (newspapers).

C. Three Concentric Circles of English

The most compelling model of English spreading has without a doubt been that of Kachru (1992) that is a three-circle model. Following the three-way categorization (e.g., ENL, ESL & EFL), Kachru partitions World Englishes into three focused circles, namely the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle. The three parameters reflect the sorts of spread, acquisition trends and the functional assignment of English in different cultural settings (Jenkins, 2003) which are described below:

![Figure 2.1: Kachru’s three concentric circles of English (Kachru, 1992a, p. 356)](image-url)

Referring to figure 2.1, the ‘three circles’ model is usually portrayed graphically as three partially overlapping ovals and the expanding circle is situated at the top. The model represents the dispersion of English from the local nations to non-local ones by a segment of the populace. The English language is migrated to the US, Australia, Canada and New Zealand from Great Britain. English is named Native English Varieties in such countries. Kachru (1992a, p. 356) refers to the ENL countries (the inner circle) as ‘the traditional culture and linguistic bases of English’. This circle is called ‘norm-provider’. Traditionally, the British variety was accepted as the oldest model, and it is very recently that the American model has been presented as an alternative system. These two models give local standards (native norms) to Australia, Canada and New Zealand English. The outer (or extended) circle encompasses prior periods of English spread. Its acceptance takes place in non-native settings, so it is termed the institutional English Varieties in Asia, Africa and the South Pacific. These varieties have carried through long periods of colonization, each involving linguistic, political and sociocultural explanations. Statistically, the outer circle shapes a broad group of speech network with great variety and unique features. In ESL countries that are using these varieties, there have been conflicts between linguistic norms and linguistic behaviour. As a result, this circle merits the word ‘norm-developing’ as the provincial standards (norms) are constructed on the basis of exornormative and endonormative standards (norms). The provincial standards (regional norms) have been creating since being embedded by the British and American models in the frontier time frame. The Expanding Circle includes those areas where the varieties of performance are being used. Understanding the function of English in this circle requires a recognition of the fact that English is a global language. Nevertheless, English uses tend to be greater in number than different circles like those of China, Russian and Indonesia. The geological neighbourhoods presented as the extending circle do not really have a background marked by colonization by the clients of the internal circle. This circle right now extends quickly and has led to various English varieties of implementation (or EFL) (Kachru and Quirk, 1981). It is the users of that circle who definitely reinforce the cases of English as a global or standardized language. Kachru (2006) also mentions that in the pedagogical literature, in popular literature (e.g., in newspapers) and in power elite circles, only the inner circle varieties are considered ‘norm makers’; the other two are treated as the ‘norm breakers’. Indeed, in the inner circle alone, a particular elite class is regarded as ‘norm-makers’ or emulation models (Kachru, 2006; Jenkins, 2003). The media set positive standards for the acquisition of English around the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles of users (Moody, 2020).
D. Bilingual Creativity and Contact Literature

Kachru (1990) highlights that the English language shows typical characteristics of a “mixed” language development in its layer after layer of borrowings, adaptations, and various levels of language contact. The term ‘contact literature’ refers to the literature written by users of English as a second language to delineate contexts which generally do not form part of what may be labelled “the traditions of English literature” (African, Malaysian, and Indian and so on). These kinds of literature are “a product of multicultural and multilingual speech communities”. Contact literatures have two faces: their own faces and the face they acquire by the linguistic contact with another language and society. The degree of contact with other language (s) determines the degree of impact at various linguistic levels. There are several examples in such literatures in English in South Asian languages (e.g., in Hindi and Persian in India). Contact literatures are “a product of multicultural and multilingual speech communities” (pp. 160-161).

According to Kachru (1990), bilingual’s creativity (the bilingual’s grammar) refers to the productive processes at the different linguistic levels which a bilingual uses for various linguistic functions. Bilingual creativity and contact literature framework (Kachru, 1986; 1987) conveys four characteristics of a bilingual writer’s linguistic and literary creativity. This creativity is not merely to see it as a formal combination of two or more language structures, but also as a development of cultural, aesthetic, societal and literary standards (norms). Indeed, there is a unique setting for this creativity.

The framework is the pioneering approach to find out contact literature in relation to lexical borrowing of print media. Kachru (1990) further mentions that this literary text has a distinguishing feature; the altered ‘meaning systems’ is the collection of different linguistic procedures, such as nativism of context, cohesion and cohesiveness, and rhetoric techniques highlighting the features of such literary text. The lexicalization includes direct lexical exchange as well as different items, for example, hybridization and translation of loans. Such English lexical objects have more than one explanatory background: they have a second language (English) surface ‘meaning’ and an underlying ‘meaning’ of the first (or dominant) language (pp. 165-166). Linguistic thought patterns tend to manifest the bilingual’s creativity on lexical borrowing, as seen in English newspapers worthy of analysis under this framework.

III. STREVENS APPROACH TO WORLD ENGLISHES

Local Forms of English

Peter Strevens was one of those singled out by Prator for opprobrium; and it is obviously true that during his academic career, Strevens consistently argued for a variety-based approach to TESL and TEFL (see Strevens, 1977, 1980, 1985). Both his 1977 book New Orientations in the Teaching of English and his 1980 volume Teaching English as an International Language gave substantial coverage to what he glossed as “Localized Forms of English” (LFEs), arguing that:

“In ESL areas where local L2 forms have developed and where they command public approval, it is these forms which constitute the most suitable models for use in schools, certainly more suitable than a British or American L1 model . . . the native speaker of English must accept that English is no longer his possession alone: it belongs to the world, and new forms of English, born of new countries with new communicative needs, should be accepted into the marvellously flexible and adaptable galaxy of “Englishes” which constitute the English language” (Strevens, 1980, p. 90 as cited in Bolton, 2006, p. 253).

Furthermore, Strevens (1977) has highlighted that local forms of English are easier to exemplify than to define. They are two types: L1 (mother tongue) and L2 (foreign language) local forms. L1 local forms would include: Tyneside English; Cockney, Dublin English; South Wales English; West Indies English; Tristan da Cunha English; and so on. L2 local forms include: Scottish (Gaelic- speakers’) English; West African English; Singapore English, Samoan English; Phillipines English; a large number of different forms of Indian English; and many more. Together, the two variables discussed above to determine a given ‘form of English’. A definition of the term might be as follows: A form of English is that particular constellation of dialect and accent with a particular accompanying array of varieties, having affinities with either British or American English, which is currently in a given English-using community (p. 28).

In like manner, Strevens (1982) has referenced that Local Forms of English (LFEs) have created through five stages. LFEs happen since English has extended its users, applications and structures. Presently, there are more than non-local English users than local users. Strevens (1982) consequently partitions English users into three sorts, in particular English-speaking countries (ENL), English-using countries (ESL) and Non-English-using countries (EFL). In addition, English fills in as a vehicle for differing uses for non-native speakers—state-funded training, open organization, media, science and new writing. Moreover, LFEs that infiltrate numerous English-using nations can be brought in various settings, for example, Singapore English (Strevens, 1980).

Furthermore, LFEs are further split into two groups. First, international forms of inter-type English or LFEs refer to the use of English by a limited number of individual users for contact with the outside world connect to science, technology, etc. This type is found in Japan and Brazil, and so on. Besides, it is based on independent native English model norms, so English speakers of this form try to be native-speaker-like. In the meantime, intranational type of intra-type English or LFEs include the use of English by a wide population within the group for intranational communication including in India and Singapore. This form holds an independent norm. (Strevens, 1982 as cited in Bennui, 2013, pp. 51-52).
In summary, LFEs emerge when the parent variety implemented English in non-Anglo communities, and they gradually evolved for intranational and international communication purposes, due to a large number of users. In addition, the salient characteristics of LFEs are defined through their parameters of defining and differentiation. Evidently, this paradigm could be a model of lexical items of any other Englishes.

IV. SIMILARITIES AND DISTINCTIVENESS AMONG THE APPROACHES

The Kachruvian framework is probably the most prominent one because of his concept on Concentric Circles in English (1985), which is worldwide marketed. This has been in controversy and concern of many writers and scholars. Hence, particular attention has also been given to his linguistic frameworks. In this analysis, the approaches share comparable qualities, which lead to their being adjusted. First of all, the spread of English specifically is structured by Kachru and Strevens. Kachru denotes a wide range of English-using communities by means of the diagram; however, Strevens uncovers branches of the parent variety in just ESL countries. Both, notwithstanding, emphasize the spread of English in non-native countries as opposed to in local ones. All theorists display the way a non-native variety develops in divergence to the parent variety. Secondly, Sorts of English developments are correspondingly categorized by Kachru and Strevens. English-speaking countries (ENL) generate an Inner Circle country. The Outer-Circle matches the English-using countries (ESL). Besides, the Expanding Circle is analogous to non-English nations. Thirdly, Kachru and Strevens initiate the comparative kinds of non-native norms. Strevens’s Intranational and international kinds of an LFE conform to the performance and institutional varieties of Kachru. Thus, the independent and dependent norms of these types of LFE are near to the norm-developing and norm-dependent types of Kachru. Fourthly, Due to the emphasis on scope and range of non-native English users, English functions are significantly moulded by Kachru. Four sorts of these functions look like the five English-language vehicles of Strevens in differentiating parameters of an LFE.

This outline is evident that Kachru’s remaining frameworks on World Englishes have been pointed out by many scholars around the world because of their analysis of multilayer linguistic and educational aspects of World Englishes – lexis, phonology, grammar, semantics, stylistics, discourse, and pedagogy. Moreover, they are designed to explore the features of Englishes expressed by more non-native users than native ones. The Strevens framework for World Englishes media has fewer linguistic aspects compared with the Kachruvian approach. That is, it focuses more on non-native English writers’ textual or stylistic, and socio-cultural components of literary work. Of this purpose, the framework of empirical research has been adopted and adapted by a few researchers. The approaches are distinguishable, since they encapsulate the concepts that are distinctive. First of all, Strevens introduces strikingly the two concepts: localization and of the English language and non-Anglo cultural setting. The latter is described as localized English forms in which non-Anglo people use the local language elements. Ultimately, this analogy does not consciously resolve a discrepancy between the structures often applied in research articles. Alternatively, it illustrates a recent trend in and attention given to different structures for investigable functions.

V. WORLD ENGLISHES OTHER APPROACHES

Kachru’s approach to Cultural Contact and Literary Creativity in a multilingual Society and Transcultural Creativity in World Englishes and Literary Canons; Schneider’s approach to the map of World Englishes; Leitner’s Habitate Model and Trudgill and Hanna’s Varieties of Standard English are among other influential approaches to World Englishes that have inspired so many researchers are described below:

A. Cultural Contact and Literary Creativity in a Multilingual Society

Contact literature is outstanding in a multilingual community, since its main components integrate cultural and linguistic interaction. Kachru (1992) offers ‘the trimodel approach to diversity’ in that three fields- linguistics, sociolinguistics and literature are interconnected. Linguistic fields contain (1) the development of register; (2) the source for ‘mixing’ ‘switching’, as well as ‘formal developments; at each linguistic level; and (3) the strategies for discourse and the structure of discourse, taking into account units as paraphrasing and punctuations. All of the above elements are found in Indian writings with Englishization in Indian languages. In such manner, code-mixing is featured to fill in as convergence and creativity notions, as in India. Indian English literature gives the workflows between English and Indian languages such as mixing Hindi and Punjabi borrowings in English phrases. This tends to make English a piece of the native vocabulary of discourses and cultures; in linguistic creative and innovative English and other languages are correspondingly organized. The conceptions of consciousness about identity and community appear in this paradigm.

B. Transcultural Creativity in World Englishes and Literary Canons

The nativisation of rhetoric techniques in the ‘bilinguals’ creativity and contact literature’ is reached out to an examination of ‘transcultural creativity’ as portraying the process of translation, transfer and transcreation as effective stylistic instruments (Kachru, 1995). The transcreation cycle plays a significant role in literary creativity in the ‘mother tongue’ (national writing interpreted into English) and in the ‘other tongue’ (World writing written in English).

Kachru’s hypotheses concentrate on transcultural innovation, with three forms of crossover embraced from Smith’s (1992) research in relation to their core concepts. Firstly, the crossover within a speech fellowship applies to the
participants of a speech fellowship that have common underlying socio-cultural resources. While they demonstrate the mutual intelligibility, the linguistic resources of these members can be different. For instance, Indian Speakers from Punjabi, Hindi, and Kashmiri have communicated ‘regional English dialect and educated English’. This type corresponds to the concept of ‘intelligibility’ which relates to surface interpreting of a linguistic expression. Secondly, the crossover is apparent through literary and cultural discourse in the processes of Sanskritization, persianization, and Englishization in that area. This form fits the term ‘comprehensibility’ or interpretation of a text from a variety of English within the sense of another variety of situations. Finally, the crossover yields ‘interpretability’ notions. This shows up in another understanding or commentary to interpretations of sacrosanct messages like ‘the Bible or the Bhagawad Gita’ and so on.

In the literature of World Englishes, this stage implies reincarving English into the local culture (Kachru, 1995). Hence, all types crossover they are grounded in the translation, transfer and transcreation processes of multilingual writers which will be helpful for interpreting World Englishes media studies.

C. Strevens’ the World Map of English

Numerous LFEs have emerged, however, each LFE is related with one of two significant branches: British English and American English -- which is the English family settled as ‘the World Map of English’ (1980), the most established guide of English spread, as appeared in the accompanying chart:

![Figure 4.1: Strevens map of World Englishes (Strevens, 1980, p. 86)](image)

The model imposes a branching diagram on a projection of the world by Mercator. It was first published in 1980 in Teaching English as an International Language by, Oxford: Pergamon Press. The model shows nicely how and where English speakers are located around the world. The British applied linguist Peter Strevens formulated a map-and-branch model (1980). This approach employs a map of the world on which appears an inverted-tree diagram resembling the branching models of Indo-European. The Strevens approach has both synchronic and diachronic implications, its taxonomy recalling Darwin while its cartography points to the current global situation. Strevens divides English into a British English Branch and an American English Branch, making them first equal in the pecking order and, in effect, the mothers of the rest, with British having daughters in Africa, the Caribbean, South Asia, and Australia, and America in the Caribbean and Asia (McArthur, 1998, p. 95). The oldest map of English spreading is the World Map of English by Strevens.

D. McArthur’s Circle Model of World Englishes

![Figure 4.2: Tom McArthur’s Circle of World English (McArthur, 1987, p. 97).](image)

Tom McArthur’s wheel model showed up in July 1987 in English Today. One way of representing the unity and diversity of the English speaking world is the Circle of World English (McArthur, 1987). It has a wheel with a hub,
spokes, and rim. The centre (hub) is known as World Standard English. It contains regional varieties within an encircling band (McArthur, 1998). The idea of World English is placed at the centre, imagined as a 'common core'. Around it appears the various regional or national standards, either established or becoming established ('standardizing'). On the outside are examples of the wide range of popular Englishes which exist. Each boundary line could provoke an argument, as the author acknowledges, but the overall perspective is illuminating. A small selection of heads of state or government symbolizes the way Standard English is used worldwide in public roles (Crystal, 2003, p. 111).

E. Schneider’s Approach to World Englishes

It was Edgar Schneider (2003) who developed a fully-fledged substitute to the Three Circles of Kachru. In reality, Schneider’s ‘Postcolonial English Evolution Dynamic Model’ (2007), derived from the 'Dynamic Model of New English Evolution' (2003), explores cyclical English development processes in former British/American colonies. Additionally, the Dynamic model delineates how the histories and ecologies will decide language structures in the various English varieties, and how linguistic and social personalities are kept up. To be sure, this model is structured with the thought of Thomason’s (2001) language contact and the language evolution ecology of Mufwene (2001).

Schneider maintained that developments could be clustered into stages and were associated with two (or more) strands of communities, which ultimately followed a consensual path. So, there are two main features to this approach. First, five basic steps relate to (i) foundation, (ii) exonormative stabilization,(iii) nativisation, (iv) endonormative stabilization, and (v) four-parameter differenciation. Second, the two communicative viewpoints as encountered in these processes by the main parties of agents apply to the colonizer or settler or ‘STL strand’ and the colonized or indigenous or ‘IDG strand’. Each step is depicted beneath:

Figure 4.3 illustrates the five stages in a simple flow chart.

![Figure 4.3: Dynamic Model of Postcolonial English (Adapted from Schneider, 2007)](image)

F. Linguistic Aspects of Nativisation

Nativisation is the most influential phase in Schneider’s model when it moves from a dependence on a variety of parent to a non-native variety initiation. In this way, Schneider (2007, pp. 71-90) presents linguistic aspects of nativisation at phonological, lexical and grammatical stages. Etymologically, the vocabulary of Postcolonial English PE includes four formal nativisation processes as continues follow: (i) loanwords from native languages (ii) hybridization (iii) coinages and (iv) semantic changes. In general, such lexical nativisation procedures typically reflect the development of English in postcolonial countries.

G. Leitner’s Habitat Model

Through there is an impressive research history behind the Habitat Model, it was developed independently in Leitner (2004a/b) and applied to the language situation in Australia. One of the central objectives of the study of Australia’s language habitats was to develop an integrative approach or, as ecologists put it, a ‘holistic approach’. The objectives of this model can be mentioned as ‘an attempt to demonstrate how all communities fit in a general platform’. One must ignore sectionalizing and disregarding common characteristics, while at the same time giving differences due weight (Leitner, 2004a). All in all, this analysis considers and helps to balance key factors that influence an English development phenomenon in a bi/multilingual community (Leitner, 2010).

H. Trudgill and Hanna’s, Varieties of Standard English

Trudgill and Hanna’s (1982) Varieties of Standard English visualizes native varieties of Standard English that depend on the British and American sorts as far as lexis, sentence structure, articulation and orthography.

Trudgill and Hannah’s International English ([1982] 1994) is an expansion of a previous study by Hagues and Trudgill (1979), titled English accents and dialects, that included tape recordings, interpretations and a short linguistic review of a number of highly vernacular British urban dialects London, Walsall, Bristol, Pontypridd, Norwich, Bradford, Newcastle Liverpool, Bedfast, Edinburgh, among many others. However, there are a lot of inconsistencies between the International English and the previous volume. All so predominating are sections concerned with ‘inner-circle varieties, with somewhere in the range of 100 pages in the most recent version designated to ‘native-speaker varieties, and 30 dedicated to creoles and second-language varieties. The effects of this book through the World has been meaningful, both as a framework for methodology as well as for sociolinguistic teaching methods and coursework in World Englishes (Bolton, 2006).

Overall, this chapter has provided an overview of Kachru’s and Strevens’ approaches to World Englishes. Others have also been mentioned. In the study and interpretation of lexical borrowing features in World English print media,
all the adopted and adapted definitions theorized by the scholars are very crucial to fulfilling the integrated approach. Although Schneider’s the World Map, McArthur’s Circle of World English, Lettiner’s Habitat Model and Trudgill and Hanna’s Varieties of Standard English approaches are not applied to this study directly, their significant works are nevertheless acknowledged by many other researchers.

VI. CONCLUSION

As seen in a wide range of studies focused on the concepts and principles, the Kachruvian model for World Englishes news media is obviously also the most influential. Works of other scholars are not normally used. Furthermore, although this has been commonly known to researchers all over the world, it is not fair to study just the Kachruvian model. Therefore, this paper urges the scientific community to pay close attention to such mass media structures as alternatives to their World Englishes media analysis. This will boost the growth of World Englishes mass media research. All frameworks are significant as documented in this paper. These are certainly a lively representation of ongoing meanings, complexities and dimensions, as well as approaches and methods for interpreting and researching the news media of World Englishes. Our analyses and summaries here should encourage researchers searching for applications for our analytical or argumentative studies.

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