How a Global Model Can Positively Influence English Language Teachers

Christopher G. Haswell
Kyushu University
Aaron Hahn
Fukuoka University

Reference Data:
Haswell, C. G., & Hahn, A. (2016). How a global model can positively influence English language teachers. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & H. Brown (Eds.), *Focus on the learner*. Tokyo: JALT.

The study of the uses and varieties of the English language has become more complex and user focused over time. Historically, models produced to represent this have privileged nations who use English as a first language by making them the implicit source of the language. We argue that language models must account for context, individuals, language varieties (both shared and individual), and the overall comprehensibility of interaction. To aid all English language users, the Global Model discussed in this paper tracks English language use with reference to both speakers and language varieties and is designed to help teachers and students recognize the real-world linguistic landscape of global English use. We also suggest ways of teaching that help show that the most successful users of English should be considered to be those who can use English to bridge geographical, cultural, and discursive differences.

英語の使用と種類の研究は、時と共により複雑化し、使用者に焦点を合わせるようになっている。歴史的にみて、そのモデルになるのは第一言語として英語を使う特権的な国々で、言語のソースとなるものもその国々のものに限られている。特権的な。言語モデルは、コンテキスト、話す相手、言語の多様性、および会話の全般的な理解度など、さまざまな要素を示さなければならない。全ての英語ユーザーを支援するために、本論文で説明する「グローバルモデル」は、英語ユーザーと英語の多様性に着目しながら英語の使用について調査し、教師と学生が、現実的でグローバルな英語の使用を認識できる手助けになるように構成されている。また本論では、様々な指導方法を提案し、英語の使用者として成功するのは、地域や、文化などの違いを乗り越えて、英語を国際コミュニケーションのための言語として実際に生かして使用できる人々であることを示す。

The aim of linguistic models is to represent how a language has been or is currently being used. They can be limited to aspects of pronunciation, as in the case of phonologist Daniel Jones's 1922 model, or can describe the global spread of the language, as in the case of models produced by sociolinguists Peter Strevens (1980) and Braj Kachru (1985). These previous efforts to build an accurate model of English resulted in constructs that told part of the story but omitted one or more important aspects related to the language's complex sociolinguistic character. This complexity was well described by Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) in their work outlining a World Englishes curriculum:

> If a Chilean, an Indian, and an American attended a business meeting in Hong Kong, each participant might use a variety of English that they were most fluent in . . . . they are also likely to employ various strategies to negotiate linguistic and other differences to make themselves mutually intelligible and to communicate effectively (p. 333).

Our aim in this paper is to advocate a global model of English, one that accurately represents the use of English and allows for the display of several levels of linguistic activity at one time. First, previous models will be described along with their particular deficiencies. The criteria for a successful and accurate linguistic model, based on these past deficiencies, will then be outlined, and the Global Model will be explained. Finally, we will discuss how an acceptance of the Global Model can lead to an appreciation of the global nature of English and thus improve language learning.

Previous Models of English

Although the modeling of English goes back almost 100 years to Jones's "cone-shaped concept of a speech community" (Kachru, 1985, p. 24), the development and labeling of regionalized varieties of English in the later 20th century led to an increased interest in demonstrating the models graphically. Strevens's 1980 "Map-and-branch" model (Figure 1) had the two points of British English and American English from which, much as in a

family tree, the regionalized varieties were drawn, with the African, Asian (apart from the Philippines), and Caribbean varieties linked to British English, and the Canadian, other North American, and Philippines varieties linked on the American English side (Strevens, 1992). The model accurately represented the geographical links of English and hinted at the history of English language variety development. However, the model treated all non-British and non-American English varieties as subsequent to their supposed predecessors, in essence directly derived from the source variety. Streven's model also presented each location as having a definable variety. Despite the model's simplicity, it remained an important reference point for subsequent models.

Arguably the most famous sociolinguistic model of English is Kachru's (1985) "Three Circles" model. This model represented varieties of English as being derived from a pool of Inner Circle Englishes—those of Britain, the USA, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada (a larger pool than that of Strevens)—from which the English varieties of former colonies such as South Africa, Nigeria, India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and Singapore became the Outer Circle. The final Expanding Circle was every other country where English was used, which included places as distant from each other as, for example, Brazil, Germany, and Japan. This circle was so named as it was the only circle that could increase in size; the other two circles in the model were fixed by their history. This was perhaps the greatest flaw in the model: the labels Inner, Outer, or Expanding circle gave no information about the varieties themselves, meaning that Brazilian English and German English were treated as being the same level of development. These labels also considered every person within that circle as being of equal proficiency, or at least did not represent the possibility of individual deviation within a location. Kachru (1996) has since stated that the model was of its time and not applicable to the rapidly changing sociolinguistic landscape of English's position in the world. It has perhaps been criticized not for Kachru's intent but for its overuse (Park & Wee, 2009), for which Kachru was not responsible.

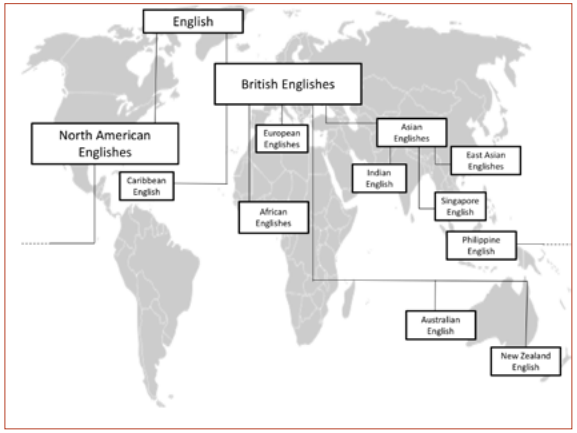

Figure 1. Strevens' map-and-branch model (adapted from Strevens, 1992).

Coming soon after Kachru's model were two "Wheel" models, one from McArthur (Figure 2) in 1987 (McArthur, 1998) and another from Gorlach in 1988 (Gorlach, 1990). They arrayed the varieties of English around a hub and categorized them geographically. These models actually broke from the idea of privileging inner-circle varieties such as U.S. and British Englishes by placing all of the varieties equidistant from the hub of the wheel (which represented a theoretical and undefined World Standard English). However, as in previous models, the users of the varieties were not represented—only the varieties themselves. The wheel models were an important development from the previous efforts as they represented the concept of English as a sociolinguistic entity rather than a monolithic language.

From this point forward, movement within the models became of increasing importance. Published in 1999, the Modiano "Centripetal Forces" model was so named for Modiano's (1999) suggestion that the most highly-valued users of English would be drawn to the center of a proficiency-based model. This model was also different from previous models in that it had the user of the language as the item being categorized and tracked rather than the location or variety being used. The concept of user movement within the model was continued by Yano's (2001) "Cylinder" model (Figure 3), which tracked linguistic performance within a cylinder that represented the depth of contextualization of the user's speech. The more localized, and therefore the less comprehensible, the variety or user would be to an English user from a different location, the longer the cylinder became. In this way, the English varieties with the longest histories or the most localized grammar and lexis would have the longest cylinders. The contextualized areas

Figure 2. MacArthur's wheel model (adapted from MacArthur, 1998).

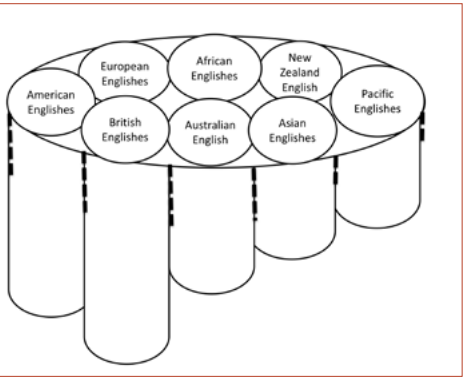

Figure 3. Yano's cylinder model (adapted from Yano, 2001).

of the variety, the mid- and lower sections of the cylinder, were represented as being impermeable. In contrast, in the very top section of the cylinder, which contained users and varieties that would be most intelligible across a variety of contexts, the demarcation between varieties was described as "loose and therefore not distinct" (Yano, 2001, p. 124). By this, Yano meant that grammatical features, pronunciation features, and lexical items could theoretically be passed from one variety to another. Both of these models were significantly more complex than prior models, were dynamic rather than static, and began the move towards tracking not only varieties but also individual users.

Published in 2007, Schneider's "Dynamic" model detailed the stages whereby varieties of English pass from highly-contextualized, oft-changing local varieties to stable varieties capable of being used as a standard for an entire nation or region. The stages were named *foundation*, *exonormative stabilization*, *nativization*, *endonormative stabilization* and finally *differentiation* (p. 30). At each stage, Schneider identified particular sociocultural, identity-based, and sociolinguistic conditions that could be observed. Schneider's model again focused on the varieties themselves and looked ultimately at the state of nation-sized varieties. The dynamism of the Schneider model was adopted by Park and Wee (2009) in their "Market Forces" model, which attempted to quantify the relative value of English varieties to users based upon the economic and social value that a user might obtain by being proficient in that particular variety. For example, in some contexts, local vernacular lexis might increase both intelligibility and social standing, which would lead that variety to be privileged, but in other contexts one or more external varieties (the so-called "native speaker norms") might have more cachet and thus might render those varieties more valuable. Park and Wee modeled English language variety within the field of and via the metaphor of economics. In so doing, Park and Wee's model can be viewed as representing how the language is experienced by its users, rather than just the story of how the language came to be used in that particular location.

From the examples of the models thus far produced, it is clear that the modeling of English has moved from static models of mostly historical information to dynamic models that focus on the ongoing development of the variety, the user, or both. Our criteria for a model to move this field forward emerged from a review of this previous work. The model has to be able to represent not only language varieties but also individual users, whilst still providing a context for the language in use; the model should not favour one variety over another, but instead should demonstrate the variability of English without diminishing the value of individual users or varieties; and the model should be able to adapt over time, rather than report previously observed changes.

In an attempt to address these criteria, Haswell (2013) represented the "Global Model" by a sphere with three zones (see Figure 4). The outer surface roughly corresponds to the surface of the earth, meaning that regionally specific varieties of English are represented in their geopolitical location. Additionally, the outer core is the place where transnational varieties are represented, with each variety occupying a volume proportionate to factors such as its number of users and socioeconomic influence. Varieties can be mapped on both the surface and the outer core, but the inner core contains no varieties. Rather, it is a space into which the most proficient users are drawn centripetally, as in Modiano's model. This core thus represents communicative skills including both the ability to modulate one's own speech as well as to see past the idiosyncrasies of one's interlocutor's varieties towards the embedded messages; thus, users with maps extended into the inner core can readily communicate with users originating from a wide number of linguistic contexts on numerous topics. One way of viewing the model is to imagine the outer core as the upper section of the cylinders of Yano's model, with the hub and wheels of the MacArthur and Gorlach models extrapolated into three dimensions (though with the distinction that this model contains no so-called "Global Standard English" at its core). The Global Model therefore aligns with Jenkins's (2009) position on the use of English as a lingua franca, in that English is being used as "the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different lingua-cultural backgrounds" (p. 200). It represents how the language is used, not what specific form of the language is being utilized.

However, as previously stated, we believe that a model that represents only varieties and not individuals has insufficient explanatory power. In the Global Model, each user has access to a volume of space mapped within the sphere representing the various Englishes and English skills that they are capable of employing in communicative acts. A new user of the language will have access to a small volume that will be centered around the language variety they are first being exposed to, whether that is a local language for a user learning English as a functional language, especially as a mother tongue, or some sort of academic or other formal English obtained via textbooks or other language learning programs for those who acquire the language primarily through formal education (those who are commonly called second-language learners). As a user acquires the ability to use the language with more people and on a greater number of topics, this is represented in the model as the person's "language space" expanding; it will likely move both towards other local varieties as well as towards the core as the user picks up more general strategic competence. When two users attempt to communicate, if they are able to find a space where their language spaces overlap that contains the linguistic content they wish to express, communication will be possible.

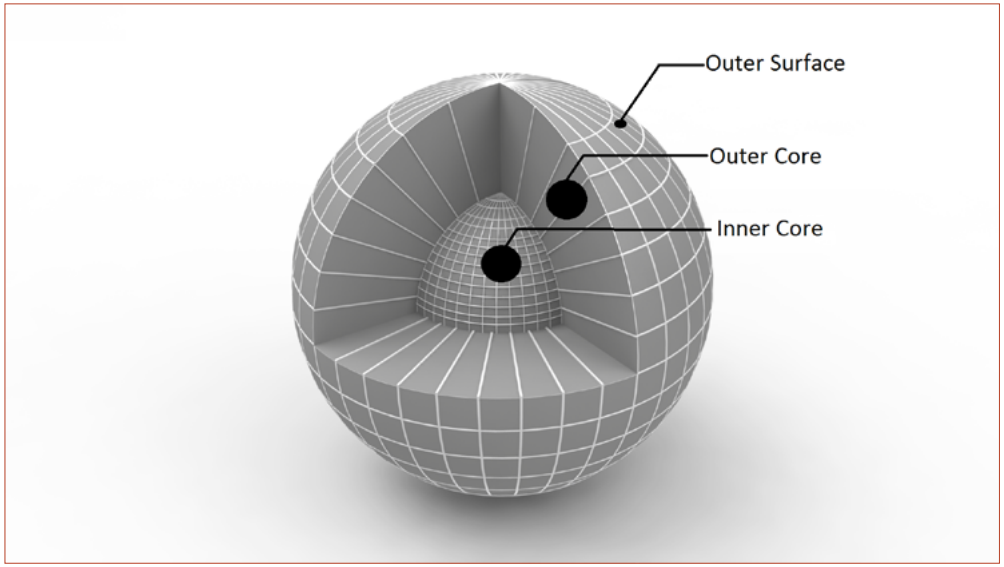

Figure 4. The global model of English.

The concepts of English as an international language (EIL) and English as a lingua franca (ELF) require a mindset that recognizes English usage as being only cursorily connected to geography, although still recognizing (as Park & Wee demonstrated) that socioeconomic forces linked to current and historical systems of inequity have an effect on the array and interplay of English language varieties. The Global Model of English is intended to be a concept that students, teachers, and policy-makers alike can picture when making decisions about how to approach the transnational nature of the language.

The Benefits of the Approach Represented by the Model

We believe that foregrounding this model both when designing classes and when teaching has a number of practical benefits for everyone connected with the language learning process.

First, use of this model involves a recognition that, especially in a country like Japan where English plays an important role in international communication and business but is not generally the language of daily life, the ability to access multiple varieties of English results in greater success as a language user. The model does this while acknowledging that varieties with more prestige due to historical geopolitical factors can be of greater value in specific contexts. In fact, the ability to account for context is one of the Global Model's greatest strengths. Each time two users attempt to communicate, they will be successful insofar as they are able to find a space within the model that both of them have access to and that contains sufficient linguistic contents to cover the specific topic they wish to discuss. Thus, it represents, where prior models could not, that the potential for communication hinges not on which varieties of English a user first learned or know best, but on the breadth of varieties and strategic competencies to which they[1] have access.

Second, focusing on this model makes it clear why the concern over whether or not to teach specific varieties of English (e.g., "Should students learn more about Singlish?") is moot—the learning experience, instead, should always be focused on what gives students the maximum amount of communicative access (the largest map, especially a map that extends into the inner core) for their specific needs. In the context of Japan, this means that although students do not necessarily need to learn American English or British English, many of them do need to learn *TOEIC English*, as the extremely important role that TOEIC plays in hiring and promotions in Japanese companies (Hamada, 2008) means it plays an oversized role in Japanese students' future lives. At the same time, these students are also certainly going to need access to Japanese English as well as other local national and transnational Asian varieties if they expect to communicate internationally.

Third, the model demonstrates in a readily visible way why many traditional language curricula in Japan result in learners who are insufficiently able to engage in cross-cultural communication despite large amounts of invested study time. In these traditional curricula, the goal is usually defined as either British English or American English—we can see this in textbooks that specifically label themselves as targeting one of these two varieties (for example, the Macmillan English catalog found at <http://www.macmillanenglish.com/our-catalogue> allows customers to sort by "Types of English" with American and British English being the two choices offered). Looking at the model, we can see that what these curricula ask students to do is to relocate from one space on the surface of the sphere to a different space somewhere else on the surface. Not only is this likely impossible for almost all students, it is one of the longest paths learners could take to gain the ability to communicate with speakers of that variety. The model instead implies that the goal of teachers is to help a student expand their "map" (the visual representation in three dimensions of the varieties and linguistic facilities to which they have access). Expanding through the middle of the sphere is a more direct route (even to a distant "privileged" variety); additionally, each such expansion significantly increases the number of users a speaker can successfully interact with. As a corollary to this realignment of priorities, use of teaching techniques consistent with the Global Model also help lower a key

affective barrier. When American English, for example, is held up as the ideal, students will inevitably fall short—and, given enough instances of failure, may come to believe that they are simply not good at English. Instead, by making the goal more about communicative ability and providing a specific set of achievable subgoals such as the can-do statements that feature in the CEFR (note that there is no reasonable subgoal between Japanese and English or between Japanese English and American English), students can see progress and maintain a positive attitude towards learning English (of all varieties).

Following from this last point, it is important to note that although this model is intended to benefit both teachers and students, it is designed to do so primarily by changing the attitudes of teachers. That is to say, this model is not methodologically prescriptive—it does not tell language learners how to speak, listen, read, or write. Instead, it is an attempt to describe language use *as it is*. On the other hand, acceptance of the model is intended to prescribe certain aspects of teacher or administrator behavior by moving towards a different focus in language education.

Improving and Testing Intercultural Competencies Within University Course Syllabi

Were the Global Model to be adopted as a framework for the learning and teaching of English, it would mean that confident completion of communication tasks would be valued more highly than grammatical, morphological, phonetic, or other types of formal accuracy. That is not to say that accuracy would not be attended to; utterances that are largely grammatically inaccurate are likely to be incomprehensible. However, the interlocutors would focus more of their energies on being understood than on being judged by observers external to the context (yet not ignoring cases where students must be directed to a specific exonormative standard, as when they are required to pass tests designed on specific nonlocal standards). This might include a focus on communicative strategies like repair strategies, an emphasis on increasing the length rather than the accuracy of utterances, the use of input from numerous English varieties, a movement away from pronunciation exercises that allegedly get students to speak with a so-called native-like accent, or all of these.

Although simply attending to a new model of English varieties is not enough to transform English education, a number of recent studies have suggested that there is a possibility for improvement by designing curricula with a global focus. In a repetition in 2002 of a 1994 study (Shim, 1994) of English teachers in Korea, Shim (2002) found that, although the majority continued to favor American English as a model, over the 8 years between the two studies, there had been in increase in the appreciation of Korean English. In a recent work, Ahn (2014) suggested that there are "conflicted and mixed attitudes" (p. 205) regarding the use of Korean English, which most participants in the study conflated with Konglish (p. 203). A similar finding to that of Shim—that American English was the preferred teaching model but that it could be supplemented with aspects of localized performance—was made in a study by Xu (2009) in China. No similar findings have been made in Japan: Garrett (2009) concluded that U.S. and British English were still the most favored. However, investigations at Japanese universities that specialize in World Englishes (D'Angelo, 2012) and Japanese international universities (Haswell, 2014) have found that greater experience with localized performance varieties can lead to lower anxiety in their use. There still does appear to be a long way to go to improve the appreciation of localized performance of English, particularly in East Asia.

Although attempts to adopt a more communicative approach to language teaching at the junior and senior high school in Japan have been attempted, they have been mostly unsuccessful, with an oft-cited reason being insufficient training and support by the Ministry of Education (Sarich, 2013; Tahira, 2012). Rather than simply telling teachers to teach communicatively, helping them see the global nature of modern English via tools such as the Global Model can help teachers appreciate the underlying principles of the proposed changes.

In addition to the classroom suggestions given above, we would like to make two other suggestions that could be offered outside (or in conjunction with) the classroom to encourage an appreciation of English language use such as that represented by the Global Model. First, in universities with a measurable number of international students, workshops that place students of various linguistic backgrounds together to work through a series of discussions could be offered to or required of students. If desired, the focus groups could be supervised or otherwise recorded, with performance being the basis for a part of their grades. Focus groups have proven to be successful in eliciting opinions from research subjects (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005), so re-engineering the concept of the focus group to facilitate intercultural communication for a common goal is one option for educational institutions with the necessary student populations. Second, universities could support circles that conduct all or much of their activities in English. By providing organizational support but allowing students primary control over the circles, universities could enable spaces where students could experience transcultural and trans-linguistic activities within a framework students and administrators are already familiar with.

Conclusion

As stated by Hamid (2014) in his review of the current state of globalized English and sociolinguistics,

> Essentially, WE [World Englishes] posit that: (1) there exists a repertoire of models for English, not just the "native speaker" varieties; (2) localized innovations in English which have local pragmatic and sociocultural bases deserve recognition; and (3) the ownership of English lies with all those who use it. (p. 265)

We believe that conceptualizing English language variety via the Global Model can provide teachers and administrators with a visual representation of English that will drive them to always place an internationalized communicative outlook at the forefront of their planning and their classrooms. By leaving behind earlier models, we can make it possible for students to take ownership of English and see themselves as full participants in global language development. Given the ubiquity of prior models, and how much they undergird attitudes both in and out of the classroom, we anticipate that such changes are likely to take decades to generations and will be the consequence of sociopolitical forces from beyond the English classroom rather than from within it. Nonetheless, we feel that shifting to the mindset represented by the Global Model can be a valuable tool for educators who wish to be an active part of the process of realigning what English means and how it is used in all contexts.

Note

1. In this paper, *they* and *their* are used as singular pronouns that do not specify gender.

Bio Data

Christopher Haswell is an associate professor at Kyushu University in Fukuoka, Japan. His research focus is Asian sociolinguistics relating to the internationalization of university education. <haswell247@gmail.com>

Aaron Hahn is a lecturer at Fukuoka University in Fukuoka, Japan. His current research includes English language modeling and discourse analysis of TESOL scholarly publications. <aaronhahn@hotmail.com>

References

Ahn, H. (2014). Teachers' attitudes towards Korean English in South Korea. *World Englishes, 33,* 195-222. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/weng.12081

D'Angelo, J. F. (2012). WE-informed EIL curriculum at Chukyo: Towards a functional, educated, multilingual outcome. In A. Matsuda (Ed.), *Principles and practices of teaching English as an international language* (pp. 121-139). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Garrett, P. (2009). Attitudes in Japan and China towards Australian, Canadian, New Zealand, UK, and US Englishes. In T. Kristiansen, M. Maegaard, F. Gregersen, P. Quist, & N. Jørgensen (Eds.), *Language attitudes, standardization and language change* (pp. 273-295). Oslo, Norway: Novus.

Gorlach, M. (1990). *Studies in the history of the English language*. Heidelberg, Germany: Carl Winter.

Hamada, T. (2008). Globalization and the new meanings of the foreign executive in Japan. In N. Graburn, J. Erti, & K. Tierney (Eds.), *Multiculturalism in the new Japan: Crossing the boundaries within* (pp. 43-62). New York, NY: Berghahn Books.

Hamid, M. O. (2014). World Englishes in international proficiency tests. *World Englishes, 33,* 263-277. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/weng.12084

Haswell, C. G. (2013). A global model of English. *Asia Pacific World, 4*(2), 122-137.

Haswell, C. G. (2014). Issues related to the internationalizing of Japanese universities. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2013 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 28-37). Tokyo: JALT.

Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp. 11-30). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1996). World Englishes: Agony and ecstasy. *Journal of Aesthetic Education, 30*(2), 135-155. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3333196.

Kamberelis, G., & Dimitriades, G. (2005). Focus groups: Strategic articulations of pedagogy, politics, and inquiry. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.; pp. 887-908). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Jenkins, J. (2009). English as a lingua franca: Interpretations and attitudes. *World Englishes, 28,* 200-207.

Jones, D. (1922). *An outline of English phonetics* (2nd ed.). Leipzig, Germany: B. G. Teubner.

Matsuda, A., & Friedrich, B. (2011). English as an international language: A curriculum blueprint. *World Englishes, 30,* 332-344.

McArthur, T. (1998). *The English languages.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Modiano, M. (1999). Standard English(es) and educational practices for the world's lingua franca. *English Today, 15*(4), 3-13. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0266078400011196

Park, J. S.-Y., & Wee, L. (2009). The three circles redux: A market-theoretic perspective on world Englishes. *Applied Linguistics, 30,* 389-406. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp008

Sarich, E. (2013). Obstacles to English education reform in Japan. *Shizuoka University of Art and Culture Research Bulletin, 14*, 65-70. Retrieved from <https://suac.repo.nii.ac.jp/?action=pages_view_main&active_action=repository_view_main_item_detail&item_id=996&item_no=1&page_id=15&block_id=18>

Schneider, E. W. (2007). *Postcolonial English: Varieties around the world*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Shim, J. R. (1994). Englishized Korean: Structure, status, and attitudes. *World Englishes, 13,* 225-244. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971x.1994.tb00309.x

Shim, J. R. (2002). Changing attitudes toward TEWOL in Korea. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication, 12*(2). 143-158. http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/japc.12.1.09shi

Strevens, P. (1992). English as an international language. In B. B. Kachru (Ed.), *The other tongue: English across cultures* (pp. 27-47). Urbana: University of Illinois.

Tahira, M. (2012). Behind MEXT's new course of study guidelines. *The Language Teacher, 36*(3), 3-8.

Xu, Z. (2009). Linguistic, cultural and identity issues in Englishization of Putonghua. In K.-K. Tam (Ed.), *Englishization in Asia: Language and cultural issues* (pp. 119-139). Hong Kong, China: Open University of Hong Kong Press.

Yano, Y. (2001). World Englishes in 2000 and beyond. *World Englishes, 20*, 119-132. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-971X.00204