



The Journey of the English Language from Local to Global Level in the Indian Continent

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ABSTRACT: English is a European language. It came to India when the British came here. It was with the Royal Charter given to English East India Company to do business in India by the then Queen of England, that the English for the first time felt the urgency of having some Indians with them who would know the language of English or at least be able to get themselves involved in some basic communication in English. They felt that this would smoothen the process of operations in India and also make themselves more acceptable in India. Thus, started the journey of English as a language in India and which has been going on still now. With the passage of time English grew to be one of the most important languages of India.

KEYWORDS-journey,English,global,Indian,continent,language

I. INTRODUCTION

Language which has been considered man's most remarkable achievement, is so much a part of our lives, that very often we take it for granted and as often are not aware of its characteristic features. Language is a system. Indian English (originated from and therefore related to British English) is the dialect of the English language spoken in the Republic of India and among the Indian diaspora elsewhere in the world. English has a status of associate language, but in fact, it is the most important language of India. After Hindi, it is the most commonly spoken language in India and probably the most read and written language in India. English in India is used not only for communicating with the outside world but also for inter-state and intrastate communication. English symbolizes in Indians' minds, better education, better culture, and higher intellect. English is very important in some systems – legal, financial, educational, and business in India.

The English language set foot in India with the granting of the East India Company charter by Queen Elizabeth I in 1600 and the subsequent establishment of trading ports in coastal cities such as Surat, Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. English language public instruction began in India in the 1830s during the rule of the East India Company. In 1835, English replaced Persian as the official language of the Company.[1,2,3] Thomas Babington better known as Lord Macaulay played a major role in introducing English and western concepts of education in India. He supported the replacement of Persian by English as the official language, the use of English as the medium of instruction in all schools, and the training of English-speaking Indians as teachers. Throughout the 1840s and 1850s, primary, middle, and high schools were opened in many districts of British India, with most high-schools offering English language instruction in some subjects. In 1857, just before the end of Company rule, universities modeled on the University of London and using English as the medium of instruction were established in Bombay, Calcutta, and Madras. During the British Raj, lasting from 1858 to 1947, English language penetration increased throughout India. This was driven in part by the gradually increasing hiring of Indians in the civil services. At the time of India's independence in 1947, English was the only functional lingua franca in the country. The view of the English language among many Indians has gone from associating it with colonialism to associating it with economic progress, and English continues to be an official language of India.[5,7,8]

II. DISCUSSION

The British arrived in India in the early 17th century in the form of the East India Company (EIC), more interested in trade than imperial possession. The company at that time needed employees to learn local languages, so they could negotiate the best deals and ensure their agents were not diverting profit into their own pockets. That situation changed at each renewal of the EIC's charter, often reflecting changing domestic politics in Britain. By the early 19th century the 'core business' of the company shifted from trade to managing India on behalf of the British Crown. MACAULAY'S MINUTE For many educated Indians, one name is remembered from this period – Thomas Babington Macaulay. In 1835, as law officer to the Supreme Council, he drafted a document which has become known as 'Macaulay's Minute on Education'. In this he appears to deprecate the value of Indian languages, elevate the qualities



of English, and declare that English should henceforth become the medium of education in India. Not all, however, is as it seems. Macaulay was adjudicating on a narrow legal point: whether the money set aside in the Company's 1813 charter renewal for public instruction could be diverted from supporting classical Indian languages to funding the diffusion of 'useful knowledge' through English. Both sides of the argument – 'Anglicists' and 'Orientalists' – were concerned only with 'higher studies'. [9,10,11] That is why Macaulay at one point says: it is impossible for us, with our limited means, to attempt to educate the body of the people. We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern – a class of persons Indian in blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intellect. but goes on to say: To that class we may leave it to refine the vernacular dialects of the country, to enrich those dialects with terms of science borrowed from the Western nomenclature, and to render them by degrees fit vehicles for conveying knowledge to the great mass of the population. Mass education was yet to come, both in India and in England, where Charles Dickens had not yet published his first novel. In the first annual report submitted by the Committee of Public Instruction to the government after the resolution to introduce English-medium education, the matter was explained: We are deeply sensible of the importance of encouraging the cultivation of the vernacular languages. We do not conceive that the order ... precludes us from doing this ... the claims of the vernacular languages were broadly and prominently admitted by all parties, and the question submitted for the decision of government only concerned the relative advantage of teaching English on the one side, and the learned eastern languages on the other. Macaulay's Minute, far from being a central one in the history of English-medium education in India, really deserves little more than a footnote. [12,13,15] Macaulay's biographer, John Clive (1973) suggests that 'much of the battle over English education had, in fact, been fought and won before Macaulay ever set foot in India'. Focus on the Minute has distracted generations from understanding the wider socio-economic and political context in which English rapidly became so dominant in India. AFTER 1833 The 1833 charter renewal was pivotal in the history of the East India Company. Before, it had been a trading company, albeit with a growing role in administering territories under its control. But the 1833 charter divested it of trading activity, making it little more than an administrative agency for the British Crown. The Governor-General, Lord Bentinck, was sent to prepare the company for the change by cutting administrative costs. He intended to employ local clerks to replace the 'writers' who had been shipped out at great expense from Britain. Unfortunately, he found a shortage of local 'English speaking talent', so Bentinck needed to help the seminaries improve the 'employability skills' of their graduates. Who wanted english? Apart from this rather practical and economic need, it seems the British had little desire to impose English on India, though the Anglicists themselves had differing motives. Macaulay was keen to bring into India ideas from modern science and technology, which had begun to transform European society and economies, and he saw English as the vehicle. But British administrators championed vernacular education and largely resisted local pressure to fund more English schools. However, the shift to local recruitment in the EIC after 1833 meant that well-paid new jobs became available throughout India to English speakers in public service. This alone ensured that higher education became largely English-medium. The British thus successfully created an English-speaking elite. Lord Bentinck was one of the first to imagine India as becoming one day an integrated national entity. Macaulay himself seemed convinced that British efforts to improve Indian education would eventually result in independence – the loss of the American colonies 50 years earlier was fresh in political memory. But, as Macaulay put it bluntly in a speech to the House of Commons in 1833, before he left Britain for India, 'To trade with civilised men is infinitely more profitable than to govern savages'. [17,18,19]

III. RESULTS

Old English

The Jutes, Angles, and Saxons lived in Jutland, Schleswig, and Holstein, respectively, before settling in Britain. According to the Venerable Bede, the first historian of the English people, the first Jutes, Hengist and Horsa, landed at Ebbsfleet in the Isle of Thanet in 449; and the Jutes later settled in Kent, southern Hampshire, and the Isle of Wight. The Saxons occupied the rest of England south of the Thames, as well as modern Middlesex and Essex. The Angles eventually took the remainder of England as far north as the Firth of Forth, including the future Edinburgh and the Scottish Lowlands. In both Latin and Common Germanic the Angles' name was Angli, later mutated in Old English to Engle (nominative) and Engla (genitive). Engla land designated the home of all three tribes collectively, and both King Alfred (known as Alfred the Great) and Abbot Aelfric, author and grammarian, subsequently referred to their speech as Englisc. Nevertheless, all the evidence indicates that Jutes, Angles, and Saxons retained their distinctive dialects. [20,21,22]



Old English dialects: distribution

The River Humber was an important boundary, and the Anglian-speaking region developed two speech groups: to the north of the river, Northumbrian, and, to the south, Southumbrian, usually referred to as Mercian. There were thus four dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish. In the 8th century, the Northumbrian speech group led in literature and culture, but that leadership was destroyed by the Viking invaders, who sacked Lindisfarne, an island near the Northumbrian mainland, in 793. They landed in strength in 865. The first raiders were Danes, but they were later joined by Norwegians from Ireland and the Western Isles who settled in modern Cumberland, Westmorland, northwest Yorkshire, Lancashire, north Cheshire, and the Isle of Man. In the 9th century, as a result of the Norwegian invasions, cultural leadership passed from Northumbria to Wessex. During King Alfred’s reign, in the last three decades of the 9th century, Winchester became the chief centre of learning. There the Parker Chronicle (a manuscript of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle) was written; there the Latin works of the priest and historian Paulus Orosius, St. Augustine, St. Gregory, and the Venerable Bede were translated; and there the native poetry of Northumbria and Mercia was transcribed into the West Saxon dialect. This resulted in West Saxon’s becoming “standard Old English.” About a century later, when Aelfric wrote his lucid and mature prose at Winchester, Cerne Abbas, and Eynsham, the hegemony of Wessex was strengthened.[23,25,27]

In standard Old English, adjectives, nouns, pronouns, and verbs were fully inflected. Nouns were inflected for four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative) in singular and plural. Five nouns of first kinship—faeder, mōdor, brōthor, sweostor, and dohtor (“father,” “mother,” “brother,” “sister,” and “daughter,” respectively)—had their own set of inflections. There were 25 nouns such as mon, men (“man,” “men”) with mutated, or unlauted, stems. Adjectives had strong and weak declensions, the strong showing a mixture of noun and pronoun endings and the weak following the pattern of weak nouns. Personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite, and relative pronouns had full inflections. The pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons still had distinctive dual forms:

iċ “I” wit “we two” wē “we”

thū (þū) “thou” ġit “you two” ġē “you”

There were two demonstratives: sē, sēo, thaet, meaning “that,” and thes, thēos, this, meaning “this,” but no articles, the definite article being expressed by use of the demonstrative for “that” or not expressed at all. Thus, “the good man” was sē gōða mon or plain gōd mon. The function of the indefinite article was performed by the numeral ān “one” in ān mon “a man,” by the adjective-pronoun sum in sum mon “a (certain) man,” or not expressed, as in thū eart gōd mon “you are a good man.”[28,29,30]



Verbs had two tenses only (present-future and past), three moods (indicative, subjunctive, and imperative), two numbers (singular and plural), and three persons (1st, 2nd, and 3rd). There were two classes of verb stems. (A verb stem is that part of a verb to which inflectional changes—changes indicating tense, mood, number, etc.—are added.) One type of verb stem, called vocalic because an internal vowel shows variations, is exemplified by the verb for “sing”: *singan*, *singth*, *sang*, *sunгон*, *gesungen*. The word for “deem” is an example of the other, called consonantal: *dēman*, *dēnth*, *dēnde*, *dēndon*, *gedēmed*. Such verbs are called strong and weak, respectively.

All new verbs, whether derived from existing verbs or from nouns, belonged to the consonantal type. Some verbs of great frequency (antecedents of the modern words *be*, *shall*, *will*, *do*, *can*, *may*, and so on) had their own peculiar patterns of inflections.

Grammatical gender persisted throughout the Old English period. Just as Germans now say *der Fuss*, *die Hand*, and *das Auge* (masculine, feminine, and neuter terms for “the foot,” “the hand,” and “the eye”), so, for these same structures, Aelfric said *sē fōt*, *sēo hond*, and *thæt ēāge*, also masculine, feminine, and neuter. The three words for “woman,” *wīfmon*, *cwene*, and *wīf*, were masculine, feminine, and neuter, respectively. *Hors* “horse,” *scēap* “sheep,” and *maegden* “maiden” were all neuter. *Eorthe* “earth” was feminine, but *lond* “land” was neuter. *Sunne* “sun” was feminine, but *mōna* “moon” was masculine. This simplification of grammatical gender resulted from the fact that the gender of Old English substantives was not always indicated by the ending but rather by the terminations of the adjectives and demonstrative pronouns used with the substantives. When these endings were lost, all outward marks of gender disappeared with them. Thus, the weakening of inflections and loss of gender occurred together. In the North, where inflections weakened earlier, the marks of gender likewise disappeared first. They survived in the South as late as the 14th century.

Because of the greater use of inflections in Old English, word order was freer than today. The sequence of subject, verb, and complement was normal, but when there were outer and inner complements the second was put in the dative case after *to*: *Sē biscop hālgode Ēadrēd tō cyninge* “The bishop consecrated Edred king.” After an introductory adverb or adverbial phrase the verb generally took second place as in modern German: *Nū bydde ic ān thing* “Now I ask [literally, “ask I”] one thing”; *Thy ilcan gēare gesette Aelfrēd cyning Lundenburg* “In that same year Alfred the king occupied London.” Impersonal verbs had no subject expressed. Infinitives constructed with auxiliary verbs were placed at the ends of clauses or sentences: *Hie ne dorston forth bī thære ēa siglan* “They dared not sail beyond that river” (*siglan* is the infinitive); *Ic wolde thās lytlan bōc āwenden* “I wanted to translate this little book” (*āwenden* is the infinitive). The verb usually came last in a dependent clause—e.g., *āwritan wile in gif hwā thās bōc āwritan wile* (*gerihtē hē hie be thære bysene*) “If anyone wants to copy this book (let him correct his copy by the original).” Prepositions (or postpositions) frequently followed their objects. Negation was often repeated for emphasis.[31,32,33]

Middle English



Middle English dialects



One result of the Norman Conquest of 1066 was to place all four Old English dialects more or less on a level. West Saxon lost its supremacy, and the centre of culture and learning gradually shifted from Winchester to London. The old Northumbrian dialect became divided into Scottish and Northern, although little is known of either of these divisions before the end of the 13th century. The old Mercian dialect was split into East and West Midland. West Saxon became slightly diminished in area and was more appropriately named the South Western dialect. The Kentish dialect was considerably extended and was called South Eastern accordingly. All five Middle English dialects (Northern, West Midland, East Midland, South Western, and South Eastern) went their own ways and developed their own characteristics. The so-called Katherine Group of writings (c. 1180–1210), associated with Hereford, a town not far from the Welsh border, adhered most closely to native traditions, and there is something to be said for regarding this West Midland dialect, least disturbed by French and Scandinavian intrusions, as a kind of Standard English in the High Middle Ages.

Another outcome of the Norman Conquest was to change the writing of English from the clear and easily readable insular hand of Irish origin to the delicate Carolingian script then in use on the Continent. With the change in appearance came a change in spelling. Norman scribes wrote Old English y as u, \bar{y} as ui, \bar{u} as ou (ow when final). Thus, mycel (“much”) appeared as muchel, fȳr (“fire”) as fuir, hūs (“house”) as hous, and hū (“how”) as how. For the sake of clarity (i.e., legibility) u was often written o before and after m, n, u, v, and w; and i was sometimes written y before and after m and n. So sunu (“son”) appeared as sone and him (“him”) as hym. Old English cw was changed to qu; hw to wh, qu, or quh; \dot{c} to ch or tch; \dot{s} to sh; $\dot{c}\dot{g}$ - to -gg-; and -ht to ght. So Old English cwēn appeared as queen; hwaet as what, quat, or quhat; dīc as ditch; scīp as ship; secge as segge; and miht as might.

For the first century after the Conquest, most loanwords came from Normandy and Picardy, but with the extension south to the Pyrenees of the Angevin empire of Henry II (reigned 1154–89), other dialects, especially Central French, or Francien, contributed to the speech of the aristocracy. As a result, Modern English acquired the forms canal, catch, leal, real, reward, wage, warden, and warrant from Norman French side by side with the corresponding forms channel, chase, loyal, royal, regard, gage, guardian, and guarantee, from Francien. King John lost Normandy in 1204. With the increasing power of the Capetian kings of Paris, Francien gradually predominated. Meanwhile, Latin stood intact as the language of learning. For three centuries, therefore, the literature of England was trilingual. Ancrene Riwele, for instance, a guide or rule (riwle) of rare quality for recluses or anchorites (ancren), was disseminated in all three languages.[35,37,38]

The sounds of the native speech changed slowly. Even in late Old English short vowels had been lengthened before ld, rd, mb, and nd, and long vowels had been shortened before all other consonant groups and before double consonants. In early Middle English short vowels of whatever origin were lengthened in the open stressed syllables of disyllabic words. An open syllable is one ending in a vowel. Both syllables in Old English nama “name,” mete “meat, food,” nosu “nose,” wicu “week,” and duru “door” were short, and the first syllables, being stressed, were lengthened to nāme, mēte, nōse, wēke, and dōre in the 13th and 14th centuries. A similar change occurred in 4th-century Latin, in 13th-century German, and at different times in other languages. The popular notion has arisen that final mute -e in English makes a preceding vowel long; in fact, it is the lengthening of the vowel that has caused e to be lost in pronunciation. On the other hand, Old English long vowels were shortened in the first syllables of trisyllabic words, even when those syllables were open; e.g., hāligdaeg “holy day,” ærende “message, errand,” crīstendōm “Christianity,” and sūtherne “southern” became hōliday (Northern hāliday), ērende, chrīstendom, and sūtherne. This principle still operates in current English. Compare, for example, trisyllabic derivatives such as the words chastity, criminal, fabulous, gradual, gravity, linear, national, ominous, sanity, and tabulate with the simple nouns and adjectives chaste, crime, fable, grade, grave, line, nation, omen, sane, and table.

There were significant variations in verb inflections in the Northern, Midland, and Southern dialects, as shown in the table comparing the word sing across these dialects. The Northern infinitive was already one syllable (sing rather than the Old English singan), whereas the past participle -en inflection of Old English was strictly kept. These apparently contradictory features can be attributed entirely to Scandinavian, in which the final -n of the infinitive was lost early in singa, and the final -n of the past participle was doubled in sunginn. The Northern unmutated present participle in -and was also of Scandinavian origin. Old English mutated -ende (German -end) in the present participle had already become -inde in late West Saxon, and it was this Southern -inde that blended with the -ing suffix (German -ung) of nouns of action that had already become near-gerunds in such compound nouns as athswering “oath swearing” and writingfether “writing feather, pen.” This blending of present participle and gerund was further helped by the fact that Anglo-Norman and French -ant was itself a coalescence of Latin present participles in -antem, -entem, and Latin gerunds in -andum, -endum. The Northern second person singular singis was inherited unchanged from Common Germanic. The final t sound in Midland -est and Southern -st was excrement (added without any etymological reason),



comparable with the final t in modern amidst and amongst from older amiddes and amonges. [39]The Northern third-person singular singis had a quite different origin. Like the singis of the plural, it resulted almost casually from an inadvertent retraction of the tongue in enunciation from an interdental -th sound to postdental -s. In Modern English the form singeth survives as a poetic archaism. Shakespeare used both -eth and -s endings (“It [mercy] blesseth him that gives and him that takes,” The Merchant of Venice). The Midland present plural inflection -en was taken from the subjunctive. The past participle prefix y- developed from the Old English perfective prefix ge-.

Variations in verb inflections

	Northern	Midland	Southern
infinitive	sing	singe(n)	singen
present participle	singand	singende	singinde
present singular			
1st person	singe	singe	singe
2nd person	singis	singes(t)	singst
3rd person	singis	singeth-es	singeth
present plural	singis	singen	singeth
past participle	sungen	(y)sunge(n)	ysunge

Chaucer, who was born and died in London, spoke a dialect that was basically East Midland. Compared with his contemporaries, he was remarkably modern in his use of language. He was in his early 20s when the Statute of Pleading (1362) was passed, by the terms of which all court proceedings were henceforth to be conducted in English, though “enrolled in Latin.” Chaucer himself used four languages; he read Latin (Classical and Medieval) and spoke French and Italian on his travels. For his own literary work he deliberately chose English.

Transition from Middle English to Early Modern English

The death of Chaucer at the close of the century (1400) marked the beginning of the period of transition from Middle English to the Early Modern English stage. The Early Modern English period is regarded by many scholars as beginning about 1500 and terminating with the return of the monarchy (celebrated in John Dryden’s poem *Astraea Redux*) in 1660. The three outstanding developments of the 15th century were the rise of London English, the invention of printing, and the spread of the new learning associated with the Renaissance.

Although the population of London in 1400 was only about 40,000, it was by far the largest city in England. York came second, followed by Bristol, Coventry, Plymouth, and Norwich. The Midlands and East Anglia, the most densely peopled parts of England, supplied London with streams of young immigrants. The speech of the capital was mixed, and it was changing. The seven long vowels of Chaucer’s speech had already begun to shift. Incipient diphthongization of high front /i:/ (the ee sound in meet) and high back /u:/ (as in fool) led to instability in the other five long vowels. (Symbols within slash marks are taken from the International Phonetic Alphabet.) This remarkable event, known as the Great Vowel Shift, changed the whole vowel system of London English. As /i:/ and /u:/ became diphthongized to /ai/ (as in bide) and /au/ (as in house) respectively, so the next highest vowels, /e:/ (this sound can be heard in the first part of the diphthong in name) and /o:/ (a sound that can be heard in the first part of the diphthong in home), moved up to take their places, and so on. The table shows the vowel shift in London English; every one of the sounds appearing in this table can still be heard somewhere in living English accents.

Vowel shifts in London English

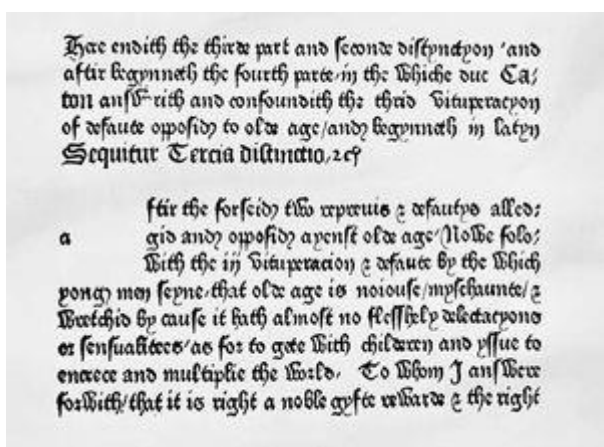
*Expressed in the International Phonetic Alphabet. **Two syllables.

Chaucer’s spelling	Chaucer’s pronunciation*	Shakespeare’s pronunciation*	present pronunciation*	present spelling
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Vowel shifts in London English

lyf	li:f	leif	laif	life
deed	de:d	di:d	di:d	deed
deel	dɛ:l	de:l	di:l	deal
name	na:mə**	nɛ:m	neim	name
hoom	hɔ:m	ho:m	houm	home
mone	mo:nə**	mu:n	mu:n	moon
hous	hu:s	hous	haus	house

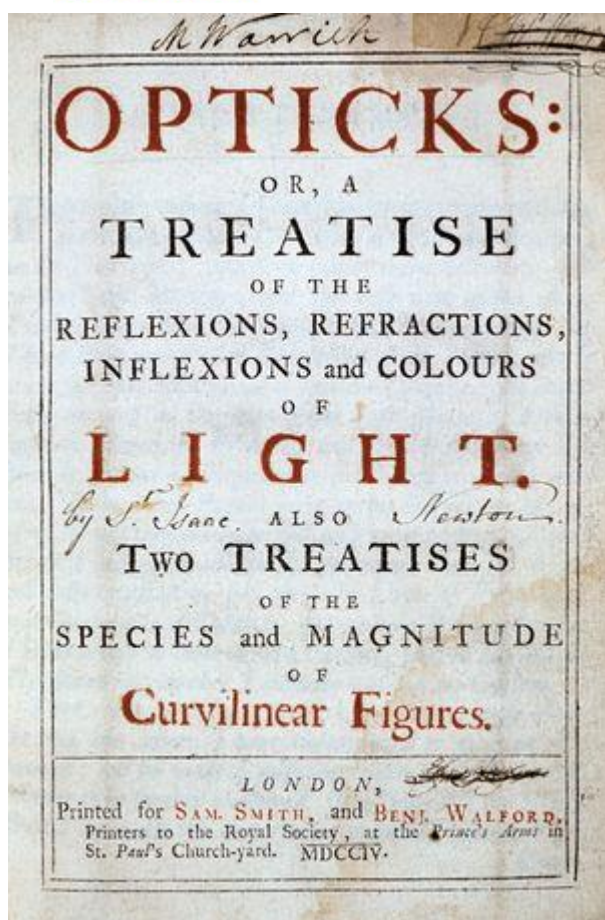


William Caxton's Cicero Desenectute

When William Caxton started printing at Westminster in the late summer of 1476, he was painfully aware of the uncertain state of the English language. In his prologues and epilogues to his translations, he made some revealing observations on the problems that he had encountered as translator and editor. At this time, sentence structures were being gradually modified, but many remained untidy. For the first time, nonprofessional scribes, including women, were writing at length.

The revival of classical learning was one aspect of that Renaissance, or spiritual rebirth, that arose in Italy and spread to France and England. It evoked a new interest in Greek on the part of learned men such as William Grocyn and Thomas Linacre, Sir Thomas More, and Desiderius Erasmus. John Colet, dean of St. Paul's in the first quarter of the 16th century, startled his congregation by expounding the Pauline Epistles of the Christian New Testament as living letters. The deans who had preceded him had known no Greek, because they had found in Latin all that they required. Only a few medieval churchmen, such as Robert Grosseteste, bishop of Lincoln, and the Franciscan Roger Bacon, could read Greek with ease. The names of the seven liberal arts of the medieval curricula (the trivium and the quadrivium), it is true, were all Greek—grammar, logic, and rhetoric; arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music—but they had come into English by way of French.

Renaissance scholars adopted a liberal attitude to language. They borrowed Latin words through French, or Latin words direct; Greek words through Latin, or Greek words direct. Latin was no longer limited to Church Latin: it embraced all Classical Latin. For a time the whole Latin lexicon became potentially English. Some words, such as consolation and infidel, could have come from either French or Latin. Others, such as the terms abacus, arbitrator, explicit, finis, gratis, imprimis, item, memento, memorandum, neuter, simile, and videlicet, were taken straight from Latin. Words that had already entered the language through French were now borrowed again, so that doublets arose: benison and benediction; blame and blaspheme; chance and cadence; count and compute; dainty and dignity; frail and fragile; poor and pauper; purvey and provide; ray and radius; sever and separate; strait and strict; sure and secure. The Latin equivalents for kingly and lawful have even given rise to triplets; in the forms real, royal, and regal and leal, loyal, and legal, they were imported first from Anglo-Norman, then from Old French, and last from Latin direct.



Isaac Newton: Opticks

After the dawn of the 16th century, English prose moved swiftly toward modernity. In 1525 Lord Berners completed his translation of Jean Froissart's Chronicle, and William Tyndale translated the New Testament. One-third of the King James Bible (1611), it has been computed, is worded exactly as Tyndale left it, and between 1525 and 1611 lay the Tudor Golden Age, with its culmination in William Shakespeare. Too many writers, to be sure, used "inkhorn terms," newly coined ephemeral words, and too many vacillated between Latin and English. Sir Thomas More actually wrote his Utopia in Latin. It was translated into French during his lifetime but not into English until 1551, some years after his death. Francis Bacon published *De dignitate et augmentis scientiarum* (On the Dignity and Advancement of Learning, an expansion of his earlier *Advancement of Learning*) in Latin in 1623. William Harvey announced his epoch-making discovery of the circulation of the blood in his Latin *De Motu Cordis et Sanguinis in Animalibus* (1628; *On the Motion of the Heart and Blood in Animals*). John Milton composed polemical treatises in the language of Cicero. As Oliver Cromwell's secretary, he corresponded in Latin with foreign states. His younger contemporary Sir Isaac Newton lived long enough to bridge the gap. He wrote his *Principia* (1687) in Latin but his *Opticks* (1704) in English. Restoration period[35,37,38]

With the restoration of the monarchy in 1660, writers again looked to France. John Dryden admired the Académie Française and greatly deplored that the English had "not so much as a tolerable dictionary, or a grammar; so that our language is in a manner barbarous" as compared with elegant French. After the passionate controversies of the Civil Wars, this was an age of cool scientific nationalism. In 1662 the Royal Society of London for the Promotion of Natural Knowledge received its charter. Its first members, much concerned with language, appointed a committee of 22 "to improve the English tongue particularly for philosophic purposes." It included Dryden, the diarist John Evelyn, Bishop Thomas Sprat, and the poet Edmund Waller. Sprat pleaded for "a close, naked, natural way of speaking; positive expressions; clear senses, a native easiness; bringing all things as near the mathematical plainness" as possible. The committee, however, achieved no tangible result, and failed in its attempt to found an authoritative arbiter over the English tongue. A second attempt was made in 1712, when Jonathan Swift addressed an open letter to Robert Harley, earl of Oxford, then Lord Treasurer, making "A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining [fixing] the English Tongue." This letter received some popular support, but its aims were frustrated by a turn in political fortunes. Queen Anne died in 1714. Oxford and his fellow Tories, including Swift, lost power. No organized attempt to found a language academy on French lines has ever been made since.



With Dryden and Swift the English language reached its full maturity. Their failure to found an academy was partly counterbalanced by Samuel Johnson in his Dictionary (published in 1755) and by Robert Lowth in his Grammar (published in 1761).

Age of Johnson

OA'TMEAL. *n. f.* [*oat and meal.*] Flower made by grinding oats.
Oatmeal and butter, outwardly applied, dry the scab on the head. *Arbutnot on Alimant.*
 Our neighbours tell me oft, in joking talk,
 Of ashes, leather, *oatmeal*, bran, and chalk. *Goy.*
 OA'TMEAL. *n. f.* An herb. *Ainsworth.*
 OATS. *n. f.* [*aven, Saxon.*] A grain, which in England is generally given to horses, but in Scotland supports the people.
 It is of the grass leaved tribe; the flowers have no petals, and are disposed in a loose panicle: the grain is eatable. The meal makes tolerable good bread. *Miller.*
 The *oats* have eaten the horses. *Shakespeare.*
 It is bare mechanism, no otherwise produced than the turning of a wild *oatbeard*, by the infinuation of the particles of moisture. *Locke.*
 For your lean cattle, fodder them with barley straw first, and the *oat* straw last. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*
 His horse's allowance of *oats* and beans, was greater than the journey required. *Swift.*
 OA'TTHISTLE. *n. f.* [*oat and thistle.*] An herb. *Ainsf.*

Samuel Johnson's definition of "Oats"

In the making of his Dictionary of the English Language, Samuel Johnson took the best conversation of contemporary London and the normal usage of reputable writers after Sir Philip Sidney (1554–86) as his criteria. He exemplified the meanings of words by illustrative quotations. Johnson admitted that "he had flattered himself for a while" with "the prospect of fixing our language" but that thereby "he had indulged expectation which neither reason nor experience could justify." The two-folio work of 1755 was followed in 1756 by a shortened, one-volume version that was widely used for centuries afterward. Revised and enlarged editions of the unabbreviated version were made by Archdeacon Henry John Todd in 1818 and by Robert Gordon Latham in 1866.

It was unfortunate that Joseph Priestley, Robert Lowth, James Buchanan, and other 18th-century grammarians (Priestley was perhaps better known as a scientist and theologian) took a narrower view than Johnson on linguistic growth and development. They spent too much time condemning such current "improprieties" as "I had rather not," "you better go," "between you and I," "it is me," "who is this for?," "between four walls," "a third alternative," "the largest of the two," "more perfect," and "quite unique." Without explanatory comment they banned "you was" outright, although it was in widespread use among educated people (on that ground it was later defended by Noah Webster). "You was" had, in fact, taken the place of both "thou wast" and "thou wert" as a useful singular equivalent of the accepted plural "you were."

As the century wore on, grammarians became more numerous and aggressive. They set themselves up as arbiters of correct usage. They compiled manuals that were not only descriptive (stating what people do say) and prescriptive (stating what they should say) but also proscriptive (stating what they should not say). They regarded Latin as a language superior to English and claimed that Latin embodied universally valid canons of logic. This view was well maintained by Lindley Murray, a native of Pennsylvania who settled in England in the very year (1784) of Johnson's death. Murray's English Grammar appeared in 1795, became immensely popular, and went into numerous editions. It was followed by an English Reader (1799) and an English Spelling Book (1804), long favourite textbooks in both Old and New England.

19th and 20th centuries

In 1857 Richard Chenevix Trench, dean of St. Paul's, lectured to the Philological Society on the theme, "On some Deficiencies in our English Dictionaries." His proposals for a new dictionary were implemented in 1859, when Samuel Taylor Coleridge's grandnephew, Herbert Coleridge, set to work as first editor. He was succeeded by a lawyer named Frederick James Furnivall, who in 1864 founded the Early English Text Society with a view to making all the earlier literature available to historical lexicographers in competent editions. Furnivall was subsequently succeeded as editor by James A.H. Murray, who published the first fascicle of A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles in 1884. Later Murray was joined successively by three editors: Henry Bradley, William Alexander Craigie, and Charles Talbot Onions. Aside from its Supplements, the completed dictionary itself filled 12 volumes, had over 15,000 pages,



contained 414,825 words, and was illustrated by 1,827,306 citations. It sought to represent English in the British Commonwealth and the United States—a fact symbolized by the presentation of first copies in the spring of 1928 to King George V and President Calvin Coolidge—and to record the histories and meanings of all words known to have been in use since 1150. From 1150 to 1500 all five Middle English dialects, as has been seen, were of equal status. They were therefore all included. After 1500, however, dialectal expressions were not admitted, nor were scientific and technical terms considered not to be in general use. Otherwise, the written vocabulary is well represented. A revised edition of this dictionary, known as The Oxford English Dictionary, was published in 1933, and a second edition was published in 1989. Online publication of the dictionary's corpus enabled ongoing revision and expansion. [32,33,35]

Varieties of English

British English

The abbreviation RP (Received Pronunciation) denotes what is traditionally considered the standard accent of people living in London and the southeast of England and of other people elsewhere who speak in this way. RP is the only British accent that has no specific geographical correlate: it is not possible, on hearing someone speak RP, to know which part of the United Kingdom he or she comes from. Though it is traditionally considered a “prestige” accent, RP is not intrinsically superior to other varieties of English; it is itself only one particular accent that has, through the accidents of history, achieved a higher status than others. Although acquiring its unique standing without the aid of any established authority, it was fostered by the public schools (Winchester, Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and so on) and the ancient universities (Oxford and Cambridge). Other varieties of English are well preserved in spite of the leveling influences of film, television, and radio. In several Northern accents, RP /a:/ (the first vowel sound in father) is still pronounced /æ/ (a sound like the a in fat) in words such as laugh, fast, and path; this pronunciation has been carried across the Atlantic into American English.

In the words run, rung, and tongue, the RP pronunciation of the vowel is like the u in but; in some Northern accents it is pronounced like the oo in book. In the words bind, find, and grind, the RP pronunciation of the vowel sound is /ai/, like that in “bide”; in some Northern accents, it is /i/, like the sound in feet. The vowel sound in the words go, home, and know in some Northern accents is /ɔ:/, approximately the sound in law in some American English accents. In parts of Northumberland, RP it is still pronounced “hit,” as in Old English. In various Northern accents the definite article the is heard as t, th, or d. In those accents in which it becomes both t and th, t is used before consonants and th before vowels. Thus, one hears t’book but th’apple. When, however, the definite article is reduced to t and the following word begins with t or d, as in t’tail or t’dog, it is replaced by a slight pause as in the RP articulation of the first t in hat trick. The RP /tʃ/, the sound of the ch in church, can become k, as in thack (“thatch, roof”) and kirk (“church”). In some Northern dialects strong verbs retain the old past-tense singular forms band, brak, fand, spak for standard English forms bound, broke, found, and spoke. Strong verbs also retain the past participle inflection -en as in comen, shutten, sitten, and getten or gotten for standard English come, shut, sat, and got.

In some Midland accents the diphthongs in throat and stone have been kept apart, whereas in RP they have fallen together. In Cheshire, Derby, Stafford, and Warwick, RP singing is pronounced with a g sounded after the velar nasal sound (as in RP finger). In Norfolk one hears skellington and solitary for skeleton and solitary, showing an intrusive n just as does messenger in RP from French messenger, passenger from French passager, and nightingale from Old English nihtegala. Other East Anglian words show consonantal metathesis (switch position), as in singify for signify, and substitution of one liquid or nasal for another, as in chimibly for chimney and synnable for syllable. Hantle for handful shows syncope (disappearance) of an unstressed vowel, partial assimilation of d to t before voiceless f, and subsequent loss of f in a triple consonant group. [28,29,30]

In some South Western accents, initial f and s are often voiced, becoming v and z. Two words with initial v have found their way into RP: vat from fat and vixen from fixen (female fox). Another South Western feature is the development of a d between l or n and r, as in parlder for parlour and carnder for corner. The bilabial semivowel w has developed before o in wold for old, and in wom for home, illustrating a similar development in RP by which Old English ān has become one, and Old English hāl has come to be spelled whole, as compared with Northern hale. In some South Western accents yat comes from the old singular geat, whereas RP gate comes from the plural gatu. Likewise, clee comes from the old nominative clea, whereas RP claw comes from the oblique cases. The verbs keel and kemb have developed regularly from Old English cēlan “to make cool” and kemban “to use a comb,” whereas the corresponding RP verbs cool and comb come from the adjective and the noun, respectively.

In Wales, people often speak a clear and measured form of English with rising intonations inherited from ancestral Celtic. They tend to aspirate both plosives (stops) and fricative consonants very forcibly; thus, two is pronounced with an audible puff of breath after the initial t, and while may be heard with a voiceless /w/.

Scots, or Lowland Scottish, was once a part of Northern English, but the two dialects began to diverge in the 14th century. Today speakers of Scots trill their r's, shorten vowels, and simplify diphthongs. A few Scots words, such as bairn, brae, canny, dour, and pawky, have made their way into RP. Scots is not to be confused with Scottish Gaelic, a Celtic language still spoken by about 60,000 people (almost all bilingual) mostly in the Highlands and the Western Isles. Thanks to such writers as Robert Burns and Sir Walter Scott, many Scottish Gaelic words have been preserved in English literature.

Northern Ireland has dialects related in part to Scots and in part to the southern Irish dialect of English. The influence of the Irish language on the speech of Dublin is most evident in the syntax of drama and in the survival of such picturesque expressions as We are after finishing, It's sorry you will be, and James do be cutting corn every day.[22,25,27]

American and Canadian English



American English dialects

The dialect regions of the United States are most clearly marked along the Atlantic littoral, where the earlier settlements were made. Three dialects can be defined: Northern, Midland, and Southern. Each has its subdialects.

The Northern dialect is spoken in New England. Its six chief subdialects comprise northeastern New England (Maine, New Hampshire, and eastern Vermont), southeastern New England (eastern Massachusetts, eastern Connecticut, and Rhode Island), southwestern New England (western Massachusetts and western Connecticut), the inland north (western Vermont and upstate New York), the Hudson Valley, and metropolitan New York.

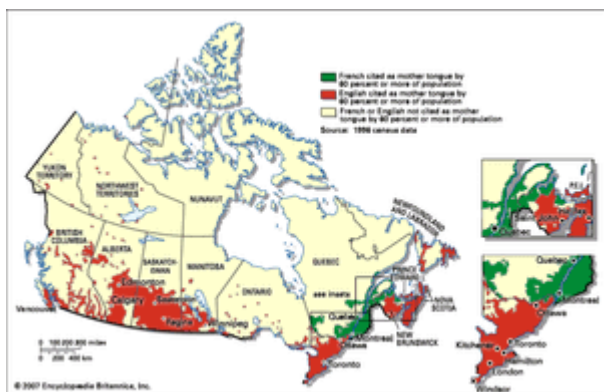
The Midland dialect is spoken in the coastal region from Point Pleasant, in New Jersey, to Dover, in Delaware. Its seven major subdialects comprise the Delaware Valley, the Susquehanna Valley, the Upper Ohio Valley, northern West Virginia, the Upper Potomac and Shenandoah, southern West Virginia and eastern Kentucky, western North Carolina and South Carolina, and eastern Tennessee.

The Southern dialect area covers the coastal region from Delaware to South Carolina. Its five chief subdialects comprise the Delmarva Peninsula, the Virginia Piedmont, northeastern North Carolina (Albemarle Sound and Neuse Valley), Cape Fear and Pee Dee valleys, and the South Carolina Low Country, around Charleston.

These boundaries, based on those of the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada, are highly tentative. To some extent these regions preserve the traditional speech of southeastern and southern England, where most of the early colonists were born. The first settlers to arrive in Virginia (1607) and Massachusetts (1620) soon learned to adapt old words to new uses, but they were content to borrow names from the local Indian languages for unknown trees, such as hickory and persimmon and for unfamiliar animals, such as raccoon and woodchuck. Later they took words from foreign settlers: chowder and prairie from the French, scow and sleigh from the Dutch. They made new compounds, such as backwoods and bullfrog, and gave new meanings to such words as lumber (which in British English denotes disused furniture, or junk) and corn (which in British English signifies any grain, especially wheat) to mean "maize." [38,39,40]



Before the Declaration of Independence (1776), two-thirds of the immigrants had come from England, but after that date they arrived in large numbers from Ireland. The Great Famine of 1845–49 drove 1.5 million Irish to seek homes in the New World, and the European revolutions of 1848 drove as many Germans to settle in Pennsylvania and the Midwest. After the close of the American Civil War, millions of Scandinavians, Slavs, and Italians crossed the ocean and eventually settled mostly in the North Central and Upper Midwest states. In some areas of South Carolina and Georgia, enslaved Africans working on rice and cotton plantations developed a contact language called Gullah, or Geechee, that made use of many structural and lexical features of their native languages. This variety of English is comparable to such contact languages as Sranan (Taki-taki) of Suriname and Melanesian Pidgins. The speech of the Atlantic Seaboard shows far greater differences in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary than that of any area in the North Central states, the Upper Midwest, the Rocky Mountains, or the Pacific Coast. Today, urbanization, quick transport, and television have tended to level out some dialectal differences in the United States. On the other hand, immigrant groups have introduced new varieties in which the influence of ethnic origins is evident, and some immigrant languages are widely spoken (notably Spanish, in the southeastern and southwestern states).



Distribution of majority Anglophone and Francophone populations in Canada

The boundary with Canada nowhere corresponds to any boundary between dialects, and the influence of United States English is strong, being felt least in the Maritime Provinces and Newfoundland and Labrador. Nevertheless, in spite of the effect of this proximity to the United States, British influences are still potent in some of the larger cities; Scottish influences are well sustained in Ontario. Canada remains bilingual. Less than one-fourth of its people, living mostly in the province of Quebec, have French as their mother tongue.

Australian and New Zealand English

Unlike Canada, Australia has no concentration of a European language other than English within its borders. There are still many Aboriginal languages, though they each are spoken by small numbers and their continued existence is threatened. More than 80 percent of the population is of British descent, but significant growth in the numbers of immigrants, especially from Europe and the Pacific Rim countries, took place in the last quarter of the 20th century.

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

A deadbeat was a penniless “sundowner” at the very end of his tether, and a no-hoper was an incompetent fellow, hopeless and helpless. An offsider (strictly, the offside driver of a bullock team) was any assistant or partner. A rouseabout was first an odd-job man on a sheep station and then any kind of handyman. He was, in fact, the “down-under” counterpart of the wharf labourer, or roustabout, on the Mississippi River. Both words originated in Cornwall, and many other terms, now exclusively Australian, came ultimately from British dialects. Dinkum, for instance, meaning “true, authentic, genuine,” echoed the fair dinkum, or fair deal, of Lincolnshire dialect. Fossicking about for surface gold, and then rummaging about in general, perpetuated the term fossick (“to elicit information, ferret out the facts”) from the Cornish dialect of English. To barrack, or “jeer noisily,” recalled Irish barrack (“to brag, boast”),



whereas skerrick in the phrase not a skerrick left was obviously identical with the skerrick meaning “small fragment, particle,” still heard in English dialects from Westmorland to Hampshire.[21,22,23]

Some Australian English terms came from Aboriginal peoples and Torres Strait Islander peoples: the words boomerang, corroboree (warlike dance and then any large and noisy gathering), dingo (reddish brown wild dog), galah (cockatoo), gunyah (bush hut), kangaroo, karri (dark red eucalyptus tree), nonda (rosaceous tree yielding edible fruit), wallaby (small marsupial), and wallaroo (large rock kangaroo). Although there is remarkably little regional variation in pronunciation throughout the entire continent, there is significant social variation. The neutral vowel /ə/ (as the a in sofa) is frequently used, as in London Cockney: arches and archers are both pronounced [a:tʃəz], and the pronunciations of the diphthongs in RP day and go are more like (RP) die and now.

Although New Zealand lies over 1,000 miles away, much of the English spoken there is similar to that of Australia. The blanket term Austral English is sometimes used to cover the language of the whole of Australasia, but this term is far from popular with New Zealanders because it makes no reference to New Zealand and gives all the prominence, so they feel, to Australia. Between North and South Islands there are observable differences. In particular, Maori, which remains a living language (related to Tahitian, Hawaiian, and the other Austronesian [Malayo-Polynesian] languages), has a greater number of speakers and more influence in North Island.

South Asian English

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

In 1956 Pakistan became an autonomous republic comprising two states, East and West. Bengali and Urdu were made the national languages of East and West Pakistan, respectively, but English was adopted as a third official language and functioned as the medium of interstate communication. (In 1971 East Pakistan broke away from its western partner and became the independent state of Bangladesh.) English is also widely used in Sri Lanka and Nepal.

African English

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

The Republic of South Africa, the oldest British settlement in the continent, resembles Canada in having two recognized European languages within its borders: English and Afrikaans, or Cape Dutch. Both British and Dutch traders followed in the wake of 15th-century Portuguese explorers and have lived in widely varying war-and-peace relationships ever since. Although the Union of South Africa, comprising Cape Province, Transvaal, Natal, and Orange Free State, was for more than a half century (1910–61) a member of the British Empire and Commonwealth, its four prime ministers (Louis Botha, Jan Smuts, J.B.M. Hertzog, and Daniel F. Malan) were all Dutchmen. The Afrikaans language began to diverge seriously from European Dutch in the late 18th century and gradually came to be recognized as a separate language. Although the English spoken in South Africa differs in some respects from standard British English, its speakers do not regard the language as a separate one. They have naturally come to use many Afrikanerisms, such as kloof, kopje, krans, veld, and vlei, to denote features of the landscape and employ African names to designate local animals, plants, and social and political concepts. South Africa’s 1996 constitution identified 11 official languages, English among them. The words trek and commando, notorious in South African history, are among several that have entered world standard English.

Elsewhere in Africa, English helps to answer the needs of wider communication. It functions as an official language of administration in, and is an official language of, numerous countries, all of them multilingual. Liberia is among the African countries with the deepest historical ties to English—the population most associated with the country’s founding migrated from the United States during the 19th century—but English is just one of more than two dozen



languages spoken there by multiple ethnic groups. English's place within that linguistic diversity is representative of English in Africa as a whole.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Depending how speaking ability is defined, India is the world's largest English-speaking country or the second largest after the United States. A subsidiary official language, English is taught in schools and widely spoken, giving India an edge in an increasingly English-speaking globalized world. The English spoken in India tends to be more British-style than American-style but in many cases it is its own style.[38,39]

Only around three to five percent of the population is truly fluent in both English and an Indian language. But English-speakers include nearly all the educated elite and people who come in contact with tourists although knowledge of English varies widely from fluency to knowledge of just a few words. While English is relegated to the status of subsidiary official language it is the most important language for national, political, and commercial communication.

English is arguably the most important thing the British left behind in India. English helped unify the Indian subcontinent by providing a common language for a region with a multitude of languages and dialects. It also provided a common tongue for administration and education. The Indian constitution and Indian legal code are written in English and the famous speech delivered by Nehru after India became independent was in English.

English is especially popular among the affluent middle class. As was true in the colonial era, English is a prerequisite to getting ahead, especially in the outsourcing and technology world. English is more widely spoken in southern India than northern India in part because southerners loath to use Hindi.

The way English is spoken varies a great deal from place to place and with levels of fluency and wealth. It is commonly said that there are at least 15 different kinds of English, one to go with each of the each of the official languages.[40]

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