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DIALEKTY BRITSKÉ ANGLIČTINY SE ZAMĚŘENÍM NA HRABSTVÍ SUSSEXU A KENTU

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BRITISH ENGLISH DIALECTS WITH FOCUS ON DIALECTS OF SUSSEX AND KENT

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Pilsen, 2023

Prohlašuji, že jsem práci vypracoval/a samostatně s použitím uvedené literatury a zdrojů informací.

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Kamila Švajcrová

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ABSTRACT

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Supervisor: PhDr. Naděžda Stašková, PhD.

This undergraduate thesis deals with British English dialects focusing on the dialects of Sussex and Kent. It narrates the historical development and the current face of British English and describes several major British English dialects and accents. Given its focus, it further talks about the dialects of Sussex and Kent, giving extensive information on historical background and linguistic differences compared to the standard variety. The practical section of this thesis explores the variations in comprehension of Standard English and dialects of L2 speakers. The research introduces two hypotheses, namely (a) that the comprehension levels are higher for the standard language form than for the dialect, based on previous research data for Standard American English, and (b) that the participants who have spent significant time in an English-speaking environment score higher on the dialect comprehension scale. The conducted experiment confirmed both hypotheses. 100% of respondents demonstrated greater comprehension of the standard variety than the dialects, which were approximately 10% lower. The participants did not notice relevant lexical items or grammatical deviations in standard variety as opposed to the case of Sussex and Kent dialects. Therefore, the second hypothesis is confirmed, as this 20% of respondents also reported having spent a significant period in an English-speaking environment.

KEY WORDS

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1   INTRODUCTION

This undergraduate thesis, which discusses the topic of *British English dialects with focus on dialects of Sussex and Kent*, aims to introduce the British language from a historical and linguistic point of view. It targets two south-eastern dialects from the shires of Sussex and Kent, whose diachronic journey documents their crucial influence on the currently morphing form of the standard variety. The new "standard" strays from the King's English (Received Pronunciation, BBC English), which was once considered a norm, mostly in pronunciation and vocabulary. Nowadays, the standard variety has nearly merged with the southern dialects into a new form called Southern Standard British English. Therefore, this present work explores both Standard British English and these specific southern dialects to explore the remaining differences between them, speaking to the extent of the merge.

This thesis is divided into five sections. The first is purely introductory, giving general summarising information on the present work. The second chapter gives theoretical background. It discusses the historical development of the British English language. It presents the outside influences (Celtic, Anglo-Saxon, Danish, and Norman languages, as well as the classical element) on the language, which affected its current form. It describes the present face of Standard British English in the context of the significant linguistic disciplines – phonetics and phonology, morphology, lexicology, and syntax. It notes the significant British English dialects and accents across the United Kingdom; Scouse, Geordie, Brummie, Cockney, and Mancunian. Given its specialisation, it further talks about the Sussex and Kentish dialects, chronicling their historical evolution, background and linguistic (phonological, grammatical, and lexical) differences compared to the standard norm.

The third section of this thesis focuses on research that explores the *variations in comprehension of Standard English and dialects of L2 speakers*. The practical chapter gives historical background to the thesis' research via previously conducted experiments and introduces two drawn hypotheses. Furthermore, it defines the measurable variables and describes the participant sample for this experiment. It explains the procedure, method, design, and materials – research promotion, ethical measures taken, demographic screening, research questionnaire structure and content – and reflects on the strengths and limitations of the conducted research while also offering other possible avenues to explore and ways to improve similar experiments. The fourth chapter comments on the results and compares the drawn hypotheses and predictions to the outcomes; this is also illustrated visually by bar graphs and pie charts. The results, i.e., the respondents' answers to sections on given

varieties (Standard British English, dialect of Kent, dialect of Sussex), were assessed individually and then analysed for correlations. Lastly, the conclusive chapter follows, summing up the entirety of the thesis. It reports the results, draws conclusions, and attests to aims and goals fulfilled.

2   THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The English language as we have come to know it and understand it has a long relationship of interference, bridging and combining with other foreign speeches due to the course of history on the British Isles. It has been changing and evolving constantly while maintaining a strong core of morphological and syntactic rules, such as the word order or the verbal tenses. Its vocabulary is ever-growing, and its phonetical and phonological qualities offer a wide variety of sounds spread from the Received Pronunciation to hundreds of dialects and accents.

2.1   History and development of Standard British English Language

2.1.1   The Celtic Language

When exploring the history and major influences on the development of British English, we must start with the Celtic element in the early years of the first century A. D. The Celtic tribe of Britons inhabited the current geographic area of Great Britain long before the arrival of Romans in 42 A. D. Though they were once invaders themselves, they did not withstand the Roman attacks and were eventually driven to the secure lands of Wales and Scotland, while the winning party took up residence in England. The Britons' language has developed into Welsh, Gaelic and Erse spoken in Wales, the Scottish Highlands and Ireland nowadays. Needed to mention Manx still spoken on the Isle of Man and the defunct Cornish language, which ceased to exist in the 18th century. However, a present-day Englishperson finds it very difficult to understand any of the languages above, since the current English has next to nothing in common with the original Celtic. Nevertheless, there are still some words of Celtic origin in the current language (*flannel* or *gull* from Welsh; *clan, plaid* or *whisky* from Scotch Gaelic and *shamrock* or *galore* from Irish). Remains of it can also be found in geographical names of rivers or cities, for example the Avon (Celtic for *river*) or Carlisle (*caer* meaning *castle*) among others, including the suffixes *-combe* or *-llan*. The language spoken in areas not inhabited by Britons developed from the Angles, who settle in England – Angle-land – after Romans vacated the isles. (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960)

2.1.2   The Anglo-Saxon Influences

By the Anglo-Saxons, we generally understand the Germanic tribes of the Angles from Schleswig, the Saxons from Holstein, and the Jutes from Jutland. These tribes spoke a language of the Germanic branch. "Although a member of the Indo-European language

family, the Germanic group underwent a series of changes to its consonants that set it apart from the other constituent languages. Because the first systematic description of this change was the work of the German folklorist Jacob Grimm, it is known as Grimm's Law. This shift explains why Germanic languages have 'f' where other Indo-European languages have 'p'. Compare English *father*, German *Vater* (where 'v' is pronounced 'f'), Norwegian *far*, with Latin *pater*, French *père*, Italian *padre*, Sanskrit *pita*. Following its split from the Indo-European family, the Germanic group divided into three branches" (Horobin, 2016, p. 17), which later gave birth to Scandinavian languages, German, now-extinct Gothic, Dutch, and English (see Figure 1) (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960). "In his *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum* (AD 731) (*Ecclesiastical History of the English People*), the Anglo-Saxon historian Bede listed five languages used in Britain: English, British (Welsh), Irish, Pictish (spoken in northern Scotland), and Latin" (Horobin, 2016, p. 20). Within the purpose of this thesis, the Jutes and the Saxons are of greater relevance, as they founded settlements in Kent and Southern England below the stream of the river Thames (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960) in 5th century (Horobin, 2016), and their language soon developed into two dialects – Kentish and West Saxon.

Under the rule of Alfred the Great in late 9th century, West Saxon became the leading language and remained so until the Norman invasion in early 11th century, when Mercian was set as the official language of the country and is therefore the mother-language to modern English of today. Nevertheless, Alfred the Great's 'Old English' bears similarity to its modern cousin – *fot* (foot)*, wif* (wife)*, dæg* (day)*, niht* (night) (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960)*, sunu* (son)*, fæder* (father), *tune* (town) (Horobin, 2016) and others – while preserving the structure of classic Germanic languages in cases, declensions, and grammatical gender and other rules. (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960)
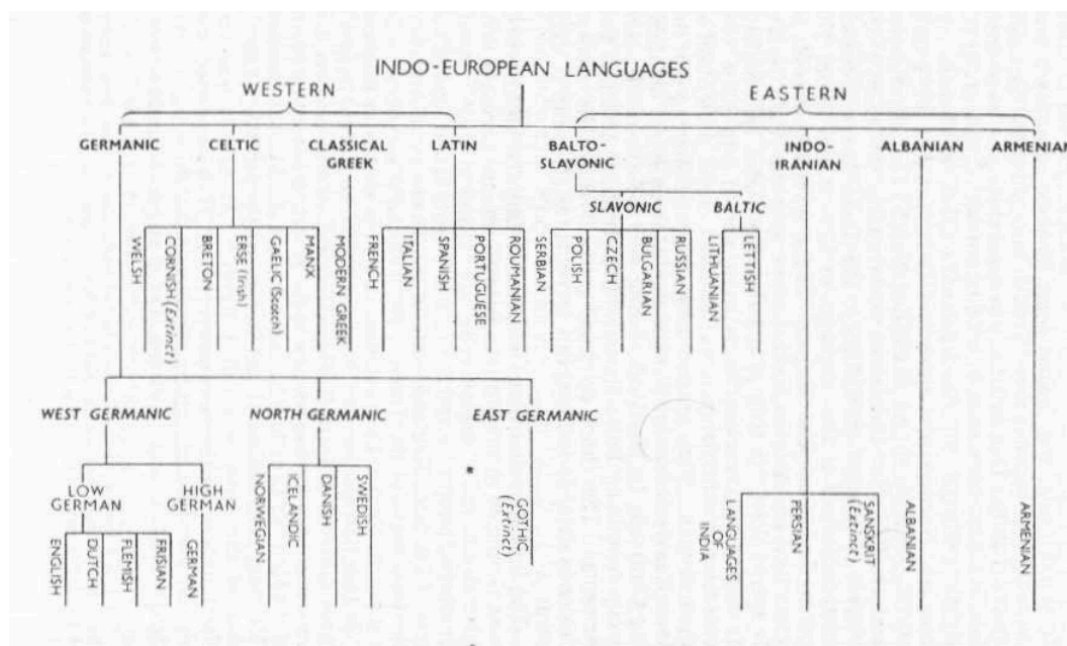
Figure 1. A scheme of Indo-European speech family. (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960, p. 420)

2.1.3 The Danish Element

Danish king Canute took over the area after Alfred the great's death and became the ruler of England, Denmark, and Norway (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960). His people spoke a language nowadays known as Old Norse (Horobin, 2016) similar in vocabulary and pronunciation to Old English. Both languages originated from the same speech family and thus had many words in common already – i.e., *mother, father, summer, winter, house, tree, land, come, think* and others (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960). To better the mutual understanding, the grammatical inflectional endings of Dane were eventually dropped, and the languages became even more alike, making the endings completely disappear by the year 1500 (Horobin, 2016). Dane also brought new words, which we now commonly use, i.e., *law, leg, skin, Thursday, happy, weak, want, call, die, same* or *eggs* among many others. (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960)

2.1.4 The Norman Invasion

Edward the Confessor, whose son Harold was eventually defeated by William the Conqueror in 1066 in the Battle of Hastings, was raised in France and thus the appearance of French words in English pre-dates the Normans in England. The Normans, a cultured Christian nation, greatly changed the English infrastructure, while maintaining French as the official language for nearly three centuries (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960).

"The French used in England immediately after the conquest, known to scholars as Anglo-Norman, was originally restricted to the aristocrats and noblemen who supported William of Normandy" (Horobin, 2016, p. 28), while the commoners continued to speak English. Opposed to Old English and Old Norse, Anglo-Norman and English were not similar enough for speakers of the two to understand one another, creating a social gap (Horobin, 2016). The breaking point came in 1362 with the first opening of Parliament in English by Edward III. A century later French was spoken by very few members of the court and English became the official language. Due to it being put aside for hundreds of years, the written form of the language was remodelled – stripped of grammatical gender, reduced of case endings only keeping the present-day two – Genitive and Possessive, the expression of plural and verb forms were simplified, making the language more flexible and accessible. "An examination of the vocabulary of modern English will show that approximately 50 per cent of the words in it are of French or Latin origin, and half of these were adopted between 1250 and 1400." (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960, p. 424-425)

Norman has gifted English an abundance of words connected to ruling the country, for illustration – *government, prince, sovereign, royal, nation, parliament, count, chancellor, duty, noble, palace, castle, battle, officer, soldier, navy, justice, judge, crime, traitor, prison, tax, money,* and countless others. Through the centuries of a love-hate relationship of England and France, the language gained a bilingual element of two words, one of Saxon and the other of French origin, which carry one meaning – *foe* and *enemy*, *friendship* and *amity, happiness* and *felicity, motherhood* and *maternity* and a host of others (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960). Significant changes followed also in the field of spelling. "The Old English practice of using 'cw' in words like cwen was changed to 'qu', giving Modern English *queen*… the use of 'c' to represent 's' in French loans like centre, or 'ch' for 'sh' in words like *chef*." (Horobin, 2016, p.30) Nevertheless, English is vastly Anglo-Saxon in origin, as we can speak of ordinary subjects without the need for French or Latin words, whereas it is impossible to do so without using vocabulary derived from West Saxon. (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960)

2.1.5 The Classical Aspect

Latin and Greek, the scholarly languages of the period between 1500-1700 (Horobin, 2016), often entered through French, though some pre-date the Normans to the ages of Roman invasion (*-ceaster* in Leicester or Worcester), and later the Anglo-Saxons (*wine,*

butter, silk, copper, pound, mile) before their arrival on the English shores. Latin was on the rise in 15th and 16th century with the Revival of Learning, when many technical and scientific terms were adopted, and Latin was taught to students at grammar schools. Significant authors like Bacon, Newton or Milton wrote some of their works in Latin as it became the language of scholars around the globe. Greek also came via another language – Latin, during the renaissance, bringing scientific terms to the Middle English language, i.e., *geometry, grammar, logic, poetry, comedy, academy, theory, orchestra, psychology,* or *zoology.* Greek pre-fixes also found their place in the language - *-anti, -hyper, -hemi, -homo, -pseudo* or *-tri.* (Eckersley & Eckersley, 1960) Nevertheless, scholars such as Newton mentioned above, tried to promote English and wrote some of their later work in English. "The expansion of English was further encouraged by the Protestant Reformation, which promoted the translation of the Scriptures into English as a means of enabling direct access to the word of God." (Horobin, 2016, p. 31)

The year 1700 brought the biggest change in history of English language yet – the finalisation of the Great Vowel Shift. The changes were following: /u:/ became /aʊ/, /i:/ transformed to /aɪ/, /əʊ/ changed into /u:/ (much like in southern English today), /eɪ/ was altered to /i:/. Words spelled with 'ea' and 'ee' (i.e., flea, flee) united in pronunciation into /i:/ causing some distraught (Horobin, 2016). "During this period, the standardization of English spelling was largely completed; texts printed during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries show few orthographic variations from Modern English." (Horobin, 2016, p. 36)

2.2   Modern English

This chapter briefly explores the current face of English in the five main linguistic areas – phonetics and phonology, morphology, lexicology, syntax, and stylistics. The following describes the British English variety in its Standard English dialect.

2.2.1   Phonetics and phonology

The British English variety, specifically its standard dialect, is considered a written counterpart of spoken Received Pronunciation (RP). Standard English and Received Pronunciation are considered the language norm, most likely because higher social classes commonly used them during standardisation and codification in the 18th century. Thomas, Wareing, Singh, Peccei, Thornborrow & Jones (2004) note that in recent decades, southern influences have been introduced into the standard variety resulting in Southern England Standard Pronunciation (SESP) becoming the spoken standard, acting as an original language codification 'muster' from south-east Midlands area (Thomas, Wareing, Singh, Peccei, Thornborrow & Jones, 2004), i.e., the London area today. The phonemes in English, the sounds one produces, are transcribed according to the Phonetic Alphabet of the International Phonetic Association (IPA).

The phonemic system for Received Pronunciation counts 44 phonemes – 20 vowels (12 monophthongs, eight diphthongs, five triphthongs) and 24 consonants. The consonants are grouped depending on the *place of articulation* (bilabial – lips, labiodental – upper lip and lower teeth, dental – tongue against upper teeth, alveolar – tongue against the alveolar ridge, postalveolar, palatal – tongue against the hard palate, velar – tongue against the soft palate, glottal - glottis, retroflex for rhotic varieties such as the American English only) and *the manner of articulation* (stop - plosives, nasals; fricative – fricatives, affricates, glottal fricatives; resonant – approximants – glides, liquids) as illustrated by Figure 4. The vowels are further divided depending on the *vertical distance of the tongue and palate* (close, mid, open), on the *position of the tongue in the oral cavity* (front, central, back) – demonstrated by Figure 3 – and on the *lip rounding* (rounded, spread, neutral).

Lastly, one must consider the stress of syllables, as it is the primary means of making a syllable prominent. Stress is one of the semantic tells as it can be the distinction between parts of speech (Roach, 2009), e.g., an/to affect, a/to conduct, a/to decrease, an/to import, a/to permit (Marian, n.d.) Other factors include loudness, length, voice pitch and quality. There are three levels of syllable stress in RP – *primary*, *secondary*, and unstressed (i.e., absence of prominence). (Roach, 2009)

		monophthongs			diphthongs			
VOWELS	iː sheep	ɪ ship	ʊ good	uː shoot	eɪ here	ɪə wait		**voiced** **unvoiced**
	e bed	ə teacher	ɜː bird	ɔː door	ʊə tourist	ɔɪ boy	əʊ show	
	æ cat	ʌ up	ɑː far	ɒ on	eə hair	ɪə my	aʊ cow	
CONSONANTS	p pea	b boat	t tea	d dog	tʃ cheese	dʒ June	k car	g go
	f fly	v video	θ think	ð this	s see	z zoo	ʃ shall	ʒ television
	m man	n now	ŋ sing	h hat	l love	r red	w wet	j yes

Table 1. The Phonetic Alphabet of the IPA. (Englishclub, n.d.)
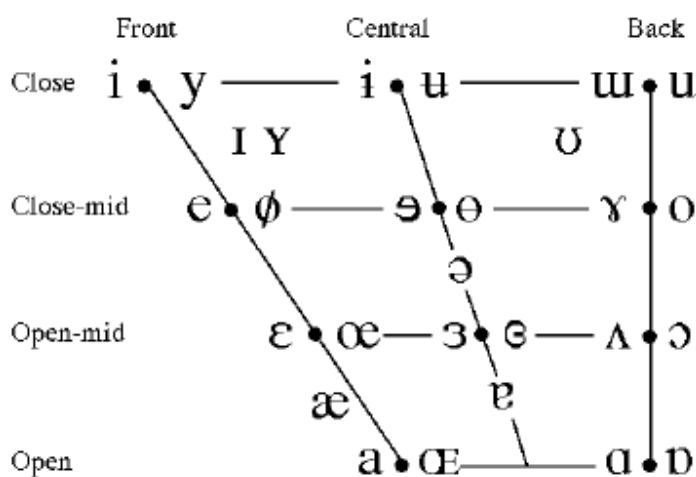
Figure 2. The English IPA vowel chart. (Wieling, Margaretha & Nerbonne, 2011)

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	p b			t d			k g "get" not "gem"	ʔ "uh-oh"
Fricative		f v	θ "thing" ð "then"	s z	ʃ "shoe" ʒ "caSual"			h
Affricate					tʃ "church" dʒ "judge"			
Nasal	m			n			ŋ "sing"	
Liquid				l, ɹ "run"				
Glide	(w)					j "Johan"	(w)	

Table 2. The English IPA consonant chart. (McCulloch, 2016)

2.2.2 Morphology

The linguistic discipline of morphology is "a structural language level between phonology and syntax." (Dušková, Klégr, Malá & Šaldová, 2018, p. 7) This field can be divided into two sub-disciplines – **inflectional** and **lexical** morphology. For this thesis, we will mainly be discussing the latter. The basic morphological structures are *morphemes*, which form *words*. Based on the number of morphemes, we can distinguish mono- or polymorphemic words. Based on their grammatical and lexical function, words can be further distinguished:

- variable/ inflected or invariable – a distinction based on the ability to take inflections
- lexical/ content or grammatical/ function
- open-class or closed-class – differentiation found on word membership in word-classes

Much like many other European languages, words in the English language can too be divided by **word classes**, i.e., parts of speech, as mentioned above (*nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, articles, numerals, particles*), **prefixes** (*un-, in- ir-, dis-, mis-*), and **suffixes** (nominal - *-ation, -ness, -ity, -hood, -ment*; adjectival - *-ous, -ful, -able;* verbal - *-ate, -ise, -ify*). Word classes further serve as means of conversion (complete or partial), i.e., means of changing a word's belonging to a specific part of speech – *full – fill, belief - believe, a/ to house, criminal (n/ adj), garden (n/ adj – garden party), young (adj/ n – the young).* (Dušková, Klégr, Malá & Šaldová, 2018)

Nouns and determiners

Nouns carry semantic meaning, which makes them lexical morphological structures with definable grammatical categories:

- number – singular, plural
- countability – countable (*book, forest*), uncountable (*grass, music*)
- gender – masculine, feminine, dual
- reference – generic, non-generic – definite, indefinite – specific, non-specific
- case – common, possessive.

A distinction can be made between **proper** (own names with no lexical meaning) and **common** nouns (notions and preconceptions). Common nouns may be divided further into **concrete** and **abstract** terms (e.g., *a bed*, *happiness*), regardless of their countability. Nouns may have various syntactic functions as they may realise the subject, the object, and

the complements in noun phrases within a clause or a sentence. They are accompanied by a determiner, commonly realised by an article or a pronoun, in these structures.
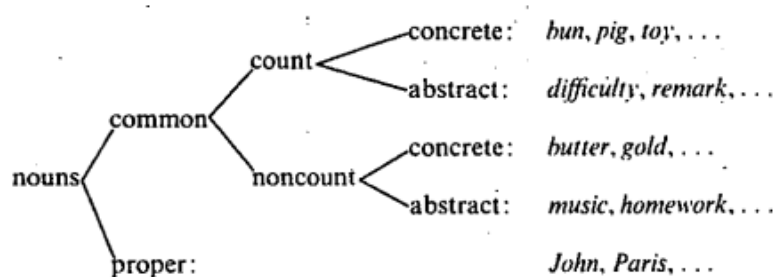
Figure 3. The most important noun classes.
(Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, p. 247)

Determinatives or determiners are particles of "linguistic or situational context. The kind of reference a particular noun phrase has depends on its DETERMINATIVE element, *ie* the item which 'determines' it." (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, p. 253) These structures express either a definite or indefinite reference and can further be divided into three classes: predeterminers, central determiners, and post-determiners.

Lastly, there is the possibility of zero article used with a noun phrase, "with plural count nouns and with noncount nouns, the indefinite article does not occur…The zero article is used instead." (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, p. 274)

Pronouns

Pronouns are "a varied class of closed-class words with nominal function. By 'nominal' here we mean 'noun-like' or, more frequently, 'like a noun phrase'." (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, p. 335) They may stand in the place of a phrase, or they may reference it. In some cases, they may express general notion (i.e., *somebody*). (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985) They can be distinguished into several sub-groups – personal (*I, you, she, we, they…*), **possessive** (*my, your, his, their…*), **reflexive and reciprocal** (*myself, itself, oneself, ourselves…*), **demonstrative** (*this, that, these, those*), **interrogative** (Wh-elements), relative (*who, which, that, whom, whose, whereon, whereupon*) and **indefinite** (*all, everything, everyone, each, both, none…*). (Dušková, Klégr, Malá & Šaldová, 2018) Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik (1985) offer an alternative distinction:
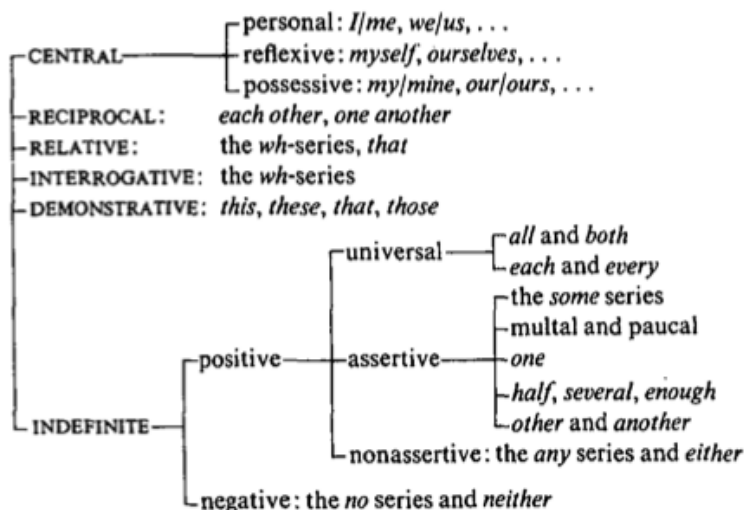
Figure 4. Pronoun subclasses. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, p. 345)

Adjectives

English adjectives derive from other parts of speech and thus are formed by suffixes, "*-able, -ful, - ish, -less, -y, -ly, -al, -ic, -ous*". (Dušková, Klégr, Malá & Šaldová, 2018, p. 39) With accordance to Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik (1985), adjectives carry four basic functions:

- **attributive** – left-valency position from the head of a noun phrase expressing a specific characteristic, feature, or quality of the headword (appositive)
- **predicative** – syntactically functioning as complements (postpositive)
- **gradable** – comparative, superlative.

In some cases, adjectives can function as head words in noun phrases and "unlike nouns, do not inflect for number or for the genitive case and they usually require a definite determiner." (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, p. 421) These words often refer to groups with a shared quality – a characteristic, nationality, or social class (i.e., *the brave, the sick, the privileged, the British*).

Semantically, adjectives can be distinguished based on their dynamics, gradability or inherence (i.e., *a sick child, a sick idea*). (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985)

Adverbs

Adverbs generally function as headwords in adverb phrases without requiring further modifications, which function as adverbials or modifiers within a clause. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik (1985) distinguish three adverb types:

- **simple** – monosyllabic, often expressing position or direction
- **compound** – multisyllabic, mostly linking devices (i.e., *somewhere, therefore, whereby, herewith*)
- **derivational** – open-class words originating in adjectives (suffix '-ly').

Another division of adverbs is based on their semantic meaning, where we observe the following classes – space, time, process (manner, means, instrument, agentive), respect, contingency (cause, reason, purpose, result, condition, concession), modality, and degree.

Verbs

Verbs can be divided into three categories according to their function and semantic classification within the verb phrase:

- **full/ lexical** – semantic meaning
- **auxiliary** – grammatical meaning; this category also encompasses **modal auxiliaries**, which carry features of lexical meaning (i.e., *can, may, shall, must, need*)
- **linking/ copulas** – limited lexical features (*be, become*).

A particular group of primary words also stands on the line between lexical and modal verbs; they are the basic verbs *be, have* and *do.* Full verbs can be further categorised based on their regularity (regular/ irregular). Regular verbs have four primary morphological forms, while the number of forms for irregular verbs may differ (to illustrate, one may compare the verbs *to speak* and *to cut*). The elementary verbal forms, apart from the base, are the third person of singular ('-(e)s' suffix), the present participle ('-ing' suffix), past form ('-(e)d' suffix for regular verbs) and the past participle, which is identical with the past form for regular verbs, where the participles are the non-finite verb forms. Irregular verbs, based on their irregularity in past tense, can be categorised into seven classes.

Semantically, the first feature one may distinguish is the time – *tense* – either past, present, or future. On a grammatical level, "the threefold opposition is reduced to two, since morphologically English has no future form of the verb in addition to present and past forms. Some grammarians have argued for a third, 'future tense', maintaining that English realizes this tense using an auxiliary verb construction (such as will+ infinitive): but we prefer to follow those grammarians who have treated tense strictly as a category realized by verb inflection." (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, p. 176) Lastly, there are the perfective and progressive aspects of verbal tenses: (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985)

NAME	EXAMPLE
present perfective (simple) past perfective (simple)	*he has examined* *he had examined*
present progressive (simple) past progressive (simple)	*he is examining* *he was examining*
present perfective progressive past perfective progressive	*he has been examining* *he had been examining*

Table 4. Perfective and progressive aspects of verbs.

(Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, p. 189)

2.2.3   Lexicology

Lexicology as a linguistic discipline examines two basic structures - words (*lexis*) and phrases from an external perspective (i.e., investigates and describes relationships between words). There are four sub-fields to consider: lexical semantics (meaning and relations), lexical morphology (word formation), phraseology (idioms and set expressions), and diachronic studies (historical development of words). For this thesis, we will assume the descriptive (also synchronic) lexicology, thus the vocabulary (*lexicon*) of modern English. (Lipka, 1992)

As formerly mentioned, the critical item observed in lexicology is **a word**. "Every language has a vocabulary, or 'lexicon', which forms one part of its grammar — or, to use a more accurate term, one part of its lexicogrammar. The lexicogrammar of a language consists of a vast network of choices, through which the language construes its meanings… Some of these choices are very general, applying to almost everything we say… Others are very specific, belonging to just one domain of meaning; these arise only when we are concerned with that particular domain." (Halliday & Yallop, 2007, p. 3) There is a distinction to be made of **content** and **function** words, i.e., words with and without semantic meaning. Lexicology is concerned with semantically expressive items only. (Halliday & Yallop, 2007)

From an external perspective, extra-linguistic reality is reflected in semantic meaning. At the same time, internally, it is a collection of semantic features combined into a concept. Such concepts may represent various signs – **icons**, **indexes,** or **symbols** – based on their arbitrariness (i.e., relation to reality).

Meaning itself has three layers, which a lexicologist must consider in word analysis – the **conceptual**, **connotative** and **collocative** aspects – the notional meaning, the affective meaning, and the word's associations within the lexicon. Lastly, the dimensions of language

must be considered, as they closely relate to lexical relationships. The vertical dimension describes **paradigmatic** relationships – synonymy (identical meaning), hyponymy (subordinate meaning), compatibility (relationship based on semantic overlap), incompatibility (mutual exclusion), complementarity (opposites creating a pair), antonymy (opposite meaning), converseness (semantic reciprocity), meronymy (relationship between a part and a whole); polysemy (multiple related meanings – metonymy, metaphor), homonymy (same form, unrelated meanings – homonyms proper, homophones, homographs); , whereas the horizontal point of view characterizes the **syntagmatic** relations – collocations, word combinations, set expressions (idioms, phrasal verbs, proverbs, clichés…).

Describing a language's lexicological qualities, one must look at the colloquialisms and set expressions (phrasal verbs, proverbs, linking devices) – non-interchangeable word groups carrying a non-literal meaning, quotations and clichés, which are unique to each language as they are connected to the spoken medium and its culture. (Lipka, 1992)

Lastly, a big part of the field is **word formation**, a sub-field examining how words in a particular language are created. In modern English, there are many ways of forming words; this thesis describes the two major below:

- **affixation** – the system creating words by using derivational affixes: prefixes (mostly class-maintaining) and/ or suffixes (mostly class-changing/ inflectional, grammatical), where they can further be distinguished based on:
  - the part of speech they modify (nouns, adjectives, numerals, verbs or adverbs)
  - the lexico-grammatical meaning/ the semantic value they add to the source word (diminutives, agent nouns, abstract nouns, feminine nouns)
- **compounding** – a practice where a word is created by putting two lexemes with separate meanings together to create a new word, i.e., *railway, washing machine*. This results in the new existing word having two roots. There are three types of compound lexemes observed in modern English: compound nouns – the grammatical head and the modifying element (*armchair, railroad*), compound adjectives (*cold-hearted, long-lasting*), compound verbs – often formed through back-formation (*to housekeep, to babysit*). (Bauer, 1983)

2.2.4   Syntax

Syntax is a field concerned with phrases, clauses, sentence structures, and basic syntactic units. The syntactic analysis explains the function of a word or phrase in a sentence and its connection to the other clausal elements. In every phrase, one can locate the headword, which decides what type of phrase we assess – *noun*, *adjective*, *verb*, *adverb,* or *prepositional* phrase. All these phrases can be determined as *simple* (only the headword, possibly accompanied by an article) or *complex* (further modified). Phrases function as clausal elements within a clause or a sentence. Generally, a piece of language is assumed to be a clause if it consists of a **Verb** and a **Subject** – the two elements creating the bare frame and can be further modified or complemented by facultative elements. (Dušková, 1994) There are two types of sentences to be distinguished – *simple* (identical frame to a clause) and *multiple*, which can further be distinguished as *compound* (several syntactically independent clauses) or *complex* (main and dependent/ subordinate clauses). (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985)

Every clause observes a particular structure – word order, as the word's position within a clause defines its syntactic function. Four types of sentences can be identified, each having a specific communicative (primary/ secondary) function:

- **declarative**: S-V, statement
- **interrogative**: V-S, question
- **imperative**: (S)-V, command
- **exclamatory**: Wh-element-S-V, exclamation (Dušková, 1994)

Clause elements

There are *obligatory* (Verb, Subject) and *facultative* (Object, Modifier, Adverbial, Complements, Determiners) clause elements, and in this sub-chapter, we will shortly explore each of them. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985)

The essential element in every clause is the **VERB**, demonstrated by a lexical (full - intransitive/ transitive), functional (auxiliary/ modal), or linking verb. The verb's valency further determines the obligatory elements for that sentence (the semantic-syntactic pattern), i.e., the transitive verb 'make' requires an object to work semantically. The Verb is always realised by a verb phrase, which sometimes can include an *operator* (the verbs 'to be', 'to have' and the auxiliaries), not only the full verb. This often happens in questions or non-present tense and progressive tense clauses.

Looking at the matrix clause, the **SUBJECT** takes a left-valency position to the Verb, except for an interrogative utterance, where one can observe inverted word order. The Subject can be realised by **nominal elements** - nouns, pronouns (including 'it', 'there' and general agents), or syntactic nouns (elements functioning as nominal elements within a clause, most often finite and non-finite clauses). Semantically, the Subject can represent many roles depending on the voice of the clause, i.e., the agent, the recipient, the causative, the patient… If derived from an adverb, it can also be locative, temporal, causative or depict a means, tool, or instrument.

The other clause elements include the **subject** and **object complements**, **adverbials**, and **modifiers**, sometimes called attributes. Complements give us additional information on the subject or object and are usually bound via a copula or complex transitive verb. Their semantics express qualification, classification, action, identification, or possession. Much like the other facultative clause elements, adverbials give the reader additional information. Semantically, they express space, time, process, respect, contingency, modality, or degree while being realised by a range of phrases (adverb, noun, prepositional phrase, and a verbless, non-finite, or finite clause). Unlike other elements, their position is not set within the sentence word order; they can be moved around the sentence depending on emphasis or relation. (Dušková, 1994)

Negation

Modern English recognises two negative grammatical particles, 'no' and 'not', further incorporated in lexical negatives, i.e., *nobody, no one, nothing, never, neither*… However, there are other lexical means of expressing negation, mainly using negative affixes, i.e., 'un-', 'im-', and 'dis-' (*unemployed, impossible, displeasure*). Unlike in many other languages, the general rule for expressing a negative in an English clause is single negation. One can negate the entirety of a clause or only its element while preserving the overall meaning of a sentence positive. Nevertheless, cases of double or multiple negation are observed – both lexical and grammatical negation are present within a clause, and several negative grammatical particles are present (rare, often considered incorrect in standard English). (Dušková, 1994)

2.3   Dialects of British English

"Dialects are unique sets of sounds, words, phrases, and grammatical structures that combine to make up our distinctive ways of speaking. English varies in these different ways from country to country, county to county, and even village to village." (Dialect and Heritage Project, 2023) Every speaker has a dialect and an accent, which is influenced by their sociocultural and geographical background, i.e., where and how they grew up, in what conditions… "The term 'accent' refers to pronunciation. To speak with a regional accent, for instance, is to pronounce your words in a manner associated with a certain geographical area," (Thomas, Wareing, Singh, Peccei, Thornborrow & Jones, 2004, p. 134) essentially describes typical phonetic and phonological changes and tendencies in a particular region. Dialect is concerned with the syntactic and lexical aspects of language. (Bauer, 2007) "In spoken language, a dialect is often associated with a particular accent, so a speaker who uses a regional dialect will also be more than likely to have the corresponding regional accent," (Thomas, Wareing, Singh, Peccei, Thornborrow & Jones, 2004, p. 135), much like **Standard English** has its counterpart **Received Pronunciation**; thus, these terms should be assumed as a compact whole when assessing a particular area. (Thomas, Wareing, Singh, Peccei, Thornborrow & Jones, 2004)
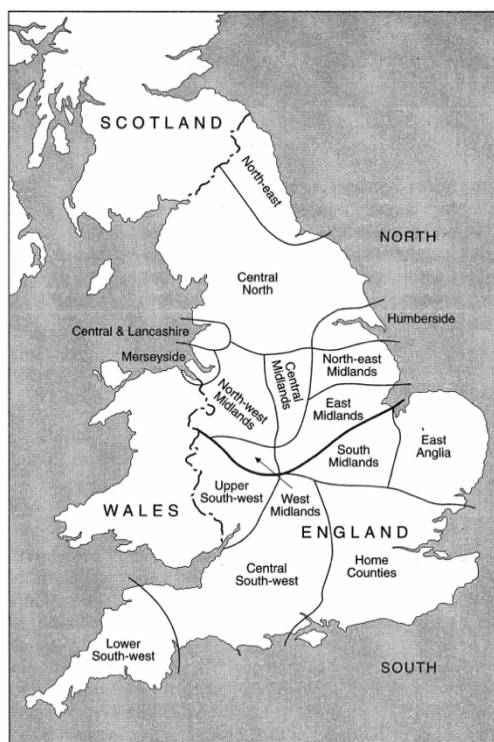
Figure 5. "Modern English dialect areas." (Trudgill, 2000, p. 152)

2.3.1   Major dialects in Great Britain

"Standard linguistic forms are used throughout Britain, with little variation. As we move further down the social scale, we find greater regional variation." (Thomas, Wareing, Singh, Peccei, Thornborrow & Jones, 2004, p. 140-141)
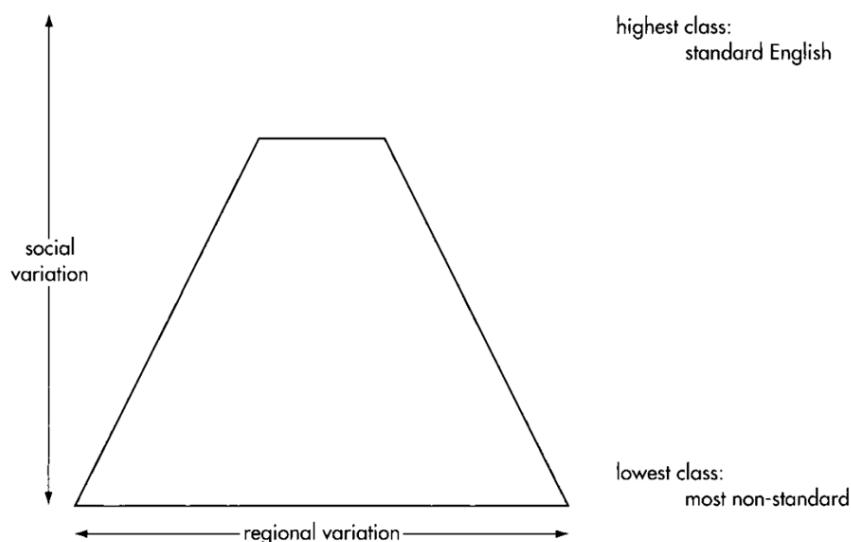
Figure 6. Social and regional variation in dialects. (Turdgill, 1983, p. 29-30)
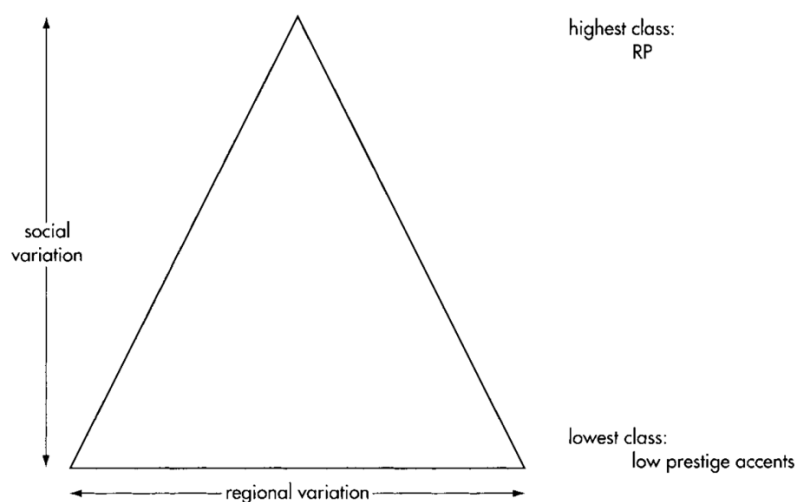
Figure 7. Social and regional variation in accents. (Turdgill, 1983, p. 29-30)

Standard English and Received Pronunciation are understood as the correct form of the language, deeming other dialects and accents incorrect. Although these forms have been agreed on as the norm taught at schools, they are used for formal and official occasions, "most regional dialects are much older than so-called 'Standard English'. They are therefore

closer to the way English was spoken in the past. The English language has never been just one thing, however. It has varied from the time when it first developed, and has been changing ever since, absorbing influences from many different sources over time" (Dialects and Heritage Project, 2023) as per the first chapter of this thesis. According to writings of Beal (2010) and findings of Orton's Survey of English Dialects (1962-71), the most recognised urban dialects – "Scouse (Liverpool), Geordie (Newcastle), Brummie (Birmingham), Cockney (London) and Manc (Manchester)" (Beal, 2010, p. 6) in the UK – are discussed in the following sub-chapters.

|	/ʌ/ in but	/ɑː/ in bath	/r/ in arm	[ŋg] in sting	/j/ in few	/iː/ in coffee	/eɪ/ in gate	/l/- vocalisation	/h/ in hill
North-East	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	x	x	✓
Humberside	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	x	x	x
Central North	x	x	x	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Central Lancs.	x	x	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
Merseyside	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x
N-W Midlands	x	x	x	✓	✓	x	✓	x	x
W Midlands	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x
E Midlands	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓	x	x
S Midlands	✓	✓	x	x	x	✓	✓	x	x
East Anglia	✓	✓	x	x	x	✓	✓	x	✓
South-East	✓	✓	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	x
E South-West	✓	x	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	x	x
W South-West	✓	x	✓	x	✓	✓	x	x	x

Table 4. "Features of 'modern' English dialects" (Beal, 2010, p. 22)

Scouse

Scouse nicknamed the Liverpudlian accent, is tied to the city of Liverpool and the surrounding shire of Merseyside. It has very distinct features, such as pronouncing /t/ as [ts] if it is in the middle of a word or replacing it with a glottal stop or weak /h/ in the final position, i.e., in the word 'that' or 'it' (British Library, 1999b). Scouse "is distinguished by the presence of affricated or fricated consonants where other accents have /p, t, k/. Thus *rap* is pronounced [rapf] or even [raφ], *rat* [rats] or [ras] and *rack* [rakx] or [rax]. Apart from the areas of the North-West Midlands influenced by Liverpool (which should perhaps be reassigned to Merseyside), this is not found in any other accent within England." (Beal, 2010, p. 22) as illustrated in Table 5. Cases of assimilation and followingly of a linking 'r' can also be observed, for instance 'what if' or 'lot of' ([worif], [lorof]).

Grammar-wise, a common phenomenon observed in the dialect/ accent is multiple negation (British Library, 1999b) or using the personal pronoun 'me' ([mi]) instead of the normative possessive 'my' (Murphy & Rugg, 2023). From a lexical perspective, the Scouse

dialect is rich in unique words. According to Murphy & Rugg (2023), the following list entails some of the typical Liverpudlian expressions:

- *boss* (adjective, praising or generally expressing a positive sentiment towards somebody or something)
- *devoed* (adjective, describing some action or situation as negative, sad, inconvenient)
- *jarg* or *plazzy* (adjective, used for something dodgy, fake, or counterfeit)
- a considerable number of terms for 'man' (*lad, la, sconner, auld fella, arlarse*) and 'woman' (*bird, judy*)
- *chocka* or *swerve* (adjective for busy, crowded)
- frequent use of the fille word 'like'
- expressions for off-license shops and their products (*offie, ciggies, bifter, bevvie*)
- *scran* (noun, synonym for a meal or supper)
- specific names for sights in Liverpool (*Fazak* – Fazakerley, *Mersey Funnel* – Liverpool Metropolitan Cathedral, *Noggsy* – Norris Green)

Geordie

"The word Geordie refers both to a native of Newcastle upon Tyne and to the speech of the inhabitants of that city" (Robinson, 2007a) and the nearby Tyneside region. There are other dialects in the area – i.e., Pitmatic (north of Newcastle), Mackem (Sunderland and Wearside County, the dialects of Farm Yakkers (Yorkshire) or Smoggies (Middlesbrough, Teesside) – the Newcastle dialect is most distinctive to a speaker's/ learner's ear. (Robinson, 2007a)

"Speakers from the Midlands and the North (Northumbria and Mercia) pronounce words such as *glass* to rhyme with *gas* and *stood* to rhyme with *stud*…Furthermore, north of the M62 (only in the Northumbrian area, including Scotland) speakers still pronounce words such as *low* and *hole* with a vowel sound used by speakers elsewhere in the words *law* and *haul*." (Robinson, 2007a) In the past years, there have been arguments on the change and levelling of this dialect. "The very noticeably 'Geordie' features are lost, but are replaced by 'Northern' ones, so that they 'sound like northerners, but *modern* northerners'" (Beal, 2010, p. 77)

FACE	GOAT
eː	oː
ɪə	ʊə
eɪ	oʊ
	øː

Table 5. Phonetic variants of two words in Newcastle area. (Beal, 2010, p. 76)

From a morphological point of view, a common phenomenon is the replacement of the third-person verb plural 'are/ were' with the singular form 'is/ was', even if the subject is plural. This results in a normatively incorrect verbal construction, similar to the case where the third person suffix -s is adjoined to all persons (forming phrases of *I asks, they goes…*). In contrast, there is a case where the -s suffix is omitted. This is the case of nouns expressing an amount, length, or time … (years, stones, miles) in the – *2 week ago, 6 pound* heavier. Among other grammatical changes, in the Geordie dialect, some irregular past and perfect tense verb forms are not the same as Standard, i.e., the verbs come, eat, do, give… (Robinson, 2007b)

Lastly looking at the lexical aspect, below is an account of several terms typical for the Newcastle area:

- *bonny* (adjective, synonym for pretty, good-looking)
- *canny* (adverb, stands for very, quite, really)
- *fogs* (numeral, meaning first)
- *haway* ('Come on!')
- *hame* (noun, modified from home)
- *marra* (noun, another term for mate, pal)
- *pet* (noun, a familiarised term for 'woman')
- use of the Anglo-Saxon *auld*, rather than 'old'
- *aye* (affirmative/ negative expression, much like 'yes/ yeah') and *nae* (equivalent to negative particle 'no' – *nae body*)
- *bairn* (noun, term for 'child')
- *crack* (noun, synonym for humour, banter)
- several terms for 'man' (*laddie*) and 'woman' (*lass, lassie*) (Robinson, 2007c)

Brummie

The next of the well-known urban dialects is Brummie, the home dialect of the city of Birmingham. Looking at this dialect's phonetic features, the first, described by Beal (2010), is the velar nasal plus - "the tendency for speakers in the North-West and West Midlands to pronounce the orthographic <g> in the cluster <ng>… For speakers with 'velar nasal plus', the velar nasal is not a separate phoneme, but a variant of /n/ which only and always occurs before /g/ or /k/, but for those without this feature, *sin: sing*; win: wing; *thin: thing*, etc., are 'minimal pairs', words differentiated by a single phoneme, and the words *singer* /sɪŋgə/ and *finger* /fɪŋgə/ do not strictly rhyme." (Beal, 2010, p.17) Beal (2010) further suggests this aspect to be a remnant of former pronunciation in a wider geographical area, though nowadays can only be observed in the closed area of Birmingham to Blackburn. The pronunciation of /g/ in the final position is correct and a sign of high social status in Birmingham.

Focusing on Brummie's grammar, Cheshire et al. (1993) found that there was notable levelling of the use of '*was*' in positive past sense clauses (*I was, you was, they was…*), while the negative phrases tend towards the use of '*weren't*' (*I weren't, you weren't…*). Wales (2003-4) also notes the presence of *thee*-forms for the second persons, especially among inhabitants of higher age.

Lastly, the Visit Birmingham company (2023) and Bentley (2020) list several of typical words or phrases of the dialect:

- *bab, wench* (nouns, affectionate expressions, synonyms for 'love' or 'dear')
- *blarting* (noun, Brummie word for crying)
- *go round the Wrekin* (verb, synonym for 'go for a walk')
- *pop* (noun, term for a fizzy drink)
- *Ta-ra a bit* (a goodbye-greeting)
- *bostin'* (adjective, expressing the quality of something being amazing, brilliant)
- *It's a bit black over Bill's mother.* (a phrase saying it's about to rain)
- *cack-handed/ caggy-handed* (adjective, term for somebody clumsy)
- *ackers* (noun, synonym for 'money')

Cockney

Cockney is a dialect specific to the London area. Unlike other discussed varieties, it has been recognised as a separate language entity for over 200 years, according to Beal

(2010), as some of its features can be observed in the works of Charles Dickens, as he wrote about the lives and circumstances of the working class, who are the primary speakers of the dialect (Jacot de Boinod, 2015).

Cockney carries several distinct phonetic features, including the vocalisation of /l/. As Beal (2010) describes, this is London English phenomenon that only appeared in the early 20th century. "The variant which is of interest is the 'vocalisation' of /l/, so that *milk* is pronounced /mɪʊk/. This affects all words in which /l/ appears after a vowel, so *tell*, *doll*, *call*, *full* would all have diphthongs rather than a vowel followed by /l/." (Beal, 2010, p. 20) Furthermore, the dropping of /h/ occurs when the letter /h/ stands in an initial position, i.e., in words *here*, *half*, *happen*, *holiday*. (British Library, 1967) Beal (2010) considers this more of a social phenomenon, as the middle and higher classes this pronunciation deliberately avoid this pronunciation. Another Cockney feature is the shift from /ng/ to /n/ with words ending with the '-ing' suffix, for instance *running*, *evening*, *driving*, *smoking*. They may be written down as *runnin'* or *smokin'*, where the letter 'g' is replaced by an apostrophe. (British Library, 1967) Lastly, th-fronting is a London dialect phenomenon worth noting. "The pronunciation of <th> as a <f> sound in words like thing or as a <v> sound in words like brother is a characteristic feature of London speech" (British Library, 1999a), along with modifying the pronunciation of grammatical words with 'th' in the initial position, there is a noticeable shift from the dental fricatives /θ/ or /ð/ to a /d/, i.e., in words *the*, *them*, *these*… (British Library, 1999a) These phenomena, the London dialect in general, can be observed in popular English TV shows. The best-known series is the long-running 'East Enders'.

The most significant variation of the Cockney dialect lies in its familiar form – 'Low Cockney'. This sub-dialect, spoken by lower classes, differs from Standard English and RP in most linguistic disciplines, including lexicology, phonetics, and syntax, and "is most notable for its argot, or coded language, which was born out of ingenious rhyming slang." (Jacot de Boinod, 2014) These rhymes have no semantic connection to the original word. The rhyming word (the latter) is later omitted, and only the former remains; thus, an outside speaker will find it nearly impossible to understand the locals. For instance:

- *loaf (and bread)* – head
- *round (the houses)* – trousers
- *trouble (and strife)* - wife
- *apples (and pears)* – stairs
- *army (and navy)* – gravy

- *borrow (and beg)* – egg
- *cut (and carried)* – married
- *pimple (and blotch)* – Scotch (Jacot de Boinod, 2014)

"By the 1950s many working-class Londoners, fond of a bit of wordplay, were trading those phrases among themselves, often leaving off the rhyming part so that "taking the mickey" came to be trimmed from the original "Mickey Bliss" (i.e., "taking the piss," British slang for ridiculing someone), and "telling porkies" was cut down from "porky pies" (i.e., "lies")." (Jacot de Boinod, 2015)

Manc or Mancunian

Manc is a dialect spoken by the inhabitants of the city of Manchester. It carries influences from Irish English (Stašková, 2022) which arrived at English shores due to the "high level of Irish immigration from the nineteenth century onwards." (Beal, 2010, p. 41) One of the most notable grammatical phenomena introduced from Irish is the use of 'yous' or 'youse' in the second-person plural ('you' in Standard English/ RP) – '*Yous'll have to wait*'. A range of non-standard demonstrative pronouns has also been observed in the Manchester area – *this here*, *that there*. (Beal, 2010)

In phonetics, there is a recognisable Irish-origin feature also, the pronunciation of /h/ as [haɪtʃ]. However, it is a broader phenomenon in Britain nowadays. An aspect Beal (2010) and Pidd (2021) mention is the rhotic 'r'. Pidd (2021) continues to describe the "extra long "oos" of the northern mill towns where people looook in coook booooks are a world away from the nasal Mancunian drawl where your brother is "ahh kid" and words which end in a Y finish instead with an "eh" (ya cheekeh monkeh)." The Guardian's editor (Pidd, 2010) also notes some of the lexical variations found in the Manchester Voices project:

- *bramcake* (noun, term used for a bread roll)
- the switch of *to lend* to *to borrow* (borrow something to somebody, instead of *lend*)
- *our kid* (term meaning 'sibling')
- *minging* (adjective, synonym for horrible, awful)
- the phrase *spitting feathers* (substitute for the adjective 'thirsty')

The Mancunian dialect has also been promoted through the well-known TV series 'Coronation Street'. (Beal, 2010)
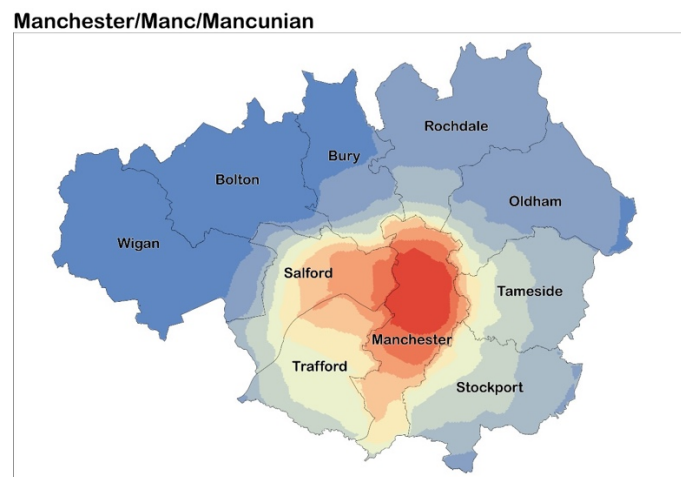
Figure 8. "Heatmap of 'Manc' accent. (Manchester Metropolitan University, 2021)

2.3.2   Dialects of Kent and Sussex

The dialects of Sussex and Kent, located in the southeast of England in the River Thames' estuary, fall into the language group of Estuary English, which emerged in the area in the 20th century. The Estuary English region, known under the name 'Home Counties' (shires surrounding the capital), including Surrey, Sussex, and Kent, used to speak a dialect today assumed in Southwest England or "West Country" as Estuary English spreads. Wells (1999) further defined it as "Standard English spoken with the accent of the southeast of England," and its accent is a mid-point between higher-class RP and regional accents. Beal (2010) notes the EE's origins in Essex and Kent. (Kortmann & Schneider, 2004) Kent and Sussex dialects now fall into the group of non-rhotic Estuary English (Gepp, 1920), minimising the formerly spoken rural rhotic dialects of the regions. (Kortmann & Schneider, 2004) Nevertheless, there are notable differences in the Kent and Sussex dialects compared to EE or RP.

As Kortmann & Schneider (2004) point out, there is a phonetic variant in some places within the two shires, where the vowel /ɒ/ replaces the /ʌ/, especially in the northwest areas of Kent. They further state the influence of East Anglian English in the region in the past, causing rounding of the diphthong /aɪ/ (night - /nɔɪt/).

Figure 9. Map of Southeast England. (Visit South East England, 2023a)

Kent

The county of Kent is in the southeast corner of Great Britain, in the estuary of the River Thames. It borders the counties of East Sussex, Surrey, and Greater London. Its county town is Maidstone, located in the county's centre. Among its well-known cities are Dover, Ashford, Tunbridge Wells or Canterbury. Apart from the county's cities, there are natural riches to admire, too, i.e., the Kent Downs AONB, North Downs – white chalk cliffs along

the coast). Several islands also belong to the region – the Isle of Sheppey, of Grain and Thanet. Historically, Kent was exposed to raids and invaders from Europe, given the county's proximity to the continent across the Strait of Dover; there are ruins of Roman settlements from 43 CE along the coast today. In the 5th century, Kent was inhabited by the Anglo-Saxon tribe of Jutes, and it became a part of Wessex, one of the original seven kingdoms. St Augustine set up the abbeys in Canterbury and Rochester in this era. After Norman Conquest in 1066, the cathedrals within the abbeys were rebuilt and are now critical religious sites, more so because of the murder of the archbishop of Canterbury Thomas Becket in 1170. Kent also bore one of the best-known English authors, Geoffrey Chaucer, who wrote his piece *The Canterbury Tales* in the 14th century. (Pletcher, 2013) Parish & Shaw (1887) note some notions of Kentish in Charles Dickens' books since he lived a part of his life near the abbey and town of Rochester. Given Kent's geographical location, there were several historical instances, where fortifications were built along the coast, i.e., in the Tudor era, during the Napoleonic wars and most recently in World War II upon expecting German invasion. Though close to the county of Greater London and the capital, Kent has preserved its natural rural face and is often nicknamed the 'Garden of England' for this quality. The county of Kent is home to prestigious universities (U. of Kent, U. of Canterbury). (Pletcher, 2013) Lastly, a Kentish sociocultural curiosity observed by Parish & Shaw (1887) "Man of Kent, *phr*. A title claimed by the inhabitants of the Weald as their peculiar designation; all others they regard as Kentish men." (Parish & Shaw, 1887, p. 98)
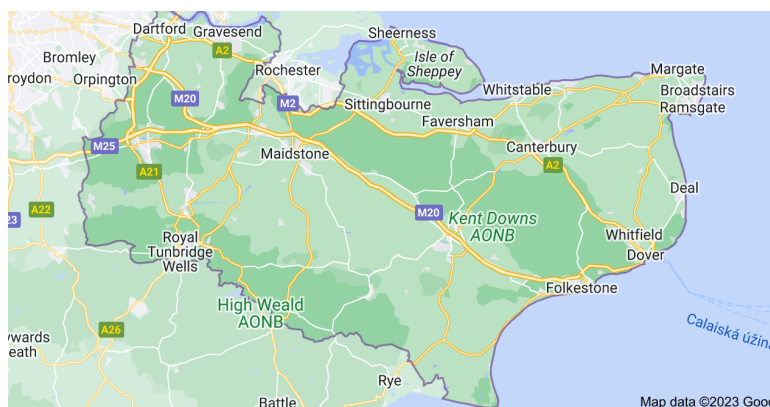

Figure 10. The county of Kent. (Google, n.d.)

The development of language in Kent, the local dialect, follows the historical course of events described earlier in the chapter. The first notable dialect, Kentish, was a southern Old English dialect of the Anglo-Saxon tribes. (Bede, 1990) As Oliver (2002) states, the

Kentish dialect is best preserved in the law documents of *Textus Roffensis*, also known as the Annals of Rochester. The example of Old English Kentish and its translation to Modern English below is from a Kentish king Wihtræd's seventh-century law:

"Gif feorran[-]cumen man oþþe fræmde buton wege gange, [ond] he þonne nawðer ne hryme ne he horn ne blawe, for ðeof he bið to profianne, oþþe to sleanne oþþe to alysenne.

If a man [who is] come from afar or a stranger should go off the track and he then neither calls out nor does he blow his horn, he is to be regarded as a thief, either to be killed or to be redeemed." (Oliver, 2002, p. 163)

Upon inspecting the contemporary form of the Kentish dialect, one may find many phonetic similarities with Cockney, as Estuary English spreads across the southeastern land area, as Harper (2021) notes. He further quotes a senior lecturer Dr Hornsby from the University of Kent, saying that h-dropping and l-vocalisation typical for Cockney are common in bigger cities. At the same time, villages remain in the domain of the Kentish dialect. He (Harper, 2021) continues by paraphrasing the University of Kent lecturer, "people in the village [note, the village of Aylesham] use a short "a". For example, the way they say "grass" rhymes with "mass" rather than "glass". In other places in Kent the long "a" is common. In the Weald, "weather", "bother" and "rather" would be "wea-d-er", "bo-d-er" and "ra-d-er". But that form has died out and people will now say bo-v-er under the influence of London. Also, the letter "v" would be replaced with a "w" - such as wery instead of very." British Library (1998a) source also mentions a distinctive pronunciation or /r/ in the initial position, where instead of the sound being produced in a Standard English manner (liquid alveolar), it is created by placing top teeth to bottom lip (labiodental). Thus, the /r/ sounds closer to a /v/ or /w/. "At one time this pronunciation was associated with a rather affected form of upper class English, but nowadays it appears to be on the increase among younger speakers across the whole of the UK and particularly widespread in South East England." (British Library, 1998a)

Harper (2021) also presents some endemic lexical phenomena:

- *jitty* (noun, meaning 'an alleyway')
- *zoster* (noun, Kentish word for 'sister')
- *nabbler* (noun, synonym for 'a piece of gossip')

- *to roil (*verb*, meaning *to cause a disturbance*)
- *rockery* (noun, expressing the words *row* or *dispute*)
- *scram* (noun, Kentish expression for 'food')
- *to bannock* (verb, *to hit somebody/ to trash something*)

Parish & Shaw (1887) in their dictionary, apart from an array of dialect lexical items, also introduce several instances of Standard English words modified in the dialect, some of which are listed below with their SE counterparts:

- *all-a-most* – almost
- *ax* – to ask
- *chillery* – chilly
- *enow* – enough
- *feetens* – footmarks, footprints
- *lather* – a ladder
- *mannish* – manly
- *nate* – naught, bad
- *ourn* – ours
- *pet* – a pit
- *pumpin* – pumpkin
- *scithers* – scissors

British Library (1998a) source notes grammatical differences in Kent dialect, such as using the unmarked form for the verb 'to be', which does not change in past tense or in the plural. The resulting form is, therefore, *I was, you was, he (she, it) was, we was, they was*. A similar phenomenon also transfers in the present tense - "*there's thirty kids in our class* – in contrast to Standard English there are thirty kids in our class." (British Library, 1998a) Another curiosity related to the verb's negation is mentioned in the Parish & Shaw (1887) dictionary – "bain't [bai-nt] phr. For *are not or be, not*." (Parish & Shaw, 1887, p. 7)

Sussex

The shire of Sussex is a historic area divided into regions of East Sussex, West Sussex and Brighton and Hove. Most of the county lies on the Weald massif, including the South Downs National Park and chalk cliffs along the coastline. The area has been inhabited since the Neolithic age and poses a significant role due to the Homo heidelbergensis excavation site in Boxgrove, West Sussex. It is also the location of the early Roman conquest. (The

Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2000) In the late 5th century, the Saxons, led by King Ælle, took over the area and founded the Sussex kingdom, only to be conquered and adjoined to Wessex in the early 9th century. (Edwards, 2004) It is within the borders of Sussex, in the Pevensey-Hastings area, where one of the most future-altering battles of British History was fought in 1066, leaving William the Conqueror victorious. This led to a surge of infrastructure development in the area as many abbeys (Battle), castles (Pevensey Castle) and surrounding cities were built or enlarged (Lewes; ports in Hastings or Rye). "Most of the county's modern growth has been coastal, beginning with the rise to popularity in the late 18th century of Brighton as a seaside resort under royal patronage. By the end of the 19th century a string of resort towns lined the coast, including Bognor Regis, Worthing, Eastbourne, and Bexhill." (The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2000)

Figure 11. Map of Sussex. (Visit South East England, 2023b)

As Parish (1877) says, the dialect of the Sussex shire reflects the area's geographical position and history. It carries signs of Anglo-Saxon, Old Dutch and British while encompassing some Scandinavian and 14th-15th century French expressions due to immigration waves to the coastal areas. "Most of our words now in common use, denoting agricultural and domestic implements, are either to be traced to an Anglo-Saxon derivation, or actually retain their original Anglo-Saxon names in all purity of spelling and pronunciation." (Parish, 1877, p. 4) Looking at the geographical aspect, the coastal position allowed for fishermen's contact with fellows from continental Europe.

Focusing on the morphological and partly stylistic aspect, Wales (2000) notes the overwhelming use of feminine gender pronouns in the Sussex dialect, where one may find SE opts for the masculine or neutral. Moreover, the British Library (1998b) source lists the following non-standard grammatical instances typical of traditional dialect in Sussex shire.

The article notes that some of the traditional structures, such "the additional <s> on the first person singular verbs… the use of the verb 'to have' unmarked for person" (British Library, 1998b) will nowadays be used by the older generation of speakers only, while other features, i.e., multiple negation or absence of the plural suffix '-s', are commonplace in the contemporary speech.

Parish (1877) describes a phenomenon of the lexical domain, specifically the etymology of some Sussex expressions, where one word stands for a different meaning compared to SE. They give the following examples: "brown-crisis for bronchitis, and rebellious for bilious…chrysanthemums called Christy anthems, and China asters Chaney oysters" (Parish, 1877, p. 6) As the author notes, he collected nearly 1800 words for his dialect dictionary, some of which are listed below with their Standard English counterparts:

- *all-one* – all the same
- *anywhen* – at any time
- *by-the-bye* – by chance
- *crummy* – fat, overweight
- *to fan* – to banter, tease
- *-like* – word-suffix expressing a near likeness (i.e., *a bee-like creature*)
- *mucked-up* – confused
- *poor* – thin
- *quaint* – acquainted
- *quirk* – a whim, a fancy
- *rough* – passionate, angry

Stack (2022) also lists several contemporary Sussex dialect words in his article:

- *Pork-bolters* – Worthing fishermen
- *flittermouse* – a bat
- *dumbledore* – a bumblebee
- *lawyers* – brambles (blackberries, raspberries)

Furthermore, Parish (1877) notes the pronunciation in Sussex dialect to be broad and goes on to describe it as illustrated in Figures 13 and 14.

a before double *d* becomes *ar;* whereby ladder and adder are pronounced larder and arder.

a before double *l* is pronounced like *o;* fallow and tallow become foller and toller.

a before *t* is expanded into *ea;* rate, mate, plate, gate, are pronounced rëàt, mëàt, plëàt, gëàt.

a before *ct* becomes *e;* as satisfection for satisfaction.

e before *ct* becomes *a;* and affection, effect and neglect are pronounced affaction, effact and neglact.

Double *e* is pronounced as *i* in such words as sheep, week, called ship and wick; and the sound of double *e* follows the same rule in fild for field.

Having pronounced *ee* as *i*, the Sussex people in the most impartial manner pronounce *i* as *ee*, and thus mice, hive, dive, become meece, heeve and deeve.

i becomes *e* in pet for pit, spet for spit, and similar words.

io and *oi* change places respectively; and violet and violent become voilet and voilent, while boiled and spoiled are bioled and spioled.

o before *n* is expanded into *oa* in such words as pony, dont, bone; which are pronounced pòàny, dóànt, and bóàn.

o before *r* is pronounced as *a;* as carn and marning, for corn and morning.

o also becomes *a* in such words as rad, crass, and crap, for rod, cross, and crop.

ou is elongated into *aou* in words like hound, pound and mound; pronounced haound, paound and maound.

The final *ow*, as in many other counties, is pronounced *er*, as foller for fallow.

Figure 12. Pronunciation of vowels in Sussex dialect. (Parish, 1877, p. 7)

Double *t* is always pronounced as *d;* as liddle for little, &c., and the *th* is invariably *d;* thus the becomes *de;* and these, them, theirs—dese, dem and deres.

d in its turn is occasionally changed into *th;* as in fother for fodder.

The final *ps* in such words as wasp, clasp, and hasp are reversed to wapse, clapse and hapse.

Words ending in *st* have the addition of a syllable in the possessive case and the plural, and instead of saying "that some little birds had built their nests near the posts of Mr. West's gate," a Sussex boy would say "the birds had built their nestes near the postes of Mr. Westes' gate."

Figure 13. Pronunciation of consonants in Sussex dialect. (Parish, 1877, p. 8)

The theoretical chapter of this thesis discussed the historical development of English language, noting the various foreign influences, which contributed to the language's current form. It writes on the present face of Standard English from the point of view of major linguistic disciplines. Moreover, it conveys information on the distinct dialects and accents of British English, such as Scouse, Manc, Geordie or Cockney, before focusing in detail on the dialects of southern shires of Kent and Sussex.

In the following research chapter, this thesis illustrates the differences of Standard English and its dialects by demonstrating the variations observed by L2 learners in listening comprehension experiment.

3   PRACTICAL PART

Research: Variations in comprehension of Standard English and dialects of L2 speakers

3.1   Hypothesis background

This research study investigated further the influence of dialects, specifically the accents of Kent and Sussex shires, on second language learners' understanding and proficiency of spoken language comprehension compared to Standard English.

As this thesis focuses on dialects of the two southern English counties, the concomitant research examined the facts on change in listening comprehension in past studies on regional dialects influencing the L2 learners' proficiency. As Eisenstein (1982) finds in their study focused on dialect sensitivity and attitude, English learners develop these with an advanced level of proficiency, and they assimilate to native dialect attitudes. In their study, Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta & Balasubramanian (2005) explore the influence of regional, ethnic, and international dialects of American English, introduce their results speaking to worsened listening comprehension in L2 learners for speaker (audio recording) with a dialect. Eisenstein & Verdi (1985) also support this argument, as their study finds a significant effect of dialect on comprehension in testing New York area dialects against SAE. This phenomenon is further explored by Anderson-Hsieh & Koehler (1988), who note the general difficulty in understanding caused by unfamiliar accents and talk about the effect of dialect grammar as a contributing factor to decreased comprehension. Goh (1999) in their research also builds on this argument by showing two-thirds of their research participants reporting accent as a crucial factor in listening comprehension.

Major et al. (2005) note that non-native learners are usually exposed to the standard language form rather than its various dialects. They also support this by saying that "one section of the TOEFL, the listening comprehension test, has traditionally used speakers of Standard American English exclusively." (Major et al., 2005, p. 39) Derwing, Rossiter & Munro (2002) speak about training to understand accents, their results show that the accent-trained study participants reported improved ability of dialect and accent comprehension post-training; illustrating the knowledge/ understanding gap between standard varieties and dialects can be decreased by training. Furthermore, Major et al. (2005) also note the global influence of southern standard British English on international varieties due to the UK's imperial past, thus supporting the argument of widespread understanding of the standard variety rather than dialects/ accents.

Based on previous studies described above, the following hypotheses were drawn:

1. The same phenomena observed for Standard American English and its dialectal varieties are valid for Standard British English and the dialects (accents) of Sussex and Kent shires, i.e., the comprehension levels are higher for the standard language form than the dialect.

2. In line with Derwing, Rossiter & Munro's (2002) research, participants who have spent significant time in an English-speaking environment score higher on the dialect comprehension scale.

3.2 Conducted experiment

This experiment tested the influence of dialectal and accent features on the listening comprehension of second language (further referred to as L2) learners. It measured the two following variables:

- *General understanding* defined as 50% and above comprehension of the presented audio/ video recording.

- *Attention to detail* as the participant's capability to notice other information besides the elemental idea behind the recording, i.e., lexical, or grammatical items.

3.3 Participants

This experiment's participant sample included both men and women (46.9%, 53.1%) from various demographics and age groups. The aim was to have a balanced test group and, in doing so, to achieve optimal results. The resulting test group comprised of representatives of each of the age groups (18-25, 25-35, 36-40, 40+), which were determined for this particular experiment (43.8%, 31.3%, 15.6%, 9.4%). A decision to exclude individuals below 18 years of age was made, as their participation would (a) require parental consent, and the obtaining of which would slow down the research process, and (b) they would not have reached the required educational threshold (passed the high-school-level exam in the English language – Maturita, Abitur, Studentexamen, Leaving Certificate, Baccalauréat). Given the second condition, we also inquired about the level of education acquired, counting 50% of participants who had reached a university-level proficiency (B2). At the same time, the remaining percentage either reached a high-school level (B1) or have also studied the language as an extracurricular activity (i.e., in language schools, term studies abroad, studying for and passing SATs or IELTS exams). The respondents were also asked about their experiences abroad, where half of the participants attested to having spent a significant period of their life in an English-speaking environment, for instance, studying or working

abroad, working in an international company, participating in online communities, and having foreign friends. Lastly, we inquired about the respondents' nationalities, where nearly ¾ of our sample were Czech and the remaining 28.1% varied across Russian (6.3%), Slovak (6.3%), Spanish (6.3%), German (3.1%), French (3.1%), Italian (3.1%), Palestine (3.1%) and Burmese (3.1%) nationalities.

3.4   Procedure, Method, Design and Materials

Participants completed an online questionnaire created for this research, see Appendix 1. The experiment was also promoted via social media and English community groups. Those interested were given information on the research goal along with informed consent forms included prior to the commencement of the study. Afterwards, participants were subjected to a demographic questionnaire determining gender, age, nationality and reached education in the English language.

After completing of the questionnaires, suitable candidates were led to the vital section of the research and completed the main questionnaire.

This questionnaire consisted of three sub-sections, each focused on one of the three varieties (Standard British English, Sussex dialect, Kentish dialect). Every section encompassed a video recording of a widely known actor or TV presenter speaking in an interview - Tina Daheley for standard variety, Sophie Cookson for Sussex shire and Orlando Bloom for the county of Kent. These actors were chosen based on their place of birth, clarity of speech, and observable dialectal and accent features typical for the varieties they represent in this research. The first two video samples were interviews with actress Sophie Cookson, who represents the Sussex dialect, where one could observe lexical phenomena (i.e., meat as 'having substance', *jammy*, *rad*, *gig*) of the dialect, as well as several pronunciation features (mean - /mɪn/, there - /deə/, rate - /ræt/, that - /det/, little /lɪdl/, other - /ʌdə/, actors - /ektəs/, pretty - /prɪtɪ/, rather - /rɑːdə/, together - /t'gedə/). The second video was of a well-known BBC host and reporter Tina Daheley (SBE). The last interview was of actor Orlando Bloom on Saturday Night Live with Jimmy Fallon. The actor demonstrates several linguistics aspects of the Kentish dialect/ accent in his responses (Katy - /keɪdɪ/, that - /daʔ/, there - /deə/, Mighty - /maɪdɪ/, water - /wɔːdə/). A list of identical questions per the measured variables (*general understanding, attention to detail*) followed every video sample. The questions below were asked:

- From the options below, pick one which best represents the main idea of the video.

- How confident, on a scale from 1-5 *(note: where 1 is 'not at all confident' and 5 is 'very confident')*, do you feel to re-tell the content of the interview?
- Did you notice any new words?
- Did you notice some grammatical mistakes?
- Did you find any aspect of this video needing clarification (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, background noise)?

Once the answers have been submitted, all participants will be thanked for participating in the research. They will also be given the option to receive an e-mail to be debriefed and time to ask the experimenter any questions. They will also be offered further information on the study if needed.

3.5   Strengths and Limitations

When designing this study, several issues were considered. Possible results corruption was avoided by employing a survey design ("the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions"; Check & Schutt, 2012, p. 160). Thus, the participants could not interfere or otherwise influence fellow subjects due to completing the survey in different place and time. Furthermore, focusing on the main research section, the information as to which variety were the participants currently listening to was intentionally not disclosed to the participants in effort to minimise possible bias and other mitigating factors (for instance, stress of unknown dialect, which could influence their performance). Moreover, the video samples – interviews with well-known public figures were chosen to spark interest and thus attention to the material in the participants. This also was a further attempt to limit bias, which could be an issue with politicians or other officials. Lastly, there is an ethical issue in play – deception of participants, which was avoided by revealing the true objective of the research before the beginning of the study.

However, there are several limitations to this study, such as ecological validity. This experiment was conducted in changed conditions in an online environment where participants rated a video recording. Their ratings might differ from a real-life evaluation of another party, i.e., a conversation with a lecturer or a friend speaking in one of the explored varieties. All ratings will also be done by self-report; hence they are subject to potential biases (e.g., social desirability bias, searching for unknown lexical items online).

Regarding follow-up studies, it would be interesting to examine effect of dialects on other language learning areas, for instance, reading. Another study could investigate whether

this is a pattern for other British English dialects and accents also (i.e., dialects with greater deviation from the standard variety, such as Geordie or some Scottish accents), and if that were the case, if there are dialects causing larger comprehensive difficulties than others.

4   RESULTS AND COMMENTARY

To assess the results, we individually looked at the respondents' answers to sections on given varieties (Standard British English, dialect of Kent, dialect of Sussex), and then compared the outcomes. As stated earlier, the information as to which variety the participants were currently listening to was intentionally not disclosed.

Comprehension testing of the Sussex dialect showed it was comprehensible to the majority of the participants, as an overall 98.45% of them reported a good understanding of the premise and fair confidence in their ability to re-tell the video samples' contents – 87.6% (first video) and 96.9% (second video) scored three or higher on the confidence scale as illustrated by Graphs 1 and 2, which measures the *general understanding* variable. The second variable in this research, *attention to detail*, was explored through questions based on noticing new words and grammatical anomalies, as explained in the 'Procedure, Design and Methods' section. An overall of 25.05% of respondents attested to noticing new lexical items, naming the use of *meat*, *jammy* and on one occasion, *rad*; on average, 21.9% noticed grammatical deviations.
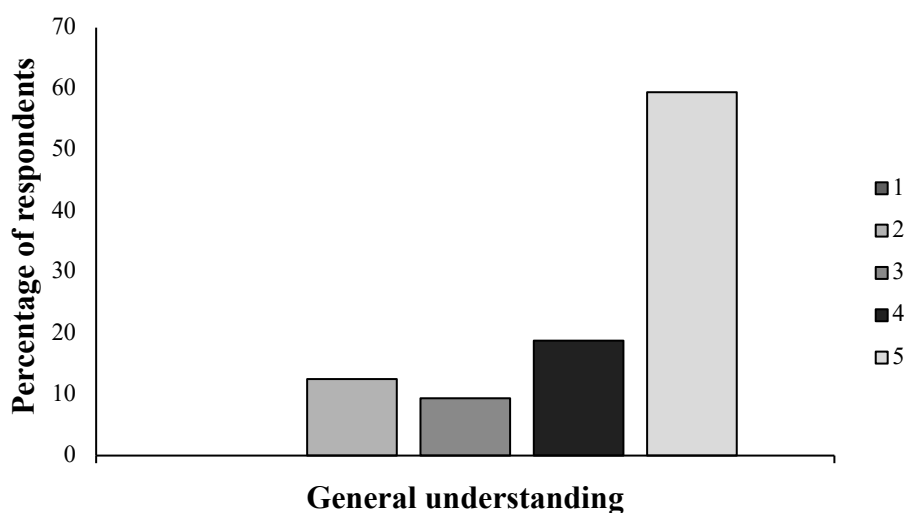

Graph 1. Confidence scale for Sussex dialect (first video recording).
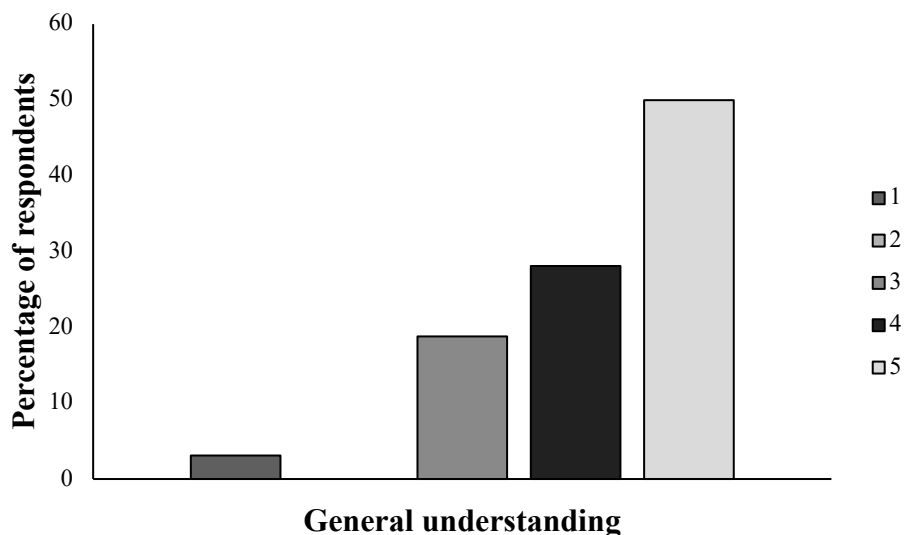
Graph 2. Confidence scale for Sussex dialect (second video recording).

In the case of Tina Daheley's video (Standard British English), 96.9% of respondents understood the main idea. All of them (100%) felt confident, according to the definition of the *general understanding* variable, to interpret the recording's contents (3 – 12.5%, 4 – 25%, 19 – 62.5%). 28.1% reported new lexical items, while nobody (0%) observed any grammatical variance from the standard.

The overall understanding of the premise in the video illustrating the Kentish dialect is 90.6%. The *general understanding*, illustrated by Graph 3, shows over 90% of respondents scoring three or higher on the confidence scale. 22.6% of research participants reported noticing a new lexical item – vocal flaps (another term for 'vocal cords').
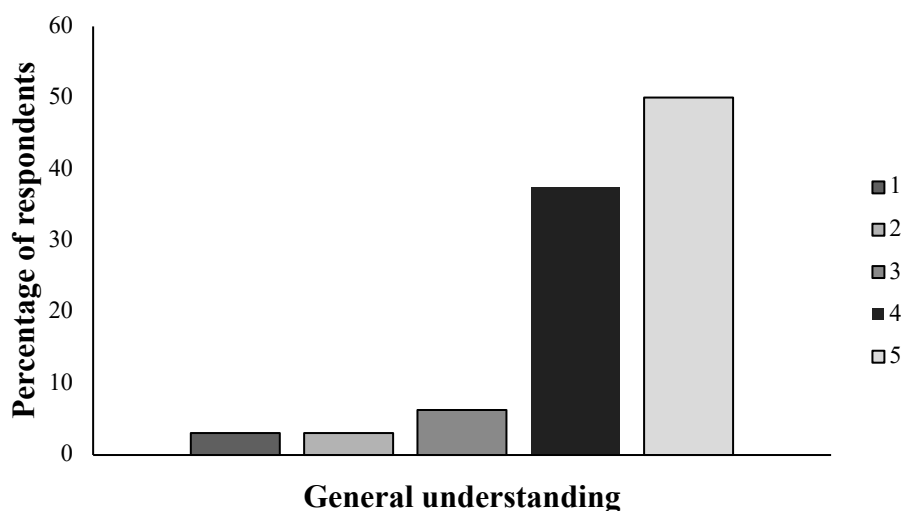

Graph 3. Confidence scale for Kent dialect.

There are several issues of note when drawing comparisons between the three varieties, there. Firstly, the *general understanding* illustrated by basic premise comprehension is levelled across the samples, though dipping slightly for the Kentish dialect (98.45%, 96.9%, 90.6%), with participants having minimal issues. Furthermore, based on the data, respondents feel most confident in re-telling the Standard English video sample content, where not one scored below three on the confidence scale. Turning attention to the other measured variable, *attention to detail*, the gathered data demonstrated by Graph 4 show that over 20% of respondents noticed more than just the premise of videos. It is to be noted that the new lexical items of the standard variety, which the participants reported, were only abbreviations of school subjects (PSHE, SRE), which are generally unknown by non-UK inhabitants and thus were dismissed from the sample as this is irrelevant to this research. Moreover, as Graph 5 shows, the respondents' attention was drawn to grammatical issues too. The increased percentage shown with the Sussex dialect is primarily due to the second video's host's speech rather than Sophie's, who was the subject of this study. The host, points needing clarification and other disruptive elements of the video samples are listed in Graph 6 accordingly to the participants' responses. Overall, these were listed by 14.05% of the respondents; the remainder of the sample noted no disruptions to the listening tasks. The prominent distracting elements were pronunciation (16,67%), cohesiveness (11,1%), and the previously mentioned host (27,78%; respondents reported difficulties with his pronunciation, lisp, and mumbling). An interesting point was made by over 5% of the participants, who noted difficulties with switching accents. This refers to Anderson-Hsieh & Koehler (1988), Goh (1999) and others, who note that learners are prone to comprehend familiar-sounding dialects.
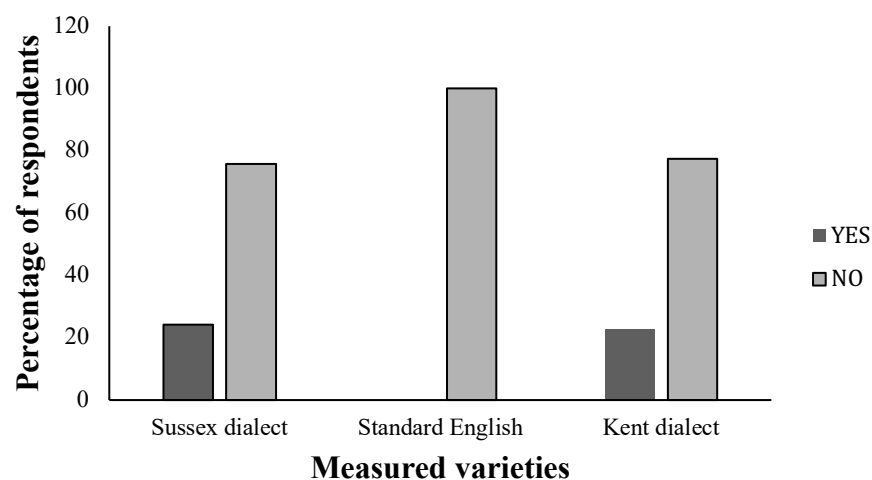
Graph 4. New words acknowledgement across varieties.
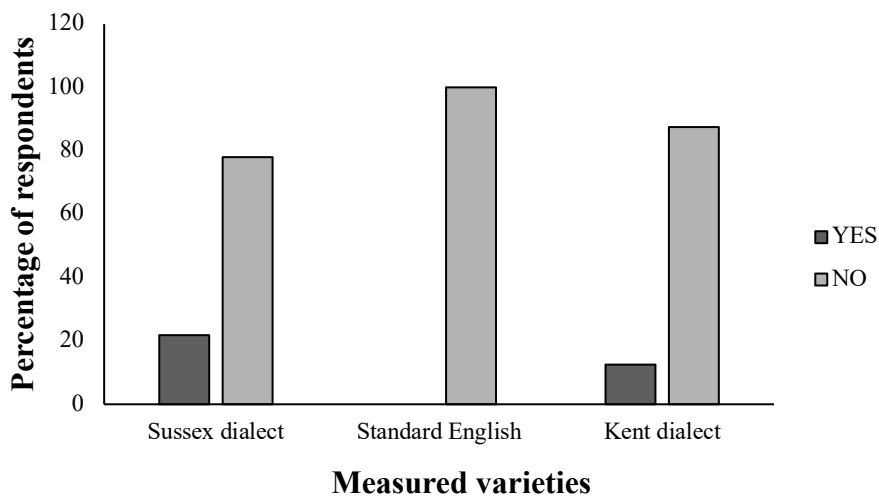
Graph 5. Grammatical deviations acknowledgement across varieties.
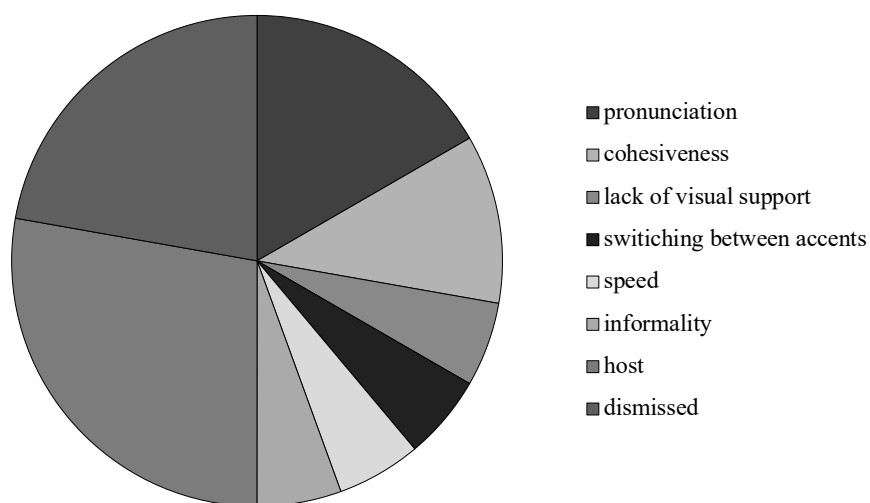
Graph 6. Distractive elements reported by the respondents.

5 CONCLUSION

This undergraduate thesis focuses on British English dialects with specification on the dialects of two counties in south-eastern England, the shires of Sussex and Kent. It aims to describe the standard variety and the recent influences on its form. The Sussex and Kent dialect were explicitly chosen for their impact on the development of the language standard, which resulted in the new "standard" Southern Standard British English, i.e., the standard variety known as King's/ BBC English merged with the southern dialects. This thesis explores the Standard British English and the southern dialects to discuss their similarities and differences. The present work narrates the historical development of British English in light of foreign influences, whose effects last to the present. It presents the current state of British English through several linguistic disciplines – phonetics and phonology, morphology, lexicology, and syntax. Furthermore, it introduces several British English dialects and accents across the United Kingdom, such as Cockney, Manc, Scouse or Geordie. Given its focus, it describes the dialects of Sussex and Kent, giving thorough information on historical development in the areas and linguistic differences of the speech compared to Standard English. The practical research chapter of this thesis explores the variations in comprehension of L2 speakers of Standard English and dialects. This research study set out to explore the differences in listening comprehension of L2 speakers between Standard British English and its southern dialectal varieties (regional dialects and accents of Sussex and Kent). At the beginning of the research, two hypotheses were drawn. Firstly, the same phenomena observed for Standard American English and its dialectal varieties are valid for Standard British English, and the dialects (accents) of Sussex and Kent shires, i.e., the comprehension levels are higher for the standard language form than the dialect. Secondly, in line with Derwing, Rossiter & Munro's (2002) research, participants who have spent significant time in an English-speaking environment score higher on the dialect comprehension scale. Two variables were determined and defined to measure the results: *general understanding* and *attention to detail*.

The conducted research has confirmed both set hypotheses. As outlaid in the results section, 100% of participants reported a *general understanding* of the standard variety defined in the methods, compared to the dialects, where this was approximately 10% lower. Furthermore, as illustrated by Graphs 4 and 5, respondents did not notice relevant lexical items or grammatical deviations in standard variety as opposed to the case of Sussex and Kent dialects. These graphs also speak to the *attention to detail*, where over 20% noticed other information besides understanding the premise. Therefore, the second hypothesis is

confirmed, as this 20% of respondents also reported having spent a significant period in an English-speaking environment.

Overall, this research achieved the set goals and confirmed outlined hypotheses. As introduced in the strengths and limitations section, there are multiple avenues for further research on this topic, either explorative or comparative.

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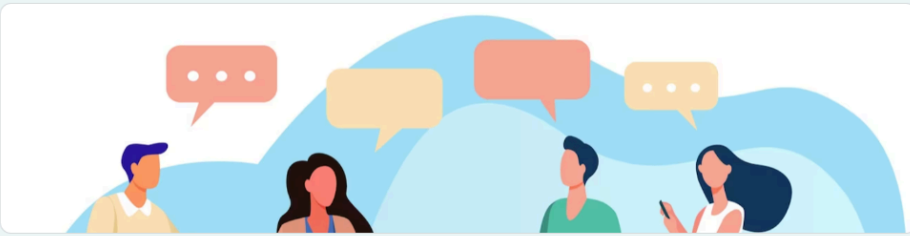https://allthingslinguistic.com/post/143133795554/how-to-remember-the-ipa-consonant-chart.

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7   APPENDIX X

Appendix. Questionnaire for research section of the thesis. Retrieved from

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Variations in comprehension of L2 speakers of Standard English and dialects

This questionnaire is a part of an **undergraduate thesis** (*British English dialects with focus on the shires of Sussex and Kent*) **research** at the Faculty of Education at University of West Bohemia. The aim is to inspect the **differences in comprehension in L2 speakers in Standard English (RP) and the dialects (accents) in the shires of Kent and Sussex**. The results of this questionnaire will serve only as a statistical material for the purpose of this thesis.

REQUIREMENTS: passed high-school-level **exam in English** (Maturita, Abitur, Studentexamen, Leaving Certificate, Baccalauréat etc.)

If you have any questions regarding the research, please let me know on *kasvajcr@students.zcu.cz*
E-mail addresses are gathered for the sole purpose of debriefing the participants.

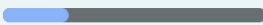kasvajcr@gapps.zcu.cz Přepnout účet

Není sdíleno

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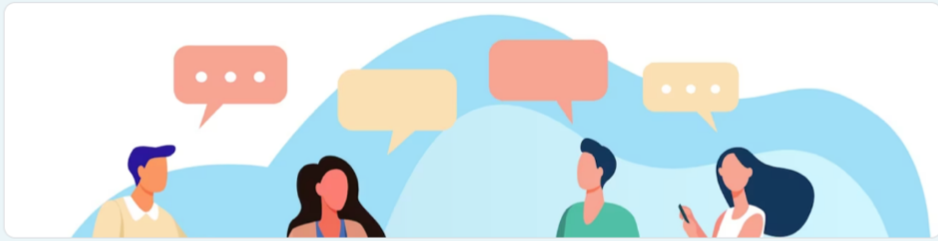
I CONSENT TO MY PERSONAL DATA (gender, age, education) AND MY ANSWERS   *
IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE BEING USED FOR **THE PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH**.

Please note that by not consenting, this is the end of your journey in this research. Thank you for considering your participation.

○ YES

○ NO

Další   Strana 1 z 4   Vymazat formulář

Variations in comprehension of L2 speakers of Standard English and dialects

kasvajcr@gapps.zcu.cz Přepnout účet

Není sdíleno

* Označuje povinnou otázku

PERSONAL DATA

Gender *

◯ Male

◯ Female

◯ Prefer not to say

Age *

◯ 18-25

◯ 26-35

◯ 36-40

◯ 40+

Highest education reached in the English language *

☐ A-Levels/ Maturita and other high-school leaving certificates (B1)

☐ Undergraduate diploma/ classes at univesity (B2)

☐ Extracurricular study - leave a comment below of WHERE and SKILL LEVEL
REACHED

☐ Jiné: _____

Nationality *

◯ Czech

◯ German

◯ French

◯ Spanish

◯ Jiné: _____

Have you spent a significant period of your life in an English-speaking environment? *

◯ YES

◯ NO

If you responded "YES" to the previous question, please elaborate below

Vaše odpověď

First name
Anonymity is observed, you are not required to give your name

Vaše odpověď

Zpět   Další   ▬▬▬▬▬▬ Strana 2 z 4   Vymazat formulář

COMPREHENSION TESTING

The following sections aim to examine your knowledge of the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, which will be further compared to understand the change in comprehension. Listen to the audios and answer the questions.

Listen to two videos of Sophie Cookson being interviewed and answer the questions below.

From the options below, pick one which best represents the main idea of the video. *

○ Sophie talking about time with friends.

○ Sophie explaining a scandal.

○ Sophie shares fun moments from film shooting.

How confident, on a scale from 1-5, do you feel to re-tell the content of the interview? *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all confident	○	○	○	○	○	Very confident

Did you notice any new words? *

○ YES

○ NO

If you answered "YES", what are they?

Vaše odpověď

Did you notice some grammatical mistakes? *

○ YES

○ NO

Did you find any aspect of this video needing clarification (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, background noise)? *

○ NO

○ Jiné:

From the options below, pick one which best represents the main idea of the video. *

○ Sophie is interviewed because of her new song.

○ Sophie talks about her singing in new TV series.

○ Sophie promotes her new band.

How confident, on a scale from 1-5, do you feel to re-tell the content of the interview? *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all confident	○	○	○	○	○	Very confident

Did you notice any new words? *

○ YES

○ NO

If you answered "YES", what are they?

Vaše odpověď

Did you notice some grammatical mistakes? *

○ YES

○ NO

Did you find any aspect of this video needing clarification (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, background noise)?   *

○ NO

○ Jiné:

Watch a promo video with Tina Daheley and answer the questions below.

From the options below, pick one which best represents the main idea of the video. *

◯ Tina talks about what subjects she liked at school.

◯ Tina says social sciences (PSHE, Politics, SRE) are not important.

◯ Tina advocates for people to vote on which subjects are important.

How confident, on a scale from 1-5, do you feel to re-tell the content of the interview? *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very confident

Did you notice any new words? *

◯ YES

◯ NO

If you answered "YES", what are they?

Vaše odpověď

Did you notice some grammatical mistakes? *

○ YES

○ NO

Did you find any aspect of this video needing clarification (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, background noise)? *

○ NO

○ Jiné:

Watch a video of Orlando Bloom giving an interview and answer the questions below.

From the options below, pick one which best represents the main idea of the video. *

◯ Jimmy Fallon talks about his love for apple cider vinegar

◯ Orlando Bloom complains about dog outfits

◯ Orlando Bloom describes why he believes in apple cider vinegar

---

How confident, on a scale from 1-5, do you feel to re-tell the content of the interview? *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very confident

Did you notice any new words? *

◯ YES

◯ NO

If you answered "YES", what are they?

Vaše odpověď

Did you notice some grammatical mistakes? *

◯ YES

◯ NO

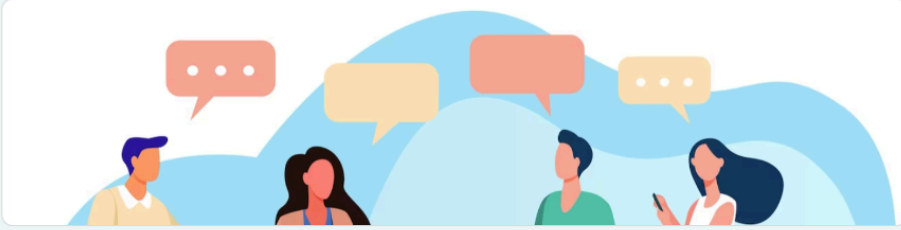Did you find any aspect of this video needing clarification (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, background noise)? *

◯ NO

◯ Jiné:

Zpět　　Další　　━━━━━━━━━━　Strana 3 z 4　　Vymazat formulář

Variations in comprehension of L2 speakers of Standard English and dialects

kasvajcr@gapps.zcu.cz Přepnout účet

Není sdíleno

* Označuje povinnou otázku

FOLLOW-UP INFORMATION

If you would like to receive an e-mail with more information about the study, please choose the "YES" option below. *

○ YES

○ NO

Zpět   Odeslat   Strana 4 z 4   Vymazat formulář

8 SHRNUTÍ

Tato bakalářská práce pojednává o dialektech britské angličtiny se zaměřením na dialekty Sussexu a Kentu. Práce provází historickým vývojem britské angličtiny, popisuje její současný stav a popisuje významné britské dialekty. Vzhledem ke svému zaměření práce pojednává o dialektech Sussexu a Kentu z pohledu historického i lingvistického v porovnání se standartní (spisovnou) formou jazyka. Praktická část bakalářské práce se věnuje rozdílům v porozumění spisovnému anglickému jazyku a jeho dialektům u lidí s jinou mateřštinou. Výzkum představuje dvě hypotézy, a to (a) že úroveň porozumění je vyšší pro standardní formu jazyka než pro dialekt, vzhledem k výsledkům předchozích výzkumů zkoumajících standardní (spisovnou) americkou angličtinu, a (b) že účastníci, kteří strávili delší dobu v anglicky mluvícím prostředí dosáhnou lepších výsledků v porozumění. Provedený experiment potvrdil obě hypotézy. 100 % účastníků prokázalo lepší porozumění standardní formě v porovnáním s dialekty, kde výsledky byly přibližně o 10% nižší. Účastníci nevypozorovali lexikální nebo gramatické odchylky ve spisovné angličtině na rozdíl od dialektů Sussexu a Kentu. Takový výsledek potvrdil druhou hypotézu, vzhledem k faktu, že tato skupina patřila do 20 % účastníků, kteří strávili významnou dobu v anglicky mluvícím prostředí.