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VÝZKUM DIALEKTŮ SPOJENÉHO KRÁLOVSTVÍ

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DIALECT RESEARCH OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

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

V Plzni dne 30.6. 2015

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ABSTRACT

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This bachelor thesis will consist of two parts - theoretical and practical. In the first part I will explore the term *dialect* itself and provide understandable definition of all the key words and all the derived expressions concerning this term. The main part of the thesis will be examining various dialects and accents used by people who speak English as their mother tongue and covering all the crucial information about them, e.g. typical features of each dialect, sociolinguistic aspect. I will also explore the historical background and development of each dialect and provide detailed study concerning this issue. I will also inspect the cultural aspect and convey the social development. The research will be divided into 4 parts, each part representing individual country, i.e. dialects of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

In the empirical part I will analyze 4 specific dialects (one of each country/the most famous or peculiar ones) through given literary work. I will provide comparative study describing all the phenomena covered in the theoretical part and demonstrate the differences in terms of grammar and phonology.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Every language comes in many different varieties, especially when the spoken one is considered. There are some common features which distinguish one language from another one. Each language, however, has different varieties, which arose from several reasons. These varieties are known as dialects and there are many factors influencing what the particular dialect will be like. This thesis focuses on the English language and its dialects in the context of the United Kingdom.

The aim of the thesis is not only to mention some distinct dialects spoken across the United Kingdom and describe their main features, but also to analyze some of them deeper in chosen literary work. Hence, the thesis is divided into the theoretical section and into the practical section. In order to work with dialects, it is convenient to present a brief introductory part, so that the reader is familiar with basic terminology concerning language variations. The first part of the thesis thus contains several language terms from the discipline of sociolinguistics and prepares the reader for further information.

The next part of the work then describes dialects that are spoken in the United Kingdom. It would not be wise to mention all the dialects that are present in that area, so only the most distinct ones are further developed. The text deals with English varieties in the North of England, in East Anglia, Midlands, the London area, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The dialects are analyzed from the lexical point of view as well as from the grammatical and phonetic point of view. If relevant, historical and social background of the particular dialect is mentioned. The practical part of the thesis then focuses on Scottish English, on the London Cockney dialect and on the language variety spoken in the North of England, concretely in the area of Nottinghamshire.

There is a lot of information and secondary literature dealing with sociolinguistics and concretely dialects. The method used to accomplish the theoretical part is thus based on reading secondary literature, selecting suitable information, and implementing it into the text itself. Since the practical part concerns literary work, the analysis is predominantly based on the method of close reading of the chosen literary sources and analyzing them from the language variety point of view.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Dialect

Dialect is, simply put, a variety of a language that indicates where a person comes from. It is a combination of words, pronunciations and grammatical forms that one shares with other people in its surroundings and social background and that differs from the combinations used by other people from other areas and backgrounds. 'Dialects are considered as a deviation from a norm – as abbreviation of a standard form of language' (Trudgill, 1998, p. 3). There is no superior dialect to another. All dialects are linguistically equal.

A dialect is mainly distinguished from other dialects of the same language by features of linguistic structure such as grammar (more precisely syntax and morphology) and vocabulary. Despite the fact that dialects of the same language differ, they share a core of common features. Some linguists include phonological aspect (e.g. vowels, consonants and intonation) to all the other features, but this aspect is typically linked rather with accent. It is often quite difficult to decide whether several linguistic varieties are dialects of the same language or several independent but firmly related languages. Typically, dialects of the same language ought to be reciprocally comprehensible and other languages not. Mutual intelligibility between various dialects is, however, practically never absolutely complete. On the contrary, speakers of firmly related languages are able to communicate without any problems to a certain extent when speaking in their mother tongue.

There are several synonyms to a word dialect that might need an explanation, e.g. *idiom*. Idiom is basically any kind of dialect, or even a language that is spoken in a certain area and uses its own grammar, vocabulary and pronunciations, whereas *patois*, a French expression, stands strictly for rural areas outside the cities. Another example is an expression *vernacular language*. This is a native language or dialect of a particular community used in the area inhabited by the people that speak this variety of language.

Dialectology is a branch of sociolinguistics that studies the systematic variants of a language. Dialectal variation is present in most language areas and often has important social implications. The earliest recorded instance where dialectal information played a role in history appears in the Bible, in the Book of Judges.¹

¹ Vajda, E.J. *Dialectology*. <http://pandora.cii.wvu.edu/vajda/ling201/test3materials/dialectology.htm>. Extracted June 12, 2015.

2.2 Idiolect

Next term on our list is the word *idiolect*. Idiolect is a variety of a language that is used by an individual human being. It is person's individual speaking pattern and habits. This implies, that no two people speak exactly in the same way. Our idiolect is constantly undergoing certain change because of the new vocabulary we acquire during our lives. 'Because each of us belongs to different social groups, we each speak a language variety made up of a combination of features slightly different from those characteristic of any other speaker of the language.' (Klammer, 2007, p. 48) Zdeněk Salzman further describes the term idiolect in his book *Language, Culture, and Society* (2003):

Almost all speakers make use of several idiolects, depending on the circumstances of communication. For example, when family members talk to each other, their speech habits typically differ from those any one of them would use in, say, an interview with a prospective employer. The concept of idiolect refers to a very specific phenomenon - the speech variety, or linguistic system, used by a particular individual. All those idiolects that have enough in common to appear at least superficially alike belong to a dialect. The term *dialect*, is thus rather abstractive.²

2.3 Dialect vs. accent

It is quite important to establish the difference between dialect and accent. While dialect is, as mentioned earlier, a language variety that has its own grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, accent is a way of pronunciation unique to a certain location or nation. Everybody speaks with an accent. So it is possible for us to take any part or sentence from this thesis and read it in Glasgow or New Zealand accent. Contrarily, one may use typical Australian expressions such as *kangaroo* or *boomerang* without utilizing Australian accent.

²The origin of the text:

Salzman, Z. (2003). *Language, culture and Society*. Westview.

Retrieved from: <http://grammar.about.com/od/il/g/idioclecterm.htm>. Extracted June. 15, 2015.

The Oxford English Dictionary quotes the eighteenth-century essayist Addison as saying ‘By the Tone or Accent I do not mean the Pronunciation of each particular Word, but the Sound of the whole Sentence.’ (Bauer, 2007, p. 8) It is necessary to point out that although some accents are spoken by certain people from certain social backgrounds, no accent is linguistically higher than the others.

2.4 Sociolinguistics

The science that observes topics such as dialect, accent, and many more is called *sociolinguistics*. Sociolinguistics is concerned with language in social and cultural context, especially how people with different social identities (e.g. gender, age, race, ethnicity, class) speak and how their speech changes in different situations. Some of the issues addressed are how features of dialects (ways of pronouncing words, choice of words, patterns of words) cluster together to form personal styles of speech; why people from different communities or cultures can misunderstand what is meant, said and done based on the different ways they use language.³

2.5 Geographic dialects

The most common differentiation between dialects is regional, or geographic. The rule is clear – dialects of every region at least slightly differ from another, even if the regions neighbour. The distinction between the local adjoining dialects is usually small, but when traveling farther on, the difference gets bigger.

When speaking about geographic dialects, it is important to mention the so-called *isogloss*. Isogloss is a geographic borderline of a particular linguistic aspect, e.g. pronunciation of a vowel, the meaning of certain word or usage of particular syntactic feature. Every dialect has its own isogloss, but it is quite usual, that several isoglosses connect together and they create a „pack“ of isoglosses.

³ Retrieved from: <https://mlc.linguistics.georgetown.edu/about-sociolinguistics/what-is-sociolinguistics-2/>.
Extracted June 19, 2015.

2.6 Social dialects

As far as social aspect of the dialect is concerned, the social class and educational level of the speakers is a topic worth discussing. There are two main groups, which are usually identified as 'middle class' and 'working class'. Members of the middle class strata have more years of education, execute non-manual work and typically live in the urban territories. 'On the contrary, the working class strata have far less years of education and commonly perform manual work.' (Yule, 2006, p. 206) There are two terms that can be used to specify the social level of each class and those are 'upper' and 'lower'. So there is quite a distinction between 'upper-middle-class speech' and for instance 'lower-working-class speech'. Educational differences between speakers strongly affect the extent of their vocabulary. Although everyone has its own personal idiolect, we often tend to sound like people with whom we socialize. 'On top of that, every occupation has a set of its own expressions and phrases, which comprises the technical terminology and often also the casual chat words peculiar to that specific group of people.'⁴

According to Yule, when we look for other examples of language use that might be characteristic of a social dialect, we treat class as the social variable and the pronunciation or word as the linguistic variable. We can then try to investigate the extent to which there is systematic variation involving the two variables by counting how often speakers in each class use each version of the linguistic variable. (Yule, 2006, p. 206). Slang is described chiefly by particular vocabulary and is more flexible than any other standard dialect, because it is a matter of fashion and the speaker's age plays an important role.

2.7 Language change

It has already been emphasised that accent is connected with varieties of pronunciation, whereas dialect concerns differences in vocabulary and grammar. The accent which was for a long time considered the correct one, is called received pronunciation, RP, and is presented to foreign speakers as a model. However, little percentage of the inhabitants of the UK speaks with this accent. It is considered a "prestige" accent and is not regionally specific, although it is mostly spoken in the south of England.

⁴ Crystal, D. (2015). *Dialect*. Retrieved from: <http://www.britannica.com/topic/dialect>. Extracted June 16, 2015

Regarding the social scale, it is the accent of the people from high class, usually very educated with good job and high income.

As Huges and Trudgill explain, ‘speakers of RP are at the top of the social scale, and their speech gives no clue to their regional origin. People at the bottom of the social scale speak with the most obvious, the “broadest” regional accents. Between these two extremes, in general, the higher a person is on the social scale, the less regionally marked will be his accent, and the less it will differ from RP.’ (Hughes, Trudgill, 1979, p. 6).

Concerning dialects, the recognised dialect taught all over the world is the dialect of Standard English. This, however, does not mean that people speaking with RP will necessarily follow Standard English variety. Standard English has nothing to do with people’s social background, compared to RP. It is a variety used in media, education, politics, administration, and generally in writing. Considering the geography of the United Kingdom and its history, it is only natural that most inhabitants speak a dialect of English that is not standard. These are called the regional dialects, as mentioned above, and are influenced by various factors.

There is a large amount of dialects in the United Kingdom, which differ from Standard English in various ways. They are divided into larger groups, which have their own sub-divisions. It is, however, very important to realise, that the language boundaries are not very clear-cut and that people from various regions are influenced by the speech of the inhabitants of the surrounding dialects. There is, in other words, no guarantee that a person from the rural part of Nottinghamshire will speak the same way as a person from the city of Nottingham. Generalisations about language varieties are always slightly dangerous. This should thus be taken into account.

Among various regional dialects, there are morphological, syntactic and lexical changes as well as some supra-segmental differences such as in phonology. Regarding for example the accent, one typical difference between the north and the south of England concerns the sounds /a:/ and /æ/. Inhabitants of southern England commonly pronounce the word bath like /ba:θ/, with RP accent. On the other hand, northerners tend to pronounce it like /bæθ/. Concerning lexis, the expression *clothes horse* used in standard English and southern dialects, is called *maiden* in northern dialects. (Hughes, Trudgill, 1979, p. 10). It is also necessary to point out, that ‘there is a relationship between social class and dialect similar to the one between social class and accent.

The higher a person's position on the social scale, the less his speech is regionally marked.' (Hughes, Trudgill, 1979, p. 10). Nevertheless, this is not the rule.

Another type of dialectal differentiation is a linguistic change. Every language modifies itself in various ways throughout its existence. At first sight, differences caused by linguistic change does not seem to be considerable, but they concentrate with time. Let's take Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales' and compare it to the Modern English for instance. For Modern English speakers it is naturally very difficult to comprehend the language used in 14th century literature.

2.8 Characterisation of individual dialects

2.8.1 England

Northern England

Northern English of the United Kingdom is a group of dialects spoken in Northern England. Quite a considerable number of dialects belong to this grouping. Those are the dialects of Cheshire, Cumbria, Tyneside, Lancashire, Sunderland, Manchester, Northumberland, Durham, Liverpool, Teesside and Yorkshire. Although the dialects are related, some of them vary to large extent, since the geographical area they cover is vast. Some of the dialects have their sub-dialects and they might differ even from city to city. There are several common features that many northern dialects share, such as using demonstrative pronoun *them* instead of *those*. Nevertheless, it would be more convenient to introduce the most important ones separately, since some of them are rather unique in a way.

- **Scouse**

Let us start with the Scouse variety. This dialect is spoken in Merseyside including the city of Liverpool. The accent of this area, which used to be restricted to Liverpool only in the past, is very distinctive. Huges and Trudgill point out that 'while the accent is northern rather than southern in character, it differs in a number of ways from other Northern urban varieties, including those of the rest of Lancashire.' (Hughes, Trudgill, 1979, p. 61). There seem to be the influence of Irish people, who started settling in Liverpool approximately a hundred years ago.

Concerning the accent, Liverpudlian, another name of the Scouse variety, shares some common characteristics with other Northern accents. Like in the accents of the north and Midlands of England, the so called “foot-strut split” is not generally present. It is a phenomenon, which happened not long time ago. Basically, the vowel /ʌ/ emerged from the vowel /ʊ/, but Northern accents were not involved in this development. The Middle English short /ʊ/ was then divided into two different phonemes - /ʊ/ as in *foot* and /ʌ/ as in *strut*. This means that words like *put* and *putt* (/pʊt/) or *could* and *cud* (/kʊd/) sound the same. In this respect, there is basically no /ʌ/ vowel in the Scouse. There is a similarity with most Northern accents in that the sound /æ/, which occurs in words like *dance* or *daft*, whereas in RP, it is always /ɑ:/. Hughes and Trudgill continue to mention other specialties of Northern accents, especially in the speech of older northern speakers. Whereas they do not use the sound /ʌ/, they do use /u:/ instead of /ʊ/ like in the words *look*, *took*, *book*. (p. 62)

There are, however, some features that make Scouse distinct. Unlike other Northern accents, the final vowel of words like *seedy*, *money*, *city* is /i:/. Long /i:/ is used in these cases generally in Southern English, but Liverpudlian (together with the Tyneside accent) acts alike. As Hughes and Trudgill point out, there is no difference in Liverpudlian between words like *fair* and *fīr*. The vowel is most commonly pronounced as /ɛ:/. There is also distinct aspiration on the sounds /p, t, k/. Another interesting feature in the pronunciation is the sound /ð/, which ‘may act like /d/ in the initial position’. (Hughes, Trudgill, 1979, p. 62) It is important to mention another peculiarity that makes this accent rather distinctive, and that is velarisation. It is secondary articulation during which the back of the tongue is raised up toward the velum, or soft palate as if to pronounce for example a dark /l/.

Moving to the syntax and lexicon of the Scouse dialect, several peculiarities could be listed. Instead of using the possessive pronoun *my*, the Liverpudlians may use the personal pronoun *me*. Such as in the sentence: *That’s me sandwich you got there*. However, if one wants to make it clear that something is his or her, the use will be like in the Standard English. The pronoun *my* will hence have an emphatic function. People speaking with Scouse dialect often use *giz* instead of *give us*. They also use the term *made up* to indicate contentment with something: *She is made up she didn’t meet her rival yesterday*. Among other oddities is for example the phrase *to be sound* meaning *to be good*. There are many more features that distinguish Scouse variety from other dialects. The most recognisable ones, however, have been mentioned.

- **Mancunian**

Another distinctive North English dialect is Mancunian (or Manc). It is spoken in Manchester and its close proximity. Again, it has many common features with other Northern accents, given by the geographical position.

In the beginning of the eighteenth century, the area of Manchester was not much less populated, but thanks to the industrial revolution, the number of inhabitants increased considerably. People headed to Manchester because of the new job opportunities and they were coming from all Europe, but mainly from Ireland. These factors have most probably contributed to the current Mancunian accent.

What makes the Mancunian accent stand out in other English Northern accents is the excessive articulation of vowels. This phenomenon is called over-enunciation.

Inhabitants of other part of Northern England would pronounce the vowels in a more flattened way. Heavy glottalisation is another typical feature of this accent. Consonants /k/, /p/ and /t/, are followed by distinct glottal stops. There is another difference in the pronunciation concerning the nasal /ŋ/. Words which are spelt *ng* are pronounced with /ŋg/, compared to other English dialects and RP, where they say /ŋ/. This can be seen for example in the words *thing* /θɪŋg/ or *singer* /sɪŋgə/. This phenomenon, however, is shared also with the accents of Liverpool and Birmingham.

As for the lexis, Mancunian has a lot of specific vocabulary typical for that area. Nice examples are the nouns *gaff* (residence) *dibble* (police), the adjective *muppet* (ignorant), the intensifier *dead* (I'm dead tired) or some phrase such as *madferit* (I'm mad for it).⁵ These are mostly used by older generations and so they are slowly disappearing from the dialect. There are, however, words typical for Mancunians which are still widely used. For example the noun *mam*, which stands for mother. Concerning grammatical peculiarities, the plural of the personal pronoun *you* is often replaced by *yous*, which is considered as Irish influence.

⁵ Retrieved from: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Manchester_dialect. Extracted: May 31, 2015.

- **Geordie**

Geordie is a denotation of a dialect spoken in the urban area of Tyneside with its capital Newcastle upon Tyne as well as of a person speaking this variety. The term is sometimes used as a name for the North English dialect in general. There are speculations about the origin of the name Geordie. Some believe that it used to denote people from Newcastle upon Tyne who were in favour of George I and George II during the Jacobite Risings in the first half of the eighteenth century. Like that they were distinguished from those who supported the Stuart dynasty.

Other explanations build on the fact that during the Industrial Revolution, a lot of miners and pitmen from that region had a name George, hence the generalisation Geordies.

Focusing on the Geordie accent, again it has many common features with other northern accents. For example the sound /ʌ / is not present, words like daft and dance have /æ/ etc. What makes Geordie different is that the sound /ɜ:/ does not exist in this variety. Words which are pronounced /ɜ:/ in RP have /c:/ in a broad Tyneside accent. The diphthong /ai/ becomes /ei/ in Geordie, so that the word *kite* sounds more like Standard British *kate*. There is no dark /ɪ/, so /i/ is clear in all cases.

As for specific lexis in this English variety, much of the local words and expressions descended from the old Anglo-Saxons, 'but has changed or been replaced in other varieties of English further south. For instance, when a Geordie uses the verb *larn*, meaning 'to teach', it is not a misuse of the Standard English verb *learn* (c.f. modern German *lernen*), rather it is the modern reflex of the Anglo-Saxon verb *lǣran*, meaning 'to teach'.⁶ There were also Roma people surrounding the Tyneside area and it is from them that the English took over the Romany expression *gadje* (male non-Roma), which was anglicised into *gadgie* (bloke, fellow). Other words used uniquely by Geordies are for example *bairn* for *child*, or the adjective *canny*, which is a term denoting satisfaction or appreciation, *haway* (come on!), *muckle* (very) and *pet* (addressing a female).

⁶ Retrieved from: <http://www.bl.uk/learning/langlit/sounds/case-studies/geordie/lexis/>. Extracted May 20, 2015.

- **Pitmatic**

Another dialect worth mentioning is Pitmatic. This English variety is spoken by some people in the counties of Durham and Northumberland. As the name suggests, the dialect is connected with the environment of industrial operations, especially with coalfields. The word “pitmatic” started being used during the industrial era in the late nineteenth century. Workers, especially miners, would talk to each other in English, but enriching it with their own terms and slang expressions connected with their work. Taking this into account, it is no wonder that this English variety, basically a dialect within a dialect, is distinct mainly because of the lexical peculiarities.

Some pitmatic words are for example *mell* (a big hammer), *scumfish* (suffocate), *hacky* (dirty), *hoggers* (minor’ shorts) and other. With no surprise, Pitmatic is vanishing, but one can still hear this variety from older residents of the aforementioned area.

Midlands English

Midlands is the area of central England and it stretches on the territory of the former Anglo-Saxon kingdom Mercia. Midlands are divided into West Midlands and East Midlands. Both areas will be briefly described from the language varieties point of view.

- **East Midlands**

East Midlands English is a dialect spoken in the counties of Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, Lincolnshire, Rutland and Northamptonshire. The language of this region is specific, especially because of its history. This part of England as well as the East Anglia and other used to be under the influence of Danes. They started settling in northeast England in the ninth century and the area was soon under the Danish law; hence the name Danelaw. The cultures of Anglo-Saxons and Danes started mingling and English absorbed much from the Scandinavian language, especially the vocabulary. The dialect emerged mostly in industrial and rural areas of the region. Especially the mine workers from Derbyshire, Leicestershire and Nottinghamshire are known for their strong accent.

As for the grammar of East-Midlands, several rules could be pointed out. For example personal pronouns have different forms than in Standard English. *Yourn* stands for *yours*, as well as *theirn*, *mine* and *ourn* represent *their*, *mine* and *ours*.

The use of reflexive pronouns is also interesting. *Self* is substituted with *sen*. An example of a sentence could then be “*Please, do it y’usen.*” As far as vocabulary is concerned, East Midlanders use words which are not present in Standard English. Such are for example the word *oakie* for *ice cream*, or the noun *island* meaning *roundabout*, or the verb *scratin* meaning *crying*, derived from Vikings.

“At the time when regions are losing some of their traditional dialect the East Midlands is keen to retain its cultural identity and linguistic style. Although some words are dying out, East Midlanders are keen to celebrate their local language.”⁷ It is actually admirable that people give importance to their roots and tradition of the country they live in. It is much easier to get influenced by the on-going globalisation.

- **West Midlands**

The area of West Midlands consists of the following unitary authorities: Wolverhampton, Walsall, Dudley, Sandwell, Birmingham, Solihull, and Coventry. The language spoken in this large area is not completely uniform. There will be a difference in the speech of a resident of Dudley and a resident of Coventry, not to mention their social status. Wardhaugh points out that it is important to realise that ‘West Midlands English has a significant number of observable inner variations. There is a dialect continuum running through the West Midlands, which are sequentially arranged over space: A, B, C, D. Dialect A has much more in common with dialect B than it does with dialect C and D, dialect B has much more in common with dialects A and C than it does with dialect D and so on.’ (Thorne in Hopkins, Decker, McKenny, p. 137) It is then clear that West Midlands English is not an easy one. Anyway, a lot of common features of West Midlands English variations exist and some of them will be described below. It is necessary to realise that the social background influences the manner of speech. Like in other British dialects, this is also noticeable in the West Midlands English varieties. While people from the working class tend to use bigger amount of non-standard forms, middle-class people’s way of speaking regarding both accent and dialect is closer to the Standard English.

⁷ Retrieved from: http://www.bbc.co.uk/insideout/eastmidlands/series7/dialect_voices.shtml. Extracted May 2, 2015.

Concerning the accent, there are some segmental and suprasegmental variables in West Midlands English. For example, the pronunciation of /ɪ/ is most noticeable and characteristic, since it is more centralised. West Midlanders do not distinguish between the pronunciation of /ɪ/ in the word *keen* and in the work *kin*. So these two are homophones compared to Standard English, where the pronunciation differs. Another typical feature in the pronunciation of this region is the above-mentioned foot-strut-split. In this dialect, the “ing” form *-ing* becomes /ɪn/ sometimes. It is also interesting that the word *one* is pronounced /wɒn/, but *won* is pronounced /wʊn/. Whereas some dialects have considerably large amount of glottal stops, it is not the case of West Midland English. Like in many other British dialects, H-dropping is also present in the West Midlands English, but mainly in the speech of working class people.

Moving to syntactic and lexical features, there are many unique variations. West Midlands English is for example prominent with its use of negative concord. Let us consider the sentence *They have some water*. In Standard English, one can either negate the verb, or the word *some* by changing it to *no*: *they don't have any water* or *they have no water*. It is not possible to perform both operation, but only one of them.

This is, however, not possible in a lot of other British dialects, where both actions are possible. This might result in *they don't have no water*. Negative concord is realised when ‘more than one negative element occurs in a clause but the clause is interpreted as having a single instance of negation.’⁸ The sentence *I don't want to wait for nobody* is another example of this phenomenon. As for the grammatical variations of West Midlanders, one of the more prominent ones concerns verbs. Some irregular Standard English verbs are regularised. *Saw* then becomes *seed*, *knew* becomes *knowed* etc. Past simple is often replaced by past participle such as *The fact that she done that* instead of *The fact that she did it*. Thorne suggests that the early Anglian settlers in the West Midlands had considerable impact on the language of the region. He backs up the theory by listing several words, such as *wassin*, a West Midland equivalent for throat. This word derives from Anglo-Saxon *wasend*, meaning *gullet*.

⁸ Retrieved from: <http://microsyntax.sites.yale.edu/negative-concord>. Extracted June 13, 2015.

Although some common features of West Midlands English have been listed, they are not valid for all the speakers of this large area. Also, taking into account the geographical position of West Midlands, it is no wonder that West Midland English oscillate between southern and northern varieties of British English. West Midlands English is also an intersection of industrial and rural language varieties. It is thus quite a variegated language area.

East Anglian English

East Anglian English is a very distinctive type of English spoken in East Anglia, a traditional region of Eastern England. East Anglian English is spoken in the county of Norfolk, Suffolk and north-eastern Essex. There is, however, a slight difference in the speech of people living in Western Norfolk and North-Western Suffolk. They tend to speak with the Norwich dialect, which is rather unique within East Anglia. Variations of East Anglian English are very similar to each other. Let us look closer into the Norfolk dialect which bears a lot of characteristic features of East Anglian English.

- **Norfolk dialect**

The dialect spoken in the county of Norfolk is quite unique. This dialect is characteristic with its distinctive accent and pronunciation as well as some peculiar grammatical structures.

Regarding grammar, there are some common features in the Norfolk dialect, among which the omission of the *s* at the end of verbs stands out. *He sleeps* then changes to *he sleep*, *she wasn't* changes to *she weren't*. We can see the opposite in other parts of Great Britain, such as north of England or the south west and south Wales, 'where *s* occurs in all persons of the verb: *I likes it; we goes home; you throws it.*' (Hughes, Trudgill, 1979, p. 17) Another difference between the grammar of Standard English and the grammar of Norfolk dialect is the usage of personal pronouns, especially the pronoun *it*. When *it* is a subject of the clause, it becomes the word *that*. *It is* then becomes *that is*, such as in the sentence *That feels nice* or *That is snowing*, instead of *It feels nice* or *It is snowing*. Verb conjugation also differs from Standard English. For example, the past tense of the verb *snow* is *snew*. Relative pronouns *who*, *which* and *that* are usually replaced with *what*. There are many more grammatical features characteristic of Norfolk dialect which could be named. The above-mentioned ones represent, however, the most typical ones.

Concerning the accent and pronunciation, there are several differences which make the sound of speech rather distinctive. The “y” sound /j/ is lost after all consonants. This phenomenon is called yod-dropping. This results in pronunciations such as *bootiful* (the same like in the word ‘boot’). Another peculiarity is that inhabitants of Norfolk do not make a distinction between /iə/ and /ɛə/. This means that for example *bear* and *beer* have the same pronunciation and context then plays an important role in communication. Compared to other regional accents in England, H-dropping does not occur in the Norfolk dialect. The so-called *smoothing*, where diphthongs and triphthongs are reduced into monophthongs, characterises the accent as well as distinctive rhythm.

All the characteristics named above make the Norfolk dialect quite specific and relatively easy to recognise. It is a pity the variety is slowly disappearing, since there have been many immigrants from different regions coming to Norfolk county since 1960s, and especially in 1970s. The influence of American culture is also notable. Nevertheless, the association Friends of Norfolk Dialect tries to preserve and promote Norfolk dialect.

- **Suffolk dialect**

It has already been mentioned that dialects within East Anglia are very much alike. English spoken in the county of Suffolk has many characteristics similar to Norfolk dialect. Even so, the Suffolk dialect has preserved certain peculiarities. As for the vocabulary irregularities, for example the word *bibble* means *to drink noisily*, or the word *hoss* stands for the verb *throw*. What makes the Suffolk dialect different from the Norfolk one is the specific use of intonation. Suffolk people use a considerable amount of rise and fall, so they might seem as if they were singing or asking something. While epenthesis – insertion of a sound or a letter in a word – is not typical of the Norfolk dialect, it is quite usual in the Suffolk dialect. Like Norfolk English and most other dialects, the Suffolk dialect is slowly disappearing.

Southern English

- **Cockney**

Cockney is a type of rhyming slang that is nowadays used by some working-class inhabitants of London. Cockney originated in the East End of London. It is an amusing and a widely under-estimated part of the English language.

The slang uses substitute words, usually two, as a coded alternative for another word. The final word of the substitute phrase rhymes with the word it replaces.⁹

Typical features of this particular accent or dialect are for instance omission of consonants, as in *'ere* (here), omission of vowels or even whole syllables, as in *'tain't* (it isn't) or *'cept* (except). There are also differences in spelling, as in *gal* (girl), or socially marked pronunciations such as *nothin'*. The most peculiar feature is probably switching the sound *v* and *w* in words such as *vay* or *wery*. Some examples of the rhyming slang are given below:

"Use your loaf and think next time" (loaf of bread = head)

"You will have to speak up, he's a bit mutton" (mutt'n'jeff = deaf)

"I'm going on my tod" (tod sloan = alone, or own)

"Are you telling porkies?" (porkies = pork pies = lies)

"Are you going to rabbit all night?" (rabbit and pork = talk)

"Did you half-inch that car?" (half-inch = pinch, meaning steal)

"I haven't heard a dicky bird about it" (dickie bird = word)⁹

The exact origins of Rhyming slang are difficult to trace. The first written references to a Cockney dialect and culture date back to the 17th century when regional folk traditions first started to be recorded by writers and academics. There are, however, few explicit references to Rhyming Slang itself in this time. The first detailed account of the actual phrases came in 1859 when John Camden Hotten published his book, *The Slang Dictionary*.⁹

2.8.2 Scotland

Scottish English is a broad term and should be further developed. It is not easy to define typical Scottish English, since there are many local dialects, accents, depending on the geographical position. Many Scots-speaking people came to the north of England in the seventeenth century. Therefore the two language varieties, Standard English and Scots, met. In the main areas of Scots settlement, there were more Scots than English inhabitants. As Scotland and England were politically united in the eighteenth century, Scots became a provincial vernacular whereas southern Modern English was used in politics, education, law, education, and higher literary genres.

⁹ Retrieved from: <http://www.cockney.co.uk/cockney-rhyming-slans.html>. Extracted 12.6. 2015.

Corbett and Smith conclude that Scottish Standard English, spoken by majority in Scotland, ‘grew out of interaction between Southern English and Scots.’ (Corbett, Smith, in Hopkins, Decker, McKenny, p. 191) Although it is not any rule, middle classes speak Standard Scottish whereas working classes, especially in the rural areas, speak Scots.

Considering the above-explained history of the language, it is clear that the Scots language in all respects influenced the structure of Standard Scottish English. In general, Standard Scottish English is like Standard English that adopted a Scottish accent. Yet, Standard Scottish English has many features taken from Scots, some of which will be listed below. What makes this variety very distinct is the accent. The pronunciation of vowels in Standard Scottish is radically different from that of England. First of all, this variety does not have certain vowels and some diphthongs that are in RP. This is because of the fact that this dialect is rhotic. The sound /r/ is then pronounced after vowels and not vocalised into diphthongs /iə/, /eə/, /ʊə/ and /ɜ:/. This results in the nouns *bee* and *beer* having the same vowel. The only thing that distinguishes them is whether they have /r/ at the end of the word.

This is also connected with the phenomenon called The Scottish Vowel Length Rule. It is ‘a rule governing the speech of Scottish people whereby certain vowels have no inherent length, but are long or short depending on the following sound.’ (Crystal, 1997, p. 329) Some vowels are lengthened if they are followed by /r/, or if they are in word-final open syllables, or followed by voiced fricative. Consonants are much closer to the RP, although there are some exceptions.

Lexis and grammar of Standard Scottish English are similar to Standard English, but there is evident influence from the Scots language. The passive is mostly expressed with *get* instead of *to be*, as in *She got punished*. Standard Scottish English uses progressive forms more often, such as in *They were hoping to win the prize*. Another feature is the preference of using the form *not* instead of *n't* such as *He is not a liar*. *She'll not do that*. Regarding negative forms, Scottish English sometimes uses the construction *didnae* in informal language. It stands for *did not*, since the particle *not* is *nae* in Scottish English. It results in sentences such as *He didnae see the point in going there* or *She doesnae like chocolate*. The adverbial *yet* might occur in non-perfective clauses, for instance *Did she go there yet?*¹⁰ Scottish English is typical for the specific use of the verb *have* in some cases. The sentence *We didn't have a shower* becomes *We hadn't a shower* in standard Scottish English.

¹⁰ Retrieved from: <http://www.scots-online.org/grammar/sse.asp>. Extracted June 5, 2015.

2.8.3 Wales

Welsh, the language spoken in the country of Wales, is the indigenous language of the area. It evolved from the old Brittonic, a variety of Celtic language. It is thought to be the oldest language in Britain. Around 21% of inhabitants of Wales speak Welsh. ‘For most Welsh speakers, it is their first language, but increasing number of people have learnt Welsh at school or in adult life.’ (Paulasto in Hopkins, Decker, McKenny, p. 241) It is interesting that in some areas of northern and western Wales, the language has not been anglicised to such an extent as in the south and in the east of Wales. Welsh is influenced by the English spoken in the area and reciprocally, local varieties of English are influenced by the Welsh language to some extent.

The so-called Welsh English is distinct mainly because of its different phonology, but there are also some morphological differences that are worth mentioning. As for the lexis, Welsh English, especially in rural parts, has some word and expressions of Welsh origin. It is important to note that ‘In addition to Welsh, varieties of Welsh English have been influenced by West-Midlands and southwest English dialects, urban varieties such as that of Liverpool and mainstream modern dialects of English.’ (Paulasto in Hopkins, Decker, McKenny, p. 241)

The most distinct feature of Welsh English is lilting intonation at the end of a statement. The pattern is then rise-fall rather than fall that is used more frequently across the United Kingdom. Welsh people tend to use long vowels just in stressed syllables. Also, the /v/ sound is often substituted by schwa sound, so that words like *nut* and *gut* are pronounced with schwa in the middle. Whereas Welsh in the north retains the sound /h/, H-dropping is typical in Southern Welsh English. Regarding morphological changes, we can find multiple negation in this variety. The conjunction *as* is sometimes in the position of a relative pronoun, for instance *The cat as run across the street*. Some words from Welsh which got into English spoken in Wales are for example *corgle* (dog), *tref* (home), *bach* (kind of endearment) and other.

2.8.4 Northern Ireland

Like the rest of the Ireland, its northern part was inhabited by Celts since antiquity. In the fifth century, the Celts started moving to northern areas of England, called Ulster, in order to found their kingdoms there.

England started imposing its power on the north of Ireland since the 12th century. The clash of cultures was escalating in the sixteenth century, when English colonisers wanted to subdue the Gaelic-speaking inhabitants in the north of Ireland. The original inhabitants tried to rebel, but with little success. It got to the point that by the seventeenth century, the English settlers arrived in the north of Ireland and took their land. A lot of colonists came from the southwestern Scotland, so they brought their Scottish dialect into Ireland. The other invaders were mostly from the north and the middle of England. The settlers conquered most counties of the province Ulster, but they met Irish catholic resistance in the counties of Monaghan, Donegal and Cavan.

Given the various aforementioned influences, it is then no wonder that English language in the northeast of the island is rather different compared to other parts of Ireland.

‘Scots, Irish Gaelic, seventeenth century English and Hiberno-English (the English spoken in the Republic of Ireland) have all influenced the development of Northern Irish English, and this mixture explains the very distinctive hybrid that has emerged.’¹¹ In Northern Ireland, most population speak Northern Ireland English, sometimes called Ulster English, a small percentage of people speak Gaelic Irish, and even less people use Ulster Scots, varieties of the Scots language. In the northern part of Northern Ireland, the way of speaking resembles the speech of Scotland in many ways because of the above-mentioned Scottish colonisers who came to Ulster. The south of the area is, however, influenced by the speech of the southwest of England and the West Midlands.

The most distinctive feature of Northern Ireland English is the rhoticity. It has already been mentioned that Standard English and many other British dialects are non-rhotic and thus do not pronounce /r/ after vowels. Interesting is that ‘the pronunciation of this /r/ sound is, however, much more like the sound we hear in an English West Country accent than the ‘tapped’ or ‘rolled’ /r/ sound we associate with Scottish speakers.’¹² Another typical feature of Northern Ireland English is a very distinctive intonation, similar to the one that occurs in the aforementioned Suffolk dialect. Basically, the Northern Irish raise the pitch towards the end of the utterance.

¹¹ Retrieved from: <http://www.bl.uk/learning/langlit/sounds/find-out-more/northern-ireland/>. Extracted May 10, 2015.

¹² Retrieved from: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/ulsterscots/words>. Extracted May 11, 2015.

Regarding the grammar and syntax of North Ireland English, it is influenced by the Irish language to some extent. For example the Ulster English distinguishes between the first person singular and plural. This is because the Irish also makes a difference between these two categories. The singular *you* then becomes plural *yous* or *yis*.

Another feature is relatively low usage of words *yes* and *no*, which again stems from the Irish language itself. When Ulster speakers are asked: *Are they staying at our place over the night?*, they will probably answer: *They are* or *They aren't*, rather than *Yes*. or *No*. It is also worth mentioning that North Ireland English speakers often express possession with the verb *to have* plus the preposition *with/on*, such as: *I always have my wallet with me*.

As for the lexical ground of this English variety, it obviously contains a lot of words of Irish origins as well as Scottish and Norse ones. Some words taken from Irish are for example: *boreen* (small road), *bog* (wetland), *glen* (valley), *slew* (a great amount of), *smidgen* (a little piece), *loch* (lake), *whisht* (be quiet!) and other.

Anglicised Scottish words are for example: *wean* (child), *caul* (cold), *carnaptious* (irritable) or *dander* (walk). The words *lug* (ear) and *til* (to) are of the Norse origin. There is other vocabulary, taken from different languages such as Old French. However, the Irish and Scottish ones predominate.

- **Ulster Scots**

It has already been mentioned that a lot of Scottish people travelled to Northern Ireland to the province of Ulster in the seventeenth century. They founded plantations there and brought their language with them. It is only logical that their language has had some influence on the local inhabitants. Ulster Scots is basically a language variation of Scotch, so it is close to Scottish and English. It is spoken in the counties of Londonderry and Antrim, in east Donegal, North Down, and in the Ards peninsula. Although Ulster Scots is thought to have its own specific grammar and structure, the dialect (or rather the language, if we can say so) is noticeable mostly for its vocabulary. The following words might be familiar to some English speakers: *'thon* (that), *wee* (small), *nicht* (night), *cannae* (can't), *frae* (from), *bing* (a heap, a pile), *fornest* (opposite), *hirple* (limp), *brich* (bright), *fare ye weel* (goodbye)' and other word expressions. There are literary figures who wrote or still write in Ulster Scots. One of the most prominent ones was Robert Burns whose literary work will further be mentioned in the practical part of the thesis.

- **Larger Belfast**

Belfast speech is quite specific, because the city lies between the north and the south of Northern Ireland. That is why the characteristics from both north and south are incorporated in the speech. It is necessary to realise that this language variety is not spoken only in the city of Belfast, but also in its surroundings. The speech is rhotic, so there is a post-vocalic /r/. Hughes and Trudgill explain that /r/ 'is realised as a retroflex, frictionless continuant /ɹ/ and that it is similar to word-initial /r/ in RP, except that the tip of the tongue is pulled back somewhat further.' (Hughes, Trudgill, 1979, p. 76). The pronunciation of vowels seems similar to the Scottish one. Concerning consonants, the sound /ð/ might be omitted between vowels, such as in the word *bother*, *whether*. The suffix *-ing* often changes to /ɪn/, /h/ is not silent. T-voicing is typical for the Belfast dialect. This means /t/ sound is pronounced more like /d/ rather than /t/ if it is preceded and followed by a vowel (for example in words like *water*).

There is one peculiarity only in the Belfast speech, as the authors point out. It is the occurrence of the sound /j/ after /k/ and /g/ before front vowels in words like *car*, /kjaɪ/. However, this happens only in some rural parts of the province.

3. ANALYSIS

Scottish English

Robert Burns, considered a national poet of Scotland, wrote most of his poetry in the Scots language. His literary work is diverse and among his most famous pieces are the poem *A Red Red Rose*, *Auld Lang Syne*, *To a Mouse*, *To a Louse*, *Tam o' Shanter* and other. The following poem, *The Tear-drop*, is a perfect illustration of how Burns implements Scots words into his writing.

The Tear-drop

*Wae is my heart, and the tear's in my e'e;
Lang lang Joy's been a stranger to me:
Forsaken and friendless, my burden I bear,
And the sweet voice o' Pity ne'er sounds in my ear.*

*Love thou hast pleasures, and deep **hae** I lov'd;
Love, thou hast sorrows, and **sair hae** I prov'd;
But this bruised heart that now bleeds in my breast,
I can feel by its throbbings, will soon be at rest.*

*Of, if I were - where happy I **hae** been -
Down by **yon** stream, and **yon bonie** castle-green;
For there he is wand'ring and musing on me,
Wha wad soon dry the tear **frae** his Phillis' e'e.*

| Scots words | Standard English equivalent |
|--------------|---|
| lang | long |
| hae | have |
| sair | sore |
| yon | demonstrative pronoun “that” (often used in the North of England too) |
| bonie | nice, attractive (although usually seen with double “n” – <i>bonnie</i>) |
| wha | who |
| wad | would |
| frae | from |

Irvine Welsh – Trainspotting

Trainspotting, a novel by Irvin Welsh, is a unique piece of literary work, since it combines several language varieties in an innovative way. It is written in Standard English, Standard Scottish English as well in Scots, especially Edinburg Scots. Occasionally, other dialects or accents appear throughout the novel. Dialects are often spelled phonetically, so one is aware of each character’s personal regional accent. The chosen extract is about a group of friends, who meet in a London bar.

It wis¹ good tae² git amongst auld³ faces. They wir⁴ aw⁵ thair, aw the cunts, Davo, Suzy, Nicksy (bombed oot⁶ ay⁷ his boax), n Charlene. Bodies wir crashed oot aw ower⁸ the place. Two lassies⁹ wir dancin wi each other, n Char wis dancin wi this guy. Paul n Nicksy wir smokin¹⁰; opium, no hash. Maist²⁵ English junkies ah¹¹ know smoke horse rather than shoot it up. Needles seem tae be mair¹² ay a Scottish, Edinburgh, thing. Ah take a toke fae¹³ the cunts anyway.

Farking great tuh¹⁴ see yah¹⁵ again, me old sahn! Nicksy slaps us oan¹⁶ the back.

Clockin Gi, he whispers, – **Oose**¹⁷ the old cahnt then, eh? **Ah**'d brought the **wee**¹⁸ bastard along. **Ah didnae**¹⁹ huv the heart **tae** leave the cunt eftir listening **tae aw** his tales **ay** woe.

Sound mate. Great **tae** see **ye**. This is Gi. Good mate **ay** mines. Steys up in Stokie. **Ah** slaps **auld**²⁰ Gi **oan** the back. The perr **wee** fucker wears an expression like **ye**'d see **oan** a rabbit at the bars **ay** its cage asking fur a bit **ay** lettuce.

Ah go **fir**²¹ a wander, leavin Gi talking **tae** Paul n Nicksy **about**²² Napoli, Liverpool and West Ham, the international male language **ay fitba**²³. Sometimes **ah** lap up that talk, other times its pointless tediousness depresses the fuck **oot ay** us.

In the kitchen, two guys are arguin **about** the poll tax. One boy's sussed **oot**, the other's a fuckin spineless Labour/Tory Party servile wankboy.

You're a fuckin arsehole **oan** two counts. One, if **ye** think the Labour Party's goat a fuckin chance **ay** ever gettin in again this century, two, if **ye** think it would make a blind bit **ay** fuckin difference if they ever did, **ah jist**²⁴ butt in and tell the cunt. He stands thair open–moothed, while the other guy smiles.

That's **joost**²⁵ wot **oi**²⁶ was **troi–ing**²⁷ to tell the bastid, he sais in a Brummie accent.

Grammar

¹⁹**didnae** = *did* + *nae* (Standard English *not*) --> *didnae* - construction taken from the Scots language as mentioned in the theoretical part; *did not* preferred to shortened *didn't*

¹⁰**smokin** + other “ing” forms: omission of “g” = g-dropping; in informal speech

Lexis

¹**wis** = was ⁷**ay** = of ¹⁶**oan** = on ²⁴**jist** = just

²**tae** = to ⁸**ower** = over ¹⁸**wee** = small ²⁵**maist** = most

³**auld** = old ⁹**lassies** = girls ²⁰**auld** = old

⁴**wir** = were ¹¹**ah** = I ²¹**fir** = for

⁵**aw** = all ¹²**mair** = more ²²**about** = about

⁶**oot** = out ¹³**fae** = from ²³**fitba** = football

Accent

Cockney:

¹⁴**tuh** = “to” (in comparison with the above-mentioned Scottish version “tae”)

¹⁵**yah** = “you” (in comparison with the above-mentioned Scottish version “ye”)

¹⁶**Oose** = “Who is” – omission of initial consonants

Scottish:

- the aforementioned spelling: **oot** (“out”), **ah** (“I”), **ye** (“you”), **tae** (“to”)

Birmingham accent:

²⁵**joost**, ²⁶**oi**, ²⁷**ing** - rounded vowel sounds typical of Brummie accent

Cockney

The next analysis is the speech of a character, Samuel Weller, from the Charles Dickens’ novel *The Pickwick Papers*. Dickens was known for using the city of London as background for his novels. Additionally, the characters from his books often come from the working-class. Given that Dickens’ family was also from the lower social strata, his father even ending up in prison for some time, it is no surprise that Dickens was familiar with the Cockney variety. This was reflected in his literary work. It is rare to encounter authentic Cockney rhyming slang in classical literature. Nevertheless, several examples concerning morphological and phonetic peculiarities can be found in the novel (chapter XXVII: Samuel Weller makes a pilgrimage to Dorking, and beholds his mother-in-law)

Interchange of the sound “v” and “w”:

1. **Wery**, Sir,' replied Mr. Pickwick
2. I saved him a world **o'** trouble this **vay**, Sir.
3. 'it '**ud** have a **wery** considerable effect upon me, if I **wos** in his place.

4. I only **vish** you'd write me out the receipt.
5. 'Borrows eighteenpence on Monday, and comes on Tuesday for a shillin' to make it up half-a-crown; calls again on **Vensday**.
6. 'No offence, sir, no offence,' replied Sam; 'you're **wery** right, though
7. I always asked for it in a **wery** 'spectful and oblogin' manner.
8. 'All good feelin', sir—the **wery** best intentions, as the gen'l'm'n said ven he run away from his wife 'cos she seemed unhappy with him,' replied Mr. Weller.
9. 'It ain't the right sort o' thing, **ven** mothers-in-law is young and good-looking, is it, Sir?'
10. '**Wery** glad to see you, Sammy,'
11. 'She ain't **vithin** hearin'
12. 'So you **wouldn't** subscribe to the flannel veskits?'
13. 'Ay,' replied Mr. Weller, 'there was three quarters owin', and the shepherd hadn't paid a farden, not he—perhaps it might be on account that the water warn't **o'** much use to him, for it's **wery** little o' that tap he drinks, Sammy, **wery**; he knows a trick worth a good half-dozen of that, he does. Hows'ever, it warn't paid, and so they cuts the water off. Down goes the shepherd to chapel, gives out as he's a persecuted saint, and says he hopes the heart of the turncock as cut the water off, 'll be softened, and turned in the right **vay**, but he rayther thinks he's booked for somethin' uncomfortable. Upon this, the women calls a meetin', sings a hymn, **wotes** your mother-in-law into the chair, **wolunteers** a collection next Sunday, and hands it all over to the shepherd.'
14. 'They're **always** a-doin' some gammon of that sort, Sammy,'
15. I **werily** believe there was change for a couple o' suv'rins in it

Omission of consonants

1. I always asked for it in a wery '**spectful** and **oblogin'** manner.
2. 'If ever I wanted **anythin' o'** my father.'
3. If he didn't give it me, I took it, for fear I should be led to do **anythin'** wrong, through not **havin'** it.'
4. 'All good **feelin'**, sir—the **wery** best intentions, as the **gen'l'm'n** said ven he run away from his wife '**cos** she seemed unhappy with him,' replied Mr. Weller.

5. 'I suppose he's **drivin'** up to-day?'
6. 'I rayther think he is, and I hope this here reverend **gen'l'm'n 'll** excuse me saying that I wish I was *the* Weller as owns you, mother-in-law.'
7. 'It ain't the right sort **o'** thing, ven mothers-in-law is young and good-looking, is it, Sir?'
8. 'What's the matter with that **'ere gen'l'm'n'?**
9. 'She ain't vithin **hearin'**
10. 'The worst **o'** these here shepherds is, my boy, that they **reg'larly** turns the heads of all the young ladies, about here.
11. 'Oh, I know,' said Sam; 'them as hangs up in the linen-drapers' shops, with beggars' petitions and all that **'ere upon 'em'?**
12. '**Cert'nly** not,' replied Mr. Weller; 'what's the good **o'** flannel veskits to the young niggers abroad?'
13. 'Borrows eighteenpence on Monday, and comes on Tuesday for a **shillin'** to make it up half-a-crown; calls again on **Vensday** for another half-crown to make it five **shillin's**; and goes on, doubling, till he gets it up to a five pund note in no time, like them sums in the **'rithmetic** book **'bout** the nails in the horse's shoes, Sammy.'
14. '**T'other** Sunday I wos **walkin'** up the road, **wen** who should I see, **a-standin'** at a chapel door, with a blue soup-plate in her hand, but your mother-in-law! I werily believe there was change for a couple **o' suv'rins** in it, then, Sammy, all in **ha'pence**; and as the people come out, they rattled the pennies in it, **till you'd ha'** thought that no mortal plate as ever was baked, could **ha'** stood the wear and tear. What **d'ye** think it was all for?'
15. 'It **cert'nly** seems a queer start to send out pocket-'ankerchers to people as don't know the use **on 'em,**'

Spelling changes

1. 'Thank'ee, Sir,'
2. 'What's the old 'un up to now?' 'What's a moral pocket-ankercher?' said Sam; 'I never see one o' them articles o' furniter.'
3. Borrows eighteenpence on Monday and comes on Tuesday for a shillin' for another half-crown to make it five shillin's; and goes on, doubling, till he gets it up to a five **pund** note in no time, like them sums in the 'rithmetic book 'bout the nails in the horse's shoes, Sammy.'
4. 'T'other Sunday I **wos** walkin' up the road, **wen** who should I see, a-standin' at a chapel door, with a blue soup-plate in her hand, but your mother-in-law!

Northern dialect / mixture

The following excerpt is taken from D. H. Lawrence's novel *Sons and Lovers*. Language plays an important role here, since it is the indicator of social status. The protagonist, Mrs. Morel, who comes from upper-middle class, is married to a minor, Mr. Morel, who is from the working class. Not only is Mr. Morel's language interesting from the dialect point of view, but also, and mostly, from the social point of view. For instance, Mr. Morel uses the pronouns thee, thou and thine when he talks to his wife, and so Mrs. Morel once thinks to herself that 'She had never been „*thee'd*“ and „*thou'd*“ before.' (Lawrence, 1995, p. 11). Although the following text shows some features of a colloquial language of the working class person who comes from the area of Nottinghamshire, it also contains features that are characteristic of other dialects.

Deviation in verb conjugation:

„You never said you **was** coming.“

- auxiliary verb *was* instead of *were*; *s* occurs in all persons of the verb
- typical for the north of England and also Wales and the south west of England

„Yi, an' there's som chaps as **does** go round like moudiwarps.“

- *does* instead of *do* (which would still only have the emphatic function here)

Past participle as past tense.

„They **dun** though!“ he protested naively.

- *dun* = *done*: past participle of *do*. Auxiliary verb *have* is omitted like in many non-standard dialects

Change in demonstratives

„I got these from that stall where **y'ave ter** get **them** marbles in **them** holes.“

- demonstrative pronoun *them* used twice instead of demonstrative pronoun *those*

Irregular verbs being regularized

“I **seed** him through that black tin stuff wi' holes in, on the window, wi' his sleeves rolled up.“

„Tha niver **seed** such a way the get in.“

“I **seed** him at th' bottom... An' I **seed** 'em bring 'im up in a tub.

- *seed* instead of *saw*; also typical in West Midlands dialect as mentioned above.

H-dropping

“I've **bin 'elpin'** Anthony.“

„An' I **'aven't** – that I **'aven't**. You b'lieve me, I've **'ad** very little this day.“

„I've bin **'elpin'** Anthony.“

- dropping the letter *h*, usually in the initial position of a word; characteristic also in the West Midlands accent and most urban regional accent

G-dropping

„Oh! Oh! **Waitin'** for me, lass? I've bin **'elpin'** Anthony.

D-dropping

“I've spent my tuppence – **an'** look here“

“I have **an'** all.“ His voice went tender.

“Isn't **the'** a lot of **thing'**? - that lion's killed three man –

Lexis

Waitin' for me, lass?

- *lass* = a young woman /girl. From Middle English, Anglo-Saxon origin.

„*Here, an' I browt thee a bit o' brandysnap.*”

“*But tha mun let me ta'e thee down some time, an' tha can see for thysen*”

'Appen not, it 'ud dirty thee.”

- **Happen** = *perhaps*; in some dialects, especially in Bradford, Yorkshire

- *thee, thysen, tha* (instead of *thou*): archaic expressions of the personal pronoun *you* and possessive pronoun *your*

Spelling modification:

„*Here, an' I browt thee a bit o' brandysnap.*”

“*Nowt b'r a lousy hae'f-crown, an' that's ivry penny*”

„*Shouldn't ter like it?*” he asked tenderly.”

4. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this thesis was to provide a detailed study of dialects that are spoken in the United Kingdom. It was necessary to include an introductory part in the text in order to make the thesis more understandable and complex. I described the major dialects in the theoretical part and provided a brief analysis of the most famous and peculiar ones in the practical part.

It would not be possible to include descriptions of all the dialects spoken in the United Kingdom, that is why the thesis was focused on the main geographical areas and their typical language varieties. Several times, the thesis mention some typical features of a certain dialect which, however, appear in another dialect as we can see in the course of reading, and also in the analytical part. This only supports the idea that the language boundaries are not clear-cut and a speaker from one part of a region might speak differently than a speaker living in the same region, but in the opposite side. To sum it up, the way of speech always depends on the particular speaker and other aspects, such as from exactly what part of the discussed area they come from, from which social background they are, how old they are and so on.

The outcome of the thesis is then self-evident: there certainly are distinctive differences among various language varieties across the United Kingdom, which lie in different morphological and syntactic language structures and in the lexis and accent of the particular dialect. However, it would not be reasonable to make misleading generalizations about these language varieties and their speakers. The thesis encompasses the analysis of only some main dialects of United Kingdom. Interesting continuation of this thesis might thus be a detailed study of other language varieties in the United Kingdom that have not been mentioned here.

5 SUMMARY IN CZECH

Tato bakalářská práce pojednává o dialektech mluvených ve Spojeném království Velké Británie a Severního Irska. Práce obsahuje dvě části. V teoretické části se věnuje termínu “dialekt” a všem souvisejícím klíčovým výrazům. Práce poté obsahuje teoretický rozbor všech významných dialektů používaných v Anglii, Skotsku, Walesu a Severním Irsku doplněný o informace o historickém vývoji.

V praktické části se práce věnuje analýze vybraných dialektů z gramatického, fonetického a lexikálního hlediska za použití příslušné literatury.

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