Univerzita Hradec Králové

Pedagogická fakulta

Bakalářská práce

Štěpán Svoboda

Univerzita Hradec Králové

Pedagogická fakulta

Katedra anglického jazyka a literatury

Regionální varianty angličtiny s důrazem na texaské nářečí

Bakalářská práce

Autor:	Štěpán Svoboda
Studijní program:	B7505 Specializace v pedagogice
Studijní obor:	Anglický jazyk se zaměřením na vzdělávání
	Ruský jazyk se zaměřením na vzdělávání
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Michal Pištora

Hradec Králové   2016

Univerzita Hradec Králové

Pedagogická fakulta

Zadání bakalářské práce

Autor:	**Štěpán Svoboda**
Studijní program:	B7507 Specializace v pedagogice
Studijní obor:	Anglický jazyk se zaměřením na vzdělávání
	Ruský jazyk se zaměřením na vzdělávání
Název závěrečné práce:	**Regionální varianty angličtiny s důrazem na texaské nářečí**
Název závěrečné práce v AJ:	Regional Varieties of English: The Case of Texan Accent

Cíl, metody, literatura, předpoklady:

V teoretické části práce popíše různé varianty angličtiny a rozdíly mezi nimi. V praktické části práce zkoumá vnímání vybraných variant angličtiny českými rodilými mluvčími. Práce bude psána v angličtině.

Garantující pracoviště:	Katedra anglického jazyka a literatury, Pedagogická fakulta
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Michal Pištora
Konzultant práce:	
Oponent práce:	Mgr. Vladimíra Ježdíková, Ph.D.
Datum zadání závěrečné práce:	11. 12. 2013
Datum odevzdání závěrečné práce:	2. 5. 2016

Prohlášení

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto bakalářskou práci vypracoval (pod vedením vedoucího bakalářské práce) samostatně a uvedl jsem všechny použité prameny a literaturu.

V Hradci Králové dne 2. 5. 2016

……………………..

Štěpán Svoboda

Prohlášení

Prohlašuji, že bakalářská práce je uložena v souladu s rektorským výnosem č. 4/2009 (Řád pro nakládání se školními a některými jinými autorskými díly na UHK).

Datum: 2. 5. 2016   Podpis studenta:……………………………

Poděkování

Děkuji Mgr. Michalu Pištorovi za odborné vedení mé bakalářské práce a poskytování užitečných rad, které budu nadále využívat.

Anotace

SVOBODA, Štěpán. *Regionální varianty angličtiny s důrazem na texaské nářečí/bakalářská práce*. Hradec Králové: Pedagogická fakulta Univerzity Hradec Králové, 2016. 64 s. Bakalářská práce

Tato bakalářská práce je zaměřena na rozdíly mezi vybranými variantami angličtiny, především na přízvuk oblasti státu Texas, USA. Práce je rozdělena na dvě části. První část popisuje termíny jako přízvuk, nářečí, varianta a standard. V práci jsou popsány rozdíly mezi těmito termíny. Práce je zaměřena především na přízvuk. Druhá část zkoumá vnímání vybraných přízvuků anglického jazyka českými rodilými mluvčími. Pro výzkum byly vybrány dva standartní přízvuky a jeden nestandartní. Výsledky standartních přízvuků jsou porovnány s výsledky přízvuku nestandartního. Na základě výsledků výzkumu je navržen další postup. Práce je psána v angličtině.

Klíčová slova: přízvuk, nářečí, varianty, standard, Texas

Annotation

SVOBODA, Štěpán. *Regional Varieties of English: The Case of Texan Accent*. Hradec Králové: Pedagogical Faculty, University of Hradec Králové, 2016. 64 pp. Bachelor's thesis

This bachelor's thesis is focused on the differences between the varieties of English chosen for the thesis, especially the accent of the Texan state region, USA. The thesis is divided into two parts. The first part describes terms such as accent, dialect, variety, and standard. Differences between the terms are described in the thesis. The thesis is focused primarily on accent. The second part examines the perception of the chosen accents of English by Czech native speakers. Two standard accents and one non-standard accent were chosen for the research. The results of the standard accents are compared to the results of the non-standard accent. Further progress based on the survey results is suggested. The thesis is written in English.

Keywords: accent, dialect, variety, standard, Texas

Table of Contents

1. Introduction

The topic of this bachelor's thesis is regional varieties of English with a focus on the Texan accent. There are many different varieties of English used around the world, either standard or non-standard, using different grammatical rules, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Learners who study English as a foreign language are usually taught Standard British or Standard American English with their standard pronunciation. However, these standard varieties are used only by some speakers of English in everyday speech. Therefore, using the language in real life, foreign learners of English are likely to encounter a different form of English than the standard. The main hypothesis of the thesis is the fact that they have problems understanding other varieties because of a lack of preparation. The thesis assumes that foreign learners of English are not sufficiently informed about other standard and non-standard varieties of English during the educational process. Students usually learn about different varieties of English during their studies when they are on advanced level. To prove the hypothesis the thesis will investigate how foreign learners of English perceive various accents of English. The thesis operates with terms such as accent, dialect, or variety, which are defined and thoroughly described. Both accent and dialect are considered varieties in the thesis. The term variety is used in neutral sense, and it is regarded as a form of a language. Dialects, as understood by the thesis, comprise only grammar and vocabulary; accents involve only pronunciation. Other definitions of the terms are also mentioned, and why they were not chosen for the thesis is clarified. The Texan accent was chosen to represent a variety unknown to foreign learners of English, in this case, Czech native speakers. Problems with understanding a certain variety might be caused by its unusual vocabulary, grammatical structures, or pronunciation. This thesis is focused primarily on pronunciation.

The main goal of the practical part of the thesis is to research whether Czech learners of English are able to recognise various accents of English, how familiar they are with the accents, how they understand and perceive the accents, and whether they can detect some phonological features of the accents. The thesis is focused chiefly on the non-standard Texan accent. This accent will be compared with two other standard accents. The first accent chosen for comparison

is Received Pronunciation. It is considered the standard accent of Standard British English. Received Pronunciation is used for teaching English as a foreign language in most Czech educational institutions. Czech learners of English are therefore used to hearing this accent. The second accent chosen for comparison with the Texan accent is General American, a standard accent of Standard American English. Czech speakers are likely to encounter this variety and its standard pronunciation via the media, films or television series, for example. The last accent is the previously mentioned Texan accent, which is a non-standard variety of American English used in the state of Texas, located in Southern United States. This accent has distinctive pronunciation, which is expected to be the least known for Czech native speakers. It is also usually considered incorrect or rural, so this perception is expected from the respondents. All the varieties chosen for the practical part of the thesis are described in the theoretical part. The survey will be conducted in the form of a questionnaire. The research will be conducted in an English class to provide the same conditions for every participant of the survey. The respondents will hear recordings of the three chosen accents, and they will fill in the questionnaire. Native speakers will be reading the source text, provided in the questionnaire, with their natural accents. Students with a sufficient level of English will be elected for the survey so they are able to distinguish the English accents.

Italics are used in the thesis to emphasize key words, in quotations, and in examples of pronunciation of usual spelling. Phonemic transcription is in slashes /   /. Phonetic transcription which shows more information about the uttered allophones (i.e. all allophonic differences) is in square brackets [   ]. Syllables showing word stress are underlined. The words of focus in the source text of the survey in the practical part of the thesis are also underlined. Words written in capital letters represent lexical set of words of the same type, as defined by Wells. (1982a)

2. Terminology

The following chapter contains detailed information about the terms accent, dialect and variety. In this thesis accents and dialects are both seen as varieties of English. Terms such as language, dialect, idiolect, or accent are all included in variety as it is understood here. A variety is understood in the thesis as a specific form of a language. The term is perceived in this neutral sense in the whole thesis. Accents and dialects as understood in the thesis are defined below. Further the differences between these two varieties are explained, and each variety is described in detail. Dialects and languages are compared in this chapter. Accents and dialects are further differentiated in the thesis, and there are detailed criteria according to which they are distinguished. It is shown how accents and dialects change with distance, and what they can reveal about the speaker.

2.1   Accent

The word accent has several different meanings, and thus it needs to be stated which meaning is discussed in the thesis. An accent might refer to a symbol placed above, below or even in a letter signalizing its proper pronunciation. These kinds of diacritics are seen, for instance, in Czech (*ž*, *š*, *ď* and others) or Polish (*ł*, *ą*, *ę* and more). An accent might also refer to the stress which highlights a particular word or a phrase in spoken language. It can also emphasize just a sound or a syllable in an utterance and make them more prominent using pitch, loudness or speed. Such stressed words, syllables or sounds are also called accented. The same word can have different accent (stress) depending on whether it is used as a noun or as a verb. In a sentence such as *A soldier has de<u>sert</u>ed!* the second syllable of the verb is stressed, while in some other sentences the first syllable of the noun is stressed, as in *There is water beneath the Sahara <u>Desert</u>.* In the second example the word *desert* is pronounced more quickly, loudly and with a different pitch. This thesis is, however, solely focused on accent from the sociolinguistic point of view. It is understood here as a way of pronunciation characteristic of a

certain area, an individual, or a group of people and showing where they are from regionally or socially. (Crystal & Crystal, 2014, pp. 15-16)

An accent is one of the most noticeable things we perceive in others' speech. It reveals some information about the speaker such as their social status, region, class, employment, age, or gender. It is sometimes thought that there are people who have no accent, but the truth is everyone speaks with an accent. Some accents show more information about the speaker than others. If a person is said to have no accent, it is meant he or she speaks with the same pronunciation (accent) as the person who makes such a statement, or with the pronunciation expected for Standard English. (Bauer, 2002, p. 3) According to their accent we are usually able to identify where the speakers live, or have been living, and where they come from. Therefore, accents can show the geographical identity of a person, whether he or she comes from a certain region or, in case of accents of world languages, a certain country.

Accents are usually associated with dialects, and these two terms are sometimes used interchangeably. However, if someone is said to have a Scottish accent, he or she is thought to speak with pronunciation that is characteristic of the Scottish dialect. Dialects refer to grammar and vocabulary, whereas accents refer only to pronunciation. Accents include only the phonetic or phonological part of a language, which distinguishes them from dialects. The difference in pronunciation of the word *dynasty*, for instance, /ˈdɪnəsti/ and /ˈdaɪnəsti/ is accentual. The same word is pronounced in two various ways. The former is typical of British English and countries influenced by it, and the latter is common in American English. The differences in sentences *Have you got a jumper?* and *Do you have a sweater?* are dialectical. Different words are used to express the same thing. Dialects might also vary in grammar. The first sentence is typical of British English, the second of American English. A dialect is usually used with its characteristic accent, but the terms might also be separated. If Canadians, for instance, produce a typical British expression, they do it with a Canadian accent. And Standard English is a dialect spoken in the whole world with many regional accents.

An accent can be either regional or social. Regional accents, as the name suggests, refer to certain regions. A region is understood here as a particular area of the world. Regional accents can therefore include speaker groups, for example,

from a town or a city or whole national groups of speakers of the same language. Therefore, we speak of a Cockney accent, an Irish accent, a northern accent, which denotes different accents in different countries, or an American accent, for instance, if we are not American. There are a number of accents within American English, for example, but they all have some shared features according to which we recognise it is an American accent. As previously mentioned, accents can reveal geographical identity of a person, and if people talk about accents, they usually think of regional accents. Geographical location of a person is the most influential factor of their accent. Regional accents of all native speakers usually show whether they are from North America or British-oriented countries such as England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales, Australia, or West Indies, which are usually also recognizable. The level of recognisability depends on our knowledge of the area. For instance, every American can recognise Southern American or New York City accent, but a New Zealander might not. The highest density of regional accents can be found on the British Isles. Regional accents of English are least regionally distinctive in areas which do not have as long history of English such as New Zealand, Australia or the American far west. (Wells, 1982a, pp. 8-10)

An accent may also show a speaker's social position. The social accent of a person depends on his or her cultural and educational background. It can disclose some information about their ethnicity or social class. In general, the speakers of lower classes tend to have stronger accents than the ones of higher classes, as will be demonstrated in section 3.1 Received Pronunciation. An accent can also reveal a speaker's profession. Peddlers, doctors, radio or television broadcasters, for example, certainly sound (i.e. pronounce their words and utterances) different when they are working than when they are having a casual conversation. Because an accent might reveal people's geographical location, some people speak with an accent that makes impossible to identify their origin. This accent does not reveal any regional information about the speaker apart from their country. In countries with a social-class system, such as Britain or India for instance, the accent is often used to show class participation. There is such an accent in the United Kingdom called Received Pronunciation (RP). Based on their accent, it is not possible to determine which city or town RP speakers come from. Another example of such an accent is General American (GA), which is used by

most people in the United States. Both Received Pronunciation and General American will be discussed later in the thesis.

2.1.1 How accents differ

There are two approaches to distinguish the differences between accents. It is the historical approach and the synchronic approach. The historical approach focuses on accent changes throughout history. However, this thesis is interested only in the synchronic approach describing contemporary accents. The differences in the synchronic approach might be of four kinds. There are differences in phonemic systems, phonetic realization, phonotactic distribution, and in lexical distribution. The following differences are taken from (Wells, 1982a, pp. 72-79)

➢ Phonemic systems of accents can be different. Their phonemes might vary, and the number of the phonemes might vary as well. For example, in RP the word *lot* is pronounced with short /ɒ/, but in GA the pronunciation is with long /ɑː/, as in *palm*. There is also a possibility of neutralizing two different phonemes in a given context, so they sound the same. The set of such neutralized different units of the same pronunciation is called a *subsystem.* Such a subsystem exists, for example, in Southern-American pronunciation where words like *pin* and *pen* are pronounced the same but *bit* and *bet* are not. *The PIN-PEN Merger* is further discussed in section 5.1 Texan Accent.

➢ The phonetic realizational differences include the differences in phonetic detail. Phonemic systems of compared accents are the same but realization of certain phonemes is different. For instance, in expressions of the same type as *code*, *home*, or *old* can the vowel be pronounced in various accents as /əʊ/, /oʊ/, /ʌʊ/, /oː/ or /o/.

➢ Phonotactic distribution is the third kind of differences in the synchronic approach. The phonemic systems might be the same again, but in certain accents some phonemes can be completely omitted. Whether this happens or not depends on the phonetic environments in which the phoneme appears. The set of phonetic surroundings in which a phoneme might be omitted is called

phonotactic distribution. For example, accents are classified as rhotic and non-rhotic according to the phonotactic distribution of the /r/ sound. Non-rhotic accents omit /r/ positioned before a consonant or after a vowel; e.g. at the end of the word *car* /kɑː/. However, in this feature called *R-Dropping*, /r/ is not usually dropped when followed by a vowel. *R-Dropping* is discussed later in section 3.1 Received Pronunciation. Apart from Australia and New Zealand, this non-rhotic pronunciation is used in most of England, Wales, South Africa, and parts of east and south of the United States. In rhotic accent /r/ is pronounced every time when it is spelled, as in /kɑːr/. These accents are typical in Ireland, Scotland, Canada, and most of the United States, including GA.

➢ Accents also vary in the selection of phonemes in certain words. This kind of variation is called lexical distribution, and it might vary from one person to another. The phonemic systems might be the same, but the phonemes of some words may vary. There are words such as *either*, for instance, in which a speaker of one accent can choose whether to pronounce them with /iː/ or /aɪ/. Based on the pronunciation of the word *either*, it is not possible to determine the pronunciation of other words of the same type in that particular accent. It is not possible because there are words of the same type that can be in the same accent pronounced differently. A typical Northern England accents use phonemes /ʊ/ and /uː/ mostly in the same cases as RP, so the lexical distribution of their phonemes is mostly the same. However, there are words such as *hook*, *look* or *cook* where RP uses /ʊ/ and the northern accents use /uː/.

2.2   Dialect

In Wakelin (1972, p. 1) dialects are considered *"to be variant, but mutually intelligible, forms of one language, whereas language is assumed to imply a form of speech not on the whole intelligible to other languages."* However, there are mutually unintelligible dialects of the same language and mutually intelligible languages, as it will be demonstrated. According to Finegan,

(2007, p. 347) *"...dialects refer to the language varieties characteristic of a particular regional or social groups."* Further he claims *"Dialect refers to a language variety in its totality—including vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, pragmatics, and any other aspect of the linguistic system."* This view is not supported in this thesis. The thesis follows Crystal's (2008, p. 142) definition, which understands dialect as a *"...regionally or socially distinctive variety of language, identified by a particular set of words and grammatical structures."*

The difference between dialect and accent has already been explained in section 2.1 Accent. A dialect is usually spoken with a particular accent, but it is not always the case. Accent refers only to pronunciation, whereas dialect refers only to vocabulary and grammar. As it has been stated, everyone has an accent, whether it is regional or social, and it can reveal some personal information about them. The same applies to dialects. There may arise some difficulties in distinguishing dialects and languages. Dialects are subdivisions of languages. However, they can both reveal information about their speakers, and sometimes it might be problematic to see a difference between them. Finegan (2007, p. 14) shows examples of how the two terms are used. The Romance languages such as French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, for example, come from regional dialects of Latin which were used in various parts of the Roman Empire. These former dialects have become individual languages. They are considered to be different languages even though they share some similar vocabulary, grammatical structures, or pronunciation. This perspective is encouraged by national pride. In general, speakers of different dialects are usually able to understand each other, whilst speakers of different languages are not. However, in Chinese there are such dialects which are not mutually intelligible despite the fact they share the same written language. And some different languages such as Norwegian and Swedish or Czech and Slovak are mutually intelligible. Therefore, as it has been pointed out using the examples, speakers of two different languages might understand each other, whilst two different dialects of the same language might not be intelligible at all. The term dialect is often thought of as unusual, incorrect, or non-standard. Languages, on the other hand, are sometimes perceived only as the standard form. To avoid misinterpretations linguists use more general term called variety. (Bauer, 2002, p. 4) It is further described in section 2.3 Variety. The distinction is also influenced by national pride. The speakers *choose* to claim

whether they speak with different languages or dialects. (Finegan, 2007, p. 347) We cannot fail to realise that the international boarders as we know it have been created because of political, cultural and historical reasons, not because of linguistic ones. In this thesis languages and dialects are both seen as language varieties. Every language with a sufficient amount of speakers will develop dialects. This is influenced by regional and social factors. Some of the dialects of a language may become standard and their written forms might be accepted as official.

Languages and dialects are in constant process of development and as such they are results of linguistic change. The change is seen in phonology, lexicology, grammar, and semantics, and it depends on the community of people using the language. If the community is split because of political reasons, for instance, their language might begin to change in two different ways. It depends on how much the two parties communicate with each other. Groups of people using the same language can be separated by destination, as when some of them emigrate to a different country, or from political reasons, such as Europe's separation by the Berlin Wall, for example. People's dialects can also depend on their social position which is influenced by their level of education, job or religious affiliation, for instance. The terms regional dialect and social dialect are used (as with regional and social accent). Regional dialects are connected with a certain geographical region, and when it is talked about dialects, most people usually imagine regional dialects and specific pronunciation that usually accompanies them. Some regional dialects of English might preserve words and grammatical structures from Old English. For instance, there is the word *shippon* for *cow-house* in Standard English or *ass*, currently known as *donkey*. In Devon and Cornwall speakers have kept the pronunciation *–(e)th* in the third person singular present tense, which was replaced by *–(e)s* ending in Standard English. In East Anglia the ending might be in such cases completely omitted, and along with standard *he plays*, *she sees* it is possible to hear *he play* or *she see*. (Wakelin, 1972, pp. 1-5)

As has been mentioned, apart from regional dialects, there are also social dialects or sociolects. They are associated with certain social groups differentiated by class, age, ethnicity, sex, or profession. All these groups use social dialects, which are somehow specific. For instance, members of Latin American

community speak differently than members of Irish American and Afro American community even though they live in the same neighbourhood. People of the working class, such as coal miners for example, speak in a different way than people of the upper class, in the same way seniors do not sound the same as teenagers even if the two parties are not differentiated by regional dialect. Social dialects, also called class dialects, are connected with regional dialects. This, however, does not involve Standard English, which is a non-regional dialect. When it is said a person has a dialect it is usually meant the blend of features typical of his or hers nation, region, class, employment, age, and gender. As stated earlier, these features may reveal information about the speaker.

People do not always speak only the dialect of their region. They often tend to use Standard English at work and their local dialect at home or when having a conversation with friends. It is also used for business purposes as, for instance, when company managers speak with Standard English to a business partner and with another dialect to their employees. This ability to speak two dialects makes the speakers bilingual (or bidialectal) and shows that speakers can be in more than one social group. Dialects are sometimes considered to be somehow wrong or not as good as Standard English. However, as it will be described in section 2.4, Standard English is a dialect as well, and it is not superior to any other regional or social non-standard dialect.

There is a term concerning regional dialects called dialect continuum which refers to a gradual shift of dialects. It needs to be pointed out that it concerns only regional dialects. Crystal (2008, p. 144) defines it as *"(…) a chain of dialects spoken throughout an area."* The analogy is appropriate here because of the word *chain*. It expresses the connection of the dialects. The neighbouring dialects are mutually intelligible but the intelligibility declines with increasing distance between the dialects. It might decline to the point where the dialects are not mutually understandable at all, even though they are parts of the same chain of dialects. This is the case of the Romance languages, which were developed from Latin dialects and became individual languages. A dialect is a language variety of a certain group of people speaking the same language. There is also the term idiolect referring to a variety of just one person. It is a unique, individual dialect that everyone has because every human being is unique and uses language slightly

differently than others (even in a small group). The term *lect* refers to any language variety. (Crystal, 1997, pp. 24-25)
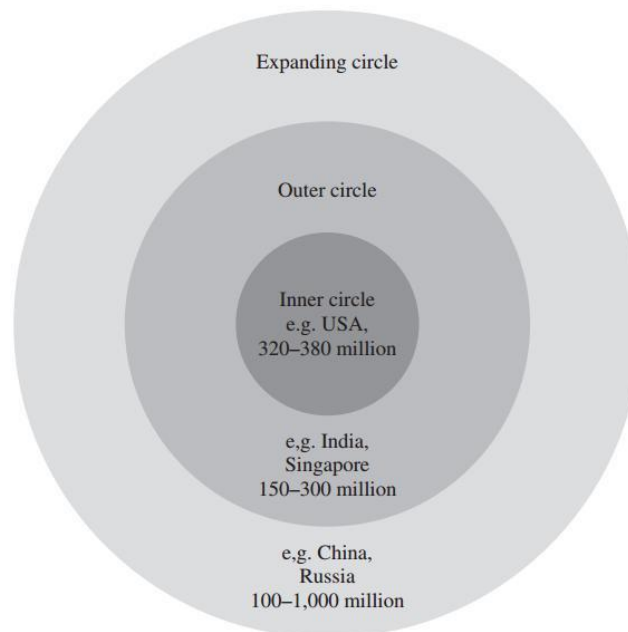
2.3   Variety

English is an international language used all across the world. However, it is not the same everywhere. The way English is used varies, and the variation depends, for example, on speakers' region, education, occupation or social class. A variety, or *lect* is in this thesis used as a neutral term, and it is understood as *"any distinct form of a language."* (Seargeant & Swann, 2012, p. 13)

Crystal (2008, p. 509) claims that, according to some sociolinguists, a variety can be defined as *"one kind of situational distinctive language – a specialized type of language used within a dialect, e.g. for occupational purposes."* However, this view is not supported here. Languages, dialects, registers or styles, or accents, for example, are classified in the thesis as varieties. As English has become a global language, foreign speakers have adapted it and shaped it into new forms comfortable to them. That is how new varieties of English have been created. They differ mainly in vocabulary, but there are also new pronunciations and grammatical structures. These varieties might be called *new varieties of English,* or *indigenized* or *extraterritorial varieties.* (Schneider, 2011, p. 29) The most known term for these varieties is *Englishes*, so it is adopted here.

There are three types of *Englishes*. The first are *World Englishes* including all *Englishes* in the world. The term *World Englishes* was introduced by an American Professor of Linguistics born in India, Braj Kachru in his model of the spread of English – Three Circles of English. *New Englishes* are used as a second language mostly in Africa and Asia. *Postcolonial Englishes* are the third type of *Englishes*. They are based on British English and it is, for example American or New Zealand English, all *New Englishes* and English-related creoles. Apart from this one, there are other classification models. In one of them the countries where English is used are divided into three types: *English as a Native Language* (ENL), where English is used as a first language by most of the population, *English as a Second Language* (ESL), where is it used alongside with original native languages (India, Malaysia), and *English as a Foreign Language* (EFL). In case of EFL,

English is only taught in schools. A similar classification of *Englishes* was used in Braj Kachru's Three Circles model. (Schneider, 2011, pp. 29-30)

Figure 1 *The three 'circles' of English*

Expanding circle

Outer circle

Inner circle
e.g. USA,
320–380 million

e,g. India,
Singapore
150–300 million

e,g. China,
Russia
100–1,000 million

(Crystal, 2003, p. 61)

In this model varieties of English are shown in three overlapping circles, each representing countries where the certain varieties are used. The *Inner Circle* represents countries such as the UK or the USA, where English is the first, native language (ENL). The *Outer Circle* represents English as a Second Language (ESL) and the *Expanding Circle* is English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Kachru does not just rename the terms in his model; he also questions the absolute dominance of the *Inner Circle* and stresses the importance of the *Outer* and *Expanding Circles*. The main argument is that English belongs to all its users, so people do not need to try to acquire British English, and that the countries of *Outer Circle* are to be perceived as independent developing *Englishes*. Therefore, due to the Kachru's model, the confidence in these *Englishes* has risen, and it has affected English teaching in the countries of the *Outer* and *Expanding Circles*. (Schneider, 2011, pp. 31-32)

New Englishes have already been mentioned above in the first *Englishes* classification model. Apart from the mentioned Tanzania and India, they are used in countries such as Singapore, Ghana and Nigeria, for example, where English is

not a mother tongue of most of the population but is used as a second language. *New Englishes* are thought to be in some ways simpler than other Englishes, but it is not clear what it means exactly. What may seem like simplicity in one way can cause problems in another. For instance, in Singaporean English it is possible to omit the subject of a sentence. Such sentences have fewer words, so they are shorter and look simpler. The Singaporean English sentence *Can la!* seems to be simpler than its translation *But of course I/you can!* However, considering the listener's point of view it may not be that easy to understand. The subject of a sentence is not specified, and it needs to be derived from context. The sentence is a good example of current trend, which is striving for simplicity in pronunciation. As seen in the example, sounds are sometimes left out in casual conversation. In Black South African English a plural -s after numerals is left out, so phrases like *three year* or *two dog* are possible to hear. There are also tendencies to repeat the same message unnecessarily, as in the phrase *visit with us* which can be seen in Philippine English. Another tendency of some *New Englishes* is striving to avoid irregularities, as *throwed* instead of *thrown* and *mouses* instead of *mice*. Another example is having just one question tag for all cases, as it is in Indian English in sentences such as *They were at home, isn't it?* (Schneider, 2011, pp. 193-195)

Dialects and languages have already been covered, and registers and styles will be described now. Register is not understood here from a phonetic point of view as *"the voice quality produced by a specific physiological constitution of the larynx."* (Crystal, 2008, p. 409) Dialect is a language variety of a certain group, regional or social. Register is a language variety of certain social situations. People choose different forms of language in various situations. Their rhetorical style is different when having a speech in front of an audience or a casual conversation with a friend. This concerns writing as well. Writing style of a formal letter is different from the one in texting. In multilingual countries people may speak with different languages in certain social situations. For instance, one language might be required for institutional use, and other might be used when talking to family and friends. The choice of which language variety to use depends on the subject matter, the goal of the communication, the person we are talking to, and on the relationship with this person. In Czech, for instance, there are two forms of the second-person singular pronoun *you*. The form *ty* is used

when talking to a person of the same social standing or to show some kind of relationship, and *vy* is used when talking to more people, someone older, or someone of higher social status. This applies in writing as well.

There are many styles and registers, but usually only one of them is correct in a given situation, and it is important to choose the proper one. In academic writing it is not appropriate to use contractions, for example. Most people are taught which language varieties are to be used in various situations. However, in various countries different language varieties might be associated with different situations. Registers or styles vary in phonology, vocabulary, grammar and semantics. For example, there are over a hundred synonyms for the word *intoxicated*, which is usually used in formal situations. Words such as *pickled*, *drunk*, or *pissed* might have the same meaning as *intoxicated* or *under the influence*, but they are used in informal situations. There are also different styles of addressing a person, and it is necessary to choose the right style. A person might be addressed as *Your Honour*, *Your Majesty*, *Sir*, *Mr. Brown*, by first name or surname, *mate*, *bro* or *dude*, for instance. The best known register, concerning vocabulary, is *slang*. It is used in highly informal situations, and shows some kind of rebellion. *Jargon* is also well known language variety containing specialized vocabulary of certain communities with the same specific interests, employment, hobbies or activities. Unlike slang, it is not necessarily associated with rebellion or informality.

Written and spoken registers are sometimes thought to be the same, but there are differences between them. They may have a different purpose (i.e. official contracts are usually in written form). There are also differences from a linguistic point of view. Speaking can disclose more information due to speaker's tone and pitch, for instance. If the speaker and the hearer are in direct contact, the hearer is given even more information through the speaker's gestures, posture and body language in general. On the other hand, written registers can be revised and modified before presenting it to the reader while it cannot be done in speaking. The speaker in conversation does not have as much time to choose words and grammatical structures as the writer. The speaker can pause during speech but not for a long amount of time because the listener might lose attention. Another difference is that the participants of a conversation can immediately react to one another's opinions, so the conversation is more personal. This is possible to a

certain degree in written conversations as well, for example in texting or written letters, but this kind of interaction is not possible in writing a book. Speaking is also more dependent on context. In words such as *tomorrow* or *next Sunday* the listener is able to determine the exact date of the mentioned day, whereas in written text it is not possible, unless the date when the text was written is stated. (Finegan, 2007, pp. 314-329)

2.4 Standard English

The word *standard* needs to be defined first in order to describe Standard English. The adjective refers to something normal, regular, something that is widely accepted, recognised and commonly used. A standard language is thus a variety of a language which is widely accepted and used by speakers of a language community. It is used as a norm or a standard of the language. Standard English is a dialect of English, which has its own specific vocabulary and grammar. It is usually associated with characteristic pronunciation. In contrast with non-standard dialects, Standard English has established spelling, and is used for writing. It is the language of official communication, textbooks, dictionaries, politics and media. Standard English is also used in universities and taught to foreigners. It is not influenced by any regional dialects within a nation.

However, there are more national standards of English, and they vary in vocabulary and grammar, as well as in pronunciation. There are Standard British English, Standard American English and Standard Australian English, for example, and none of these varieties is to be considered *the one* or *the proper* standard of Global English. These varieties are rather similar, especially in writing, because they all have the same origin, which is British English. British colonists spread English to these countries in seventeenth and eighteenth century, and the countries created their own language standards. The standards have not been distinctly divided because of their mutual contact. English-speaking nations have been in contact through entertainment, such as films or books, and through media, such as newspapers, radio and television, for instance. (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 14)

Non-standard varieties are sometimes considered to be less prestigious or somehow worse than standard varieties, but this view is incorrect. From a

linguistic point of view, standard varieties are not in any way worse or better than non-standard varieties. However, standard varieties are usually used by people of higher social prestige. Standard varieties expanded because of their international usefulness. For instance, books and textbooks written in Standard British English spelling will be understood by any foreign learners of the variety. If different books were written in different non-standard dialects, it would cause problems with understanding, especially to foreign learners. (Finegan, 2007, p. 14)

There are many varieties of English as the language has been accepted in countries all over the world. People use various words that might be unfamiliar to native speakers from other English-speaking countries. Words may also have different pronunciation and sentence structures might be different. The following diagram presents varieties of English, either standard or non-standard.

Figure 2 *World Standard English*
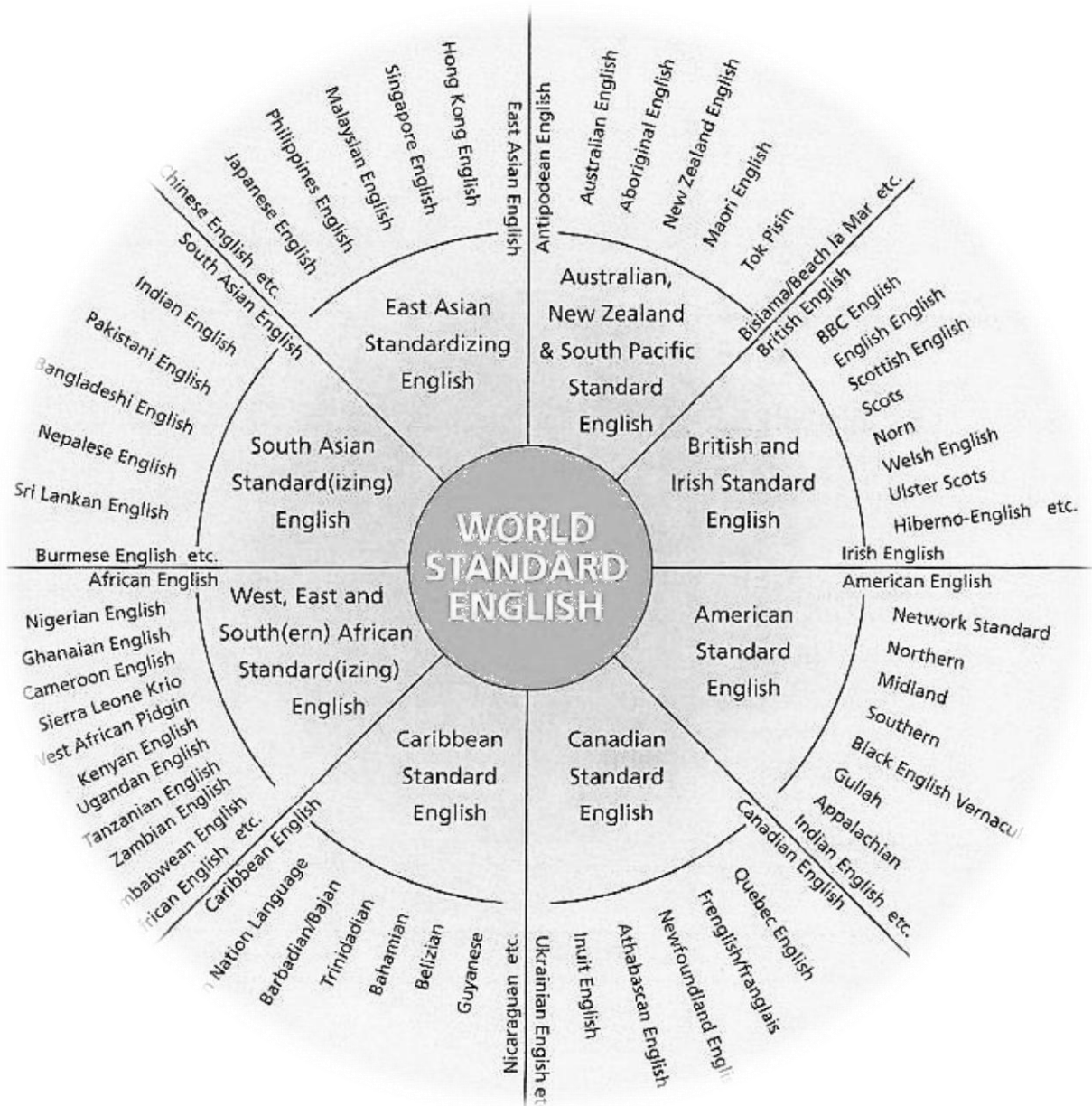
(McAtrhur, 1998, p. 97)

English was the language of colonists and many of the colonized countries embraced it and modified it to their own. As a result, people from various countries use the English language in their own way, so the language is enriched with their local characteristics. If two or more peoples with distinct languages live together in close contact (often when one of them being more powerful than the other, as in the case of colonists), and they do not have a language in common, a new language system might be created. These mixed languages have been developed for a purpose of communication usually between the colonists and the

26

natives. The languages, called *pidgins*, have in comparison with other languages reduced grammatical structure, lexical and stylistic range. (Crystal, 2008, p. 369) English-based *pidgins* have appeared in countries colonised by Britons such as Australia, countries in the Caribbean, West Africa and the Pacific region. *Pidgins* are mother tongues of no one because when a *pidgin* expands and becomes a native language of a community, it is called a *creole*. The terms are not so strictly divided though. There is, for example, Hawaiian Pidgin which is being used for centuries and linguists consider it to be a *creole*. There are also *creoles* that became standardised national languages. In the case of English-based *creoles,* the vocabulary is usually derived mainly from English. However, there are also modified words and words originating in other languages, which are hard to understand for English native speaker. There are even arguments that *creoles* and *pidgins* should be considered new independent languages. An English speaker is able to understand most English-based *creole* words. (Schneider, 2011, pp. 28-29) Even though, as will be shown in Dialect, mutual intelligibility is not always the decisive criterion whether two varieties are to be considered different languages or not, English-based *pidgins* and *creoles* are in this thesis considered to be varieties of English.

3. Standard British English

The British Isles were originally settled by the Celts, ancestors of today's Irish, Scots and Welsh. In 55 BC, Britain was invaded by the Romans and conquered in 43 AD. They failed to conquer the area of today's Scotland and left Britain in 410 AD. Because of the oppression by Scots and Picts from the North, the Celts called for a help the Saxon nation. These Germanic tribes invaded Britain, beat the enemy from the North and settled here. They also drove the Celts, who invited them, to the areas of today's Wales, Cornwall and to the Scottish borders. There were three tribes called the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, and their dialects became the basis of English. England was the land of the Angles, and its inhabitants were called Anglo-Saxons. Around 600 AD, Christian missionaries came to England with their Latin alphabet to spread Christianity. Latin began to spread through religious texts and manuscripts. Viking invasions began in the eight century and continued until the eleventh century. In the ninth century, Britain was raided by Vikings who settled in the North and the East. Later they accepted Christianity, and they were integrated into the Anglo-Saxon society.

English is divided into three historical periods. Old English was used by Anglo-Saxons from the seventh to the eleventh century. The period from the eleventh to the fifteenth century is called Middle English, and the third period, Modern English, is used until now. There were some specific letters in Old English which are not used in Modern English, such as *þ*, *ð*, or *æ*, and even though their count was not large, they were used in many common words. There was a tendency in Old English to pronounce diphthongs as monophthongs, which is a feature shared with Southern American accent.

The period of Middle English began when the duke of Normandy invaded England in 1066, won the decisive Battle of Hastings, and became the king of England. The Norman French became the official language of the court, the church, government and education. At the beginning of the thirteenth century, the king lost Normandy, and with that the French language in England gradually started to fade. By the end of the century, English language was spoken by all the people of England again. However, it was remarkably influenced by French. Thousands of words were adopted from French, especially from the areas of

religion, government, or the courts such as *justice*, *evidence*, or *judge*. Consonant clusters /hl-/, /hr-/, /hn-/, and /kn-/, typical of Old English, were reduced to /l/, /n/, and /r/. Middle English also began to use fixed word order.

Modern English is further divided into Early and Late Modern English. The former dates from the late fifteenth century until the seventeenth century. The latter lasts until now. English underwent *the Great Vowel Shift* in the fifteenth century. All the long vowels of Middle English were changed during this shift. The shift did not continue after the invention of the printing press because it firmly established the position of vowels. The second-person singular form was in Old English *thou* and *thee*, and plural forms were *ye* and *you*. This distinction disappeared in Modern English. The plural forms *ye*, *you*, and *your* were used to show respect towards one another. The singular form disappeared and *ye* and *you* merged. Modern English reduced the number of irregular verbs. In Old English there were over three hundred of them, whereas in Modern English there are fewer than a hundred. There was a shortage of words, so Modern English, and especially Early Modern English, borrowed many words from Latin, Greek (e.g. *object*, *axis*, or *criterion*) and about fifty other languages. (Finegan, 2007, pp. 470-494)

3.1   Received Pronunciation

Received Pronunciation, also called *BBC English* or an *Oxbridge accent*, originated in the nineteenth century in London and its surrounding shires. RP is regarded as a standard pronunciation of English where the word *received* is used in its original meaning of *generally accepted* or *approved*. Because the term is outdated, Cruttenden (2014) uses the term General British (GB), which parallels to General American (GA). Given the fact that most publications used for the thesis refer to this phenomenon as to Received Pronunciation, and the term is well established, it is chosen for the thesis. This non-regional accent began to be used by people of high social status, at public schools, which are in the United Kingdom prestige and private, and at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. It is a prestige social accent of British English used in radio and television broadcasts. This accent has been spread mostly because of the BBC broadcasting and teaching English in foreign countries. RP is a neutral accent, so we cannot

identify an RP speaker's regional background. It is only possible to recognise that the speaker is from Britain but not from which region of Britain. RP speakers are sometimes considered to speak with no accent at all but this approach is not supported in this thesis. Every person has an accent even though it does not always reveal their regional or social background. From a linguistic point of view, it is not in any way better than other accents but it is associated with people of high social standings. RP is considered to be a standard pronunciation of British English, and as such it is used for teaching English in other countries as a second or foreign language. Besides the BBC, RP is also used in textbooks, dictionaries and books focused on English. Despite the fact RP is spoken only by a small minority of British speakers (about 3 per cent), it is considered to be the most widely understood accent in the world, and it is often taken as a standard when compared with other accents. This approach is adopted in the thesis. (Svartvik & Leech, 2006, pp. 125-126)

BBC presenters have typically used RP because the accent was considered to be understood and accepted by the most people. That is how the title *BBC English* was established. However, different regional accents and types of RP are also possible to hear in today's BBC broadcasting. The accent does not have the same prestigious social status it once had. (Crystal, 2008, p. 404)

The following diagram shows distribution of pronunciation in England. The vertical axis represents the regional variation of speakers' accents and the horizontal one represents the social variation. The regional variation is the widest at the bottom of the social scale. The pyramid is widest at the bottom which means working-class accents have the biggest regional variation of accents, and thus the biggest geographical differences in pronunciation. Around the middle classes the regional variation is not as broad as in working-class. On the top there are speakers of education and influence, people of higher class who use RP are. The diagram is in the shape of a triangle which basically means the higher social class, the less regional variation of accents. English speakers are, of course, not as strictly distributed as it might seem in the diagram. Their position in the diagram can be changed, for example, by learning a more prestigious accent or acquiring an accent from environment. Some people have a tendency to climb the social scale and modify their accent towards RP. (Svartvik, et al., 2006, p. 127a)

Figure 3 *The pyramid of standardization*
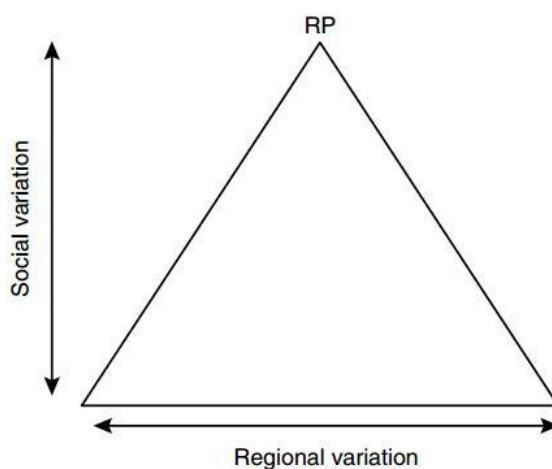
(Svartvik, et al., 2006, p. 127b)

Even though RP has no regional variation, it is not always the same. Wells (Wells, 1982b, p. 279) divides RP into four varieties, namely *mainstream RP*, *U-RP*, *adoptive RP* and *Near-RP*. This variation is in this thesis considered outdated and unnecessarily complicated. Wells (2013 [online]) himself admitted on his blog he would alter his RP differentiation if he was doing it at the present time. Another variation divides RP into *conservative RP*, *advanced RP* and *Near-RP*. (Trudgill & Hannah, 1994, p. 10) *Conservative RP* is usual for older speakers, whereas *advanced RP* for younger speakers. The variation, according to which RP can be divided into *General RP*, *Refined RP* and *Regional RP* by Cruttenden (2008, p. 78) was chosen in the thesis because it is most recent and understandable of the mentioned variations.

General RP is the least socially and regionally marked form of RP and is used most frequently of the three. It is used for teaching, in dictionaries and textbooks and also in this thesis. *Refined RP* is usually used by members of upper-class families, and this accent is also associated to their employment such as Navy officers, for instance. In present day it has negative undertones, and its usage is descending. There are some characteristic features of *Refined RP* such as producing the vowel /æ/ as /ɛæ/ or *off* as /ɔ:f/ instead of short /ɒf/. When in word-final position /ə/ and /ɪ/ are very open. The third variety, *Regional RP*, refers to regional differences within RP. Earlier in this section it has been stated that RP shows no regional variation. However, the regional differences within RP are so

small that even other RP speakers cannot notice them, so *Regional RP* is considered RP. The difference is, for instance, producing /ʊ/ instead of dark l /ɫ/, so the word *held* sounds like /heʊd/ or using of /æ/ instead of /a:/ in *class* or *path*. These three varieties of RP are not to be thought of as three separate groups. They do not have set boundaries between them, so a person speaking with *General RP* can also have a characteristic of *Regional RP*, for instance. (Cruttenden, 2008, pp. 78-79)

Phonology of Received Pronunciation

Some of the typical features of RP will be described and entitled rather than pointed out single pronunciations of individual words. The features are taken from Wells (1982a, pp. 213-239)

➤ *Pre-R Breaking*. This first feature of RP represents the insertion of /ə/ between any of the vowels /i:, e:, o:, u:/ and the consonant /r/. In Early Modern English the pronunciation of the types of words such as *fierce*, *care*, *force* and *gourd* was /fɪːrs/, /keːr/, /foːrs/ and /guːrd/. Because of *Pre-R Breaking*, the pronunciation was changed to /fɪːəs/, /keːər/, /foːərs/ and /guːərd/. However, this is not the final pronunciation because the words have undergone the following changes.

➤ *Pre-Schwa Laxing*. This is the changing of a long vowel, placed before /ə/ inserted by P*re-R breaking*, to a short one, so vowels /i:, e:, o:, u:/ are changed to /ɪ, ɛ, ɔ, ʊ/. The pronunciation of the previous examples therefore is /fɪəs/, /kɛər/, /fɔərs/ and /guərd/. *Pre-Schwa Laxing* is a change from the distributional point of view, as well as *Pre-R Breaking*.

➤ *R Dropping*. This distinctive characteristic of RP has been mentioned in section 2.1 Accent. It basically means the /r/ consonant after a vowel is omitted, so the pronunciation of the previous words is further changed to /dɪə/, /keə/, /fɔəs/ and /guəd/. This does not apply to /r/ followed by a vowel at the beginning of a word or between two vowels, as in *road*, *glory* or *fearing*. It does, however, apply to words such as *feared*. Therefore, *fearing* is pronounced as /fɪərɪŋ/ and *feared*

as /fɪəd/. *R Dropping* is the feature of distributional differences, which were described in subsection 2.1.1 How accents differ. As stated, from this point of view, accents can be differentiated as rhotic and non-rhotic. Non-rhotic accents use *R Dropping*, whereas rhotic accents do not. In rhotic accents such as GA, for instance, /r/ is pronounced in every position.

➤ *Monophthonging*. This realizational feature changes diphthongs /ɪə, ɛə, ɔə, ʊə/ into monophthongs /ɪː, ɛː, ɔː ʊː/. It is seen mostly in words of the same type as *force* or *scarce*.

➤ *R Intrusion* and *Linking R*. These are other typical features of RP and other non-rhotic accents. They are features of phonotactic distribution as well as *R Dropping*. In the case of *Linking R*, the consonant /r/ can appear between two words if the first one ends with a letter *r* and the other begins with a vowel. This is reliant on the previous feature, *R Dropping*. For example, the word *clear* is pronounced as /klɪə/ but *clear off* is produced as /klɪər əv/. In *R Intrusion*, the /r/ consonant occurs in intervocalic environment between two words such as *idea is* /aɪˈdɪər ˈɪz/.

➤ *Smoothing*. The second element of a diphthong might be omitted due to *Smoothing* when there is another vowel after the diphthong. It applies especially to diphthongs /ɪə/ and /əʊ/, so words such as *fire* /ˈfaɪə/ are pronounced as /faə/.

➤ *Suffix vowels*. In words with four or more syllables, such as *cemetery* or *secretary* for instance, there is a weakening or omission of vowel in their next-to-last syllable. This includes words ending in -ary, -ory, -mony, -borough, -boro, -burgh, -berry, and -bury. The previous examples are in RP produced /ˈsekrətrɪ/ and /ˈsemətrɪ/, whereas in GA it is /ˈsekrəterɪ/ and /ˈseməterɪ/. *Smoothing* and *Suffix vowels* are features of realizational differences between accents.

4. Standard American English

English colonies in North America were originated at the beginning of the seventeenth century, and thus English became an international language. There were also colonies of other European states such as Spanish, French, or Dutch. English was influenced by these languages because they were in contact with each other. Some words were also taken from the languages of Native Americans. The development of English in the South slightly varies from the one in the North. The South was settled mostly by people from the south and west of England. Then there were a large number of slaves brought from Africa to work on the plantations. The number of slaves in some southern states was several times greater than the number of free people. Therefore, the language of the slaves influenced English in the South.

American English was developed from Early Modern English, and it is thought to be more conservative than British English. The non-rhoticity of British English was developed after the settlement in America, and therefore it did not influence most of the American speakers. However, it did have an influence on the American east coast areas, which were in a contact with England due to trade. *R Dropping* in these areas was accepted and used until the nineteenth century. Because of the different economy and culture of the North and the South, a new dialect of the Southern America was developed. After the War of Independence, there was a need of uniformity in language. Therefore, *An American Dictionary of the English Language* was created by Noah Webster. It was also to show national identity though the language. It was meant to distinguish American English from British English, primarily in spelling. However, the original idea of creating a new American language mutually unintelligible from English was not fulfilled, as well as the idea of uniformity in American English. The uniformity has not been reached due to the differences between the North and the South leading to Civil War, and also due to the diversity of population. Even though American and British English have not become mutually unintelligible, there are some differences between them. (Seargeant, et al., 2012, pp. 116-123)

As has been stated, most changes occurred in spelling. Some of them apply to more words, such as the ending *-er* in American English, as in *center* and *-re* in British, as in *centre* or American *-or* (*color*) and British *-our* (*colour*). Some

changes in spelling concern only individual words, such as *pajamas* in American English and *pyjamas* in British English. There are also some differences in syntax and grammar. Noun phrases such as *in hospital* take the definite article in American English, so the phrase is *in the hospital*. Collective nouns (e.g. team, family, or group) are in British English considered as plural, whereas in American English they are usually taken as singular. The two varieties have also different words denoting the same thing, as, for instance, British *lift* and American *elevator*. Phonological differences will be described in the following section. (Finegan, 2007, pp. 350-352)

4.1   General American

Pronunciation in the United States is not as regionally distinctive as the one in the United Kingdom. GA is the most widespread American accent used by most people and media and it can be considered a standard pronunciation of American English. Apart from the US, it is used as a standard pronunciation in Philippines or Mexico. This accent can be mostly heard on the television networks in the United States, and therefore it is also known as "Network English." The greatest differences of pronunciation in America are along the East Coast. Towards the West the varieties of accents are getting more similar. From the point of view of regional accents, the United States might be divided into three major areas: Northeastern, Southern, and General American. The Northeastern accent is used in New England, and it was known to be used by the American President John F. Kennedy. This accent has a characteristic feature of *R-Dropping*, which is shared with most southern states. The Southern accent is used in all the states from Virginia to Texas, and it is known for its slow pronunciation and tendency to produce diphthongs in positions of pure vowels. This feature is called *the Southern Drawl*, and it will be discussed in section 5.1 Texan Accent. General American is the accent used by most American citizens. It is used throughout the whole country except for the South and the Northeast. It is a standard accent without any marked regional characteristics, and it can be compared to British RP. However, the accent in the United States is not linked with higher social classes, as in the UK. GA was used, for example, by Ronald Reagan. (Svartvik, et al., 2006, pp. 81-82)

Figure 4 *Main accent areas in the United States*

(Svartvik, et al., 2006, p. 81)

Comparing GA with RP, there are some differences between them. As is has been explained in subsection 2.1.1 How accents differ, the differences between accents might be distributional, systemic, lexical, and realizational. The most prominent is the distribution of /r/, mentioned earlier. GA is a rhotic accent, whereas RP is non-rhotic. From the point of view of systemic differences, GA does not have diphthongs /ɪə, eə, ʊə/ (see Figure 5). Instead of the diphthongs, a short vowel followed by /r/ is used. This is associated with the rhoticity. Lexical differences occur in words where RP pronounces /ɑː/ before voiceless fricative or nasal followed by a consonant, as in /bɑːθ/ or /pɑːst/. GA in these cases uses /bæθ/ and /pæst/. Realizational differences are, for example, the pronunciation of /t/ as a voiced tap between vowels in GA, so it sounds as /d/, or the pronunciation of a dark [ɫ] in every position, whereas RP has a clear /l/ when followed by a vowel. (Cruttenden, 2008, pp. 84-85)

RP intonation rises and falls more suddenly than GA, which has simpler intonation. GA speakers also tend to have higher pitch than British and speak more loudly. In comparison to RP, their tempo is slower, and they pronounce every syllable. As discussed in section 3.1 Received Pronunciation, British pronunciation tends to reduce or omit certain vowels of some polysyllabic words.

36

On the other hand, GA pronounces short *i* in second syllable of words with suffix *-ile* or *-ization*, such as *missile* /mɪsl/ and *futile* /fjuːtl/, whereas RP speakers use in these words diphthong /aɪ/, so the pronunciation is /mɪsaɪl/ and /fjuːtaɪl/. In general, British speakers do not follow spelling as closely as do Americans, and they have more silent consonants. Another typical feature of GA is using of /uː/ in positions where RP has /juː/. All these typical features of GA will be described in the following paragraphs. (Brook, 1965, pp. 117-119)

Phonology of General American

The following phonological features are characteristic of GA. They are shared either with RP or with Texan accent.

- ➢ *Pre-R Breaking* and *Pre-Schwa Laxing*. These are the two features shared with RP. They have been explained in section 3.1 Received Pronunciation (*Pre-R Breaking* is adding /ə/ between /iː, eː, oː, uː/ and /r/, *Pre-Schwa Laxing* is shortening of the vowels).

- ➢ *Pre-Schwa Deletion*. This change is specific for GA, and it comes after the process of *Pre-R Breaking* and *Pre-Schwa Laxing*. The /r/ consonant is not dropped, as in RP, but /ə/ between a vowel and /r/ is omitted.

- ➢ *Later Yod Dropping*. GA omits /j/ before /u/ or when followed by /r/. The /j/ sound is omitted after coronal consonants, such as /t, d, θ, s, z, n, l/. They are produced with the front part of the tongue. Therefore, words like *tune*, *dew* or *resume* are produced as /tuːn/ /duː/ and /rɪˈzuːm/.

- ➢ *The NURSE set*. Words of the NURSE type such as *purse, work, hurt* are in RP produced with /ɜː/, whereas in GA, as well as in the Southern United States, it is r-coloured /ɝ/, which is the same as /ɜr/. This sound, either r-coloured or not, is one of the most noticeable phonological features characteristic of English.

- ➢ *The Second NURSE Merger*. Some words of *the NURSE set* such as *furrow, worry, hurry* are in RP pronounced with /ʌr/. In RP there is a difference between *furry* /ˈfɜːri/ and *hurry* /ˈhʌri/, whereas in GA the words *furry* /ˈfɜri/ and *hurry* /ˈhɜri/ rhyme.

➢ *T voicing.* This is a distinctive feature of American pronunciation of *t* between two vowels, as in *better* or *writer*. This realizational feature is produced by a rapid tap of the tongue blade. It is perceived as /d/ rather than /t/ by non-Americans. The previous examples are pronounced [ˈberɾɚ] and [ˈraɪɾɚ].

➢ *The LOT-PALM merger.* Words of the LOT type such as *lot*, *box* or *pot* are in GA unrounded and lengthened. They are pronounced with long /ɑː/, as in *palm*. The pronunciation was /ɔ/ in Middle English. Words of the LOT type are in RP pronounced with rounded /ɒ/, but GA does not have this phoneme, as demonstrated in the following table of systemic differences between RP and GA. (Wells, 1982a, pp. 130-249)

Figure 5 *Vowel systems of RP and GA*

Phonetic symbol	RP	GA
i	*key*	*key*
u	*moon*	*moon*
ɪ	*sit*	*sit*
ʊ	*good*	*good*
e	*bed*	
ɛ		*bed*
ɜ	*bird*	*bird*
ə	*arise*	*arise*
ɔ	*caught*	*(caught)*
æ	*bad*	*bad*
ʌ	*cut*	*cut*
ɒ	*hot*	
ɑ	*laugh*	*hot, (caught)*
eɪ	*fate*	*fate*
aʊ	*mouth*	*mouth*
əʊ	*bode*	
oʊ		*bode*
aɪ	*by*	*by*
ɔɪ	*boy*	*boy*
ʊə	*poor*	
eə	*there*	
iə	*here*	
aɪə	*fire*	
eɪə	*player*	
aʊə	*power*	

(Gut, 2009, p. 63)

GA and RP are described in detail in the thesis. The phonological features of each accent were shown, and the accents were further compared with each other. Not all phonological features of RP and GA were covered. Each accent has more features than were described, but the mentioned characteristics are sufficient for the purposes of the thesis. There were selected only the most distinctive phonological features of each accent. The participants of the survey will try to identify them in selected words in each accent.

Both of these accents will be used in the practical part of the thesis. It will be examined whether they can be recognised by Czech native speakers. The Texan accent will be compared with RP and GA in the practical part. There will be investigated how Czech native speakers perceive the Texan accent in comparison with RP and GA. There will be also researched to what extent Czech native speakers are familiar with the three mentioned accents.

5. Texan English

An online source was used as the source of information for the following paragraphs. (Do You Speak American? Texas English, 2005 [online]) The state of Texas is perceived by Americans as highly distinctive. It is associated with oil, cowboys, ranches, excess and pride, which is expressed through the accent. Texan citizens are very proud of their state and culture. This image of Texas has been supported by Hollywood films and television series. Texas is the only state originated before the creation of the United States. It joined the US under special conditions. The uniqueness of the Texan English was highlighted even more when George W. Bush was inaugurated the President of the United States. However, Texan English, especially of younger speakers, is not as distinctive as it is considered to be by the general public. Even though it has been exaggerated in television and films, Texan English has only a few unique features not shared anywhere else. It is not as distinctive as thought, but native Texans are still recognisable from the way they speak.

It needs to be said English was not the first language of Texas. Spanish was the language of Texas until the Anglo settlement in the 1820's. English became the main language after the Texas Revolution, although Spanish has never disappeared from their culture and language. Many Spanish cultural habits and words are used in Texas (e.g. names of cities such as San Antonio or El Paso) because the two cultures were mixed. In the nineteenth century there was also substantial immigration from other states of Southern America. Most Lower Southerners settled in the east, Upper Southerners in the north and central Texas. South and south central Texas were further influenced by migration from Europe creating a unique blend of dialects. There has been also migration from Mexico since the beginning of the twentieth century, after the Mexican Revolution. The number of immigrants from Mexico rose rapidly at the end of the twentieth century and at the beginning of the twenty-first century. The migration reassured the position of Spanish in Texas.

Texan English is a variety of Southern American English (SAE), and as such it has many lexical, grammatical and phonological characteristics of the

South. The Southern features are most prominent in east Texas. There are also words from Spanish (e.g. *olla*, *remuda*, or *frijoles*), especially in south and west Texas. Texan English has some specific features regarding grammar, as for example *y'all*, which is an abbreviation for *you all*, *fixin' to*, as in a sense of *be about to*, and multiple modal verbs, as in *I might could play*. There is also an unusual form of present perfect, e.g. *We have done finished that*. From the phonological point of view, the most distinctive features are *the PIN-PEN Merger* and *the Southern drawl*, which will be described in section 5.1 Texan Accent.

English in Texas has been influenced not only by migration but also by modern technologies and urbanization. A third of Texans live in metropolitan areas. The development of the language has been different in the countryside and in metropolises. Characteristic features of the Texan variety have been preserved in towns and rural areas, whereas in big cities some of them have not. This concerns mainly pronunciation, but certain grammatical features have been disappearing as well. On the other hand, some new characteristics, such as the same pronunciation of *caught* and *cot* or *sale* and *sell*, have been used by younger speakers.

5.1   Texan Accent

As stated earlier, Texan English is a variety of SAE, and as such it has some of its features. SAE is the most distinctive variety of American English. Attitudes towards it are, however, mostly negative, and it is accepted as incorrect or lazy by other Americans. There may be a slight superiority towards their accent in interaction with SAE speakers. Characteristics of pronunciation in the South are most prominent in smaller towns and rural areas. Linguistic differences in large cities have started to fade because people and their dialects are in contact in a city and their local dialectal features are mixed. (Do You Speak American? Sounds of the South, 2005 [online])

The Texan accent, originated in the nineteenth century, was based on two groups whose dialects had merged in this area. One of them were migrants from Louisiana, Alabama, and Mississippi speaking with a dialect later called Lower South Dialect. The other group speaking with the South Midland Dialect came from Tennessee and Kentucky. The former influenced East Texas and the latter

affected West Texas. The Texan accent was developed from a mixture of typical Southern features of pronunciation, called *the Southern Shift*, and Western features. *The Southern Shift* represents the characteristic pronunciation of the South. There were also Spanish community, Anglo-Appalachian community from the Deep South and migrants from Europe and Mexico who had an effect on Texan speech.

One of the most significant characteristics of the Texan accent is its slow, lazy pronunciation and monophthongization of diphthongs, which makes *fire* sound like *far*. There is also the merging of two different vowels mentioned in previous paragraph, so the pronunciation of words such as *caught* and *cot*, *feel* and *fill* or *win* and *when* is identical. These features are used by younger speakers, and they are spreading. Apart from the metropolises, the Texan accent is not nearing the national standard of pronunciation. The same paradox might be observed in the case of grammatical phrases *y'all* and *fixin' to*. They are not disappearing. On the contrary, they are getting stronger, which is associated with Texans' pride of their state. Their identity is expressed through the dialect they use. The former president of United States George W. Bush used a Texan accent which was even stronger than the one of his other family members. Speaking this way, he was expressing his connection to Texas. (Do You Speak American? Texas English, 2005 [online])

Phonology of Texan English

The Texan accent is one of the most distinctive American accents. Some of its features are shared with other Southern accents.

> ➢ *The LOT-PALM Merger.* As in GA, words of the LOT type such as *lot*, *box* or *pot* are unrounded and lengthened. Their pronunciation is /lɑːt/, /bɑːks/ and /pɑːt/.
>
> ➢ *The NURSE set*. Words of the NURSE type such as *purse, work, hurt* are produced with r-coloured /ɜ˞/. It is the same pronunciation as in GA. (Wells, 1982a, pp. 130-139)
>
> ➢ *The BATH-DANCE set*. The vowels in these word categories are usually pronounced with /æɛ/, so words like *bath* or *chance* are

realised as /bæɛθ/ and /tʃæɛns/. This kind of pronunciation is typical especially for older speakers.

➤ *Rhoticity*. Southern speech, including Texas used to be non-rhotic accent (i.e. /r/ was not pronounced after a vowel). This speech, associated with former plantation areas, was considered to be more prestigious. Since the second half of the twentieth century, due to the influence of GA, rhoticity has become prestige. Non-rhoticity is nowadays used only among lower social levels and in African-American Vernacular English.

➤ *The NEAR set*. Words such as *near*, *deer* or *here* are pronounced with [iɚ] or /iə/.

➤ *The loss of /j/ before /u/*. This feature is the same as the one of GA called *Later Yod Dropping* and described above in section 4.1 General American.

➤ *The PIN-PEN Merger*. This involves merging of vowels /ɪ/ and /ɛ/ before nasals, such as /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/, so the words *pin* and *pen* sound the same. The resulting vowel usually closer to /ɪ/. It is a feature of subsystemic differences between accents described in subsection 2.1.1 How accents differ.

➤ *T voicing*. This feature, also called *Tapping* or *Flapping*, is typical of all Southerners. It is characteristic of North Americans as well, and it has been described in Phonology of General American. (Kortmann, et al., 2004, pp. 308-318)

➤ *The PRICE-MOUTH Merger*. This feature, also known as glide deletion or monophthongization of /aɪ/, causes the loss of /ɪ/ in the diphthong /aɪ/. The result is of this change is /a(ː)/. Diphthong /aɪ/ is used only before voiceless consonants which are in the same syllable as the diphthong, so *rice* is pronounced as /raɪs/ but *rise* as /raːz/ because it is followed by voiced consonant.

➤ *The Southern drawl*. The vowel /ə/ is added after /ɪ, æ, ɛ/ in a stressed monosyllable ending in a labial consonant, as in *lip* /lɪəp/. The process is also called *the Southern breaking*. If the stressed monosyllable does not have a labial ending, /ɪ, æ, ɛ/ might be

produced as /ɪː, æː, ɛː/ or there might be also the addition of /ə/ after them, as in the previous case. This /ə/ addition might occur after a strongly accented vowel, especially before dental or alveolar consonants, as in *bad* pronounced /bæəd/. There is a centralized vowel /ɜ/ because of another feature called *Umlauting*.

➢ *G-dropping.* The suffix *–ing* is pronounced as /ɪn/ instead of regular /ɪŋ/, so the word *crying*, for instance, is produced as /ˈkraɪɪn/. The pronunciation can be expressed in spelling where an apostrophe replaces the letter *g*, so the word would be *cryin'*. (Wells, 1982c, pp. 533-541)

6. Perception of English accents by Czech native speakers

The survey researches how Czech native speakers recognise, understand, perceive and evaluate various accents of English. The accents chosen for the research were standard British (RP), standard American (GA), and non-standard Texan accent. The survey is focused on Texan accent, which is compared with RP and GA. Each of these accents was described in the theoretical part of the thesis. Standard British English is used in the majority of English textbooks being used in the Czech educational system, and it is usually delivered with RP. Therefore, RP is assumed to be identified correctly by most of the respondents. All the students participating in the survey should be familiar with standard British accent.

However, only a small minority of people on the British Isles use RP in everyday conversation, so Czech speakers might not understand everything when encountering a different or unfamiliar accent. The Texan accent was chosen to represent such an accent, and the respondents are assumed to be the least familiar with it. The accent was chosen because of its distinctiveness, and it is expected to be the most recognisable of the three accents. The chosen accents are also rated from the point of their intelligibility, suitability for international communication, beauty and speed. This part of the survey was inspired by Jenkins. (2007, pp. 190-193) Texan accent is usually perceived as incorrect by the general public in the United States. It is expected to have the lowest ratings in all these categories, and its phonological features are also expected to be the least noticeable.

American standard accent is assumed in this thesis to be known to a Czech learner of English. It is assumed not only due to the educational system, but chiefly through the media and entertainment industry, such as films, television series, songs, or internet, for instance. Given the fact that GA might be heard in any of previous examples, a Czech learner of English is expected to be familiar with the standard American accent. In general, standard American pronunciation follows spelling more closely than the British standard, as explained in the theoretical part of the thesis. Since they are assumed to be in contact with both of these accents, the respondents of the survey are expected to understand both of them more than Texan accent.

6.1 Details of the Survey

The research was conducted in the form of a questionnaire because it is seen as the most efficient way of collecting data for the purposes of the thesis. An online questionnaire was considered, but it could not provide equal conditions for each respondent, so this option was eliminated. The research was carried out personally to guarantee the same conditions for each participant of the survey. The research was executed on 11th March 2016 at the Secondary Grammar School of Božena Němcová in Hradec Králové. It is a 6-year grammar school originated in 1978. The school has currently 507 students in 17 classes. English is taught in groups from 7 to 12 students. In the last three years of their studies the students are taught by English native speaker from Ohio. Each class has English lessons with the native speaker twice a week. The speaker speaks with GA, so all the students of the secondary school have heard and know the accent. Therefore, all the students participating in the survey should recognize the accent, and in the questionnaire they should choose the answer that they had heard GA in school. Every year the students of the Secondary Grammar School of Božena Němcová can participate in the exchange visit programme in France. In another programme the students are offered to study at a French secondary school for a year. The students can also participate in annual school trips to the UK. During the trips they participate in seminars on various topics, communicate with native speakers, and improve their English. The students participating in the survey were in their final year, and they are graduating in 2016. Twenty two students participated in the survey. Two groups of students were played recordings of three English accents during their English classes. The recordings are included in the thesis. According to their teacher Mr Absolon, the students were on Upper-Intermediate level of English, and in three cases on Advanced level. Students on both these levels are to recognise different accents and dialects of English. The information about the students and about the secondary grammar school was collected during my conversation with Mr Absolon in Hradec Králové on 11th March 2016.

The questionnaire was, apart from the source text, written in Czech. The source text of the recording was written in English. First the students were given the questionnaires and asked to read them. They were told they would hear three recordings of English accents. In the recordings there were native English

speakers with standard British accent (RP), standard American accent (GA), and Texan accent reading a source text, which was available in the questionnaire. The recordings and the text were taken from International Dialects of English Archive. (McCullough & Somerville, 2016 [online]) The respondents were asked to read the questions in the questionnaire and make sure they understand them. Then they were told they would hear three consecutive recordings of English accents labelled A, B and C. In questions 1–3 the students were to decide whether the speakers on the recordings A, B and C were speaking with RP, GA, or Texan accent. The recordings were played in the following order: GA, RP, and Texan accent. Then the respondents proceeded to question number 4 where they stated which of the three accents were known to them and from where. Each accent had 4 options of which each could be chosen. In questions number 5–7 the students evaluated the accents from the point of intelligibility, suitability for international communication, beauty and speed. The evaluation was on a scale of 1 to 6 with 6 being the highest possible quality. Questions 8–15 were focused on the phonological details of each accent. The respondents were asked how certain words had been pronounced in various accents. The words were underlined in the text and the recordings were played one more time before answering the questions 8–15. The underlined words were representing some typical phonological features of the researched accents. Only the most prominent features had been chosen in order to be recognisable for the respondents. Phonological features of the speakers' accents on the recordings were represented in following words.

The words *nurse* and *work* in GA were representing *the NURSE set*. As mentioned in the theoretical part, this pronunciation is characteristic of English, and it is expected to be noticed the most of all features. The word *letter* in GA was representing *T voicing*, and the words *job* and *got*, were representing *The LOT-PALM Merger.* All these features are shared with the Texan accent, and they are prominent to foreigners. Therefore, they are expected to be recognised by most respondents. All the features were described in section 4.1 General American. To show some phonological features of RP there were chosen the words *territory*, representing *Suffix vowels*, and *near*, representing *Pre-R Breaking*, *Pre-Schwa Laxing* and *R Dropping*, which were described in section 3.1 Received Pronunciation. The words *in, surprising* and *vet* were chosen to represent *the PIN-PEN Merger*, *the PRICE-MOUTH Merger* and *the Southern drawl* in Texan

accent. These features were explained in section 5.1 Texan Accent. The students are not expected to be very successful in detecting *the PIN-PEN Merger*, because the pronunciation usually inclines to regular /ɪ/, as in the case of the speaker on the recording. *The Southern drawl* is not thought to be recognised in the majority of cases. Czech does not have the /ə/ sound, and therefore it is expected to be hard to identify for Czech native speakers. *The PRICE-MOUTH Merger* is more prominent, and it is expected to be more noticed. In general, all the features characteristic only of the Texan accent are expected to be less detected than the features of the other two varieties. At the end of the questionnaire the students could add some comments about the survey or other words which had different pronunciation.

6.2   Source text

Sarah Perry was a veterinary <u>nurse</u> who had been working daily at an old zoo in a deserted district of the <u>territory</u>, so she was very happy to start a new <u>job</u> at a superb private practice in North Square <u>near</u> the Duke Street Tower. That area was much nearer for her and more to her liking. Even so, on her first morning, she felt stressed. She ate a bowl of porridge, checked herself <u>in</u> the mirror and washed her face in a hurry. Then she put on a plain yellow dress and a fleece jacket, picked up her kit and headed for <u>work</u>. When she <u>got</u> there, there was a woman with a goose waiting for her. The woman gave Sarah an official <u>letter</u> from the <u>vet</u>. The letter implied that the animal could be suffering from a rare form of foot and mouth disease, which was <u>surprising</u>, because normally you would only expect to see it in a dog or a goat. Sarah was sentimental, so this made her feel sorry for the beautiful bird.

6.3   Results of the Survey

Twenty two students participated in the survey. Standard British accent was correctly recognised by 15 respondents. Standard American accent was recognised in 13 cases and Texan accent in 19 cases. A common mistake was interchanging RP and GA. The Texan accent was, as the most distinctive of the three, recognised by the most respondents. As stated in the theoretical part of the thesis, Southern American English variety is perceived by other Americans as

their most distinctive accent. As expected, Czech native speakers showed the similar attitude towards it.

The results are structured into tables for the sake of clarity. Table 1 represents data collected in question number 4 where the respondents circled which of the three accents sound familiar to them, and where they had heard it. In each accent there were four options labelled 1–4, of which each option could be circled. Therefore, with 22 students filling in the questionnaire, each option could be chosen 22 times. As shown in Table 1, the options were: 1) in school, 2) in television, radio, films, television series, 3) they are in contact with a native speaker who has the accent, 4) they know it from elsewhere. In case of this option they were to write where they know the accent from. GA was known by 4 respondents, RP by 3 respondents and Texan accent by 1 respondent. All of them stated they knew the accents from the internet or youtube. The numbers in Table 1 represent how many respondents chose the possible answers in each accent.

	School	Television, radio, films, television series	Contact with native speaker
GA	14	17	12
RP	19	14	9
Texan accent	1	15	5

Table 1 *Familiarity with GA, RP, and Texan accent*

In questions 5–7 the students were to evaluate the accents from the point of their: 1) intelligibility, 2) suitability for international communication, 3) beauty, 4) speed. The evaluation was on a scale of 1 to 6 with 6 being the highest possible quality. Table 2 represents how the respondents evaluated the accents. The numbers in Table 2 represent how many points each accent received in a given category. Maximum was 132 and minimum was 22.

	intelligibility	suitability for international communication	beauty	speed
GA	103	99	93	84
RP	104	103	108	87
Texan accent	48	52	59	63

Table 2 *Evaluation of RP, GA, and Texan accent*

Questions 8–15 focused on the pronunciation of the words underlined in the source text. The underlined words were chosen because they showed some typical features of RP, GA, or Texan accent. Students were asked to choose one correct statement from three possibilities. They were to decide how the underlined words had been pronounced in the mentioned accents. The recordings A, B and C were played for the second time before questions 8–15. They were played in the same order as the first time, so recording A was GA, B was RP and C was Texan accent. The results were as follows:

- ➢ 17 respondents recognised that the words *nurse* and *work* were in GA pronounced with /r/.
- ➢ 16 respondents recognised that *t* in the word *letter* was in GA pronounced as /d/.
- ➢ 14 respondents recognised that the words *job* and *got* were in GA pronounced long /ɑː/.
- ➢ 16 respondents recognised that in RP there was no /o/ pronounced the word *territory*.
- ➢ 13 respondents recognised that the word *near* was in RP pronounced without /r/.
- ➢ 5 respondents recognised that the vowel in the word *in* was in Texan accent pronounced as something between /ɪ/ and /ɛ/.

➢ 14 respondents recognised that the second syllable of the word *surprising* was in Texan accent pronounced with long /ɑː/.

➢ 9 respondents recognised that the word *vet* was in Texan accent pronounced with /ə/.

Students were then asked to write other words they had noticed or any comments about the survey. Three students noticed that the pronunciation of the word *hurry* is in RP with /ʌ/.

6.4   Evaluation of the Survey Results

The Texan accent was recognised by most respondents, so it supports my opinion that it is the most distinctive of the researched accents. A common mistake in this part of the questionnaire was swapping GA and RP. As seen in Table 1, 14 students said that they had heard GA at school. 17 respondents stated they had heard GA in television, radio, films or television series, and 12 respondents stated they had been in contact with a native speaker of GA. However, as I learned from my conversation with their teacher Mr Absolon, all the students participating in the survey at the Secondary Grammar School of Božena Němcová had been in contact with an American teacher from Ohio, so all of them had heard GA before. 4 respondents added they had known GA from the internet. In total, GA was known 47 times which makes it the most known of the three researched accents. The respondents were not expected to have been taught by a native speaker, and it influenced the results. RP had been previously heard from the various sources 45 times, and Texan accent had been heard 22 times. As expected, the Texan accent was proven to be the least known of the researched accents.

In the following part of the survey the Texan accent was rated as the least understandable. This evaluation is associated with the fact that the participants of the survey were not familiar with the accent. It was also rated as the least suitable for international communication. RP and GA compared with Texan accent were rated twice as understandable and suitable for international communication. Texan accent was also found the least appealing and the slowest. As stated in the theoretical part of the thesis in section 5.1 Texan Accent, in the United States it is

perceived as slow, lazy and unappealing. A similar attitude was expected from Czech native speakers.

In the final part of the survey the students were to identify phonological features of each accent. The features were represented by the underlined words in the source text. The words *nurse* and *work* were chosen to represent *the NURSE set* in GA pronunciation. As expected, it was the most recognised feature. The expectation was based on theoretical information described in section 4.1 General American. In general, respondents most successfully detected features of GA, which were shared with Texan accent. The features not shared with GA were spotted least successfully of all the three accents. The results of the survey showed that the students had greatest difficulties in detection of phonological features of the Texan accent.

The Texan accent was perceived as the most distinctive by Czech native speakers. The results of the survey support my theory that it is also seen as the least understandable and the least appealing. The respondents rated it as the least familiar to them, and had the greatest difficulties in detecting its phonological features. In the following paragraphs I am proposing possible solutions of how to approach the situation. It concerns teaching English to Czech native speakers, but it can be also extended to all foreign speakers learning English.

First of all, teachers of English should acquire their students with the fact that there are many various types (forms or varieties) of English, which differ mainly in pronunciation and vocabulary. The information that English is not the same everywhere needs to be given in the first lesson so the students will know from day one they should expect diversity in English. The choice of the variety chosen for the learning process should be clearly stated. Foreign learners of English should be shown examples of other varieties of English, either standard or non-standard. Furthermore, they should be explained which varieties they are likely to encounter. These and other varieties (e.g. the ones that students like) should be regularly shown to them. During the educational process learners of English should be reminded that there are different varieties of English. This is essential primarily in explaining grammatical rules. What is commonly used in one variety of English is wrong or rare in another. For instance, in Indian English there are universal question tags *isn't it* or *no* used mainly in the spoken form of the variety. They also use most stative verbs in continuous forms, so it is possible

to hear utterances such as *I am knowing* or *I am remembering*, which are not correct in Standard British English.

As previously stated in the thesis, English textbooks in the Czech Republic are written in Standard British English, and the majority of their listening exercises are spoken by RP speakers. English teachers should play recordings of various accents and dialects to their students. If there is a computer with the Internet connection available in the class, teachers can use it to find the recordings online. For example, websites such as Youtube or International Dialects of English Archive (McCullough & Somerville, 2016 [online]) might serve well for the purpose. The latter was used for the purposes of the thesis. The listening could be realised in the form of a game. A teacher could play several consecutive recordings of different accents, and each student would try to guess the accents. The students would write down their answers and hand them over to their teacher. The first student with correct answers would be awarded with an A grade. The number of played accents, their distinctiveness, and popularity can be altered according to the students' level of English. The same exercise can be focused on dialects. The students could be given various words characteristic of different varieties, and they would try to determine the varieties, for which the words are typical. The students could also be divided into groups of four or five. They would be given a variety of English, such as Standard American English, for example, and asked to come up with most expressions characteristic of this variety. This exercise would be suitable for more advanced students. The purpose of all these exercises is to extend students' awareness of different varieties of English.

7. Conclusion

The subject matter of this thesis was regional varieties of English with a focus on the Texan accent. There were used terms such as Standard English, Received Pronunciation, General American, accent, dialect and variety. All the terms used in the practical part were described in the theoretical part. All the terms were defined and used in the same sense for the whole thesis. The appreciation of the Texan accent by foreign learners of English was compared with the appreciation of standard accents used for teaching. Czech secondary school students were chosen to represent foreign learners of English. Czech learners of English are, during the educational process, in contact primarily with standard varieties of English. The thesis assumed that the existence of many different varieties is not sufficiently stressed in English classes during the educational process when teaching English as a foreign language. The major hypothesis of the thesis was the fact that foreign learners of English have difficulties understanding and perceiving varieties of English other than standard British and standard American. The thesis raised the question how foreign learners of English would perceive a non-standard variety in comparison with standard varieties they know, either from the educational process or from elsewhere. The thesis was focused chiefly on accents, which include only pronunciation, as it was stated in the theoretical part. There was conducted a research to prove the hypothesis. Two standard accents were chosen for the thesis. One of them was standard British accent and the other one was standard American. The respondents were expected to know both of these accents. The third chosen variety was the Texan accent which was expected to be unknown and perceived as the worst of the three accents by Czech native speakers. The Texan accent proved to be the most distinctive. The respondents were the least familiar with it, and its aspects such as intelligibility, suitability for international communication, beauty and speed were rated the lowest. The participants of the survey also had the greatest difficulties in detecting phonological features of the Texan accent.

The research proved the hypothesis of the thesis. Foreign learners of English do appreciate and perceive Texan accent more negatively than RP and GA. A similar approach can be assumed towards other distinctive non-standard

varieties. The proposed solution is to inform students of the existence of other varieties of English at the beginning of their studies and clarify what variety is used during the educational process. There has been proposed some exercises focused on different accents and dialects of English, which could be performed during the class. The students will then expect to interact with different varieties in every day English instead of being startled.

8. Bibliography

Printed sources

BAUER, L. *An Introduction to International Varieties of English*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2002. ISBN: 9780748613373.

BROOK, G. L. *English Dialects*. London: Andre deutsch, 1965. ISBN: 0233956417.

CRUTTENDEN, A. *Gimson's Pronunciation of English*. Eighth Edition. London: Routledge, 2014. ISBN: 9781444183092.

CRUTTENDEN, A. *Gimson's Pronunciation of English*. Seventh Edition. London: Hodder Education, 2008. ISBN: 9780340958773.

CRYSTAL, D. *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Sixth Edition. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 2008. ISBN: 9781405152969.

CRYSTAL, D. *English as a Global Language*. Second Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003. ISBN: 9780521530323.

CRYSTAL, D. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997. ISBN: 0521559677.

CRYSTAL, B. a D. CRYSTAL. *You Say Potato: A Book About Accents*. London: Pan Macmillan, 2014. ISBN: 9781447276661.

FINEGAN, E. *Language: Its Structure and Use*. Fifth Edition. Boston: Cengage Learning, 2007. ISBN: 1413030556.

GREENBAUM, S. *The Oxford English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press Inc., 1996. ISBN: 0198612508.

GUT, U. *Introduction to English Phonetics and Phonology*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang, 2009. ISBN: 9783631566152.

JENKINS, J. *English as a Lingua Franca: attitude and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007. ISBN: 9780194422376.

KORTMANN, B., et al. *A Handbook of Varieties of English*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 2004. ISBN: 9783110175325.

MCATRHUR, T. *The English Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998. ISBN: 0521481309.

SEARGEANT, P. a J. SWANN. *English in the World: History, Diversity, Change*. London: Routledge, 2012. ISBN: 9780203124567.

SCHNEIDER, W. E. *English Around the World*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2011. ISBN: 9780521716581.

SVARTVIK, J. a G. LEECH. *English: One Tongue, Many Voices*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillian, 2006. ISBN: 1403918309.

TRUDGILL, P. a J. HANNAH. *International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English*. Third edition. London: Edward Arnold, 1994. ISBN: 0713164417.

WAKELIN, M. F. *English Dialects: An Introduction*. London: Athlone Press, 1972. ISBN: 9780485120318.

WELLS, J. C. *Accents of English 1: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982a. ISBN: 0521297192.

WELLS, J. C. *Accents of English 2: The British Isles*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982b. ISBN: 0521285402.

WELLS, J. C. *Accents of English 3: Beyond the British Isles*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982c. ISBN: 9780521285414.

Online sources

MCCULLOUGH, J. a B. SOMERVILLE. IDEA International Dialects of English Archive. *Comma Gets a Cure* [online]. © 2016 [cit. 2016-03-15]. Dostupné z: http://www.dialectsarchive.com/comma-gets-a-cure

Sounds of the South. *Do You Speak American?* [online]. © 2005 [cit. 2016-01-24]. Dostupné z: http://www.pbs.org/speak/seatosea/americanvarieties/southern/sounds

Texas English. *Do You Speak American?* [online]. © 2005 [cit. 2016-01-23]. Dostupné z: http://www.pbs.org/speak/seatosea/americanvarieties/texan/#texas

WELLS, J. John Wells's phonetic blog. *Exotic Spices* [online]. 28 Feb. 2013 [cit. 2016-01-12]. Dostupné z: http://phonetic-blog.blogspot.cz/2013/02/exotic-spices.html#comment-form

9. Appendix

Appendix 1 *International Phonetic Alphabet*

consonants (pulmonic)

	LABIAL		CORONAL					DORSAL			LARYNGEAL		
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Retroflex	Alveolo-palatal	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal	
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ		ɲ	ŋ	N			
Plosive	p b		t d			ʈ ɖ		c ɟ	k g	q ɢ	ʡ	ʔ	
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ɕ ʑ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ	
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ		j	ɰ				
Tap, flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ							
Trill	ʙ			r						R	ʜ ʢ		
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ		ꞎ ꞎ	𝼆		𝼄				
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ		ʎ	ʟ				
Lateral flap				ɺ		𝼈							

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a modally voiced consonant, except for murmured ɦ.
Shaded areas denote articulations judged to be impossible. Light grey letters are unofficial extensions of the IPA.
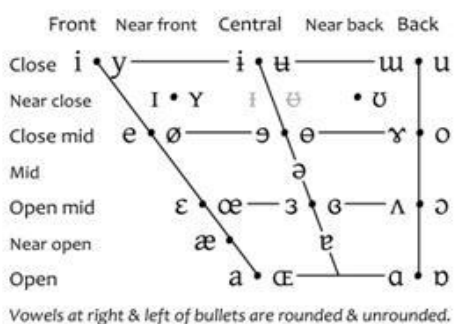
consonants (non-pulmonic)

clicks	implosives	ejectives
⊙ Bilabial fricated	ɓ Bilabial	' examples:
ǀ Laminal alveolar fricated ("dental")	ɗ Dental or alveolar	p' Bilabial
ǃ Apical (post)alveolar abrupt ("retroflex")	ᶑ Retroflex	t' Dental or alveolar
ǂ Laminal postalveolar abrupt ("palatal")	ʄ Palatal	k' Velar
ǁ Lateral alveolar fricated ("lateral")	ɠ Velar	tɬ' Lateral affricate
⦀ Velar (back released)	ʛ Uvular	s' Alveolar fricative

consonants (co-articulated)

ʍ Voiceless labialized velar approximant
w Voiced labialized velar approximant
ɥ Voiced labialized palatal approximant
ɧ Simultaneous x and ʃ (existence disputed)

t͡ʃ Affricates and double articulations
g͡b may be joined by a tie bar

brackets

//morphophonemic//
/phonemic/
[phonetic]
⟨orthographic⟩

vowels

	Front	Near front	Central	Near back	Back
Close	i • y		ɨ • ʉ		ɯ • u
Near close		ɪ • ʏ	ɨ • ʊ		ʊ
Close mid	e • ø		ɘ • ɵ		ɤ • o
Mid			ə		
Open mid	ɛ • œ		ɜ • ɞ		ʌ • ɔ
Near open	æ		ɐ		
Open	a • ɶ				ɑ • ɒ

Vowels at right & left of bullets are rounded & unrounded.

suprasegmentals

ˈ Primary stress
ˌ Secondary stress
eː Long
eˑ Half-long
ĕ Short
. Syllable break
intonation
| Minor (foot) break
‖ Major (intonation) break
↗ Global rise
↘ Global fall

ˈˈ Extra stress [ˌfoʊnəˈtɪʃən]

eˑ Half-long
ĕ Extra-short
t‿a Linking (no break)

(tone)

level tones
 e̋ ˥ Top
é ˦ High
ē ˧ Mid
è ˨ Low
ȅ ˩ Bottom

tone terracing
ꜛ Upstep
ꜜ Downstep

contour tones (e.g.)
ě ˩˥ Rising
ê ˥˩ Falling
e᷄ High rising
e᷅ Low rising
e᷇ High falling
e᷆ Low falling
 e᷈ Peaking
e᷉ Dipping

diacritics

Diacritics may be moved to fit a letter, as ŋ̊ or ɕ̑. Other letters may be used as diacritics of phonetic detail:
tˢ (fricative release), bʱ (breathy voice), mˀ (glottalized), ᵊ (epenthetic schwa), oʷ (off-glide), uᵝ (compressed).

SYLLABICITY & RELEASES		PHONATION		PRIMARY ARTICULATION		SECONDARY ARTICULATION		
n̩ ɹ̩	Syllabic	n̥ d̥	Voiceless or Slack voice	t̪ b̪	Dental	tʷ dʷ	Labialized	ɔ̹ x̹ More rounded
e̯ ʊ̯	Non-syllabic	s̬ d̬	Modal voice or Stiff voice	t̺ d̺	Apical	tʲ dʲ	Palatalized	ɔ̜ x̜ʷ Less rounded
tʰ ʰt	(Pre)aspirated	n̤ a̤	Breathy voice	t̻ d̻	Laminal	tˠ dˠ	Velarized	ẽ z̃ Nasalized
dⁿ	Nasal release	n̰ a̰	Creaky voice	u̟ t̟	Advanced	tˤ dˤ	Pharyngealized	ɚ ɝ Rhoticity
dˡ	Lateral release	n̠ a̠	Strident	i̠ t̠	Retracted	ɫ z̴	Velarized or pharyngealized	e̙ o̙ Advanced tongue root
t̚	No audible release	n̼ d̼	Linguolabial	ä j̈	Centralized	ü	Mid-centralized	e̙ o̙ Retracted tongue root
e̞ β̞	Lowered (β̞ is a bilabial approximant)			e̝ ɹ̝	Raised (ɹ̝ is a voiced alveolar non-sibilant fricative, r̝ a fricative trill)			

60

Dotazník
Hodnocení přízvuků angličtiny z pohledu českých rodilých mluvčích

Uslyšíte tři přízvuky anglického jazyka, označené A, B nebo C. bude to přízvuk standartní britské angličtiny, standartní americké angličtiny a texaský přízvuk (ne v tomto pořadí). Mluvčí budou číst následující text. Vaším úkolem bude zodpovědět otázky pod textem.

Text nahrávky:
Sarah Perry was a veterinary <u>nurse</u> who had been working daily at an old zoo in a deserted district of the <u>territory</u>, so she was very happy to start a new <u>job</u> at a superb private practice in North Square <u>near</u> the Duke Street Tower. That area was much nearer for her and more to her liking. Even so, on her first morning, she felt stressed. She ate a bowl of porridge, checked herself <u>in</u> the mirror and washed her face in a hurry. Then she put on a plain yellow dress and a fleece jacket, picked up her kit and headed for <u>work</u>.

When she <u>got</u> there, there was a woman with a goose waiting for her. The woman gave Sarah an official <u>letter</u> from the <u>vet</u>. The letter implied that the animal could be suffering from a rare form of foot and mouth disease, which was <u>surprising</u>, because normally you would only expect to see it in a dog or a goat. Sarah was sentimental, so this made her feel sorry for the beautiful bird.

1) Jaký přízvuk měl mluvčí nahrávky A?
   a) Standartní britský
   b) Standartní americký
   c) Texaský

2) Jaký přízvuk měl mluvčí nahrávky B?
   a) Standartní britský
   b) Standartní americký
   c) Texaský

3) Jaký přízvuk měl mluvčí nahrávky C?
   a) Standartní britský
   b) Standartní americký
   c) Texaský

4) Které z přízvuků už jste někdy slyšel/a ? (mohou být označené všechny odpovědi)
   a) Nahrávka A
      → Pokud ano, odkud ho znáte? 1. ze školy
                                     2. z televize, radia, filmů či seriálů
                                     3. z kontaktu s rodilým mluvčím
                                     4. odjinud → napište odkud_____
   b) Nahrávka B
      → Pokud ano, odkud ho znáte? 1. ze školy
                                     2. z televize, radia, filmů či seriálů

3. z kontaktu s rodilým mluvčím

4. odjinud → napište odkud_____

c) Nahrávka C

→ Pokud ano, odkud ho znáte?   1. ze školy

2. z televize, radia, filmů či seriálů

3. z kontaktu s rodilým mluvčím

4. odjinud → napište odkud_____

5) Ohodnoťte přízvuk A (na škále od 1 do 6, kde 1 je nejméně a 6 je nejvíce) z hlediska a) srozumitelnosti, b) vhodnosti pro mezinárodní komunikaci, c) krásy, d) rychlosti

a) nejméně srozumitelný   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejvíce srozumitelný

b) nejméně vhodný   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejvhodnější

c) nejošklivější   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejkrásnější

d) nejpomalejší   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejrychlejší

6) Ohodnoťte přízvuk B (na škále od 1 do 6 kde 1 je nejméně s 6 je nejvíce) z hlediska a) srozumitelnosti, b) vhodnosti pro mezinárodní komunikaci, c) krásy, d) rychlosti

a) nejméně srozumitelný   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejvíce srozumitelný

b) nejméně vhodný   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejvhodnější

c) nejošklivější   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejkrásnější

d) nejpomalejší   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejrychlejší

7) Ohodnoťte přízvuk C (na škále od 1 do 6 kde 1 je nejméně s 6 je nejvíce) z hlediska a) srozumitelnosti, b) vhodnosti pro mezinárodní komunikaci, c) krásy, d) rychlosti

a) nejméně srozumitelný   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejvíce srozumitelný

b) nejméně vhodný   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejvhodnější

c) nejošklivější   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejkrásnější

d) nejpomalejší   1 2 3 4 5 6   nejrychlejší

Výslovnost některých slov se v různých nahrávkách liší. Dokážete poznat, ve kterých a jak? Vždy je jen jedna správná odpověď

8) Slovo <u>nurse</u> stejně jako <u>work</u>

a) je v nahrávce A vysloveno bez písmene **r**

b) je v nahrávce A vysloveno s písmenem **r**

c) je v nahrávce A vysloveno s písmenem **z** na konci

9) Slovo <u>letter</u>

a) je v nahrávce A vysloveno jako **d**

b) je v nahrávce A vysloveno jako **t**

c) je v nahrávce A vysloveno bez **d** i bez **t**

10) Slovo <u>job</u> stejně jako <u>got</u>

a) je v nahrávce A vysloveno s dlouhým **á** (jako ve slově *kámen*)

b) je v nahrávce A vysloveno s krátkým **a**

c) je v nahrávce A vysloveno s krátkým **o**

11) Slovo <u>territory</u>

a) je v nahrávce B vysloveno s dlouhým **é** (jako ve slově *péct*)

b) je v nahrávce B vysloveno bez písmene **r**

c) je v nahrávce B vysloveno bez písmene **o**

12) Slovo <u>near</u>
   a) je v nahrávce B vysloveno s písmenem **r**
   b) je v nahrávce B vysloveno s písmenem **j**
   c) je v nahrávce B vysloveno bez písmene **r**

13) Slovo <u>in</u>
   a) je v nahrávce C vysloveno s krátkým **i**
   b) je v nahrávce C vysloveno jako něco mezi písmeny **i** a **e**
   c) je v nahrávce C vysloveno s dlouhým **í** (jako ve slově *klín*)

14) Slovo <u>surprising</u>
   a) je v nahrávce C vysloveno ve druhé slabice s krátkým **a**
   b) je v nahrávce C vysloveno v první slabice s dlouhým **á** (jako ve slově *kámen*)
   c) je v nahrávce C vysloveno ve druhé slabice s dlouhým **á** (jako ve slově *kámen*)

15) Slovo <u>vet</u>
   a) je v nahrávce C vysloveno s fonémem /ə/
   b) je v nahrávce C vysloveno s krátkým **e**
   c) je v nahrávce C vysloveno s dlouhým **é** (jako ve slově *péct*)

Chtěl/a byste něco doplnit? (nějaké další slovo, které Vás zaujalo, komentář k přízvukům, k náročnosti dotazníku apod.)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix 3 *Realization of phonemes in RP and in GA*

RP	GenAm			
ɪ	ɪ	1.	KIT	ship, sick, bridge, milk, myth, busy ...
e	ɛ	2.	DRESS	step, neck, edge, shelf, friend, ready ...
æ	æ	3.	TRAP	tap, back, badge, scalp, hand, cancel ...
ɒ	ɑ	4.	LOT	stop, sock, dodge, romp, possible, quality ...
ʌ	ʌ	5.	STRUT	cup, suck, budge, pulse, trunk, blood ...
ʊ	ʊ	6.	FOOT	put, bush, full, good, look, wolf ...
ɑː	æ	7.	BATH	staff, brass, ask, dance, sample, calf ...
ɒ	ɔ	8.	CLOTH	cough, broth, cross, long, Boston ...
ɜː	ɜr	9.	NURSE	hurt, lurk, urge, burst, jerk, term ...
iː	i	10.	FLEECE	creep, speak, leave, feel, key, people ...
eɪ	eɪ	11.	FACE	tape, cake, raid, veil, steak, day ...
ɑː	ɑ	12.	PALM	psalm, father, bra, spa, lager ...
ɔː	ɔ	13.	THOUGHT	taught, sauce, hawk, jaw, broad ...
əʊ	o	14.	GOAT	soap, joke, home, know, so, roll ...
uː	u	15.	GOOSE	loop, shoot, tomb, mute, huge, view ...
aɪ	aɪ	16.	PRICE	ripe, write, arrive, high, try, buy ...
ɔɪ	ɔɪ	17.	CHOICE	adroit, noise, join, toy, royal ...
aʊ	aʊ	18.	MOUTH	out, house, loud, count, crowd, cow ...
ɪə	ɪ(r	19.	NEAR	beer, sincere, fear, beard, serum ...
ɛə	ɛ(r	20.	SQUARE	care, fair, pear, where, scarce, vary ...
ɑː	ɑ(r	21.	START	far, sharp, bark, carve, farm, heart ...
ɔː	ɔ(r	22.	NORTH	for, war, short, scorch, born, warm ...
ɔː	o(r	23.	FORCE	four, wore, sport, porch, borne, story ...
ʊə	ʊ(r	24.	CURE	poor, tourist, pure, plural, jury ...