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Bakalářská práce

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## **Lexical Devices of British and American English in the Language of Czech EFL Learners**

Lexikální prostředky britské a americké angličtiny v jazyce českých  
studentů angličtiny

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## **Poděkování**

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Prohlašuji, že jsem bakalářskou práci vypracoval samostatně, že jsem řádně citoval všechny použité prameny a literaturu a že práce nebyla využita v rámci jiného vysokoškolského studia či k získání jiného nebo stejného titulu.

V Praze dne 11. srpna 2021

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Souhlasím se zapůjčením bakalářské práce ke studijním účelům.

I have no objections to the BA thesis being borrowed and used for study purposes.

## **Abstract**

The thesis aims to provide new information on lexical dialectal variation amongst EFL students. The theoretical part focuses on the description of lexical dialectal variation alongside with the scrutiny of British and American English and their “language power” throughout the last century. The globalised world favours the use of American English whilst academic institutions still support the use of British English. The practical part consists of three questionnaires whose answers will shed light on the non-natives’ use of English and their dialectal preference of English – the basis of the “Euro-English” dialect – through lexeme choice. The questionnaires also consist of sociological part which will be used to find the motives behind both the general level of lexical dialectal preference (the total number of lexemes of each dialect) and the specific level (the number of lexemes of each dialect in each individual sentence). The results have shown that there are three notions that have impact on students’ lexical dialectal choices. Subjects who get most of their English input from school tend to prefer BrE lexical dialectal variants whilst subjects who rank internet and social media as the most impactful resource for their English tend to use more AmE lexical dialectal variants. The third notion that influences the subjects’ lexical dialectal choice is the preferred dialectal variant of the subjects’ teacher.

**Keywords:** lexical dialectal variation, language power, English as a foreign language, Euro-English, British English, American English

## **Abstrakt**

Cílem této práce je poskytnout nové informace ohledně lexikální nářeční variace u studentů angličtiny jako cizího jazyka. Teoretická část je zaměřena na popis lexikální nářeční variace spolu s výzkumem “jazykové moci” u britské a americké angličtiny v průběhu posledního století. Zatímco globalizovaný svět upřednostňuje užívání americké angličtiny, akademické instituce stále podporují užívání angličtiny britské. Praktická část je složena z odpovědí na tři dotazníky, jež by měly pomoci vysvětlit používání angličtiny u nerodilých mluvčích a jejich nářeční preferenci angličtiny – která je základem tzv. Euro-anglického nářečí – skrze jejich volbu lexému. Tyto dotazníky také obsahovaly sociologickou část, která bude využita pro zjištění motivů, jež stojí za lexikální preferencí jednoho z již zmíněných nářečí, a to jak na obecné úrovni (celkové užití lexémů u každého nářečí), tak na úrovni specifické (užití lexémů u každého nářečí pro každou jednotlivou větu). Výsledky ukázaly, že existují tři kategorie, které mají vliv na volbu lexikální nářeční varianty. Subjekty, u kterých převládá škola jako primární zdroj angličtiny mají tendenci používat více lexémů spadajících pod britskou angličtinu, zatímco subjekty, u kterých ve zdrojích angličtiny převládají sociální média a internet tíhnou spíše k lexémům spadajícím pod americkou angličtinu. Třetí kategorií, která ovlivňuje volbu lexikální nářeční varianty u zmíněných subjektů je preferovaná nářeční varianta u jejich učitelů.

**Klíčová slova:** lexikální nářeční variace, jazyková moc, angličtina jako cizí jazyk, Euro-angličtina, britská angličtina, americká angličtina

## **Abbreviations**

AmE – American English

BrE – British English

USA – the United States of America

EFL – English as a foreign language

ELF – English as a lingua franca

L1 – first language

MEYS – ministry of education, youth, and sport

ISM – internet and social media

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## **1. Introduction**

The aim of this bachelor's thesis is to scrutinize the lexical dialectal variation between British and American English. This phenomenon plays an important role in non-natives' use of English and subsequently in the use of English as a lingua franca. The nature of lexical dialectal variance and the reasons why it arises are scrutinized alongside theories from the disciplines of globalization and Americanization. The purposes of this thesis are to describe lexical dialectal variation amongst Czech students of English as a foreign language, to pinpoint phenomena impactful on the process of the lexical choice, and lastly to decide whether this mixture is to a certain degree homogenous and liable to subsequent codification as a stable "Euro-English" dialect. The data were gathered with the help of thirty secondary school students and seven of their teachers. An emphasis was given to the relationship between the input from school and the input from internet and social media as it should be the decisive indicator of which dialect will be the dominating force. Hypothetically, some lexical devices should be realized more frequently in their British English variant by the non-native speakers as they are used to know them from school whilst others in their American English variant as they know from the internet. Thus, not only the general level of whether Euro-English is more impacted by the American or British English is scrutinized but also the specific level of individual lexical devices and their distinctive preference by the students of English as a foreign language. The results of the thesis can be then used to assume the future of English use in Europe and serve as the basis for new methods in English vocabulary teaching.



## **2. Theoretical Background**

### **2.1. Variation**

Linguistic variation means that there are at least two competing options to express a single thing, these are the “variants,” from which the speaker can choose. Its importance can be understood in a number of ways: historical linguists view linguistic variation as a phenomenon that gives an opportunity for language change to happen (Sapir 1921, 150); sociolinguists, on the other hand, see it as a sign of a difference between parts of the society (Labov 1972); for this thesis, it will be adhered to the complexity theory (Larsen-Freeman, Cameron 2007). This theory unites the main ideas from preceding studies and offers a new look upon language where variation plays the role of utmost importance. The rigid divisions of synchronic and diachronic views upon language, which give an appearance of language as a stable object, are broken, and a new perspective is offered:

[L]anguage [is] a dynamic system that is being continually transformed by use. A language at any point in time is the way it is because of the way it has been used, and any use of language changes it. Thus, [...] language is viewed as an open, continually evolving, system rather than a closed one [...] (Ibid, 5)

Variation is the underlying phenomenon of all levels of a particular language, whilst the most frequent occurrence is on the phonological level, the most striking difference is seen on the lexical level. Not only is variation scrutinized from the level perspective of a language, but also from the wider point of view of typology, diachrony, and dialectology (Nevalainen et al eds., 2006). Typological variation scrutinizes the change from one language class to another; diachronic variation the change of a language in time, and lastly dialectal variation explores the differences between dialects of one language.

#### **2.1.1. Lexical Dialectal Variation**

This thesis will scrutinize a very specific illustration of variation, that is the lexical dialectal variation of the English Language with the exclusive focus on the two major standard dialectal variants: American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). As it was pointed out before, language and its dialects are not stable objects and it is impossible to describe them in all their diversity, yet every dialect has its own essence that helps us generalize them into these convenient classes:

Even though language is open to all sorts of influences and is continually changing, it still somehow maintains an identity as the “same” language. Within a given timescale, social forces and motivation around national or community identity play a role in “maintaining” a language in the same way that the cells of the human body are constantly being created and sloughed off while the person from all appearances perseveres. (Larsen-Freeman, Cameron 2007, 6)

To complicate the matter even more, lexical dialectal variation can be distinguished into three classes: the first class consists of pairs that are mutually exclusive, one dialect employs exclusively one variant (Davies 2005, 137), for instance: *bookstall* (BrE) x *newsstand* (AmE); the second class contains pairs where one of the variants is known to both of the dialects, one of the dialects employs the variant in all environments whilst the other only under special circumstances (Ibid, 137): *autumn* (BrE) x *fall* (AmE) – BrE always uses *autumn*, whilst the unmarked variant for AmE is *fall*, yet *autumn* is a variant known to AmE and its usage is “poetic or formal” (Trudgill, Hannah 2008, 89); the last class includes pairs where both of the lexical units are known to both of the dialects and they can be used interchangeably as “the difference is purely in the customary word usage” (Davies 2005, 137), for example: *film* (BrE) x *movie* (AmE). To clarify, the lower the number of the class, the higher the degree of mutual exclusiveness; a problem may arise with lexical units known to both varieties, but with different semantics in each: *chips* (BrE) x *fries* (AmE) and *chips* (AmE) x *crisps* (BrE); for simplicity’s sake these pairs will also fall under the first class.<sup>1</sup>

	BrE	AmE
Class 1	bookstall	newsstand
Class 2	autumn	fall
Class 3	film	movie

Table 1 – Classes of lexical dialectal variation

## 2.2. Dialect

Dialect is an ambiguous term that encompasses many different notions; generally, it is viewed as if it had pejorative connotations, but these connotations can arise only if we view dialect in a binary relationship towards the standard (Chambers, Trudgill 2004, 1). For the purposes of this thesis, dialect will be a term synonymous to language variety, meaning that no

<sup>1</sup> The table and all the word-pairs are based upon information from Davies 2005, for the full lexicon see 138-219.

connotations, be it positive or pejorative, shall be linked with the term – dialect will be regarded as an expression of a particular variables’ combination, notwithstanding its prestige. Traditionally, a distinction is drawn between dialects and sociolects, where dialect is regionally confined and sociolect is restricted to an individual society, yet in the ever-changing globalized world, these two features are heavily inter-woven. The standard varieties are a great showcase of that, as they are both a dialect and a sociolect at the same time. This thesis shall employ only the term dialect, even if the variety is more socially restricted than it is regionally. Another important distinction is the one concerning dialect and accent; if we take a look at our description of dialect as a combination of particular variables, then the difference would be that for dialect this is true for all levels of the language, and for accent it would be true only for the pronunciation level, or in other words: “‘Accent’ refers to [...] a variety which is phonetically and/or phonologically different from other varieties. ‘Dialect’ [...] refers to varieties which are grammatically (and perhaps lexically) as well as phonologically different from other varieties.” (Ibid, 5)

This leads us to the two important extra-linguistic connotations of a dialect: firstly; dialect is an expression of affiliation towards a specific social class, and secondly; it showcases a connection to a particular geographical location. For instance, a speaker of British English will be associated with a high social class and geographically with Britain (presumably one of the larger cities such as London), on the other hand, the associations concerning speakers of Chicano English are wholly different, generally they will be regarded as members of the lowest class living in the south of the United States. This classification, naturally, is very generalizing; not all speakers of Chicano English are of a low class, and their habitat is not restricted to the south of the United States. In order to make this classification more verisimilar, both the connotations and the dialects should be regarded on a scale rather than as clear-cut entities. Chambers and Trudgill (2004: 5-8) use the term “geographical dialect continuum” and “social dialect continuum” in order to define this phenomenon, and they emphasize the notion of “mutual intelligibility” between the dialects of a particular language. They also mention that the further away two dialects are from each other, speaking both geographically and socially, the less mutually intelligible they are, meaning that the Queen’s English will be very different from Cockney dialect and also that the speakers from the south of England will speak a very different variety from those who live in the north of Scotland. What needs to be noted however, is the fact that there is a plethora of other dialects in-between these two extremes that ensure mutual intelligibility across the country.

### 2.2.1. British English and American English

British English and American English are the two most prominent standard dialectal varieties of the English language in the world. British English is the generally accepted term for the standard dialect of speakers in Great Britain, although this term is sometimes erroneously regarded as synonymous to General British English or Received Pronunciation which are mere accents typical for British English dialect. (Roach 2004, 239) The same is true for the term General American English which is also used exclusively for an accent of American English. Two important facts need to be taken into consideration when scrutinizing any dialect of a language: Firstly; the existence of “dialect continuum” as described by Chambers and Trudgill, and secondly; that everyone has his own idiolect and there are not any two speakers utilizing language in the exact same manner. Thus, dialects, and all the more the aforementioned dialects, are generalized and idealized concepts:

[A]n idealized individual speaker is [...] a speaker who is made to represent a composite picture of all speakers in a particular speech community. In the average, it is held, the individual peculiarities mutually cancel one another and disappear, yielding the typical, the essential. (Brutt-Giffler 2002, 20)

With this in mind, it may be proceeded to the particularities that distinguish these two dialects. Commencing with the variables on the phonological level, we find that there are many differences<sup>2</sup>, yet the two most striking are the ones concerning the rhoticity of the dialects, and the pronunciation of diphthongs. Rhoticity of a dialect “refers to the manner letter r is pronounced after a vowel within a syllable as in words such as hard, borne, or here. [...] In English, [rhoticity] is produced as a retroflex approximant. (Gómez 2009, 3) For example a speaker of British English would pronounce the word *hard* as [hɑ:d] whilst the speaker of American English as [hɑ:rd]. (Ibid, 3) The second crucial variable is the pronunciation of the diphthong [əʊ] in British English and [oo] in American English, this can be seen, for instance, in the word *go*. (Ibid, 5) The difference on the grammatical level is much more nuanced and hardly spottable during a casual conversation, nevertheless, (Rohdenburg and Schlüter eds. 2009) offer us an exhaustive study about the variation on this level of language. One of the most frequently appearing differences is the variation between present perfect and preterite: “[The] distinction between the two verb forms is drawn differently in American as compared with British English. (Elsness 2009, 228) We are given examples: “(1) I have seen him recently and (2) I saw him recently” (Ibid, 228) that highlight the “tendency for AmE to select the preterite

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<sup>2</sup> For a comprehensive list of phonological differences see (Gómez 2009)

[and] BrE the present perfect.” (Ibid, 228-229) The rules of English grammar do not offer a resolute boundary between these two verb forms in marginal situations and thus a variation can arise. As far as lexical variation is concerned, description and examples can be found in chapter 1.1.

### **2.3. Language Power and Dialect Power**

As it was mentioned before, no dialect or language is innately better than any other, yet their prestige differs. In this chapter, the reasons behind why it is British English and American English that are viewed as the two most prominent shall be disclosed. Mair (2013) utilizes ideas and terms from a breakthrough study about globalization (Appadurai, 1996) in order to determine the power of a language. For this matter, there are five different “landscapes,” it is “the financescape [...], the ethnoscapes [...], the mediascape, the technoscape, and the ideoscape” (Ibid, 3-4). As far as the United Kingdom and the United States of America are concerned, they play a role of utmost importance in each of the landscapes and all the more in the technoscape and the mediascape: “There would not be global mediascapes and technoscapes without English” (Ibid, 4).

When determining the power of a dialect, two important factors need to be taken into consideration, it is the “demographic weight, and institutional support” (Ibid, 7). Demographic weight is based on the number of speakers of that given dialect, and institutional support encompasses policies enacted to promote the dialect. In order for a dialect to be powerful – to be viewed as the prestigious – it needs to succeed in both of the factors. From a viewpoint of a European in a globalised world it is the institutional support that is the most important factor; even though Indian dialect has the highest demographic weight; its lack of institutional support makes it a variety alien to Europe. On the other hand, British English and American English are both heavily supported by the institutions, be it school or media and their demographic weight is decent. When the notions of language power and dialect power are combined, it is clear why it is British English and American English that are the two most prestigious dialects of the language. Anglo-American sphere of influence is the greatest in the globalised world and these are the two dialects employed by the globalising institutions.

#### **2.3.1. Historical Perspective on Language Power**

Looking at the landscapes described in the preceding chapter from two different points in history, the pre-World War I and the beginning of twenty-first century, we will find that there are certain shifts of the power from British English to American English. Firstly, as far as the

financial sector is concerned, pound sterling was recognized as the internationally most powerful before the First World War had begun, it was in the period between the two world wars that US dollar became the leading currency (Chitu et al. 2012). Secondly, the power changes of “ethnoscape” are more difficult to encompass, and for the sake of clarity, we shall generalize this matter – in the pre-war era, Great Britain had an unprecedentedly large empire and thus dominated in terms of “ethnoscape” power over the world, the United States of America were also very influential, yet their power was nowhere near Britain’s. Today, both United States and Great Britain are one of the most powerful countries in terms of “ethnoscape”, yet the fact is that the power of Great Britain has dwindled greatly, despite its Commonwealth relations.

The realm of media and technology shall be described together as they are the main catalysts of language power change nowadays; both Great Britain and the United States of America were the most important players in the field of traditional media before the war as they are now, but with the rise of technology and new media, with the emphasis put on the social media, there was a huge swing in favour of the United States. Most of these media are based in the USA and thus employ American English as their preferred variety. Another notion closely related is the globalization through mass media: “The USA made early use of electronic mass media for nationwide communication – first radio and cinema, then television. American technical prowess in media and advertising sets global standards.” (Pieterse 2003, 74) The connectedness of media and technology is clear, and it is these two “landscapes” that govern the globalised world and the USA, respectively the AmE dialect, is the one profiting the most. Kroes summarizes with wit the importance of the USA by interpreting the book *Fury* by Salman Rushdie, whom he calls “an avatar of intercultural writing” (Kroes, 2003, 235):

It [the story] positions the USA as the centre of global mass culture, and as the focus of a worldwide quest for success and celebrity. [...] The story also shows us America in its mastery of the media of mass communication, such as film, television, and more recently the World Wide Web. (Ibid, 236)

The last of the “landscapes,” the so-called “ideoscape” is closely tied to the preceding “landscapes,” it describes the ideology, respectively the policy, of a given country. It shows a similar process to the preceding spheres, whilst in the pre-war era it was both Great Britain and the United States of America that cocreated the policies of the western civilization, after the World War I it was mainly the USA that contributed to the creation of shared values of the western countries. This fact was only amplified after the World War II and the following division of the western bloc and eastern bloc. Since then, there have been three most powerful

countries in terms of “ideoscape,” these “superpowers” have been Russia (Soviet Union), China for the east and the USA for the west (Aldred and Smith 1999).

### **2.3.2. Americanization of the English Language?**

All of the power changes lead to the Americanization of society on all its levels (Beck et al eds. 2003), yet the degree of this process differs from field to field. This study is concerned with the impact of Americanization on the English of EFL students, and for that matter, the circumstances are complicated: “There are two main factors that have been reported to influence the preference for one variety of English over another in an EFL context: general norms and traditions of teaching a certain variety on the one hand, and media influence and exposure on the other hand” (Larsson 2012, 129). As it was shown, the world in which students learn the English language is heavily influenced by American English in culture and media, and their worldview is affected by American ideology; on the other hand, British English is the preferred variety in majority of schools in Europe (Trudgill and Hannah 2008, 5). This creates a difficult situation not only for the study of EFL students’ language but also for the study of dialect identities. On one hand Americanization of the English language should lead to homogeneity: “[AmE] words have been finding their way into other forms of English, quite often replacing indigenous words.” (Ibid, 92) or “British academic publishers may publish books following US spelling conventions, but US publishers usually don’t conform to British orthography” (Mair 2013, 6). On the other hand, the English language is not constrained only to the native speakers but also, because of its status as the international language, to the non-natives which inherently leads to heterogenization. It is the same complicated process of globalization that causes the ostensible homogenization of the English language but also leads to more people speaking the language and thus making it heterogeneous.

### **2.4. The English Language as a Lingua Franca**

The binary relationship between the American dialect, that we see on the internet or in the new media, and the British dialect, which is more likely to be taught at schools, gives rise to the possibility of mixing these two dialects together. Such a mixing has been already seen on the smaller scale of accent by the native speakers (mainly by the actors). The term given to this accent mixture was the transatlantic accent (Mufson 1994). Not only transatlantic accent, but also mixing on the larger, dialectal scale has become once again common, yet not by the native speakers this time, but by the rest of the speakers who utilize the English language as a means of international, lingua franca communication: “Lingua francas are languages used for

communication between speakers who do not share either of their first languages” (Meierkord 2012, 1). For the sake of conciseness, the contraction ELF (not to be confused with EFL) shall be used instead of the English language as a lingua franca. ELF is to a large extent used in Europe and Asia (Motschenbacher 2013, 1) but for the purposes of this thesis the focus will be exclusively on the European use of ELF. Because of English’s status there have been some efforts to simplify its structure in order to make it easier for non-native speakers to learn, for instance *Basic English* (Ogden 1930) or *Nuclear English* (Quirk 1981) but as it usually is, none of these conlangs have succeeded (Meierkord 2012, 2). In short, the history of ELF study is similar to the one of language itself, the focus shifted from prescriptive methods to descriptive ones. (Ibid, 2-4)

The speakers of ELF form one of the most important bodies (demographically speaking) of all English-speaking communities in the world. Looking back at the ideas of language power “landscapes,” it is the European ELF speakers who could be amongst the most influential people, that would, alongside with the Brits and the Americans, shape the future of the English language. As we already know, BrE and AmE are highly heterogeneous dialects of English, yet this notion is twice as true for “Euro-English,” a term used in (Motschenbacher 2013) to cover the dialect(s) of English in Europe. It needs to be noted that “Euro-English” is not a full-fledged variety of English, and its sheer existence is still a matter of dispute amongst the researchers of ELF (Ibid, 10-20). Although, for simplicity’s sake, we shall view European ELF speaker as a speaker of the “Euro-English” dialect. This idealized “Euro-English” speaker would be then influenced by BrE in school, by AmE in media and of course also by his native tongue:

It seems obvious that ELF in Europe is not to be equalled with either BrE or AmE. But it is doubtful that it is the mixture of BrE and AmE traces that makes European ELF European. What would appear more plausibly Europe-specific are uses of English influenced by other European languages, i.e., ELF speakers’ L1s. (Ibid, 15-16)

#### **2.4.1. Influence of L1 Upon the English Language**

This means that the non-native’s choice of a particular variable is not only dependent upon his or hers influence by the British or American dialect but also upon the similarity between his or her native tongue; for instance, in Czech, the speaker of English is presumably more likely to choose the American variant in the word-pair *chips/crisps*, solely by the virtue of *chips* being a borrowed term into Czech varying with the vernacular term *brambůrky*. Concerning the impact of non-native’s L1 upon the English language, not only does it influence



the choice between BrE and AmE term, but it can also cause an erroneous employment of a term based on the ostensible similarity between the two languages, whilst in reality the terms have different semantics – these two terms would be then in the relationship of “false friends” (Domínguez and Nerlich 2002). In Czech, a typical illustration of such a relationship would be the word pair *eventuálně/eventually*, where there is a striking similarity between these words, yet their semantics are different as *eventuálně* does not mean *eventually* but *possibly*. Even though the problem of false friends is not a focus of this study it still needs to be seen as one of the crucial features of the “Euro-English dialect.”

## 2.5. The English Language and the Stance of Materials for EFL Students

I would like to start this chapter with a summary of what was already said; the purpose of this study is to portray the English used by EFL students with the focus on choice of lexemes. As it was shown, there are three crucial features influencing the choice, that is the English used at school, the English heard and seen in the new media and lastly, the EFL students’ L1. There are accounts of the English Language having been Americanized, yet, as far as lexical dialectal variation is concerned, the volatile and highly heterogeneous “Euro-English” dialect represents a little researched area in the vast world of Englishes, notwithstanding its potentiality of being a moving force for the future of the English language. One of the factors that could enlighten the future of “Euro-English” dialect is the way of dealing with lexical dialectal variation in the resources for EFL students.

The dominance of the British English dialect in the European school system have already been mentioned, this can also be proved by the number of approval clauses given by the Czech Ministry of education, youth, and sports (MEYS). The most common foreign publishers of English educational books in the Czech school system are Cambridge University Press, Macmillan, Oxford University Press, and Pearson Education Limited.<sup>3</sup> All the four most common publishers of English educational books are British companies, resulting in British English truly being the supreme influence for Czech EFL primary and secondary school students, and presumably this idea can be extended to the whole of Europe. There are even accounts of American English dialect being regarded as inferior, or even erroneous: “[Some Teachers] let it be known, in one way or another, that AmE [is] less valued in comparison to BrE” (Modiano and Söderlund 2002: 147). For our purpose, firstly we shall take a look at how

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<sup>3</sup> The publishers were chosen upon the number of approval clauses by the MEYS for year 2019. Both primary schools and secondary schools are reflected, the list can be found here: <<https://www.msmt.cz/vzdelavani/skolstvi-v-cr/schvalovaci-dolozky-ucebnic-2013>>

dialect diversity is reflected in books used by the participants of this study and secondly, their teachers will be asked to reflect upon this phenomenon.

### **2.5.1. Dialect Diversity in *New Headway* and *Life***

The respondents of the practical part of the thesis come from two Prague grammar schools. One of the schools uses *New Headway* books from Oxford University Press as the basis of their English study, whilst the other uses *Life* by National Geographic Learning. Both editions are standard in terms of English language teaching at European secondary schools. The lexical devices used are almost exclusively British, just as spelling and pronunciation are. American English is used only marginally in the form of indexed tables or through individual exercises focused on the topic of English varieties. This method is common amongst most of the textbook editions used for English teaching in the Czech Republic (and Europe) as it can be seen in (Stelzerová 2014: 23-25). Henceforth, the textbook used should not make any difference in terms of dialect preference between the two grammar schools.

### **2.6. Previous Research on Dialectal Preference in EFL Students' English**

As it was shown in the preceding chapters, there are many variables creating one's individual idiolect of English, be it the influence media or students' L1. Because of that, it is not clear whether Czech EFL students will copy the results of EFL students from other nations. This chapter will not only show the outcomes of similar studies but also use them as a comparison in the conclusion part of the thesis to find out whether the trends of preference of one dialect over the other happen on a scale of a single nation or the entirety of Europe.

A similar research to the one at hand has been conducted by Spångberg (2017), whilst the nature of the questionnaire was different, the aims of the study were the same. EFL students of secondary schools were given two questionnaires, in the first one they were given a pair of an American lexeme and a British lexeme and they were asked to choose the one that they would personally use. In the first part 74% of the respondents chose more American lexemes than British ones, and only 14% inclined more towards the British lexemes (the remaining 12% had the same amount of British and American lexemes) In the second questionnaire, which was based upon choosing a word matching a given picture, the inclination towards American lexemes was even stronger. In the second task, 82% of respondents preferred the American lexemes, whilst only one respondent chose more British lexemes than he did American.

One of the most comprehensive studies about EFL students' preferred variety (Larsson 2012) has yielded different results to the aforementioned study. This may be both because the respondents in this study are university students as opposed to students of secondary schools

and because the way of describing students' preferred variety was based upon choice of spelling rather than choice of a lexical device. Whether there is any correlation between the lexical choice and the spelling convention is another question (and one the thesis will deal with in the practical part). This study was a corpus-based study and thus the statistics should be more accurate; and what they show is a different tendency in EFL students' English. It has shown that, as far as spelling is concerned, majority of EFL students prefer British English, more precisely, Italian students chose the British spelling 96% of times, Bulgarian students 86% of times, and Swedish students 80% of times (77% of times according to SUSEC corpus and 83% of times according to SWICLE corpus). The data from this study show that as far as tendencies of dialectal preference are concerned there is a slight variance in terms of the nationality of respondents, yet in the great scheme of things, the variance is not significant to the degree of rejecting the idea of all-European dialectal preference, contrariwise, the results of the study show that all the different nationalities clearly prefer the British dialect over the American.

### 3. Materials and Methods

The core of the research lies in the demonstration and description of EFL students' English. The primary phenomenon of the research is the subjects' choice of lexical dialectal variable, i.e. whether they choose a lexical unit appertaining to BrE or AmE. The secondary phenomena are the spelling dialectal variable choice, gender impact on dialectal preference and also the study of L1 influence through false friends. Data were gathered through students' answers to an online questionnaire designed for the purposes of this research. The questionnaire contained two parts – the translational part and the sociological part.

The translational part (see appendix1) was made up of ten sentences in the Czech language containing exactly one primary phenomenon per sentence and zero to two secondary phenomena. The sentences were designed to be grammatically challenging for the target group so as not to reveal the research question and gather natural answers. Students were asked to translate these sentences to English without using any third-party tools such as online translators or dictionaries. Other means to ensure the reliability of the data and to minimize the usage of third-party tools were anonymization of the answers in order to prevent shaming; coded personalized results for each subject including the difference between their lexical dialectal preference and the average preference; and lastly, in some cases, surveillance by the subjects' English teachers<sup>4</sup>.

The sociological part (see appendix2) was separated from the translational part and was filled in after its completion due to disclosing the research question of the translational part. The core of this part was made up of questions regarding personal experience and preference in regard to notions determining dialectal preference. Data gathered in this part of the questionnaire are used as a supportive material for describing the choices made in the translational part. As it is not only personal experience and preference that determine subjects' dialectal choice but also the academic environment in which he or she is taught, another questionnaire was designed to collect data from the teachers of the subjects. The aim of the teachers' questionnaire (see appendix3) is to illustrate dialectal preference amongst pedagogues of the English language and to describe a possible correlation between the subjects' choices and the teachers' preferences.

The data were gathered in co-operation with two grammar schools (Gymnázium Lauferových škol, Gymnázium na Pražáčce), seven English teachers, and thirty of their third-

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<sup>4</sup> Research groups 1, 2, and 5 answered the questionnaires during regular class being surveilled by their teacher, for the rest of the research groups the questionnaire was assigned as a voluntary homework.

grade students. Seven identical copies of teachers' questionnaires and students' questionnaires were made and sent to their respective recipients – the first teacher received the first copy of the teachers' questionnaire and his or her students received the first copy of the students' questionnaire, etc. This allows both separate scrutiny of an individual class of students in regard to their teacher of English and universal scrutiny of all classes in regard to all teachers. Both of the grammar schools follow the same plan to prepare their students to take a B2 exam in the final fourth grade which facilitated assessing of the difficulty for the translational part of the questionnaire. Moreover, third-grade students' maturity and proficiency in the English language permits them to gather much more input from the media and the internet i.e., schools are no longer the dominating force for (some of) the students.

### **3.1. The Hypothesis and the Aims**

The aforementioned problem of the (mostly) BrE input from academic environment and (mostly) AmE input from the environments of internet and social media is the basis for the hypothesis of the research. The translational questionnaire was designed to contain lexical units appertaining to both the academic environment and the media technological environment. All the lexical units move on a scale rather than being clear members of one of the environments; the hypothesis presupposes that on the general (total) level of lexical dialectal variance, the result will be dependent on the relationship between the input gained from 'internet and social media' and 'school' and also on the preferred varieties of the subjects' teachers. The hypothesis expects subjects more influenced by the 'internet and social media' to employ more AmE lexical units, whilst subjects more influenced by 'school' should reversely use more BrE lexical units. On the specific (word-pair) level, lexical units taught relatively early in school and those commonly revised will be on the academic end of the scale, whilst lexical units typical for social media, computer games, and modern cinematography will edge towards the media technological end of the scale (see appendix4). For illustration, two lexical units belonging to the academic environment are *holiday* and *autumn*, according to the hypothesis these BrE variants should be preferred to their AmE counterparts. On the other hand, lexical units *cookies* and *fries* are members of the media technological part of the scale. Even though these lexical units belong to a larger class of food – a topic taught and revised relatively early in school – their usage in social media, movies, or series surmounts the input given in school. Some of the lexical units chosen do not, as far as the hypothesis presupposes, clearly fall under any of the scale's parts and thus higher variance of the subjects' answers is assumed, an example of this would be the lexical unit pair *flat/apartment*.

The primary aims of the research are to find out whether students prefer BrE or AmE as far as lexical units are considered; if, as the hypothesis presumes, most of the students utilize a mixture of BrE and AmE, the degree of lexical dialectal variance will be scrutinized. The scrutiny will lead to deeper understanding of the Euro-English dialect and its “regularity,” by comprehending what makes a lexical unit more likely to be utilized in a certain dialectal variation by an EFL student, the future and possible regularization of Euro-English dialect could be estimated. The secondary aim is to compare findings of this research with the results of similar researches held in different parts of Europe (see 5) to discover whether the tendencies of Czech EFL students are similar to those of other nations and thus discover whether, as far as lexical dialectal variation goes, we may talk about “Euro-English” or rather separate national dialects inside of Europe and subsequently correlation between spelling dialectal variation and lexical dialectal variation will be explored and so will be the impact of L1 and gender on the language of EFL students.

### 3.2. Evaluation and its Problems

The students’ questionnaire consisted of two parts – the translational part and the sociological part. Concerning the translational part of the questionnaire the data are analysed in a binary “either or” manner, the lexical device used can appertain only to one of the two dialects for both the primary phenomenon of lexical dialectal preference and the secondary phenomenon of dialectal spelling preference. In regard to the secondary phenomenon of the usage of false friends, the analysis is the same, either the answer is a correct (false friend not used) or not (false friend usage). The analysis of the sociological part proves to be more difficult as in most cases the possible answers are not in a binary relationship. In the ‘resource category importance,’ where the students are asked to rank the importance of each resource category in a descending manner, each rank was bestowed with a point value to simplify the analysis. The resource category marked as the most important (rank 1) was bestowed with point value of 9, whilst the resource category marked as the least important (rank 9) was bestowed with point value of 1. For illustration, a simplified table with explanation can be seen below:

	School	Internet	Music	Movies
Student1	1	4	2	3
Student2	4	3	1	2
Student3	1	3	2	4

Table 2 – Evaluation of the resource categories

In this example the highest ranked resource category will be bestowed with point value of 4, the second highest with point value of 3, etc... Thus, for this imaginary research group the most important resource categories would be ‘music’ with final point value of 10, followed by ‘school’ with point value of 9, ‘movies’ would take the third place with point value of 6, and the least important would be the resource category ‘internet’ with point value of 5.

Before proceeding to the actual data, the procedure of evaluating marginal answers will be disclosed. In the translational part of the study one of the frequent occurrences was misspelling of the evaluated phenomena. In the cases where the misspelt word can be undoubtedly evaluated as a mere misspelling of a lexical unit pertaining to the evaluated binary choice of AmE lexeme or BrE lexeme it is then accepted as a valid answer. One showcase of such answer can be the misspelt word *apartment\** (see students’ answers 13) in the sentence number five, where the evaluated binary choice is between BrE lexeme *flat* and AmE lexeme *apartment*. In the second case where the intention of the student cannot be proved beyond all doubt the answer is evaluated as invalid and is not included in the data presented in the next section of the thesis. An example of this occurrence would be the word *rabbit* (see students’ answers 7) in the sentence number six, where the evaluated pair is BrE *rubber* and AmE *eraser*.

Another problem arises when the student’s answer includes a different lexeme than the one from the expected pair, in this case the answers are evaluated as invalid. This is the reason why sentence 7 was decided to be altogether omitted from the data analysis as the Czech lexical unit *řidič dodávky* is possible to be translated not only as the BrE lexical unit *lorry driver* or AmE lexical unit *truck driver* but also (more precisely) as a lexical unit not specific for any dialect *van driver* (the translation *van driver* was employed in more than a half of the answers and thus the whole sentence was invalidated – the final results show only nine evaluated sentences; sentence 8 of the translational part became sentence 7 in the evaluation tables, sentence 9 became sentence 8, and sentence 10 became sentence 9). Another showcase of the same problem is the Czech lexeme *maminka* from sentence number nine (sentence number eight in the evaluation tables), which was chosen to study the secondary phenomenon of dialectal spelling preference. This lexeme can be translated in various ways different from the expected BrE variant *mum/mummy* and AmE variant *mom/mommy*.

The last problem connected to the translational part of the questionnaire arises when students include both of the valid lexical units in their answer, thus showing the knowledge of both the AmE and the BrE variant yet not displaying their dialectal preference. One student (see students’ answers 19) included both of the lexical unit variants in several of his answers and

then pointed out that would he have to choose only one of the variants it would be AmE. Still, in order to keep the measures same for all of the students, it was decided to invalidate all answers including both the variants.

There are also some difficulties connected to the sociological part of the study which lie in the nature of the asked questions. The main difficulty is with the list of resources students use for the English language input, where we are given their subjective perception of the importance of each resource rather than the objective importance. Another problem is the way in which some of these resources are presented, for instance the resource category 'school' can have different meanings for different students, for some it can entail only the books and lessons for others it may also entail homework and other English language related activities induced by the school yet not done inside the building.

Lastly, it needs to be mentioned that although students were specifically asked not to use any third-party material and not to co-operate with their peers there is a possibility that some of the answers may be altered due to the violation of these rules.



#### 4. Research and Analysis

This part of the thesis will present and analyse the data gathered from the students and teachers of the two aforementioned secondary grammar schools. Firstly, the specific results will be given, those are the results to specific categories such as lexical dialectal variation amongst students whose teachers prefer a particular dialect, or the difference between dialectal preference between students who rank the resource category of ‘internet and social media’ over ‘school’ and vice versa. The second part will analyse the general results of the research gathered from all the questionnaires together, which will show the general preference of EFL students’ lexical dialectal choice and the discrepancy between BrE lexical units and AmE lexical units in the individual sentences. The general results will also disclose the outcomes of the secondary phenomena such as impact of gender or L1 upon the English spoken by the students and their spelling dialectal preference.

As the next chapters will be based on data from across the research groups to offer statistically valid results, two tables have been made to simplify the navigation through the results. Table 3 showcases the data from the sociological questionnaire used in the following chapters for each research group and Table 4 shows the teachers’ dialectal preference in each research group:

	<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>ISM preferred</b>	<b>SCH preferred</b>
<b>Group 1</b>	6	2	4	4	2
<b>Group 2</b>	4	1	3	3	1
<b>Group 3</b>	5	1	3	2	3
<b>Group 4</b>	7	1	6	4	3
<b>Group 5</b>	1	0	1	1	0
<b>Group 6</b>	5	1	4	1	4
<b>Group 7</b>	2	0	2	2	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>13</b>

*Table 3 – Students’ questionnaires general information*

*ISM = “Internet and social media” resource category*

*SCH = “School” resource category*

*(One of the respondents from Group 3 chose not to disclose his gender which results in the discrepancy of the total number of respondents and the number of male and female respondents together.)*

	<b>Speaking</b>	<b>Teaching</b>	<b>Materials</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Time</b>
<b>Teacher 1</b>	AmE	No variety	No variety	AmE	1 year
<b>Teacher 2</b>	BrE	BrE	No variety	BrE	1 year
<b>Teacher 3</b>	BrE	BrE	BrE	BrE	5 years
<b>Teacher 4</b>	AmE	AmE	BrE	AmE	5 years
<b>Teacher 5</b>	BrE	BrE	BrE	BrE	5 years
<b>Teacher 6</b>	BrE	BrE	BrE	BrE	4 years
<b>Teacher 7</b>	BrE	BrE	BrE	BrE	1 year

Table 4 – Teachers’ questionnaires general information

*Speaking* = Dialect the teachers use when they speak

*Teaching* = Dialect the teachers use whilst teaching

*Materials* = Dialect used in materials they give to their students (besides the textbook)

The information given by these tables will be further scrutinized in the following chapters, for now they should be understood only as indicators of the data upon which the next chapters are founded. For instance, when scrutinizing the impact of ‘school’ resource category preference, Table 3 discloses that there are two subjects from research group 1, one subject from research group 2, three subjects from research group 3, etc... On the other hand, Table 4 unveils that in the chapter concerned with the impact of teachers’ dialectal preference on students’ lexical dialectal choice the most important data will be given (due to the time they spent with the research groups) by the teachers of research group 3, 5, and 6 for BrE potential impact and teacher of research group 4 for AmE potential impact. Regarding Table 4 it also needs to be pointed out that the result ‘BrE’ entails both answers ‘mixture of dialects with BrE prevalence’ and ‘purely BrE.’ This simplification was made for the sake of clarity and due to the fact that if the groups were divided by both the criteria of the degree of preference and the time the teachers spent with the research groups, the categories would then contain small number of subjects resulting in statistical invalidity.

#### **4.1. Specific results**

##### **4.1.1. ‘Internet and Social Media’ Ranked over ‘School’**

Based on the data in Table 3, there were seventeen subjects who ranked the importance of ISM (internet and social media resource category) over ‘school’ in terms of the English language input. It needs to be noted, that these subjects had a differing degree of preference of ISM over ‘school’ ranging from ISM on first place whilst ‘school’ on last and ISM being just one place ahead in terms of importance. Thus, even though all the subjects favour ISM it is still

a heterogeneous group whose collective preference in terms of resource categories can be seen in Figure 1:

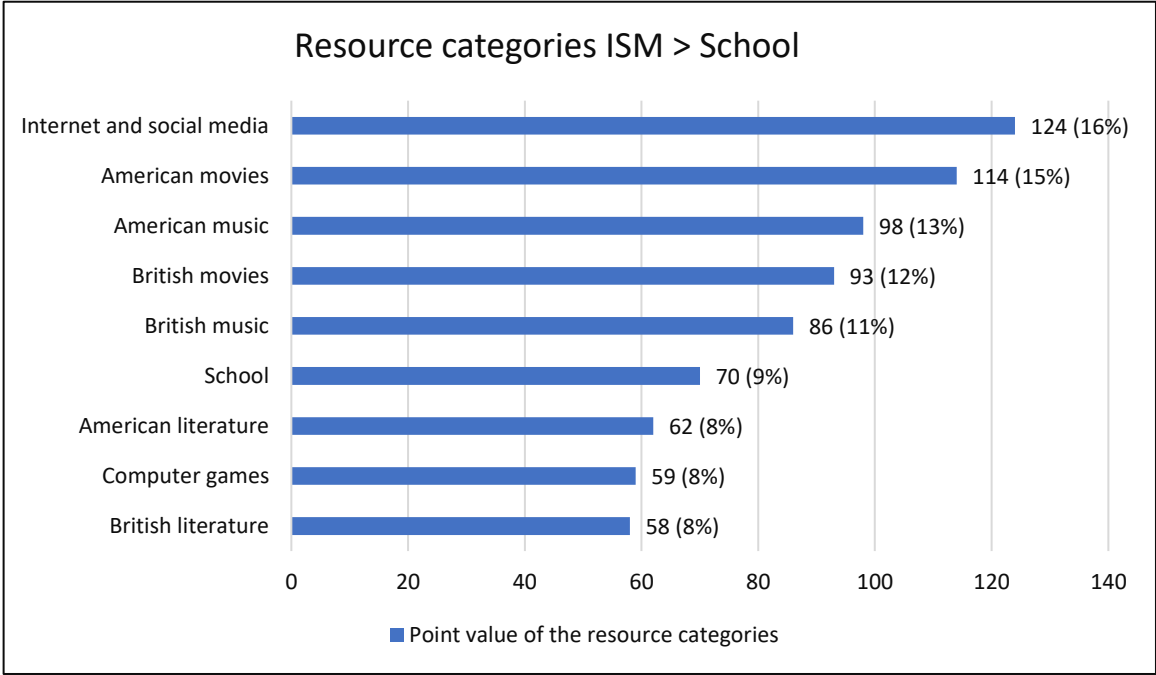


Figure 1 – Resource categories ISM > school

The first number shows the total point value of the resource categories as illustrated in Table 2 (see 3.2) and the second number shows the rounded percentage value. The targeted resource categories show a significant discrepancy (54 in terms of point value and 7% in terms of rounded percentage value) which should lead, according to the hypothesis, to higher frequency of AmE lexical units. It also needs to be noted that the subjects expressed a preference of the resource categories of American culture over the resource categories of British culture which should only support the hypothesis that these subjects should report preference of AmE in terms of lexical dialectal choice. The results of the translational questionnaires for these subjects can be seen below:

	AmE lexical unit	BrE lexical unit	AmE spelling	BrE spelling
<b>1. cookies/biscuits</b>	12	5	X	X
<b>2. vacation/holidays</b>	12	5	X	X
<b>3. elevator/lift</b>	11	5	X	X
<b>4. fries/chips</b>	14	3	X	X
<b>5. apartment/flat</b>	7	10	X	X
<b>6. eraser/rubber</b>	7	9	X	X
<b>7. fall/autumn</b>	6	10	4	7
<b>8. candy/sweets</b>	7	9	4	9
<b>9. gas/petrol</b>	8	8	X	X
<b>Total</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>16</b>

Table 5 – Translational questionnaire ISM > school

In terms of the total lexical unit usage, these subjects did indeed show preference of AmE. Yet, this preference is created through dominance of AmE lexical units in the first four sentences, not by consistent preference in all the sentences. Actually, there were more BrE lexical units in four sentences which is the same amount as AmE preferred sentences, but the degree of AmE preference in the AmE favoured sentences is much higher than the degree of BrE preference in the sentences favouring BrE. Interestingly, the results of spelling dialectal preference go against the results of lexical dialectal preference. BrE was the favoured dialect in terms of spelling choice, suggesting that spelling dialectal preference is not connected to lexical dialectal preference. Regarding the presupposition that sentences 1 and 3 will show dominance of AmE lexical units and sentences 2 and 7 dominance of BrE lexical units, the hypothesis was partly right as in three out of four cases the result was expected, yet importantly, sentences 5, 6, 8, and 9 went against the hypothesis as these subjects (due to their ISM preference) were expected to show slightly higher frequency of AmE lexical units.

#### 4.1.2. ‘School’ Dominant over ‘Internet and Social Media’

This chapter will disclose the answers of the subjects with opposing view concerning the importance of ‘school’ and ISM resource categories. The same methodology will be used to give possibility for a valid comparison in the last paragraph of this chapter. Figure 2

showcasing the ranking of resource categories by subjects preferring ‘school’ over ISM will be shown below:

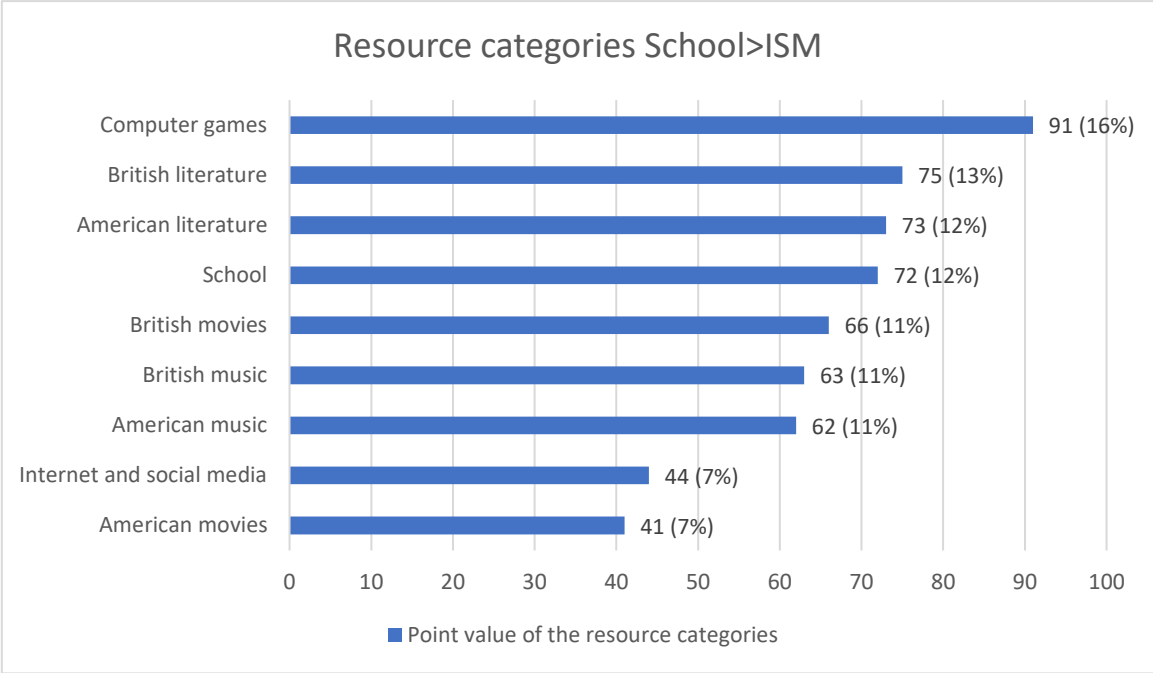


Figure 2 – Resource categories school > ISM

This figure shows completely different results than the one in the preceding chapter, the most important notion is that although this feature is made of results by subject whose preference was of ‘school’ over ISM, ‘school’ was not ranked as one of the most important. It occupies the fourth position with the point value of 72 (12% in terms of rounded percentage value), the opposing resource category is on eighth place with the point value of 44 (7% rounded percentage value). These subjects, contrariwise to the subjects preferring ISM, show preference of the resource categories containing British culture, although the degree of preference for the targeted culture is not as high as in the preceding chapter. Interestingly, another unexpected difference occurred between these two groups, that is the ranking of ‘computer games’ resource category – whilst the preceding group ranked it as one of the least important, this group had it as the dominating resource category. Yet, as the impact of computer games on the language of EFL students is not the focus of this study the hypothesis remains the same, subjects of this group should show a preference of BrE lexical dialectal units. The results are shown in the table below:

	<b>AmE lexical unit</b>	<b>BrE lexical unit</b>	<b>AmE spelling</b>	<b>BrE spelling</b>
<b>1. cookies/biscuits</b>	7	6	X	X
<b>2. vacation/holidays</b>	5	8	X	X
<b>3. elevator/lift</b>	9	4	X	X
<b>4. fries/chips</b>	8	5	X	X
<b>5. apartment/flat</b>	1	10	X	X
<b>6. eraser/rubber</b>	4	5	X	X
<b>7. fall/autumn</b>	2	10	6	5
<b>8. candy/sweets</b>	5	8	7	3
<b>9. gas/petrol</b>	6	5	X	X
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>8</b>

Table 6 – Translational questionnaire school > ISM

Also the results of this group went in accord with the expectation, this time there was higher frequency of BrE lexical units, totalling in 61 against 47 AmE lexical units. This preference was again not caused by consistent higher frequency of BrE lexical units in all the sentences, but this time by a very strong dominance of BrE in sentences 5 and 7. The other sentences were more or less balanced in distribution of both the dialectal choices with the exception of sentence 3 which was unexpectedly AmE favoured. The spelling dialectal preference was again different from lexical dialectal preference as this group showed that even though lexically they prefer BrE, spelling-wise they prefer AmE with the total number of 13 AmE spellings and 8 BrE spellings. This supports the idea that lexical dialectal preference and lexical spelling preference are two mutually non-affecting notions. The part of the hypothesis expecting sentences 2 and 7 to be BrE preferred and sentences 1 and 4 to be AmE preferred was this time true to reality. More about the part of the hypothesis concerned with the expected distribution of lexical units in each sentence will be said in the 4.2.1 chapter.

To conclude this chapter concerned with the impact of ‘school’ and ISM on the lexical dialectal preference amongst EFL students, it can be said that regarding the sociological part, the two opposing groups report completely different answers. Whilst the subjects who prefer ISM over ‘school’ also get more input from American culture, the subjects who prefer ‘school’ over ISM get more input from British culture. Most importantly, the results of the translational questionnaires proved the hypothesis that these two resource categories have impact on lexical dialectal choice, subjects more affected by ISM use more AmE lexical units than BrE and the opposing subjects more affected by ‘school’ reversely use more BrE lexical units than AmE.

Another interesting finding is that lexical dialectal preference and spelling dialectal preference do not show any correlation, on the contrary, subjects who prefer AmE lexical dialectal units tend to prefer BrE spelling and vice versa. This was an unexpected result which may stem from the different ranking of the ‘computer games’ resource category between the two groups. To find out whether it is truly the resource category of ‘computer games’ being behind the discrepancy between the spelling dialectal preference between the two groups would still need to be confirmed by another study.

#### **4.1.3. Impact of AmE Preferring Teacher**

The next two chapters will deal with the impact of teachers’ dialectal preference on the lexical dialectal preference of their students. As the impact of the teacher gradually rises with the time they spent with their students, only those teachers who spent at least four years with the research groups will be taken into account. This criterion was met only by one teacher preferring AmE, the teacher of research group 4. Although only one research group will be considered in this chapter, it was the group with the most respondents and so the results even though not completely conclusive will still bear importance and show the general tendency.

The teacher of research group 4 describes both the English he uses for speaking and the English he uses for teaching as mixture of the two dialects with prevalence of AmE, regarding the materials he gives to his students, they are more frequently published in BrE. It also needs to be noted that in research group 4 there were three ‘school’ preferring subjects and four ISM preferring subjects, this balance means that the overall impact of resource categories preference should be insignificant and thus the results of the research group 4 should mainly show the impact of the teacher. The results of the translational questionnaire can be seen below:

	AmE lexical unit	BrE lexical unit	AmE spelling	BrE spelling
<b>1. cookies/biscuits</b>	6	1	X	X
<b>2. vacation/holidays</b>	6	1	X	X
<b>3. elevator/lift</b>	5	1	X	X
<b>4. fries/chips</b>	3	4	X	X
<b>5. apartment/flat</b>	2	5	X	X
<b>6. eraser/rubber</b>	1	5	X	X
<b>7. fall/autumn</b>	4	2	1	4
<b>8. candy/sweets</b>	3	4	1	4
<b>9. gas/petrol</b>	3	3	X	X
<b>Total</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>8</b>

Table 7 – Translational questionnaire AmE teacher

As it was mentioned, the number of respondents is insufficient to draw a conclusive answer, but the tendency based upon the table is that the impact of the teachers' preferred dialect should be similar to the impact of the resource categories on the lexical dialectal preference of EFL students. The preference of the AmE lexical units on the overall level is caused mainly by the dominance of this dialect in sentences 1, 2 and 3 which copies the results of 4.1.1, yet seeing this as a mere smaller-scale copy of the ISM preferring students' result would be a mistake as the sentences 4 and 7 show a completely different tendency from the aforementioned results. The notion of teachers' preferred dialect bearing similar impact to the resource categories on the language of EFL students will be further scrutinized on the next larger-scale BrE preferring teacher chapter.

#### 4.1.4. Impact of BrE Preferring Teacher

In terms of time spent criterion, there were three teachers preferring BrE who met it, namely the teacher of research group 3, the teacher of research group 5 and the teacher of research group 6. The teachers of groups 5 and 6 showed a very strong preference of BrE and the teacher of research group 3 reported in all her answers to use a mixture of the dialects with BrE prevalence. The degree of preference for BrE was higher across all the mentioned teachers than it was for AmE by the teacher of research group 4. This, connected with the fact that there were seven 'school' preferring subjects as opposed to only four ISM preferring subjects should



lead to much higher frequency of BrE lexical units than AmE lexical units. The connected results of the three research groups can be found below:

	AmE lexical unit	BrE lexical unit	AmE spelling	BrE spelling
<b>1. cookies/biscuits</b>	5	3	X	X
<b>2. vacation/holidays</b>	6	5	X	X
<b>3. elevator/lift</b>	5	6	X	X
<b>4. fries/chips</b>	8	3	X	X
<b>5. apartment/flat</b>	1	10	X	X
<b>6. eraser/rubber</b>	3	6	X	X
<b>7. fall/autumn</b>	1	10	1	4
<b>8. candy/sweets</b>	2	9	1	4
<b>9. gas/petrol</b>	3	6	X	X
<b>Total</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>8</b>

Table 8 – Translational questionnaire BrE teacher

The results of this table show a conclusive domination of BrE lexical units over AmE lexical units and although it contains answers by eleven students, the total discrepancy between the number of BrE lexemes and AmE lexemes is much bigger than in 4.1.2. where there were thirteen students. This means that these results are BrE favourite not only by the virtue of slightly larger number of ‘school’ preferring students, but mainly by the virtue of the impact by the teachers’ preferred dialect. Although sentences 2 and 4 saw more AmE lexical units, this table is the only one that can be said to show constant and conclusive domination of one of the dialects, in this case BrE. All in all, the tendency shown by the preceding chapter was conclusively proven in this chapter, it is not only the resource categories of ISM and ‘school’ that have impact on the lexical dialectal preference of EFL students, but also the dialectal preference of their teachers.

#### 4.2. General Results

The preceding chapters focused on the individual concepts that have impact on the lexical dialectal preference of EFL students. It was shown that in all cases the results went hand in hand with the theoretical part and the hypothesis of the thesis. The following chapters will scrutinize all the answers together to find out the answer to the second part of the hypothesis, that is whether the idea of ‘school’ being the vehicle for BrE lexical units and ISM being the vehicle for AmE lexical units could be extended from the general level (the total number of

lexical units) to specific level (the number of lexical units in individual sentences) (see appendix 4). The second part of this chapter will showcase the results for the secondary researched phenomena; firstly, spelling dialectal preference, then the impact of gender on lexical dialectal preference, and lastly, the impact of L1 on the English of EFL students.

#### 4.2.1. Primary Phenomena

The gist of the study lies in the lexical dialectal preference both on the general level of all the lexical units, that is whether students generally tend to prefer BrE or AmE and on the specific (word-pair) level of individual lexical units, that is whether a particular lexical unit shows any deviation from the general level in favour of one of the targeted dialects. These data can be found in the table below:

	AmE lexical unit	BrE lexical unit	AmE spelling	BrE spelling
1. cookies/biscuits	19	11	X	X
2. vacation/holidays	17	13	X	X
3. elevator/lift	20	9	X	X
4. fries/chips	22	8	X	X
5. apartment/flat	8	20	X	X
6. eraser/rubber	11	14	X	X
7. fall/autumn	8	20	10	12
8. candy/sweets	12	17	11	12
9. gas/petrol	14	13	X	X
<b>Total</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>24</b>

Table 9 – Translational questionnaire total

In terms of the total number of AmE and BrE lexical units, that is the general level of lexical dialectal preference, the result shows that the English of EFL students is a heterogeneous subject not dominated by any of the targeted dialects. The total number of AmE lexical units was 132 and for BrE it was 125 which is an insignificant difference in terms of the total number of valid responses (257 valid responses, 13 invalid responses). Whilst the total result suggests that the English used by EFL students, the “Euro-English,” is subject to high variance and thus not being possible to generalize, or what more codify, the results of the individual sentences argue for something else. The difference between the two lexical dialectal variants on the level of individual sentences is sometimes large enough to presuppose that the dominating variant

could become in the future the only variant, if “Euro-English” were to be somewhat homogenized.

Based upon the study provided by this thesis, the lexical units liable to homogenization are the lexical units *flat* and *autumn* in favour of BrE (as opposed to the AmE variants *apartment* and *fall*) from sentences 5 and 7, and the lexical units *elevator* and *fries* in favour of AmE (as opposed to BrE variants *lift* and *chips*) in sentences 3 and 4. The lexical units from the rest of the sentences are still liable to high variance that at this point does not justify presumptions on the future possible homogenization. The percentual distribution of the two lexical dialectal variants can be seen in the feature below:

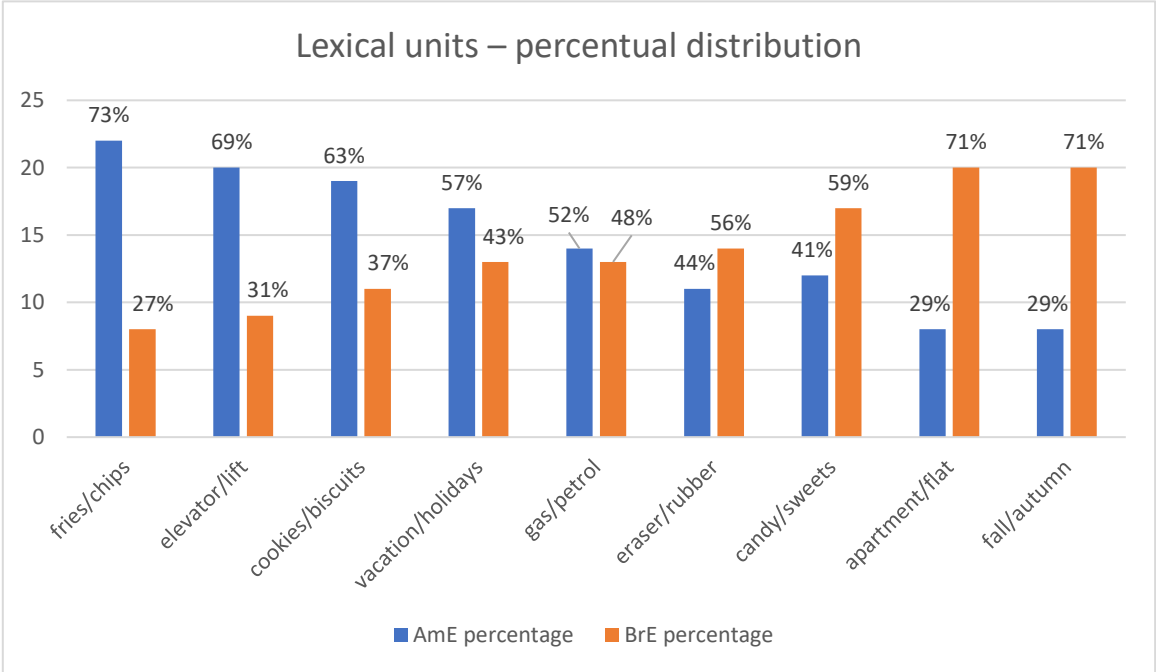


Figure 3 – Lexical units - percentual distribution

The two left-most and the two right-most are the already mentioned pairs where one of the lexical dialectal variants is prevailing (>65%) and future homogenization is possible, the distribution between the rest of the lexical dialectal variants is balanced (40-60%) and the difference is statistically insignificant, thus no conclusive presumption of homogenization can be made except for the AmE lexical unit *cookie* (63%) which is on the brink of being included in the ‘prevailing’ category.

The second part of the hypothesis expected to see prevalence of the AmE lexical units in the word pairs *fries/chips* and *cookies/biscuits* and BrE prevalence in the word-pairs *fall/autumn* and *vacation/holidays*. It was right in its presumption that *fries* (AmE) would be the prevailing lexical unit over *chips* (BrE) and that *autumn* (BrE) would prevail over *fall* (AmE). Partly right in the assumption that *cookies* (AmE) would prevail over *biscuits* (BrE) as a strong preference of the AmE lexical unit was shown, but it did not meet the >65% criterion to be placed in the ‘prevailing category.’ The hypothesis was wrong in the evaluation of the *vacation/holidays* word-pair as it expected to see the BrE variant *holidays* as the prevailing one, but the reality showed that the actual preferred variant is the AmE *vacation*. It also did not succeed in the word-pairs *elevator/lift* and *apartment/flat* as it expected balanced distribution but actually one of the lexical units was prevailing. Subsequently, the second part of the hypothesis cannot be said to sufficiently describe the indicators behind lexical dialectal variance on the individual (word-pair) level.

#### **4.2.2. Secondary Phenomena**

This chapter will deal with spelling dialectal preference, differences between the two genders in their answers, and the impact of L1 on EFL through the study of false friends. These categories operate mainly as background information that can be used for further studies and also as checks for some of the notions brought by the theoretical part of the thesis. They are not meant to be seen as individual studies on their own as the sample size is not large enough.

As far as spelling is concerned, there were two sentences which allowed the subjects to choose from two grammatically correct options. The two sentences that can be said to contain word liable to spelling dialectal variance are sentences 8 and 9. In sentence 8 the targeted words are *favourite/colourful* (BrE) and *favorite/colorful* (AmE), in sentence 9 it is *mum/mummy* (BrE) and *mom/mommy* (AmE). The total number of AmE and BrE spellings are balanced (see 4.2.1.) but for the purposes of this problem a look will be given also to the number of students who use solely BrE or AmE spelling and those who use mixture of the two (at least two of the targeted words appertain to two different dialects), only those subjects whose answers included all three targeted words are reflected in this diagram:

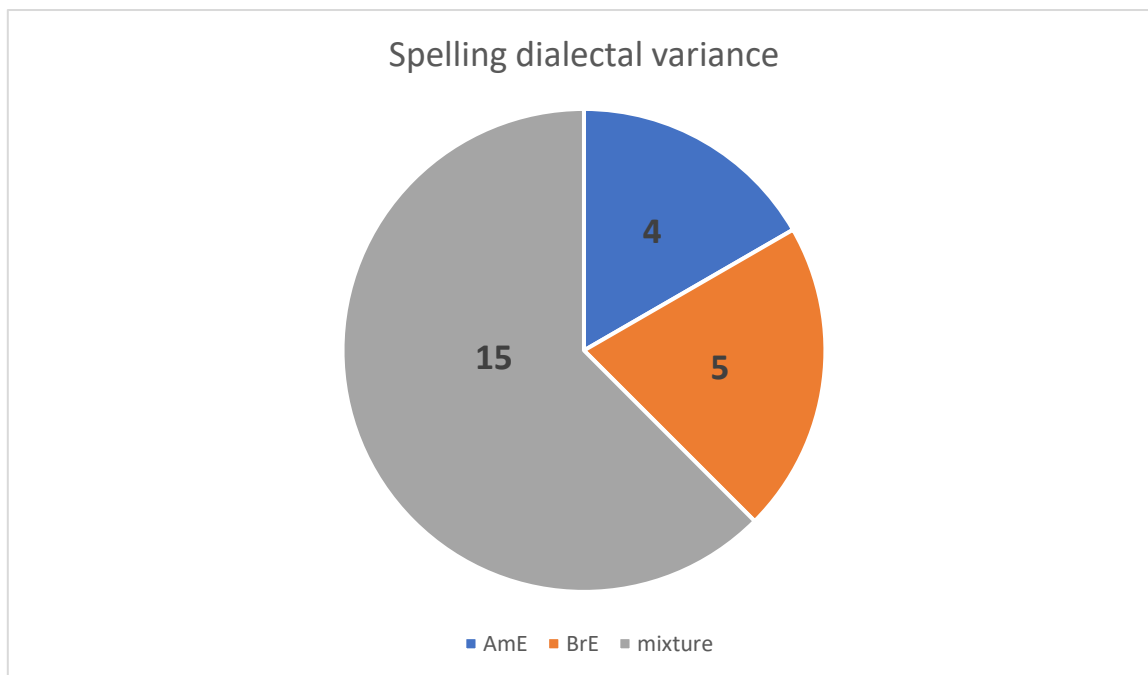


Figure 4 – Spelling dialectal variance

The similar total number of spellings is not made mainly by equal number of students who use solely BrE and AmE but rather by students who use mixture of these two dialects which then total in the similar final number. Thus, the same thing which was said about lexical dialectal variance on the general (total) level can be said about spelling dialectal variance on the general (total) level – the usage by EFL students is very heterogenous and suggests that the language of EFL speakers will be an amalgam of different dialects throughout the different levels of the language. On the specific (spelling-pair) level it was found out that subjects preferring AmE lexical units tend to use BrE spelling more and subjects preferring BrE lexical units reversely tend to use AmE spelling (see 4.1.1. and 4.1.2.). As it was already mentioned, this result suggests that there is no correlation between lexical dialectal preference and spelling dialectal preference, yet if a tentative outcome were to be submitted, there is a correlation between the importance of ‘computer games’ resource category and the frequency of spelling. Subjects who reported to get a lot of input from ‘computer games’ tend to use AmE spelling more frequently than those who placed it as unimportant.

In terms of the impact of gender on the lexical dialectal variance the data are not telling as there were only six men against 23 women (one subject chose not to disclose their gender). Nevertheless, it is still an interesting topic to scrutinize, which lead to the creation of two diagrams, Figure 5 for women, Figure 6 for men which disclose the total number of BrE and AmE lexical units for each gender:

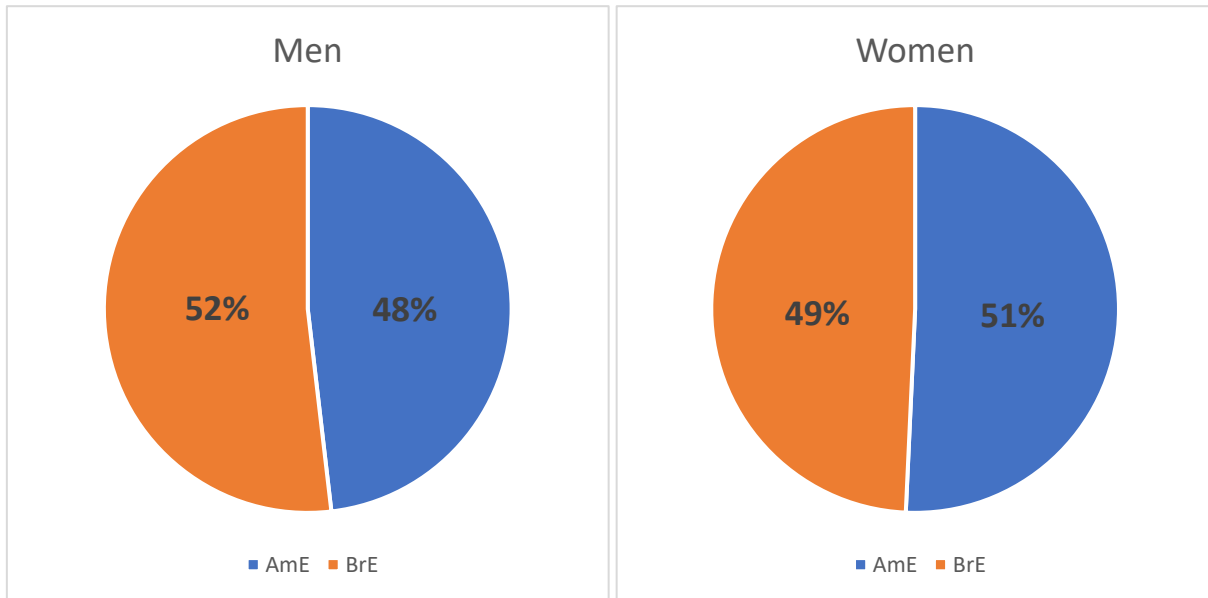


Figure 6 – Gender impact men

Figure 5 – Gender impact women

The results are given in percentage because the total number of uses by each gender would be misleading due to the discrepancy of the number of respondents (women totalled at 104 AmE lexical units and 101 for BrE, men at 26 for AmE and 28 for BrE). The diagrams show that men may slightly favour BrE lexical units whilst women AmE lexical units, but the discrepancy is negligible which leads to the conclusion that gender should not be a role of importance for lexical dialectal preference.

The last secondary phenomenon scrutinized is the impact of L1 on EFL students for which two sentences will be examined. In sentence 1 the Czech lexical unit *kontrolovat (zkontrolovat)* is correctly translated to English as *check*, yet Czech students may be inclined to use the false friend *control*. Sentence 4 includes the lexical unit *eventuálně* which can be translated to English as *possibly* or *alternatively*, yet students whose L1 is Czech may use the false friend *eventually*. In this sentence some of the subjects chose not to translate the word into English which is evaluated as a valid non-false friend answer, because although the subjects

may not know the correct translation, they knew not to use the false friend *eventually*. The number of false friend usages for each of the sentences can be seen in the diagrams below:

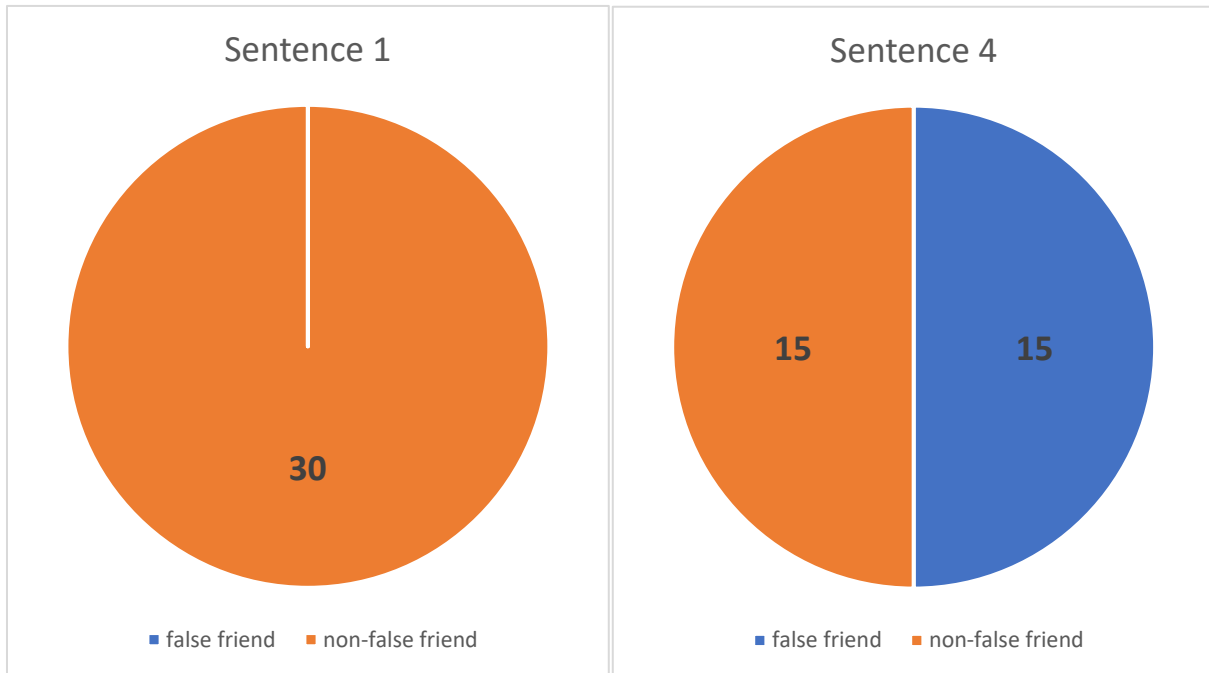


Figure 8 – Impact of L1 sentence 1

Figure 7 – Impact of L1 sentence 4

The data from these two diagrams show that whilst in the first sentence everyone chose the correct translation (probably because of the frequency with which they come in contact with the lexical unit *kontrolovat* and its English counterpart *check*), in the fourth sentence the picture is different, *eventuálně* in Czech is not nearly as frequent as in the preceding illustration and thus they are not so familiar with the English counterparts resulting in balanced usage of the false friend and non-false friend (none of the students counted in the non-false friend category actually translated the word as *possibly* or *alternatively*, it was either omitted or substituted by *or*). These results go hand in hand with the theoretical portion of the thesis (see 1.4.1) that L1 of the EFL students has impact on their English and to which degree the standard will be altered depends on the amount of input from native and non-native speakers.

## 5. Conclusion

The focus of the thesis was to describe lexical dialectal variation of the English language amongst the EFL students. In the theoretical part a closer scrutiny was given to variation on all the levels of the English language, then to the dialects of English and the reasons why it is BrE and AmE that are the two most important ones for the European citizen. The next chapters of the theoretical part dealt with the so-called “language power landscapes” upon which the reasons for occurrence of the dialectal variation were shown – whilst historically it was BrE that dominated in all the landscapes, nowadays it is AmE that is in the lead. Landscape domination (mainly the media-technical scape) connected with the fact that BrE is still stronger in terms of institutional support (mainly academic) should theoretically result in EFL students using a mixture of these two dialects. This mixture connected with the students’ L1 could be seen as the basis for the new pan-European dialect “Euro-English” which would then be used as the basis for the use of English for lingua franca communication. The last chapters of the theoretical part were devoted to the preparation for the practical part and more importantly to the previous research on similar topics which showed various results. Whilst some studies argue that AmE lexical devices are the preferred ones amongst EFL students, others show the exact opposite, moreover, one particularly well researched study showed that concerning spelling dialectal variance, the BrE dialect should be the dominating one.

The main focus of the practical part was to find out which of these dialects is the preferred one amongst EFL students. The hypothesis supposed, based on the theoretical part, that the students will use a mixture of the two targeted dialects, yet some particular lexical devices are prone to be used in one specific dialect. In both of these ideas the hypothesis was true to reality as the final result showed balance in terms of frequency of use for both the targeted dialects (132 AmE lexical devices, 125 BrE lexical devices) and moreover some individual sentences did show a large discrepancy between the two dialects. On the other hand, the hypothesis was incorrect in deciphering which sentences will be the ones showing that imbalance. In order to find out the key to correctly assume which lexical devices will see the domination of one of the dialects a more refined version of methodology would be needed, but if someone succeeds in making of such a study it would lead to even deeper understanding of the “Euro-English” and possibly even to some form of codification of this dialect.

Whilst the study did not resolve the aforementioned problem, it still brought insightful information to the domain of lexical dialectal variation and “Euro-English.” Firstly, it showed that in Czech Republic, students tend to use both dialects without any discrepancy in the total usage both as far as spelling and lexical devices are concerned. This result goes against the



outcomes reported by the other studies – this may be due to the slightly different natures of the questionnaires, small sample sizes or the fact that students from different nations have very different dialectal preferences. Were the last notion true it would mean that the concept of “Euro-English” is misguided, and more importance should be given to the study of individual national dialects of English. Theoretically, the dominance of AmE in the media technical scape and BrE in academic sphere should be the same for the whole of Europe and students’ L1 should not create an immense difference, thus the first option seems to be the more likely – the discrepancy between the results of this study and the two studies mentioned in the theoretical part are mainly due to different sample sizes and natures of the data gathering. In order to find a conclusive answer to this problem, a unified questionnaire would have to be made and answered by students from throughout Europe.

The theory of academic environment being the vehicle for BrE dialect and internet and social media the vehicle for AmE was shown to be true as it is reflected in the students’ lexical dialectal choice. Students who perceive ‘school’ as the more important of the two resource categories incline towards the usage of BrE lexical devices whilst students with the preference of internet and social media input tend to use more AmE lexical devices. This can be seen in the scrutiny of these specific resource categories (see 4.1.1. and 4.1.2.). Another important thing is the fact that the teachers’ preference plays a major role for the students’ dialectal preference, the degree of importance linearly rises with the time the teacher spent with his or her students. Thus, only teachers who spent four years and more with the subjects were reflected in this part of the study (see 4.1.3. and 4.1.4.). The results given in these chapters conclusively showed that the teacher’s dialectal preference is as influential as the relationship of the ‘school’ and ISM resource categories.

As far as the secondary phenomena were concerned, it seems that gender should not be indicative of which dialect will prevail in the language of the student, impact of L1 is important for the students’ idiolects but it diminishes with more input from the standard English and finally, spelling dialectal preference seems to largely copy the results from lexical dialectal preference – majority of students tend to use mixture of BrE and AmE both lexically and spelling-wise and in total the individual discrepancies balance themselves out. Yet, it was also shown that although the total discrepancy is similar for both lexical dialectal variance and spelling dialectal variance, these two notion are not mutually connected and show no correlation on the level of individual subjects.

To conclude, “Euro-English” remains a sphere to be more researched and “described” rather than codified or “prescribed.” This thesis sheds important light on the (ir)regularity of

one of the foundation stones of this dialect – the lexical dialectal variance. The main findings are that although Czech EFL students use a mixture of BrE and AmE, each of the lexical devices is used with differing regularity – whilst some lexical devices are more prone to be used in their BrE variant, others are more prone to be AmE. Another important fact is that there are two main indicators of whether a student is more prone to use BrE or AmE lexical devices, those are the difference of input given by the ‘school’ and ISM, and secondly the preferred dialect of their teacher. Whilst the results cannot be used to decisively propose the future of “Euro-English,” they can be undoubtedly used as a foundation for further research, or as indicators of tendencies amongst Czech students which can be later used for the creation of new teaching methods and material.

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## 7. Resumé

Předmětem této bakalářské práce byl popis lexikální nářeční variace u českých studentů angličtiny jako cizího jazyka. Teoretická část se zaměřovala na bližší prozkoumání všech jevů, které jsou k lexikální nářeční variaci přidružené. První kapitola se věnovala variaci jako takové a důvodům, kvůli kterým vzniká v jakémkoliv jazyce – variace byla chápána jako fenomén, který je esencí jazyka a bez nějž by se jazyk stal předmětem, spíše než živoucím organismem, kterým je. Další kapitoly popisovaly význam nářečí (dialektu), který je občas chápán jako podřadný vůči standardu, takovýto popis však tato práce odmítá a naopak tvrdí, že žádná varianta jazyka není přirozeně lepší než jiná. Tímto tvrzením se z nářečí stává termín synonymní k termínu jazyková varianta a je tak na něj i v celé práci nahlíženo. Dalším problémem bylo, zdali dvě zkoumané varianty, tj. britská angličtina a americká angličtina, jsou opravdu zeměpisně ohraničenými nářečemi, nebo spíše sociálně vyhraněnými sociolekty. Na tento problém bylo nahlíženo skrze teorii nářečního kontinua s přihlédnutím ke studiím v oblasti globalizace a bylo usouzeno, že v globalizovaném světě, aspoň co se týče tak rozšířeného jazyka jako je angličtina, není rozdělování na sociolekty a nářečí zcela relevantní. Je tomu tak, neboť se pohybujeme na škále, která byla právě onou zmíněnou globalizací často vybalancována – jak americká angličtina, tak britská angličtina jsou zároveň sociolektem a nářečím, tato práce však využívá pouze termín nářečí, který zaštiťuje i sociální rozsah sociolektu.

Jak již bylo zmíněno, žádné nářečí není přirozeně významnější než jiné, avšak jsou to právě britská a americká angličtina, které jsou mezi nerodilými mluvčí nejrozšířenější. Otázce proč tomu tak je a zda není jedno z výše zmíněných nářečí dominantní u studentů angličtiny jako cizího jazyka byly věnovány další kapitoly. Jako dva nejdůležitější ukazatelé toho, zda je dané nářečí rozšířené u nerodilých mluvčí se ukázali být podpora institucí a tzv. kategorie jazykové moci. Tyto kategorie jsou přímo úměrné silám, které (Appadurai, 1996) popisuje jako klíčové pro pochopení vlivu jednotlivých států v globalizovaném světě. Na tyto síly bylo v bakalářské práci nahlíženo historickou perspektivou a závěrem bylo, že ve všech rozhodujících faktorech dochází k přelévání vlivu od britské angličtiny směrem k americké angličtině, tj. že dochází k amerikanizaci anglického jazyka, nejen u jeho studentů jako cizího jazyka, ale i u rodilých mluvčí. Tento fakt, je však vyvažován již oněm druhým zmíněným faktorem určujícím nářeční preferenci u studentů, kterým je podpora institucí, kde, jak bylo zjištěno stále dominuje britská angličtina. Pro zjednodušení se každý ze zmíněných faktorů zobecnil na jeho nejvlivnější část, pro kategorie jazykové moci to byla mediálně-technologická

sféra dominovaná americkou angličtinou, pro podporu institucí to byla škola dominovaná britskou angličtinou.

Tato dichotomie jazykových vjemů u studentů anglického jazyka by teoreticky měla být podobná pro všechny Evropské země. Tím pádem vzniká myšlenka, zda by nemohlo existovat nové celoevropské nářečí, tzv. “Euro-angličtina,” která by byla vhodná pro mezinárodní komunikaci na bázi evropské unie. Jak by vypadala lexikální nářeční preference a zda by mohlo dojít k určité homogenizaci a následné kodifikaci takového nářečí je jedna z otázek, kterou si tato práce klade. Ostatní průzkumy ukázaly, že by to mohlo být možné, neboť většina z nich ukazuje dominanci pouze jednoho ze dvou zkoumaných nářečí, avšak problém byl, že tyto výsledky šli proti sobě. Zatímco jedny výzkumy ukazují vysokou převahu britské angličtiny u mluvčích Euro-angličtiny, jiné naopak ukazují dominanci americké angličtiny. Hypotéza této bakalářské práce byla založena právě na oné dichotomii jazykových vjemů, tudíž předpokládala, že v celkovém měřítku bude použití lexémů typických pro britskou a americkou angličtinu vyrovnané. Na druhou stranu, používání některých lexémů je častější ve školním prostředí a jiných zase v prostředí mediálně-technologickém, tím pádem se předpokládalo že na rovině jednotlivých lexémů, kde k tomuto jevu dochází, bude distribuce preferovat pouze jedno z nářečí.

Pro potřeby tohoto zkoumání byly vypracovány dotazníky, které byly následně rozeslány studentům předposledních ročníků gymnázií a jejich učitelům. Tyto dotazníky zkoumaly tři hlavní jevy; u studentů tomu byla distribuce lexémů britské a americké angličtiny v překladovém dotazníku a hodnocení důležitosti kategorií jazykových vjemů v sociologickém dotazníku. Třetí dotazník byl pouze pro učitele a zkoumal jejich vlastní preference anglických nářečí a poté nářečí, které využívají ve svých hodinách angličtiny. Vedlejšími daty, které byly také zkoumány jsou vliv mateřského jazyka na cizí jazyk (zkoumán skrze falešné přátele), pravopisná nářeční variace a vliv genderu na lexikální nářeční preferenci. Kompilace těchto dat poté byla použita k tomu, aby představila ucelený obraz o lexikální nářeční preferenci u českých studentů angličtiny jako cizího jazyka a popsala vlivy, které za ní stojí.

Výsledky dotazníků přinesli následující poznatky; zaprvé, teorie, že škola je nositelem britské angličtiny a sociální média s internetem nositelem angličtiny americké se ukázala být pravdivou. Zkoumaná skupina, která hodnotila školu jako významnější kategorii pro jejich jazykové vjemy měli vyšší distribuci lexémů spadajících do britské angličtiny, zatímco skupina, pro kterou byl po vjemové stránce důležitější internet a sociální média vykazovali vyšší procento užití lexému spadajících pod americkou angličtinu. Dalším důležitým faktorem se ukázalo být preferované nářečí učitelů daných zkoumaných tříd; v potaz byli vzati pouze

učitelé, kteří své třídy učili alespoň poslední čtyři roky, aby byl jejich vliv co nejvyšší a jak se nakonec ukázalo, žáci těchto učitelů opravdu vykazovali vyšší distribuci lexémů spadajících pod britskou angličtinu, pokud jejich učitel sám britskou angličtinu preferoval a vyšší distribuci lexémů spadajících pod americkou angličtinu, pokud se u jejich učitele ukázala preference americké angličtiny. Co se týče celkové distribuce lexémů, výsledek byl vyrovnaný, ale u jednotlivých vět tomu bylo naopak, většina z nich vykazovala dominanci pouze jednoho ze dvou bádáných nářečí – oba tyto jevy byly naprosto shodné s hypotézou. Na druhou stranu, u kterých vět k těmto rozdílům docházelo hypotéza předpokládala nesprávně a k ještě hlubšímu poznání této problematiky a možnosti kodifikace Euro-angličtiny by jí bylo potřeba vytríbit. Závěrem práce bylo, že na budoucnosti Euro-angličtiny se budou podílet právě vztah mezi významem školy a sociálních médií s internetem vůči frekvenci jazykových vjemů a druhotně také vliv učitelů na jejich žáky. Práce nedokázala vytvořit rámec, podle kterého by mohlo dojít k homogenizaci a kodifikaci Euro-angličtiny, avšak přinesla do této problematiky nové podměty, které samy o sobě mohou být základem pro tvorbu nových učebních materiálů nebo dalších studií dané problematiky.

## 8. Appendix

Appendix 1 – students' questionnaire translational part

# Překladový dotazník

Vítejte v překladovém dotazníku, který bude využit jako základ mé bakalářské práce. Chtěl bych Vás poprosit o to, abyste pro překlad nevyužívali slovníky, ani žádné jiné podpůrné programy. Vaše odpovědi budou zcela anonymní a nebudete dle nich nijak hodnoceni. Na konci dotazníku budete mít možnost vymyslet si unikátní heslo, pod kterým bych Vám poté, skrze Vašeho učitele angličtiny, mohl poslat Vaše osobní výsledky a jejich srovnání s průměrem.

**\*Povinné pole**

Překlad

Prosím, přeložte následující věty do angličtiny; pokud byste měl/a problém s nějakým slovem, klidně ho vynechte, ale zbytek věty přeložte.

1. Zkontroloval jsi, jestli jsou ty sušenky bez ořechů předtím, než si je koupil?

---

2. V tuto chvíli jsem na prázdninách, zanechte mi prosím zprávu, odpovím hned jak se vrátím do práce.

---

3. Výtah už je nějaký čas mimo provoz, budeme muset jít po schodech.

---

4. Z příloh si můžete vybrat brambory, hranolky, nebo Vám eventuálně můžeme připravit rýži.

---

5. Proдали jsme náš byt v Praze a odstěhovali se do rodinného domu na vesnici.



6. Včera jsem si šel koupit věci do školy; koupil jsem si tužku, sešit, gumu a dvě propisky.

---

7. Nejoblíbenějším povoláním mezi mladými chlapci je řidič dodávky, mezi dívkami je to zpěvačka.

8. Mým oblíbeným ročním obdobím je podzim, miluji barevné listy.

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9. Když jsem byl malý, maminka mi vždy kupovala v obchodech sladkosti.

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10. Auta, která potřebují benzín, budou brzy nahrazena elektromobily.

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*Přeskočte na otázku 11*

## Sociologický dotazník

Prosím, zaškrtněte odpověď, která je pro Vás pravdivá.

11. Jaký je Váš gender?

*Označte jen jednu elipsu.*

Muž

Žena

Jiné:

Appendix 2 – students' questionnaire sociological part

11. Jaký je Váš gender?

*Označte jen jednu elipsu.*

Muž

Žena

Jiné: \_\_\_\_\_

12. Navštívil/a jste někdy Velkou Británii?

*Označte jen jednu elipsu.*

Ano

Ne

13. Navštívil/a jste někdy Spojené státy americké?

*Označte jen jednu elipsu.*

Ano

Ne

14. Jak dlouhý byl Váš nejdelší pobyt ve Velké Británii, respektive Spojených státech amerických? (Pokud jste na obě dvě předcházející otázky odpověděli negativně, můžete tuto otázku ignorovat)

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15. Očíslujte zdroje, ze kterých čerpáte angličtinu od toho, který je dle Vašeho názoru nejvlivnější po ten nejméně vlivný. \*

*Označte jen jednu elipsu na každém řádku.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Škola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Internet a sociální sítě	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Počítačové hry	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Americké filmy a seriály	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Americká literatura	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Americká hudba	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Britské filmy a seriály	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Britská literatura	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Britská hudba	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

16. Jsou-li nějaké zdroje, které vnímáte jako důležité pro Vaši angličtinu a nejsou vypsány v předešlé otázce, prosím, vypište je.

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## Teacher's questionnaire

1. What variety of English language do you think you speak?

*Označte jen jednu elipsu.*

- British English (BrE)
- American English (AmE)
- Mixture of BrE and AmE with prevalence of BrE
- Mixture of BrE and AmE with prevalence of AmE
- No particular variety
- Another variety

2. What variety of English language do you think you teach?

*Označte jen jednu elipsu.*

- British English (BrE)
- American English (AmE)
- Mixture of BrE and AmE with prevalence of BrE
- Mixture of BrE and AmE with prevalence of AmE
- No particular variety
- Another variety

3. How long have you been teaching the researched class for?

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4. Do you use any other materials besides textbooks for your English classes?

*Označte jen jednu elipsu.*

Yes

No

5. In which variety of English are the materials generally published?

*Označte jen jednu elipsu.*

British English (BrE)

American English (AmE)

Usually BrE, sometimes AmE

Usually AmE, sometimes BrE

Equally AmE and BrE

Another variety

No particular variety

I don't use any other materials besides textbooks

6. Is there anything else you would like to point out as far as the varietal preference amongst your students is concerned?

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## Appendix 4 – basis for the hypothesis

1. Zkontroloval jsi, jestli jsou ty sušenky bez ořechů předtím, než si je koupil?
  - Did you **check** whether the **biscuits/cookies** are without nuts before you bought them?
  - AmE preferred
2. V tuto chvíli jsem na prázdninách, zanechte mi prosím zprávu, odpovím hned jak se vrátím do práce.
  - I am on **holiday/vacation** at the moment; please leave me a message, I will reply as soon as I get back to work.
  - BrE preferred
3. Výťah už je nějaký čas mimo provoz, budeme muset jít po schodech.
  - The **lift/elevator** has been out of order for some time, we will have to take the stairs.
  - balanced distribution
4. Z příloh si můžete vybrat brambory, hranolky, nebo Vám eventuelně můžeme připravit rýži.
  - From the side dishes you can choose potatoes, **chips/fries**, or **possibly** we can prepare rice for you.
  - AmE preferred
5. Prodali jsme náš byt v Praze a odstěhovali se do rodinného domu na vesnici.
  - We sold our **flat/apartment** in Prague and moved to a family house in a village
  - balanced distribution
6. Včera jsem si šel koupit věci do školy; koupil jsem si tužku, sešit, gumu a dvě propisky.
  - Yesterday I went to buy things for school; I bought a pencil, a notebook, a **rubber/eraser** and two pens.
  - balanced distribution
7. Nejoblíbenějším povoláním mezi mladými chlapci je řidič dodávky, mezi dívkami je to zpěvačka.
  - The most **favourite/favorite** profession amongst young boys is the **lorry/truck** driver, amongst girls it is the singer.
  - balanced distribution
8. Mým oblíbeným ročním obdobím je podzim, miluji barevné listy.
  - My **favourite/favorite** season is **autumn/fall**, I love **colourful/colorful** leaves.
  - BrE preferred
9. Když jsem byl malý, maminka mi vždy kupovala v obchodech sladkosti.

→ When I was younger, my **mum/mom** always used to buy me **sweets/candy** in shops.

→ balanced distribution

10. Auta, která potřebují benzín, budou brzy nahrazena elektromobily.

→ Cars that need **petrol/gas**, will be replaced by electric cars soon.

→ balanced distribution

Blue colour = spelling difference

Red colour = false friend

Yellow colour = lexical difference