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**Vocabulary** The words in a language. These are grouped into word fields giving the vocabulary an internal structure. The term *lexicon* is also used but the latter has at least three meanings: (i) the words of a language, (ii) the mental store of the words one knows, (iii) a dictionary.

**Vocabulary and dialect boundaries** The distinction between dialect areas can be reinforced by the use of specific vocabulary items (and not just pronunciation and grammar). For instance, there are significant differences between vocabulary in northern and southern dialects in the United States: northern *pail, eaves(trough)* versus southern *bucket, gutter* respectively. Much of this work refers back to that of Hans Kurath (1949) and initial studies such as Kurath (1939). The pronunciation of individual lexical items has been used to delimit dialect areas as is the case with the distinction between *greasy* largely with [-s-] in the northern and with [-z-] in the southern United States.

**Vocabulary, archaic or regional** (1) An obvious distinction between American and British English lies in the use of vocabulary. By and large American English retains older lexical items recognisable in pairs such as the following: *autumn/fall, post/mail*. However, not all distinctions can be reduced to the distinction of older versus newer vocabulary: *cellar/basement, drive/ride, maize/corn, pail/bucket, porch/veranda, rubbish/garbage, tap/faucet*. (2) Current lexical items in a variety can derive from words no longer current in more mainstream varieties. For instance, in the creole Sranan (Suriname) the word *wenke* ‘young woman’ stems from the archaic form *wench*. (3) There are cases where shifts of meaning or folk etymologies have arisen due to the misinterpretation of an original input. An example is Newfoundland English *hangashore* ‘useless individual’ from Irish *ainniseoir* ‘mean person’ with a hypercorrect, unetymological /h-/ (not uncommon, given /h-/ deletion in the West Country community on the island).

**Vocabulary, borrowing of** Borrowing in the history of English is responsible for thousands of loans from Latin, Scandinavian and French, to mention only the more important sources. In overseas varieties of English, the borrowing of local flora and fauna terms is common, e.g. as *kangaroo* (Australia), *kiwi* (New Zealand), *wildebeest* (South Africa), *wigwam* (America), *kayak* (Canada), etc. Local folklore and customs may also play a role, e.g. *fufu* ‘dish of boiled vegetables’ in the Caribbean. In other cases, borrowing does not fill a lexical gap, hence the reasons for borrowing are more attitudinal, as with Caribbean *nyam* ‘eat’. However, there are a few instances of gap-filling borrowing, e.g. the Bantu pronoun *unu* ‘you.PLURAL’ which is used in this function throughout the Caribbean and which redresses the imbalance among second person pronouns in English.

§1 English in the United States

**Historical outline** The history of North America begins in modern terms with the discovery
of Central America by Christopher Columbus in 1492 when he landed on the island of Hispaniola. Various parts of the coast of the present-day United States were discovered at the beginning of the 16th century. Between 1584 and 1586 Sir Walter Raleigh began his attempts to colonise North Carolina (his ‘Virginia’ so named after Queen Elizabeth I). After this time we can assume that British colonisation continued until the firm establishment of British rule at the beginning of the 17th century (Jamestown, Virginia 1607; Plymouth, New England, 1620; Boston and other places in Massachusetts, 1630). Some other European countries were also directly involved in the conquest of America: the French in Canada of course but also the Dutch in New York (the city, founded in 1625, was called New Amsterdam until 1664).

The colonisation of the territory of the present-day United States proceeded from East to West. At the same time the different areas formed into separate colonies which were only later joined together to give the states of today. Among the earliest states were those of the historical area of New England (not the name of a present-day state!): Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Vermont, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland and West Virginia (all founded at the end of the 18th century) along with those of the ‘South’ stretching from Virginia in the central east coast to Texas on the Rio Grande border with Mexico. These are the original 13 states of the Union.

British rule ended after a disorganised and uncoordinated campaign against the rebellious Americans in 1777 which led to the Paris peace of 1783 conceding the Americans sovereignty over the entire territory from the Great Lakes in the north down to Florida in the south. The position with the mid and western states was somewhat different inasmuch as they were only later conquered, at first by pioneers and later settled by farmers. The Gold Rush of 1848 led to the rise of California as a unit within the states; the last of the states to be founded were those in the region immediately east of the Rocky Mountains such as Wyoming (1890) and Utah (1896) and the more southerly states such as Arizona (1912) and Oklahoma (1907). Further territorial extensions were achieved by the annexation of land from Mexico (with the Peace of Guadalupe in 1848), with the purchase of Alaska from Russia in 1867 and with the formation of an American presence on Hawaii in 1878. The development of the states in the nineteenth century was blemished by the Civil War of 1861-4, caused by the refusal of the southern states to abolish slavery and their attendant wish to secede from the Union.

Today the United States consists of a federation of 48 contiguous states along with Alaska and Hawaii (to give 50). It has an area of 9.3 million square kilometres and a population of nearly 250 million. The following figures are taken from the 1972 census and probably are more in favour of the cities now: urban section of the population: 73.5%, rural section: 26.5%. Ethnic composition: white 87.5%, African American 11.1%. The capital is Washington, District of Columbia (not to be confused with the western state of the same name). The official language is English.

The position of the United States in the twentieth century on the world arena begins with the First World War. Up until 1917 America remained neutral but then joined on the side of the British. This national alliance with England has historical and last but not least linguistic reasons. Since then it has remained a permanent feature of American foreign policy. The size of America and the development of its economy towards an emphasis on export in the interwar years increased America’s position in international politics. During the Second World War and immediately afterwards, America reached the height of its European influence. The desolate state of the European economies led to the strengthening of
the American one. Furthermore the adoption of the dollar as a de facto international currency reinforced the standing of the United States. The political polarisation of the world also increased the American position as the United States became the natural counterpart of the (former) Soviet Union during the years of the Cold War (until 1989).

**Terminology**

The most general means of referring to English in the United States is *American English* (which does not include Canadian English). The term *The American Language* is admittedly the title of a famous book but it is an unnecessary exaggeration to claim (largely for patriotic reasons) that the English of the United States in any way represents a separate language from kinds of British English with which it is mutually intelligible.

There is a further complex of varieties which is a terminologically sensitive area: the English of the African American population. Obviously terms like *Negro dialect* or *Negro English* are unacceptable nowadays given the pejorative meaning of ‘negro’ today. American sociolinguists, active as of the mid sixties, came to use the term *Black English* (BE) or *Black English Vernacular* (BEV). With the advent of political correctness as a socio-political phenomenon the terminology had to be revised for fear of appearing discriminatory. *Afro-American English* was used but then the *Afro-* element was thought to be subordinate to *American* and so *African American English* (AAE) came to be employed and is current today, usually with the word *Vernacular* as an additional qualifier. Occasionally the term *Ebonics* (from ‘ebony’ where the colour of the wood is sometimes associated with blacks) is found, particularly outside linguistic circles.

### Main linguistic features

**Starting point**

British and American English were essentially similar in the 17th century. After this period the two major varieties of English drifted apart with American English remaining more conservative (in keeping with a generally observed tendency of peripheral dialects) while British English (at least in its standard form, Received Pronunciation) continued to develop quite rapidly, losing syllable-final /t/ for example. Note that because the varieties of British English which were brought to America differed in themselves an additional process of standardisation set in among the heterogeneous groups in the United States, a linguistic correlate to the demographic *melting pot* phenomenon. Evidence of the conservative side of American English is found for instance in verb forms: English has simplified the past forms of *get* to just *got* (with the verb *forget* there is both *forgot* and *forgotten*) whereas American English still has *gotten*. In the area of lexis one could cite words like *fall* for *autumn* or *mail* for *post* where the American terms are more archaic terms than the English ones.

### Divisions of American English

There are traditionally three main dialects areas in the United States (excluding Canada):

1) **Midland, West** (General American)
2) **North** (coastal states on the Atlantic, New England)
3) **South** (coastal states on South Atlantic + Gulf of Mexico)
Nowadays, this division must be qualified given the presence of many urban sociolects which do not fit neatly into this triadic group. The western section covers a vast area of land and has something of the character of a standard in the United States. It is variously called **General American** - or in a geographically less specific manner - **Network English** seeing as how it is used in public life, in the media, politics, etc. The remarks on linguistic structure below apply to General American unless otherwise specified.

The settlement history of America has led to subvarieties or groups of these arising within the United States. For instance the area of the Appalachian mountains, in the south-east somewhat in from the coast, shows a kind of English which is quite distinct from that of the adjoining flatlands, e.g. double modals as in *I might could take a course in linguistics* are common here. Such structures are only found elsewhere in the Anglophone world in Scotland and Ulster and it is known that large numbers of Scots and Ulster Scots settled in the region as of the late 17th century.

There are further minor varieties of English in America such as **Gullah**, a remnant of a negro creole spoken by small numbers on islands off the coast of South Carolina and Georgia. French existed up to this century in Louisiana where it derives from former **Louisiana French Creole**. Various forms of Mexican Spanish have been spoken in those states adjoining on Mexico (above all in California). **Chicano English** is a term used for the type of English spoken by native speakers of Spanish in the south-west of the United States.

Various immigrant groups have to a greater or lesser extent retained their original languages, e.g. Italians, Jews (Yiddish). Immigrants vary greatly in the degree of language maintenance they exhibit, the Estonians show a very high degree while the Ukrainians and the Irish have little or none. Of more recent origin are the many immigrants from Asiatic countries, for instance the large Chinese population in California.

### American orthography

The spelling of American English has been a matter of central interest since the late 18th century when Noah Webster, the father of American lexicography, brought out his *Dissertations on the English Language* (1789) in which he suggested separating America from Britain linguistically. Webster’s major work is his *An American Dictionary of the English Language* of 1828. With its 70,000 entries is was larger than Samuel Johnson’s *English Dictionary* (1755). Certain spelling changes of Webster are older forms, such as *-er* for *-re* (cf. *theater*) or *-or* for *-our* (cf. *honour*). Many of the changes suggested by Webster were not adopted permanently into American English and he can not free himself entirely from the accusation of having tinkered with the language (e.g. in his proposal that one write *oo* for *ou* in words like *soup, group*). Note that the letter *z* is pronounced /ˈziː/ in American and /ˈzed/ in British English.

### Phonology

1) Presence of (retroflex) syllable-final /ɨr/ (in General American). This /ɨr/ may be absent in the South and conservative varieties in the North East.

2) Raising, lengthening and frequent nasalisation of /æ/ is very common. The lexical distribution of /æ/ and /æː/ is different from British English: e.g. *cancel, dance, advance* all have /æ/ in American English.
3) Lowering of /o/ to /a/ as in pot /pat/.
4) Flapping of /t,d/ to /l/, e.g. writer /rai4er/.
5) Alveolar /l/ in syllable-final position, e.g. ill [il]
6) Not so much diphthongisation of mid long vowels as in RP, e.g. home is pronounced /houm/ and not /hQuum/
7) Partial retention of /w/ where RP has /w/, e.g. which /wi$t/
8) Many cases of varying word stress compared with British English.

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**Morphology and syntax**

The differences between American and British English are not so often a question of presence or not of a certain feature as one of statistical frequency; the following characteristics should be understood in this light.

1) Increased use of adjectives for adverbs. *He’s awful tall. That’s real funny. I near finished it.*
2) Strong verb forms which are either a) archaic or b) false generalisations from other strong verbs. *do - done - done; get - got - gotten; see - seen - seen; bring - brang - brung* (non-standard in the United States).
3) Use of *do* is widespread in American English for questions and negative sentences. *Did he have a chance to do it? (Had he a chance to do it?) Have you enough money? No, I don’t (No, I haven’t) He hasn’t a driving licence, sure he doesn’t? (, hasn’t he?) Did he use to smoke (Used he to smoke?)*
4) Suppression of verb leaving a) a preposition *The cat wants in. She wants off.* b) a past participle *He ordered him replaced. They wanted a conference held.*
5) Large number of phrasal verbs in American English: *hold off (= restrain); figure out (= understand); check out (= leave); get through (= finish); count in (= include); stop by (= visit briefly).*
6) Differences among prepositions: *aside from (= besides); in back of (= behind); for (= after), e.g The school was named for him. on (= in), e.g I live on George Street. in (= into), e.g. He ran in the kitchen. than (= from), e.g. She is different than her sister. through (= from ... to) Monday through Friday.*
7) Lack of prepositions with expressions of time: *I met him (on) Tuesday. I wrote (to) her last week.*
8) Pronominal usage: American English allows ‘he’ after ‘one’ which is not found in British English. *One never does what he should. One always deceives himself.*
Cross influences of American and British English The influence of American English on British English has its roots in the economic development in the 19th century which lead directly to American words for technical and specialised objects being adopted into British English and, indirectly with the coming of age of American culture, to a general and pervasive infiltration of the British word stock by Americanisms, the more general of which co-exist with their British counterparts.

movie/film; mailman/postman; mental/insane; can/tin; garbage/rubbish; window shade/blind; gas/petrol; mad/angry; raise/rise; filling station/garage; pitcher/jug; elevator/lift; reel/spool; trailer/caravan; I guess/I think; truck/lorry; lumber/timber; installment buying/hire purchase; chips/crisps; French fries/chips.

Note that the influence of American on British English has been almost entirely in the sphere of lexis. The degree of awareness of Americanisms varies greatly from item to item. In some cases the American term has successfully ousted the British one as in the case of radio for wireless; okay (which is of uncertain origin, turning up in the early 19th century) is now ubiquitous.

Certain prepositional verbs (a favourite American construction) have become part of British English without its users realizing their origin: to put sth. over; to get sth. across; to stand up to; to go back on.

Word formation. This sphere of lexicology is arguably the most innovative of American English, especially in the last few decades. For all the phenomena of our industrialised society the Americans have coined a term. The use of derivational suffixes is notable in this respect. -ster: gangster, oldster; -ician: beautician, cosmetician; -ee: escapee, returnee; -ette: roomette; drum-majorette; -ite: socialite, sub-urbanite; -ize: to winterize, to itemize, to fictionalize. Conversion as a word formational process is also exceedingly common; a bug - to bug; thumb - to thumb; commercial (adj.) commercial (noun); hike (verb) - hike (noun).

In this connection one should take note of back-formations such as jelly F to jell; enthusiasm F to enthuse; bachelor F to bach. Added to these are a variety of reductions: ad E advertisement; demo E demonstration; exam E examination which are also common in British English.

§ British and American English

Spelling

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<td>license</td>
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<td>sulfur</td>
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Vocabulary Note that in the following list the words on the left of the colon are typical of American usage and those on the right of British. However one must emphasise that there is much overlapping in usage particularly with American terms which are in use in British English.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{AE} & \quad \text{BE} \\
\text{apartment} & \quad \text{flat; trash can} \\
\text{enquiry} & \quad \text{enquiry} \\
\text{inclosure} & \quad \text{enclosure} \\
\text{cozy} & \quad \text{cosy} \\
\text{check} & \quad \text{cheque} \\
\text{draft} & \quad \text{draught} \\
\text{plow} & \quad \text{plough}
\end{align*}
\]

**Ethnic varieties of US English**

**African American English**

Some items are clearly of West African origin, such as buckra ‘white man’, tote ‘to carry’, goober ‘peanut’, yam ‘sweet potato’ (note: the origin of jazz is unknown). Semantic extensions of existing English words are: homies ‘close friends; prison inmate’, bloods ‘other blacks’, whites ‘white people’, bad ‘good, admirable’, cool ‘good, neat’, hip ‘knowledgeable’, dude ‘male’ (often disparaging). Some of these usages have diffused into general American English and from there to other languages, e.g., cool.

**Chicano English**

Apart from actual Spanish words used in English because of CODE-SWITCHING Chicano English speakers may use words related in sound but different in meaning, so-called ‘false friends’, e.g. molest to mean ‘disturb’ based on Spanish molestar with this meaning. Other
instances are extensions of English meanings, e.g. barely to mean ‘just recently’ as in She barely rang her mother.

§2 Canadian English

Canadian English contains some elements from native languages such as kayak ‘canoe of Inuit’; parka ‘skin jacket with hood attached’. It also has lexical preferences over American English, some of which are, however, receding, e.g. chesterfield for sofa. The much quoted interjection eh? is supposed to be a shibboleth for Canadians but tends to be avoided because of its all-too-obvious character.

§2 Celtic regions of Britain and Ireland

§2 Scottish English

There are borrowings from Gaelic, loch ‘lake’, sonsy ‘healthily attractive’ and Old Norse, bairn ‘child’, as well as many Scottish usages such as outwith ‘outside’, pinkie ‘little finger’. The major lexicographical works are 1) A Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue from the twelfth to the end of the seventeenth century, 2) The Scottish National Dictionary (from 1700 to the present-day). The Concise Scots Dictionary is an abridged work with material from the first two dictionaries. There is an online version of (1) and (2), see DICTIONARY OF THE SCOTS LANGUAGE. A major survey of Scots is The Linguistic Atlas of Scotland (resulting from the former research project ‘The Linguistic Survey of Scotland’ located at the University of Edinburgh); it consists of two volumes on lexis and one on phonology.

§2 Irish English

Irish English lexis can derive from English dialect input, e.g. mitch ‘truant’, chisler ‘child’, hames ‘mess’ (of Dutch origin) or from archaic pronunciation, e.g. [baul] (admiringly) for bold and [aul] (affectionately) for old, eejit /dZ@/ for idiot. Word pairs with complementary meanings are often confused: ditch is used for dyke; bring for take, rent for let; learn can be used for teach colloquially (That’ll learn ya). Older usages are also found, e.g. mad for ‘angry with’, sick for ‘ill’, bold for ‘misbehaved’. Phrasal verbs can have meanings not found elsewhere, e.g. give out ‘complain’. Words can stem from Irish, e.g. cog (< Irish cogair ‘whisper’), twig (< Irish tuigim ‘understand’), brogue ‘country accent’, gob ‘mouth’, smithereens ‘broken pieces’, blarney (placename) ‘flattery, sweet talk’. Many Irish words are used directly, e.g. ciúineas ‘silence’, piseog ‘superstition’ (Anglicised as pishogue), sláinte ‘health’ or plámás ‘flattery’ (the practice of interspersing one’s speech with the odd Irish word is known as using the cúpla focal, Irish ‘couple of words’). Specific uses of English would include crack (< Irish craic, itself a borrowing from English) ‘social enjoyment’, yoke ‘thing, device’. Some Irish words appeared in American English in the nineteenth century, e.g. slew (< Irish slua ‘crowd’). The phrase so long! may be from Irish slán ‘goodbye’ with the velarised [5] suggesting an initial unstressed syllable: [s@n]; phoney could perhaps be related to Irish fáinne [fQ@n] ‘ring’ and originally be a reference
to the sale of fake jewellery. *Galore* ‘plentiful’ (only used predicatively) < *go leor* ‘enough’ and whisk(e)y < *uisce beatha* ‘water of life’ could be from Irish or Scottish Gaelic.

§1 London English

§2 Cockney rhyming slang

A prominent feature of Cockney, and some other varieties of English, e.g. in Scotland, in which two words are used the second of which rhymes with another word which is that which is being referred to, e.g. trouble and strife for wife, dog and bone for telephone, Adam and Eve for believe, apples and pears for stairs, butcher’s hook for look, bread and cheese for sneeze.

§2 Polari [ˈpɔləri]

An ARGOT which used to be quite widespread among certain social groups in Britain, such as travellers or people working for the theatre or circus or among gay communities. It has survived in the form of a small lexicon of in-group words such as manky ‘dirty, worthless’ perhaps influenced by the Romance stem seen in French manqué ‘lacking’ or Italian mancare ‘to lack’.

§2 argot

A non-linguistic term for the speech of a particular group, e.g. a profession or trade. In general it is deliberately secretive with vocabulary and phrases not readily comprehensible to others in contact with the group in question.

§1 The Caribbean

§2 Vocabulary in pidgins and creoles

§2 Vocabulary, nautical

In pidgins and creoles there are a number of words which derive from nautical usage, e.g. galley ‘ship’s kitchen’ for kitchen in general, cargo for anything carried. The same is true in pidgins and creoles lexified by other languages. For example, Haitian Creole has ralé ‘pull’ from French haler ‘haul’ not from tirer; isé ‘lift’ from French hisser ‘hoist’ not from lever.

§2 Vocabulary, new formations in

In the input to creoles many vocabulary items were missing and the gaps were filled by creations on the part of early creole speakers, e.g. hand-middle for ‘palm’ in Jamaican Creole.

§2 Vocabulary, reallocation and extension

Reallocation is common where an English word came to have a different referent from that
in the English input. In Miskito Coast (Nicaragua) the word lion refers to a local cougar and tiger to a jaguar. Extensions can occur where an item achieves a broader scope, e.g. tea in many Caribbean creoles refers to any hot drink.

§ Jamaican English

Its vocabulary contains elements from languages present at one stage in Jamaica, e.g. habble (< Spanish hablar), door-mouth (< Yoruba iloro enu ‘threshold’, lit. ‘porch mouth’).

§ The Southern Hemisphere

§ South African English

There are two main sources for loanwords in South African English: 1) Dutch / Afrikaans, e.g. kloof ‘ravine’, kraal ‘animal pen’, veld ‘unenclosed land’, apartheid, 2) native languages of the region, especially for flora and fauna, e.g. impala type of antelope. Sometimes there are special uses of English words, e.g. shame as a positive exclamation meaning ‘how sweet’, e.g. A: They’ve got a new pup. B: Shame!. A use of ‘sorry’ as a signal of general hearer misfortune has been adopted from Blacks and occurs increasingly in White English.

§ Afrikaans English

Apart from specific terms from the region and direct borrowings from Afrikaans there are features which could be due to transfer or retention, e.g. the use of learn for teach. Afrikaans has only one word leer but dialects of English had, and some have, learn with an animate object in the sense of teach. Confusion may occur with sets of verbs with complementary meanings, e.g. lend and borrow (Afrikaans again has one word leen covering the semantic range of both these verbs). But again some dialects of English have lend in both senses. The inherited distinction of less and fewer (the former for non-countable nouns and the latter for countable ones) is not necessarily maintained, e.g. Less students are studying Afrikaans these days perhaps because Afrikaans uses min in both cases. However, the lack of this distinction could be due to its demise in more general varieties of English.

§ Australian English

HYPOCORISTICS, e.g. arvo ‘afternoon’, sickie ‘sick leave’, kiddo ‘kid’, jamies ‘pyjamas’ Aussie ‘Australia’, barbie ‘barbecue’, bickie ‘biscuit’, compo ‘workers’ compensation pay’, cozzie ‘swimming costume’ are common and a hallmark of Australian vocabulary as is, perhaps, the very widespread use of the adjective bloody. There are not many loans from Aboriginal languages and these are generally cultural terms (boomerang, corroboree, waddy) or flora and fauna (jarrah, kookaburra, kangaroo, koala, mallee) along with about one third of Australia’s place-names. An early study of vocabulary is available in Austral English (1898) by Edward E. Morris (1843-1902), enumerating over 2,000 words from Australian and New Zealand English of the time. A useful online resource is the Macquarie
hypocoristic
A term for words to which a vowel – typically /o/ or /i/ – has been added at the end, often after part of it has been truncated. Hypocoristics are typical of colloquial language, e.g. *boyo* from ‘boy’, *brillo* from ‘brilliant’ *breaky* from ‘break(fast)’, *deffo* from ‘definitely’. This process can also be applied to proper names, e.g. *Anto* < ‘Anthony’, *Rayo* < ‘Raymond’. Some varieties of English would seem to favour such formations, e.g. Australian English and local Dublin English.

§2 Hong Kong English

On the level of lexis Chinese (usually Cantonese) words are found in Hong Kong English, e.g. such as *taipan* ‘business executive’ or *pak choi* ‘type of cabbage’ as are calques such as *dragon boat*. Abbreviations are also common, e.g. *legco* ‘legislative council’ as are lexicalised expressions such as *short week* ‘week without work on Sunday’.

calques
A loan translation which is achieved by translating the recognisable sections of a compound piece by piece, e.g. Bahamian Creole *big-eye* ‘greedy’ (a calque on an original African language structure).

§ Dictionaries for varieties of English

§ Dialect dictionaries

The gathering of dialect words and their publication as lists has a long tradition in England, the most significant early work being John Ray’s *A Collection of English Words not Generally Used* (1674). In the United States this practice was continued, cf. John Pickering *A Vocabulary or Collection of Words and Phrases which have been supposed to be peculiar to the United States of America* (Boston: Cummings and Hilliard, 1816). Extracting dialect words from general dictionaries was also done, cf. W. E. A. Axon *English Dialect Words in the Eighteenth Century as Shown in the Universal Etymological Dictionary of Nathaniel Bailey* (London, 1883). The major modern treatment of dialects is Joseph Wright’s *English Dialect Dictionary* 5 vols. (London: Henry Frowde, 1898-1905). Much dialect information can be found in survey work such as A. J. Ellis’ *On Early English Pronunciation* (London, 1868-1889). The major dialect study in England in the twentieth century was the *Survey of English Dialects* which contains much lexical material gathered under the supervision of Harold Orton and published in several volumes between 1962 and 1971.

§ Archaic lexis

A reference to vocabulary items in a variety which either (i) embody an earlier meaning of current words, e.g. *bold* ‘misbehaved’, *mad* ‘very keen on’, *fall* ‘autumn’, *mail* ‘post’ in
American English or (ii) do not exist anymore in standard English English, e.g. cog ‘to cheat’, mitch ‘play truant’, delph ‘crockery, plates and dishes’ in Irish English.

§2 Flora and fauna
An area of vocabulary which generally shows many borrowings from the vocabulary of native languages in varieties outside Britain and Ireland. In general, native terms have been adopted into English when no equivalent existed already, e.g. koala, kangaroo in Australian English, kiwi in New Zealand English. In some cases the borrowing can be from an earlier European language as in the case of wildebeest or veld in South African English from Afrikaans.

§2 Neologism
A new word in the vocabulary of a language. Inventions are usually tradenames, e.g. Kodak, Nivea, Sony and as such are proper names. There are a few non-tradenames, e.g. dongle ‘software protection device’ or googol ‘number with a hundred zeros’. It is more common for words to be created from lexical material already present in a language, e.g. paraglider, cyberspace. Neologisms are distinguished from borrowings as the latter already exist in the source language.

§2 Slang
A widely used, non-linguistic term for colloquial speech which is usually unfavourably contrasted with more formal speech and with written language. The best-known historical study is probably that by Eric Partridge, originally published in 1937 and revised continually (the latest version is from 2002). Early studies are George Andrewes’ A Dictionary of the Slang and Cant Language (1809), James Hardy Vaux’ Vocabulary of the Flash Language (1819), which is a collection of words he made while a convict in Australia, and George Kent’s Modern Flash Dictionary (c. 1835). Modern dictionaries of slang are also available such as that by John Ayto & John Simpson (2010).

§2 Cant
Language specific to a certain group in society, usually one with low status, cf. thieves’ cant. The word is probably from an earlier usage with the meaning ‘crying, whinging’ (as of beggars) though the Irish word caint ‘talk’ has also been suggested.

§2 Taboo
A reference to words in a language which it is generally thought should be avoided. In Western societies such words are nowadays restricted to areas of intimate behaviour but formerly, and today in other parts of the world, different areas of language were and can be taboo, e.g. vocabulary associated with death or the supernatural. Words may become taboo in the course of time or, more frequently, taboo words may lose their special character and consequently their force. Taboo words can change across just a few generations, e.g. references to private bodily functions, as older taboo words lose their strength and become part of general vocabulary, cf. the common use of shit and fuck in colloquial forms of English across the world, e.g. This car is just a heap of shit. That really fucked up the party.
§2 Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles
A four-volume work edited by William Craigie and James R. Hulbert and published between 1938 and 1944; it was reprinted in 1968 by the University of Chicago Press.

§2 Dictionary of American Regional English (DARE)
A five-volume work which gives complete coverage of regional vocabulary in the United States. It was compiled under the supervision of Fred Cassidy and Joan Houston Hall at the University of Wisconsin at Madison and published between 1985 and 2012 by Harvard University Press.

§2 Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles
A major lexicographical work compiled under the supervision of Walter Avis (1919-1979) and published in Toronto in 1967 (there is an online version accessible at http://dchp.ca/DCHP-1/). In 2006 a comprehensive revision was initiated at the University of British Columbia as the project DCHP-2. This new version is projected for online access in 2014 under http://dchp.ca/DCHP-2/.

§2 Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage
A major dictionary which evolved out of the Caribbean Lexicographical Project, established in 1971 and based at the University of West Indies. Its goal was to document Caribbean Standard English while recording vocabulary common in more informal varieties across the anglophone Caribbean including forms of Creole.

§2 Dictionary of New Zealandisms on Historical Principles
The main lexicographical source for New Zealand English, compiled under the supervision of Harold William Orsman (1928-2002) and published in 1998 by Oxford University Press.

§2 Dictionary of Newfoundland English

§2 Dictionary of South African English
The main dictionary of English in South Africa with the subtitle ‘A Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles’. Compiled under the supervision of Penny Silva at Rhodes University, Grahamstown and published by Oxford University Press in 1996.

§2 Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue (DOST)
A dictionary of the documents of Scots from the twelfth to the seventeenth centuries. Its main editor was William CRAIGIE and the 12 volumes were published by Oxford University Press between 1937 and 2002. See SCOTTISH NATIONAL DICTIONARY.
$\textbf{Dictionary of the Scots Language}$

An electronic resource at http://www.dsl.ac.uk/ which combines the DICTIONARY OF THE OLDER SCOTTISH TONGUE and the SCOTTISH NATIONAL DICTIONARY along with supplementary material (to 2005) to provide a comprehensive online service covering the entire history of Scots.

$\textbf{Oxford English Dictionary}$

A proposal was made by Richard Chevonix TRENCH in 1857 to the Philological Society to design a new dictionary which would serve as a definitive work on the vocabulary of English with complete historical coverage. The Scotsman James MURRAY became the main editor. The first volume, letter ‘A’, appeared in 1888 and all twelve volumes were published in 1928 as A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles in 1928. A thirteenth supplement volume came out in 1933 (after which it was called the Oxford English Dictionary published by Oxford University Press). The twenty-volume second edition appeared in 1989 (this is also available electronically). Work on a much expanded third edition is underway at present (2012). The Oxford English Dictionary contains much dialect information, especially in the historical context of English in England and Scotland. There are studies of the planning and compilation of the Oxford English Dictionary, e.g. that by Lynda Mugglestone (2005) and by Charlotte Brewer (2003).