

# **Morphosyntactic Differences between Standard and Australian English**

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## **ABSTRAKT**

Tato práce se zabývá nastíněním a popsáním morfosyntaktických rozdílů mezi standardní a australskou angličtinou. V první části (teorie) jsou zpracovány klíčové pojmy jako jsou standardní angličtina a její varianty, akcent a dialekt. Další část je věnována australské angličtině převážně její historii, členění, vlivům a hlavním rysům. V druhé části jsou nastíněna morfosyntaktická specifika australské angličtiny a jejich porovnání se standardní angličtinou.

Klíčová slova: australská angličtina, standardní angličtina, morfologie, syntax

## **ABSTRACT**

The thesis focuses on outlining and describing morphosyntactic differences between Standard and Australian English. In the First part (theory), information about key concepts, such as Standard English and varieties of English, accent and dialect is provided. Another section is given to Australian English, mainly its history, varieties, influences and main features. In the Second part morphosyntactic specifics of Australian English and their comparison with Standard English are outlined.

Keywords: Australian English, Standard English, morphology, syntax

I hereby declare that the print version of my Bachelor's thesis and the electronic version of my thesis deposited in the IS/STAG system are identical.

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## INTRODUCTION

When talking about English varieties, people almost immediately think of British and American English and have little trouble finding several examples to illustrate a difference between them. Australian English on the other hand is something where people are not so certain anymore, finding it hard to spot a difference, same as listing some examples that could prove to be tricky, particularly for people who do not speak English.

English language has been gaining in importance in the past decades, and these days it is almost necessary to know and speak English well, which is required in many professions, jobs and in various situations. English language is considered to be a global language. How does a language become global? A language gains this status by developing a special role that is acknowledged in every country. These countries around the world must embrace this language and choose to include it in their communities (Crystal 2003, 3-4). One of the reasons why English is considered to be a global language is simply due to the fact that the British empire used to be spread out across the globe, making voyages and creating colonies. Another reason is that English people were bringing their language with them and interacting with the natives on other continents. As time went on English language seeded deeply into various international domains such as political life, communication, education and many more.

The primary aim of this thesis is to compare Australian and Standard (British) English, what the differences are, and what they have in common, as well as to provide information about Australian English to help the reader broaden his perspective about this concrete variety, as well as his knowledge of English language in general. In addition to this it may be useful as well for people who are planning to visit Australia, or are in employment with people from Australia, people who speak Australian English, or have an Australian friend. Several facets are stressed out with a main focus on morphology, syntax and grammar of English language. A concise history of both Australia and Australian English is included to give an overview of how it has evolved till the present day.

## **FIRST PART (THEORY)**

# 1 STANDARD ENGLISH AND ITS VARIETIES

Standard English is used in English-speaking countries to write books, magazines, newspapers, almost everything that uses a printed form. This English is called 'standard' because of undergoing standardization, meaning it has gone through a process, where it has been selected, codified and stabilized, unlike other varieties. Standard English is used when people learn to write and read, but it is not used for speaking. Only a minority of British people speak in Standard English (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 1-2).

The process of codification, as mentioned before, means that the grammar of Standard English has been given an account in words, including all the relevant characteristics, and acknowledged by the public in dictionaries and grammar books, and its norms taken as 'correct'. As for the stabilization, it means that Standard English has an uniform and stable form. However, all of this is only relative. The Standard English differs in various parts of English speaking countries. The history and special status of Standard English are what makes it different from other varieties (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 1-2).

One of the differences between Standard English and other varieties is a distinction between the past tense forms of the auxiliary verb *to do* and those of the main verb *to do*. Standard English uses *did* for the past tense in both cases 'He did it, did he?', unlike other varieties, where the auxiliary has the past tense in the form of *did*, but the main verb has the past tense in the form of *done* 'He done it, did he?' (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 2).

Another difference is that there is no negative concord in Standard English. The majority of nonstandard varieties have it, where negative forms are grammatically in an agreement with one another throughout a clause, for example 'She couldn't see none nowhere.', in this example all the words that can take a negative form do so. On the other hand, in Standard English, this negative concord or grammatical agreement is not present: 'She couldn't see any anywhere.' (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 2).

Standard English has an irregular way of forming when it comes to reflexive pronouns, some forms are based on the possessive pronouns such as 'myself, yourself, ourselves, yourselves', and other forms are based on the object pronouns 'herself, themselves'. Opposite to this are nonstandard varieties with their regular system, using possessive forms with the help of for example 'myself, yourself, hisself, ourselves, yourselves, theirsleves' (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 2-3).

Standard English has another irregular form, specifically a past form of the verb *to be*, where it differentiates between singular and plural, and it is unique to this verb: singular is for 'I was, she was' and plural for 'we were, they were'. The majority of nonstandard varieties has the same form for singular and plural, but it goes for all of them, without the distinction, as in 'I was, he was, we was, you was, they was' or 'I were, she were, we were, you were, they were' (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 3).

Last but not least of many examples, Standard English unnecessarily differentiates, regarding a majority of irregular verbs, between past tense and perfect verb forms by using different past tense and past participle forms as well as the auxiliary verb *have*, for example 'They have seen her, He could have gone' versus 'They saw her, He went'. Many other nonstandard varieties do not have this distinction between the past tense and past participle forms, and rather rely on the presence versus absence of *have* alone, as in these examples 'We have seen her, She could have went' versus 'We seen her, She went' (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 3).

An important thing to stress is the codification and disparateness of Standard English, which do not extend beyond grammar to any other areas of language usage. There does not have to be a connection between the opposition of standard and nonstandard, or formal and informal. When looking at varieties of language from the point of view of relative formality, they are de facto *styles* — formal styles for formal situations, and informal styles for informal situations. As for stylistic differences in English, they are for the most part determined and communicated by a choice of words. Examples of all these points mentioned above would be these sentences:

'The results can't be introduced due to a lack of time.'

'Results cannot be introduced due to a lack of time.'

'He doesn't believe that the information is valid.'

'The information is not believed to be valid.'

'Her friend got over her illness.'

'Her friend recovered from her illness.'

'The mob was very rowdy during the protest against tax increase.'

'The crowd was very rowdy during the protest against tax increase.'

'It was raining cats and dogs.'

'It was raining heavily.' (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 3).

Speakers and writers of both Standard English and other varieties have vast range of styles available to them, and can even use slang and swear. There is no rule saying that speakers have to be formal in Standard English, they can be informal too, just as they can be formal in nonstandard varieties. Standardization also does not go beyond pronunciation. There is no such thing as a Standard English accent. Standard English can be spoken with any pronunciation (Hannah and Trudgill 2013, 3-4).

English is overall considered as the world's most important language, some may even call it *lingua franca*. It is worth looking at the basis of why English is considered to be an international language. There are so many languages all over the world, and each one is important to those who speak it as their native language. However, there is more to it. Several criteria can be used in order to comprehend why it is like that. The first one is how many people speak the language. The second one how much is the language geographically widespread. The third one how important is the language mainly from a cultural point of view, scientific, literature and so on. The fourth one being what influence, economic and political, do the native speakers of that language have (Greenbaum, Leech, Quirk and Svartvik 1989, 3).

For English language, the number of English native speakers is roughly more than 300 million. On the other hand the number of all people speaking English is much larger, about 1500 million people, which is more than a third of the world's population. This is due to the fact that British empire had colonies all over the world and English language was the official language at that time. As for the third criterion there were many famous literature writers, Shakespeare included, not to mention the British empire was one of the first countries where industrialization began thus English language was used in science and technology. The fourth criterion refers to for example Russian, Japanese or German which are languages of powerful nations, but English is used in United States as well, which was one of the two world's superpowers during the Cold War and still is among the strongest states. *Lingua franca* is not based on the structure or the richness of the language but on political, economic and demographic aspects (Greenbaum, Leech, Quirk and Svartvik 1989, 3).

## 2 ACCENT AND DIALECT

There are two important terms, accent and dialect, which are used to explain a specific way of speaking a language. They may often confuse people, to use them interchangeably, and it can be hard to tell a difference between them, some even say they are the same thing, but that is not true. A dialect is a variety of the language, with differences in grammar, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and pronunciation, which set it apart from other varieties. Therefore, Standard (British) English is a dialect of English, as well as Australian English and others. It is a form of a language that came from the primary language. On the other hand, accent is a part of a dialect and means differences in pronunciation, how people speak differently in the same language. There is also another point of view regarding accents and dialects, that dialect is referred to how people speak their native language, whereas accent is how someone speaks a foreign language, for example someone speaking English with a Russian accent (Hughes, Trudgill and Watt 2013, 3,13).

Taking a closer look at a dialect, linguists say it is a certain form of a language people speak in a selected region or within a social group, with differences in grammar, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and pronunciation. Dialects are closely connected to geographical locations, and are divided into Standard dialects, which can be thought of as official, and Non-standard, unofficial. Standard dialects are used in public speeches, schools, television and so on. The Standard dialects are considered to be of higher social status, used by people of higher social class, with higher education. Non-standard dialects could be considered the opposite of Standard dialects, with not enough prestige, used by people of lower social status. The Non-standard dialects are usually not acceptable at schools. Taking into an account the social status of the speakers and where they live, there is another way to classify dialects: regional and social. Regional dialects is about differences in an extensive geographical area where people use the language. This term is also used by linguists to describe differences according to a geography. It is the most common and used type of distinction. Social dialects, on the other hand, constitute disparities in speech, connected to the speakers class or a social group, and show differences between different social groups. Simply put, regional dialects are about a physical division, where people come from, and social dialects are about social division, who people are (Hughes, Trudgill and Watt 2013, 3, 10, 13, 59-71).

When specific dialects start appearing in a written form, such as literature, administration, or economy, on a large area, it begins to be a standard language. When

members of a society, the powerful, rich ones, start to use a language variety, other people, of lower classes usually, perceive it as a model for them. That is why academic institutions, dictionaries, and also the government intervene to help diminish, if not eliminate these deviations, and create linguistic norms. Every standard language has its own diversity of accents with a possibility of having regional variations in vocabulary and grammar. People are often inclined to prejudices in their society and judge others, who speak differently. There is no 'correct English', and if people follow the rules of a certain dialect, then they use the English correctly (Hughes, Trudgill and Watt 2013, 3, 10, 13, 59-71).

A problem that may often occur regarding foreign accents is a systemic social justice issue, where people struggle to get a job, education, or healthcare. Scientists presume that the case for this discrimination has something to do with a human's brain, how it processes when someone speaks with a foreign accent. It is more difficult to understand and the brain must put in an extra effort to process when a person speaks with a foreign accent. This is probably why people are reluctant to believe something spoken with a foreign accent. People take the speech with a foreign accent as carrying a less weight regarding a truthfulness, and they do not remember much of what has been said to them by the speakers with a foreign accent (Moyer 2013, 5), (Menon 2006, 188).

## 3 AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH

### 3.1 History and influences

The English language appeared in Australia in the late eighteenth century with the arrival of the British. At that time the British were facing a situation what to do with all of the prisoners. The reason why there were so many prisoners is that during this period of time it was not hard to become a prisoner, from major crimes to petty ones, due to the poverty and tough laws and other causes, though most of them were not criminals, they committed small petty thefts, forced by these hard times (Richards 2015, 17).

With the loss of the American colonies the England lost a potential place where the prisoners could have been sent to. They did not know what to do with so many prisoners, putting them wherever they could, for example old abandoned ships in ports, until one day Sir Joseph Banks, who was a part of Captain James Cook's Tour, came up with an idea of shipping the prisoners to Botany Bay. The original plan was to ship the prisoners to Africa, but then it was decided to transport them to Australia, because they wanted to keep the convicts as far as possible. At that time Australia was discovered not long ago by the mentioned Captain James Cook (Richards 2015, 17-18).

#### 3.1.1 Native people

However, the British were not the first to discover, or come to Australia. There were also Spanish and Dutch people. Also Ancient Greece and Rome mention Australia in their records. And of course Aboriginal people have lived there long ago, based on archaeological discoveries. There is also a probability they came from south Asia during the last ice age, thanks to the sea level being lower than usual and an ice covering the ground. As time went on they spread all over the Australian continent, and when the ice age ended they were stuck there (Clarke 2002, 6-10).

The Indigenous Australian people were mainly hunters and gatherers, like any other throughout the world at that time, but they also had a great respect for the land they were living on, so if there were enough supplies of food and water they usually stayed there. Most of the supplies they shared between each other and did not store them much. They had neither social classes, nor a chieftain. There were no conflicts over the land between the tribes, because of their respect to the land, and each tribe had their own land and that land was sacred to them (Ward 1992, 12-14).



### 3.1.2 English language in Australia

In the year 1788 and the following years many convicts and their escort made landfall in Botany Bay and then in Sydney Cove where they settled in, creating a first colony and so the English language came to Australia. These convicts were put to work such as agricultural tasks, construction work, urban trades and so on, to help build this first colony, everyone was working together. Not only they had difficulties to survive on a whole different continent, but they also found it hard to understand each other. The reason for that was that all these people were from different parts of Britain with many various accents and dialects and slang words. They had different words; same tools, or tasks had distinct names, some words had entirely different meanings, or were totally new (Richards 2015, 18-19).

This was probably a beginning of Australian English, all those dialects being adopted and shaped by the convicts, guards and officers, and later also free settlers seeking a new life, or to start from the beginning. The people in the colony started to use each other's regionalisms and slang words, finding a common speech and understanding, shaping all these different dialects into one, some words from Aboriginal people were also incorporated; and so the British English slowly changed into a new dialect, the first signs of a birth of Australian English that has developed into today's form with its own distinctive pattern, accent, and verbal inventions (Richards 2015, 20-21).

Speaking of the words adopted from Indigenous people it was only natural the settlers would turn to them for help as these settlers were on an entirely different and strange continent surrounded by plants and animals (kangaroo, platypus, koala) they have not encountered before, this goes also for items the local people were using, such as weapons (boomerang), houses (gunyah) and terms regarding their culture. The settlers did not have names for them, so they often made contact with the locals. It is worth noting that there were many tribes living in Australia, and each tribe had different words for same things. The example words mentioned above were taken from Dharuk people who lived closest to the first colony, that is probably why many of the words from Dharuk people, than any other tribes, are in Australian English. The relationship between the settlers and locals was not exactly friendly, the settlers denied the locals access to areas they occupied, but on the other hand the it was not hostile either, each group found the other one interesting and wanted to learn more about them. It was better than in the American colonies, between the settlers and Indians (Richards 2015, 34-35).

### 3.1.3 Slang and words of convicts

The convicts were probably the most important and interesting group that helped to create the Australian English. As mentioned previously, there were diverse groups among the convicts. However, one group among them stood out. This particular group comprised of professional criminals and crooks and they were using their own language called "the flash language". They used this special type of language as a code to communicate with each other, even in the presence of others without them knowing what the crooks were talking about. In connection to this topic, there was a man named James Hardy Vaux, and he compiled a *Vocabulary of the Flash Language*. This dictionary contained around 750 headwords and was describing how this slang language was used. Several words from this dictionary were adopted, which are thought of as being Australian, for example swag - a bundle, or a package; cove - the master of the house or shop, basically a man; awake - to comprehend something (Richards 2015, 25-30).

Apart from the slang language the convicts also contributed to Australian language by adopting words from guards, military guards and officers to be precise, thus the guards contributed as well. Since the people guarding the convicts were mostly military, it is natural that many words come from the military use. For example in Britain they have farms, in America they call it a ranch, and in Australia due to the military influence it is called a station. Another example would be that in Britain there are civil servants, people who work for the government such as bureaucrats, and in Australia there are public servants. This is because convicts did not like the name convicts, so in time as new names were being made up, the final form was public servants. Another interesting word taken from America is bushranger. In America it was originally called frontiersman and it is someone who lives and works in the woods. However, in Australia the convict influence changed the word and meaning of it from frontiersman into a bushranger, which is someone who robs people and hides in the wilderness. Next word new chum is someone who is new to something, with no experience. New prisoners who arrived in Australia were called new chums by other convicts (Richards 2015, 43-45).

### 3.1.4 The gold rush

Almost a hundred years since the first landing of convicts and their escort there was a major event that affected and changed Australian colonies, both the economy and the ethnicity; the gold rush. In the 1850s, vast deposits of gold were found in Australia, mainly

in the south-east and river banks. This of course attracted many people. The irresistible thought of becoming rich brought in a great number of people from various nations, the British, American, French, German, Italian, Polish, Hungarian and Chinese people. It took only about two years and the number of new arrivals was bigger than the number of convicts and settlers already living there. Naturally all these new arrivals brought with them their own words and dialects affecting the Australian English (Macintyre 2009, 87-88).

These new arrivals made the Australian English to stand out even more. And as any other event or a situation, the gold rush brought in new terms and words. Probably the most important word connected to this is a word *digger*. Someone who digs, in this case gold. This word has changed its meaning over time as well. Originally it was used in connection with agricultural workers or miners. In the nineteenth century during the gold rush, a digger was the one working in a goldfield. In the present day there is a word gold digger, which has carried over time, and it is someone who starts a romantic relationship for money rather than love. From the word digger came many other variants such as digger costume, diggerdom, diggeress, or digger hunt. Another word that originated from the gold rush and goldfields is *fossick*. To fossick meant to look for gold on the surface in a not organized way. These days people can fossick for anything, not just the gold. An equivalent in British English would be to rummage. To summarize this, the gold rush contributed mainly, that people living in Australia, as well as others from other continents realized and knew by now, that a new dialect of the English language came to be. This dialect that in time became Australian English was rich, inventive, and colourful, with its own vocabulary and sounds (Richards 2015, 67-70).

### 3.1.5 Rise of the Australian language

At the end of the nineteenth century Australian English is beginning to take a proper shape. A book called *A Dictionary of Austral English* appeared in 1898. It was the very first official and academic dictionary of Australian English. This book takes words and expressions since the first settlement. Austral means in this case southern. Another publication appearing at that time was a magazine called *The Bulletin*, founded by John Haynes and John Feltham Archibald. Its focus was around politics, business, some literary content, editions with pictures and illustrations. What is more, it inspired and motivated people to contribute to this magazine, thus supporting Australian writing, and in a way

celebrate their language. Australian English could have been seen and read in print for the first time (Richards 2015, 86-87).

On 1 January 1901 the colonies joined together creating the nation of Australia, a federation, and with it the Australian English was born, to be this nation's language. One important writer living and writing during the birth of Australian nation was CJ Dennis. What sets him apart in his writing is the distinguishing language he was using, which was a form of Australian English that was spoken in the backstreets of Melbourne. This form of Australian English came from an inner-city group called larrikins. The writing and verse CJ Dennis was using is a proof that Australian English was and is a vibrant and colourful (Richards 2015, 97-100).

### **3.1.6 World at war**

Nobody knows for certain why rapid changes occur in a language during a war, but it is happening. Probably as many different people are put together, sharing the same goal, being put under a pressure and stress. Warfare brings a vast amount of words regarding weapons, vehicles, strategies, tactics, and so on. And so new words appeared, some became permanent and used in the language after the war ended. During this time Australian English was growing and changing. This is relevant to a fact that many Australians enlisted, or were drafted into the war, and during the wartime Australian slang was changed by a great deal, foreign words were assimilated, influenced by form of words, set expressions and phrases in novels, and exotic ideas. An important person connected to this topic who stood out among others was Walter Hubert Dowling. He was born in Australia, at Portland, Victoria to be precise. He enlisted in 1915 and witnessed it all first-hand. After the war ended, he returned home to Australia and in 1919 published a book with a name Digger Dialects. This book is a dictionary containing about 900 words and phrases that Australians used during the war (Richards 2015, 110). The word digger has developed again and slightly changed its meaning. It was no longer a person working on a goldfield since the gold rush has ended, now it was a military slang term used for soldiers from Australia and New Zealand, who were mostly former miners and workers on a goldfield, they were digging trenches and defences now (Richards 2015, 112).

Probably the most notable word that came to be and was used during the World War 1 is a word Anzac. It was created from the initial letters of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps, an acronym, and was used as a telegraphic code. This word became so

important to the Australian nation that laws were passed in 1920 in order to protect and control its use, and it is now copyright. In time it was no longer an acronym (ANZAC), but became officially a word (Richards 2015, 111).

### **3.1.7 Australian language at homes**

Australian English has been enriched by another aspect of the society, namely from the homes of people. Since the first arrival of convicts and their guards, there were always more men than women. Most of the women stayed at home taking care of the house and looking after their children, while men were out working. These mums and their kids were coining words, phrases, and expressions, giving an insight into the private life of Australians (Richards 2015, 119-120).

A woman named Nancy Keesing, who was one of these mums, was a writer and worked for *The Bulletin*. She was an Australian poet, editor and promoter of Australian literature who wrote novels, poetry and memoirs. In her book called *Lily on the Dustbin*, she is describing the slang that Australian women and families used. This slang was called *Familyspeak*. She decided to write this book, because there were not many authors writing about this topic. Another thing is that she was using mainly oral sources than printed ones. Drawing on her own experience and memories, as well as her friends, family, and women who called her on radio and shared their stories (Richards 2015, 120-121).

## **3.2 Varieties**

Australian English is comparatively similar to British and American English. One might say it is a mix of those two. Australian English has its own varieties as well. These varieties, the major ones, are more of a socio-cultural character than a regional one. The three main varieties of Australian language that are spoken are general, broad, and cultivated. All three are part of a continuum, and reflect variations in accent. The varieties are determined by vocabulary and pronunciation of vowels. They can also, but not necessarily, tell something about a person's social class, education and rural or urban background. Apart from sex and class having an effect on the variations, there is another relevant factor, which is ethnicity (Blair and Collins 2001, 8-10).

General Australian English is spoken by a majority of Australian population and is the most common one. It is especially important and famous in urban Australia, often used in Australian films, television, and advertising. Broad Australian English is the strongest

Australian accent, cognizable and well known among English speakers. It is widespread particularly nationwide, but mainly occurring in the countryside. People using Broad Australian English are considered to be humorous, and talkative. Cultivated Australian English has been in the past regarded as an accent of high social class and education. People speaking Cultivated Australian English were being thought of as more intelligent, competent, reliable, and honest (Blair and Collins 2001, 8-10).

Aboriginal English is another dialect in socio-cultural variation of Australian English spoken a lot, and sometimes written by Indigenous Australians, which has been developing independently of, and alongside the Australian English. Various forms of Aboriginal English have developed in different parts of Australia. They range in similarity in between to Standard Australian English and non-standard forms. It has distinguishing attributes in accent, grammar, and vocabulary (Blair and Collins 2001, 201-202).

## **SECOND PART**

Both morphology and syntax form a division of a grammar, and they are all fundamental parts of linguistics. They help to understand how language works and how it is formed. Dealing with the understanding of how words are formed is what morphology does, while syntax is concerned with a development of sentences. Basically morphology studies a structure of words, and syntax studies a structure of sentences (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 4).

Australian English is mostly similar - at any linguistic level or at any level of standardness - to British, and American English at that, given how American English largely influenced Australian English as well. Australian English is often considered to be a mix of British and American English. The level of similarity also applies to non-standard Australian English. Even the forms which may seem distinct can be elucidated in reference to non-nativeness or Aboriginal background (Blair and Collins 2001, 113).



## 4 MORPHOLOGY

For Australian English, a lot of morphological attributes are not obligatory, or even not present at all, unlike Standard English, where they are required to be. The reason for this may be partly as a carry-over of the processes of simplification from the early varieties, as the Australian English was evolving, or it may also be a result of communicative strategies, due to a fact, that Australian English speakers tend to refrain from explicitness and expect the listener to understand everything they say, to interpret it correctly from the context (Leitner and Malcolm 2008, 155).

### 4.1 Morphemes - plural, singular, tense

The plural suffix, which is added to words to mark their plural form, for example in the word 'dogs' is not that common and used in Australian English. On the other hand, in Standard English, plural nouns are identified by the 's' at the end of a word. The 's' is also added to the end of a verb which is in present tense. For example in Australian English it is said 'Her two cat.', whereas in British English it would be 'Her two cats.'. The plural 's' suffix was omitted in the word 'cat' in the first sentence. In Australian English, the noun can also have the regular inflection for plural, where it is not required in Standard English, for example 'peoples, mices, feets, teeths, lices' (Leitner and Malcolm 2008, 155).

In Australian English the suffix 'ed' to identify past tense, for example in the word 'watched', is not used. Australian English speaker would say 'They lock 'im up.' instead of 'They locked him up.', omitting the 'ed' in the word 'locked' to indicate the past tense. Even in their regular verbs Aboriginal speakers do not use past tense, they say 'I wake 'im up' instead of 'I woke him up' (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1568-1570).

### 4.2 Morphemes - possession

Standard English speakers use 's' at the end of a noun to indicate the possession. But Australian English speakers do not use it. Instead of saying 'Greg's car' as the Standard English speakers would use, they say 'Greg car', leaving out the 's' suffix, which indicates its possession. Another example is when in Australian English they say 'baby toy' and not 'baby's toy'. This is different from the previous one, not using the plural suffix has changed the meaning of the phrase. The word 'baby' would be considered as an adjective rather than a noun. This is a main difference between the Australian English and Standard English.

What is also really interesting to point out is that Australian English speakers use prepositions like 'blong' or 'bla' in connection with the possession instead of using the possession morpheme 's'. For example a phrase 'baby blong toy' in Australian English means 'the baby's toy' in Standard English (Shopen 1987, 181).

### 4.3 Pronouns

In comparison with Standard English, Australian English has a simplified pronoun system, where the pronouns in the third person are shortened and are able to be used in subject position, for example 'e, im, dey, dem', meaning in Standard English 'he, him, they, them'. The third person singular pronoun also not always differentiates gender, thus 'e' can be either *he, she or it*. In addition to this, the pronoun system of Australian English, mainly in creole influenced areas, has some additional distinctions, not found in Standard English, such as 'you two, you-n-him'. Another example is where possessive pronouns change forms, as in 'hees - he, mines or mys - mine', and the reflexive pronouns 'hissself - himself, theysself/theirslef - themselves'. The third person personal pronoun can also function as a possessive pronoun, for example 'They all got they coat on' (Leitner and Malcolm 2008, 156).

### 4.4 Adjectives

In Australian English, adjectives may have a suffix *-est* without a meaning of superlative as it is in the Standard English, an example would be 'a tallest tree', in Standard English it means 'a very tall tree'. Words from Aboriginal sources may also carry adverbial suffixes, such as 'moornest - very black or blackest', used in Nyungar/Noongar. Adjectives, mainly predicative ones, can have nominalizing suffixes *-one* or *fella*, for example 'tasty-one, same-one, clever-fella' (Leitner and Malcolm 2008, 156).

### 4.5 Verbs

The verb is not always inflected when it comes to the third person in the simple present tense, as in 'She still work in that company.', and does not have to have a past tense marking when the sentence meaning is past, for example 'Yesterday he work till midnight.'. Some verbs, such as *see, do, run, come*, do not allow to have their base form in the past tense in Standard English, and the past participle form in connection with these verbs is generally used to express simple past tense, and some verbs have irregular past tense forms (ate, rang, began) formed by analogy with the inflections of other verbs. The verb can also

express the past tense with the pre-verbal marker *bin*. This is mainly used in most of the outlying and rural areas. For example 'They bin go to the cinema.'. As for the future tense, Australian English usually uses *gonna or gotta*, and almost never uses perfect tense, unlike Standard English, which uses modal auxiliary. The progressive verb tense, also called the continuous tense uses the present participle, and rarely in connection with the auxiliary, for example 'They just sitting.'. Negation is also an interesting phenomenon in Australian English. Simple negation uses *not, never* or, in some places, *nomore* before the verb. Especially double negatives are common in Australian English, influenced by settlers' dialects, whereas in Standard English they are not used, for example 'I haven't got nothing., I don't have anything. He doesn't play no more.' In Australian English, the verb *to be* is not as prominent as in Standard English, because it is not generally used as a copula or as an auxiliary. It can be seen rarely used in the present tense, and as for the past tense, the morphology of it is regularized, by using either *was* or *bin* for all persons. Regarding existential and passive sentences, Australian English prefers the verb *get*, while Standard English uses the verb *be*, for example 'E got some water there. - There is some water., got captured - were captured' (Leitner and Malcolm 2008, 156-157).

## 4.6 Adverbs

Unlike the usual suffix *-ly*, which is required in Standard English, adverbs in Australian English have suffixes *-way, -time*, each used accordingly, whether they are adverbs of manner of time, for example 'short-way, south-way, slow-way, great-time, early-time' (Leitner and Malcolm 2008, 157).

## 4.7 Question tag

For Australian English it is common for questions to end with a question tag. For most of Australia the tag is 'eh?', in the South Australia 'inna' is used, and in the south west of Western Australia 'unna' is utilized. These three tags have the same meaning as 'isn't it so?', or 'isn't that right?' in Standard English. Some sentences in Australian English are for example 'They fly, eh?' meaning 'They fly, isn't that so?' in Standard English, and 'best friends forever and ever unna' to mean 'best friends forever and ever isn't that right?' in Standard English (Leitner and Malcolm 2008, 155).

## 4.8 Hypocoristics

English speakers have a large number of ways of how to make hypocoristic forms of words or names, which have in common a part of the same form, same denotation, but not a same connotations. It is basically a diminutive form of a word or name. It is especially favoured and widely used in Australian English, and also very important, because of the quantity that came into Australian English, thus making it more rich. Hypocoristics can be found almost everywhere all over the Australia. The usage of hypocoristics is an aspect of the speech of many Australians regarding common and proper nouns. Most of these hypocoristic forms concern names which are used mainly in Australia. They include names of countries (Australia - OZ, Aussie, The Lucky Country), states (Victoria - Vicco), towns (Melbourne - Melbs), suburbs (Bondi - Scum Valley), sports grounds (The WACA), schools (St. Stanislaus School - Stannies), or buildings (Wentworth Building - Wenty), and others (Blair and Collins 2001, 89-90).

When it comes to creating hypocoristics the most favoured way is (usually) a combination of clipping and adding a suffix 'ie' or 'i, y', for example Crows Nest - Crowie, biscuit - bickie, football - footy. However, there are words, which are used only with the 'ie' suffix, for example bookie. The suffixes 'ie, i, y' can have many meanings: babytalk (mammy, daddy), occupation nouns (postie - postman, firie - fire-engine officer), adjectives (balmy, dotty, kooky, loony) (Blair and Collins 2001, 104-105).

Another suffix that is used is 'o'. It can be observed in Irish English, as well as in Australian English (since some of the convicts, that arrived in Australia were of Irish origin) regarding hypocoristics of common nouns and personal names, having no problem to violate the word-final constraint as in the examples: Pascoe Vale - Packo, afternoon - arvo, Condobolin - Condo. The suffix 'o' on hypocoristics is barely used, if at all, in other English speaking countries, with only one example in the United Kingdom: Wandsworth Prison - Wanno (Blair and Collins 2001, 105).

The suffix 's' is more common for personal names, as in 'Gabs - Gabrielle, Mares - Mary, Pabs - Pablo', however it can be used for other names, such as place-names 'Margs - Margaret River area' (Blair and Collins 2001, 106).

The suffix 'a', generally written 'er' is used agentively in English to form nouns derived from verbs, such as 'biter - bite', though in Australian English it has an extended use and

the words can be for example 'chockfull - chocker, imma - immature, guts - to come a gutser (to fall off) (Blair and Collins 2001, 106).

The use of *the* is common in Australian English as well, deriving from a use of a topographic descriptor as a replacement for a compound name that includes the topographic descriptor, for example 'The Isa - Mount Isa, The Port - Port Adelaide'. These names, among others, have perceived uniqueness and people in Australia know that port or mountain. The hypocoristics of such words can be the first word, but the last word is more used, as in 'The Gabba - Wooloongabba, the hills - Surry Hills, the Creek - Julia Creek'. This strategy can also serve as an extension to other hypocoristics, where a part of a name is taken to be used as hypocoristics, for example 'The Wello - The Wellington Hotel, The Bav Tav - The Bavarian Tavern, the Reach - Longreach', or as mentioned before the first word, as in 'the Alice - Alice Springs'. The last part of the word can be taken and treated as a head to create another extension, such as 'the Cutta - Tarcutta, the Wheel - Camoweal, the Donga - Wodonga' (Blair and Collins 2001, 107).

## 5 SYNTAX

The general rule for Australian English sentence word order is the subject-verb-object/extension, but it can also follow the Standard English word order, the subject-verb-complement. However, the difference is that in Australian English it varies in that a number of elements of syntax which are required are either not obligatory or need distinct exponents. A subject noun phrase in Australian English allows in a sentence to have only a noun without a determiner, unlike in Standard English where a determiner is required, for example 'Hunter went hunting an e sawn a fox an e followed to ees lair.', meaning in Standard English 'A hunter went hunting and he saw a fox and he followed it to its lair.', there can also be a different determiner, such as 'one red apple bin fall down', meaning 'a red apple fell down'. Similar thing is also in the verb phrase in the object or extension, where it can have no determiner, as in 'We went to cinema.', in Standard English 'We went to the/a cinema.' (Leitner and Malcolm 2008, 157).

Interesting thing to point out is that a large number of syntactic features, regarding formal styles mostly, is in fact characteristically Australian, yet Australians do not usually recognize it as such. Australian English is much less syntactically different from British English than British and American English are from each other (Blair and Collins 2001, 115).

### 5.1 Debatable usage

It is believed that *usedn't to*, which is a preferred negative of *used to*, for example 'He usedn't to do it.', is more popular in Australia than in Britain (or America), where British English uses more *didn't use(d) to*, 'He didn't use(d) to do it.'. All these forms are informal because of the -n't. The more formal version would be *used not to*, as in 'He used not to do it.'. There is a debate, which version is correct and should be used (Blair and Collins 2001, 116-117).

Aboriginal English speakers generally prefer to use a grammatical pattern of local Aboriginal languages in using prepositions, than the conventions of Standard English. As an example, when Aboriginal English speakers say 'He frighten from spiders', meaning in Standard English 'He is frightened of spiders'. This shows that the word 'from' has the same meaning in Aboriginal English as 'of' in Standard English. A different example is when Aboriginal speakers say 'I go back up the teacher', meaning 'I went back to the teacher' in Standard English. In this case, the preposition 'to' has been omitted and needs to be

deduced from context alone. The prepositions *to*, *from*, *than* are all used in Australian, British and American English, but they tend to be favoured more in certain a certain country. Australian English prefers *to*, which is more accepted in an informal context than in formal; British English uses mostly *from*, and American English *than* (Blair and Collins 2001, 117-118).

Some Aboriginal English speakers use 'la' or 'longa'. These words were borrowed from Kriol, and made into prepositions, and their meaning in Standard English is *on*, *in*, *at* or *to*. A model example is when Aboriginal English speakers say 'They never been la town.', meaning 'They have never been in town.' in Standard English. In this example, the word 'la' serves as a replacement of the preposition 'in' in Standard English. As for the word 'longa', an example where it is used to replace the preposition 'at' in Standard English would be 'She wait longa home'. In Standard English it means the same thing as 'She waits at home.' (Malcolm 2018, 87).

## 5.2 Australian usage

Australian English allows an usage of both singular and plural forms regarding names of sports teams, whereas British English on the other hand permits only a plural form. Though Australian English favours more the singular form associated with collective common nouns like *team*, or *government*. An example would be 'North Melbourne is on a winning streak.' 'North Melbourne are on a winning streak.' Here both sentences are correct in Australian English, but as mentioned before the first sentence is used more. As for the British English: 'Chelsea were Premier League champions last year.' However there are cases and exceptions, where British English permits the use of a singular form (Blair and Collins 2001, 119-120).

There is a tendency in Australian English not to follow to the letter the syntactic rule of sequence of tenses, better known as backshifting. Australians prefer to use unshifted verb forms in indirect statement clauses after past tense verbs of saying, like in this example 'Peter said he has to go.', in British English it is 'Peter said he had to go.'. Backshifting is also a feature of clauses expressing the condition in a conditional sentence. Here again, Australian English uses a singly-shifted simple past 'If that didn't occur, she would have been here by now.', unlike British English with a doubly-shifted past perfect 'If that hadn't occurred, she would have been here by now.' (Blair and Collins 2001, 121).

One of the most tenacious features of Aboriginal English is that its sentences lack auxiliary verbs. This happens very often and it can be considered as the most distinguishing feature of Aboriginal English. For example 'She just kidding.' meaning 'She is just kidding.' in Standard English, 'E my friend.' means 'He is my friend.' in Standard English, and 'E small.' means 'He is small.' in Standard English. As can be seen in the examples, the auxiliary verb 'is' was omitted and readers need to deduce this from the sentence's contextual meaning. However, the omission of auxiliary verbs can often make it difficult for the reader to understand its grammatical meaning. For example 'She still under the Act.' could mean 'She is still under the Act.' or 'She will still be under the Act.' in Standard English (Greenbaum, Leech, Quirk and Svartvik 1989, 120-121).

In Standard English, the order of the significant words and elements of a normal declarative sentence is fairly fixed as in, the subject is before the verb and the object is after it. Nevertheless, Heavy varieties of Aboriginal English, like the major part of Aboriginal languages, do not limit the order of phrases in a sentence. For instance, a noun or noun phrase that is connected with the subject is frequently placed after the verb. A sentence 'That's why they been moving young people.' means in Standard English 'That's why the young people moved'. In this case the subject 'young people' has been put after the verb 'moving', thus Standard English speakers may think that the sentence means 'That's why they moved the young people.' (Malcolm 2018, 61-62).



## CONCLUSION

The primary purpose of this thesis was to compare Australian and Standard English, specifically differences and similarities in morphology and syntax, as well as other aspects. The thesis is divided into two main parts: First part (theory) and Second part. The first part of the theoretical chapter served as an introduction to this topic, to provide the reader with basic information about Standard English, its varieties, in order to gain an insight and understanding. The second part of the theoretical chapter focused on Australian English, its history, how it has developed into the current form, its varieties and influences. The mentioned historical background describes the origin and development of Australian English to help the readers understand what shaped it into its present state. It comes as no surprise that British elements are strongly present in Australian language, however, it did not take long, and soon after a new dialect came into existence, the Australian English. Certain attributes of Australian English are very similar to other dialects, mainly British and American English, on the other hand, what makes the Australian English unique are the attributes that are completely different, which are described both in the theoretical and practical part.

The Second part basically covers not all, but some grammar of English language, with a main focus on morphology and syntax. Australian and Standard English are described and compared to show what they have in common, and what is different between them. It has been found out that in many ways they have a lot in common, since both Australian and Standard English are based on the same language.

The Second part begins with a brief introduction and definitions of morphology and syntax to give the reader an insight into what is described in the following text, which is divided into two main subchapters, one focusing on morphological aspects and differences, and the other on syntactic aspects and differences.

The morphological subchapter firstly describes briefly Australian English morphology, in comparison with Standard English, followed by several selected notable categories with examples. The first category is dedicated to morphemes, which are the smallest meaningful units in a language, with a focus on morphemes expressing plurality, singularity (tree - trees; Australian English does not use the suffix 's'), tense (skip - skipped; Australian English omits the suffix 'ed'), and possession (Amy house - Amy's house, again Australian English leaves out the suffix 's' with an apostrophe indicating the

possession, Australian English also uses another form to indicate possession: Sara bla pen - Sara's pen). The second category describes an utilization of a question tag, common for both Australian and Standard English, where each has its own question tags (He did it, eh or inna, unna? - He did it, isn't that so?). The final category draws attention to hypocoristics because of how much it enriched Australian English. The most popular and used way of creating hypocoristics is clipping and adding a suffix (mostly 'ie'), other ways include adding *the* (the Port - Port Adelaide, the Hills - Surry Hills), initials (KI - Kangaroo Island), truncation (Copa - Copacabana Beach). The range of hypocoristics in Australian English goes from normal words (brekkie - breakfast, champers - champagne), over place-names (Aussie - Australia, Tazzie - Tasmania), to people's names (Shaz/Shazza - Sharon, Becky - Rebecca).

The syntactic subchapter firstly again describes briefly Australian English syntax, and compares with Standard English. Several important and interesting categories are again selected, with examples, to demonstrate similarities and differences between Australian and Standard English. In the first category, syntactic aspects, which are common in both Australian and Standard English, are introduced with examples (She usedn't to do it - She didn't use(d) to do it). The second category is devoted to Australian usage, where the sentences are almost unique to Australian English, with provided examples and their counterparts in Standard English (Amy said she has to go - Amy said she had to go, Emily just kidding - Emily is just kidding).

An interesting thing that has occurred during the research is that Australians practically from the beginning maintained their English comprehensible for other English dialects, and still managed to modify it in their own way, which sets them apart from other varieties of English, with their speech full of subtle differences resembling their exuberant lifestyle, and these differences are what makes the Australian English unique.

English language is used widely around the world, and learning, and knowing its different aspects, forms could prove beneficial, when a person decides to live, or lives in an English speaking country, or works there, or his/her job requires to speak English. This thesis provides basic knowledge about Australian English to enhance the reader's knowledge, as well as improving the overall knowledge of English language. After reading this thesis the reader should be able to tell some differences between Australian and Standard English, as well as what do they have in common, and what is unique to Australian English, and provide some examples.

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