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РЕФЕРАТ

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Cockney dialect

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**Introduction**

In this research we are going to analyze a variant of the English language, called Cockney and with the help of various resources: dictionaries, textbooks, films and videos, identify the main features: phonetic, lexical and grammatical features of the dialect.

A study of modern English dialects in Great Britain and a study of phonetic, lexical, grammatical features of language and historical influences have been done by such scientists as Yu.B. Fedotova, K. Brunner, and V.D. Arrakin. The Relevance of this study lies in the growing interest of linguists to the problem of variability of language. The language develops as well as the culture develops. Language development is impossible without the development of culture, and vice versa. And every day the language is modified, it changes faster and faster, adapting to new cultures, to the high speed of time, to new technologies. And the study of dialects makes it possible to understand the origins of the main language, the history of changes over the centuries and allows us to improve our knowledge about the culture of the area where the particular dialect is used. Deep study of English language gives us the key to understanding the national language, allows us to discover more in intercultural communication.

The subject of this work are the phonetical, morphological, word-formation, lexical standards of the Cockney dialect . After all, they are the basis of dialects, which in most cases differ from the standard in the pronunciation of words, phrases and sounds.

The main purpose of the research can be defined as the study of the characteristics of the Cockney dialect and comparison with the literary standard of the English language. This will help us to identify how much language has been modified in one part of the country.

1. **Etymology**

The term was in use in this sense as early as 600, when Samuel Rowlands in his satire The Letting of Humours Blood in the Head-Vaine, referred to 'a Bow-bell Cockney'. John Minsheu (or Minshew) was the first lexicographer to define the word in this sense, in his Ductor in Linguas (1617), where he referred to 'A cockney or cockny, applied only to one born within the sound of Bow bell, that is in the City of London'. However, the etymologies he gave (from 'cock' and 'neigh', or from Latin incoctus, raw) were just guesses, and the OED later authoritatively explained the term as originating from cock and egg, meaning first a misshapen egg (1362), then a person ignorant of country ways (1521), then the senses mentioned above.

Francis Grose's A Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue (1785) derives the term from the following story:

“A citizen of London, being in the country, and hearing a horse neigh, exclaimed, Lord! how that horse laughs! A by-stander telling him that noise was called Neighing, the next morning, when the cock crowed, the citizen to shew he had not forgot what was told him, cried out, Do you hear how the Cock Neighs?”

A more plausible derivation of the word can be found in Webster's New Universal Unabridged Dictionary: London was referred to by the Normans as the "Land of Sugar Cake" (Old French: pais de cocaigne), an imaginary land of idleness and luxury. A humorous appellation, the word "Cocaigne" referred to all of London and its suburbs, and over time had a number of spellings: Cocagne, Cockayne, and in Middle English, Cocknay and Cockney. The latter two spellings could be used to refer to both pampered children, and residents of London, and to pamper or spoil a child was 'to cocker' him. (See, for example, John Locke, "...that most children's constitutions are either spoiled or at least harmed, by cockering and tenderness." from Some Thoughts Concerning Education, 1693).

1. **Area**

The region that is called "Cockney" has changed over time, and strictly speaking is no longer the whole of London. As mentioned in the introduction, the traditional definition is that in order to be a Cockney, one must have been born within earshot of the Bow Bells. However, the church of St Mary-le-Bow was destroyed in the Great Fire of London and rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren. After the bells were destroyed again in 1941 in the Blitz of World War II, and before they were replaced in 1961, there was a period when some said that no 'Bow-bell' Cockneys could be born. The use of such a literal definition produces problems, for traffic noise and the current lack of a hospital with a maternity ward in earshot of the church would also severely limit the number of 'true' cockneys that could be born.

A study was done by the city in 2000 to see how far the Bow Bells could be heard, and it was estimated that the bells would have been heard 6 miles to the east, 5 miles to the north, 3 miles to the south, and 4 miles to the west.

1. **Lexical Features of Cockney. Rhyming slang**

Cockney speakers have a distinctive accent and dialect, and frequently use Cockney rhyming slang. The Survey of English Dialects took a recording from a long-time resident of Hackney.

John Camden Hotten, in his Slang Dictionary of 1859 makes reference to "their use of a peculiar slang language" when describing the costermongers of London's East End. A fake Cockney accent, as used by some actors, is sometimes called 'Mockney'.

Cockney as a dialect is most notable for its argot, or coded language, which was born out of ingenious rhyming slang. There are as many as 150 terms that are recognized instantly by any rhyming slang user. For example, the phrase use your loaf—meaning “use your head”—is derived from the rhyming phrase loaf of bread. That phrase is just one part of London’s rhyming slang tradition that can be traced to the East End. That tradition is thought to have started in the mid-19th century as code by which either criminals confused the police or salesmen compared notes with each other beyond the understanding of their customers.

The manner in which Cockney rhyming slang is created may be best explained through examples. “I’m going upstairs” becomes I’m going up the apples in Cockney. Apples is part of the phrase apples and pears, which rhymes with stairs; and pears is then dropped. In this example, a word is replaced with a phrase that ends in a rhyming word, and that rhyming word is then dropped (along with, in apples and pears, the and). Likewise, “wig” becomes syrup (from syrup of figs) and “wife” becomes trouble (from trouble and strife).

Omission of the rhyming word is not a consistent feature of Cockney, though. Other, more-straightforward favourites that are recognizable outside the Cockney community and have been adopted into the general lexicon of English slang are the use of the Boat Race for “face,” Adam and Eve for “believe,” tea leaf for “thief,” mince pies for “eyes,” nanny goat for “coat,” plate of meat for “street,” daisy roots for “boots,” cream crackered for “knackered,” china plate for “mate,” brown bread for “dead,” bubble bath for “laugh,” bread and honey for “money,” brass bands for “hands,” whistle and flute for “suit,” septic tank for “Yank” (i.e., Yankee, or an American), and currant bun for “sun” and, with a more recent extension, “The Sun” (a British newspaper).

Less known are expressions whose meaning is less straightforward, such as borrow and beg for “egg” (a term that enjoyed renewed life during food rationing of World War II), army and navy for “gravy” (of which there was much at meals in both forces), and didn’t ought as a way to refer to port wine (derived from women who said, when asked to “have another,” that they “didn’t ought”). Light and dark took the place of “park,” an oblique reference to a past directive by the London County Council that a bell be sounded and the gates locked in parks at dusk. Lion’s lair came to stand for “chair,” in reference to the danger of disrupting a father’s afternoon nap in his easy chair. Likewise, bottle and stopper originated via the word copper (a policeman), with bottle meaning “to enclose” and a stopper referring to someone who prevents another person from doing something.

Like any dialect or language, Cockney continued to evolve, and today it reflects the contours of contemporary pop culture in Great Britain. Much of “new” Cockney that first emerged in the late 20th century uses celebrities’ names: Alan Whickers standing in for “knickers,” Christian Slater for “later,” Danny Marr for “car,” David Gower for “shower,” Hank Marvin for “starving,” and Sweeney Todd for “the Flying Squad” (a unit within the London Metropolitan Police). Likewise, those coinages can be coarse, revolving around drinking (Paul Weller for “Stella” [Stella Artois, a beer brand], Winona Ryder for “cider”) and bodily functions (Wallace and Gromit for “vomit”).

In 2012 the Museum of London, citing a study it had conducted, announced that Cockney rhyming slang was dying out and suggested that youth slang, rap and hip-hop lyrics, and text messaging was threatening the “traditional dialect” of working-class Londoners. At about the same time, a campaign to teach Cockney in East End schools developed, as did efforts to recognize Cockney rhyming slang as an “official dialect” among the more than 100 languages already spoken by the area’s diverse population.

1. **Grammatical Features of Cockney**
2. Multiple negations (e.g. I ain’t never done nothing, I didn't see nuffink);
3. Use of ain't instead of haven’t, isn’t, aren’t etc (e.g. I ain’t seen ‘im);
4. Specific verb morphology (e.g. You seen ‘im! – I never! They done it. You was);
5. Reflexive pronouns (e.g. ‘E’ll ‘urt ‘isself. That’s yourn);
6. Demonstrative pronouns (e.g. them books);
7. Possessive pronouns: use of me instead of my (e.g. Where’s me bag? At's me book you got 'ere);
8. Adverbs without –ly (e.g. Trains are running normal. The boys done good);
9. Prepositions (e.g. down the pub, out the window).

1. **Phonological Features of Cockney**

There are a large number of differences in realization of phonemes in RP and Cockney. The most striking realization differences can be summarized below.

* 1. **Differences in consonants**

1. /h/ is dropped in initial positions in English words that have this phoneme (e.g. have, hat, horse = /əv/, /æt/, /ɔ:s/); /h/ is pronounced in the words which in RP begin with a vowel (e.g. air, atmosphere = /heə/, /'hætməsfɪə/);
2. ‘Th’ Fronting/Stopping. /θ/ becomes /f/ in any environment (e.g.thin /fɪn/, maths /mɛfs/; /ð/ becomes /v/ in any environment except word-initially when it can be /ð, d, l, ʔ/ (e.g. they /dæɪ/, bother /bɒvə/;
3. The consonant between /θ/ or /ð/ is occasionally lost (e.g. think, father = /fink/, /fɑːvə/). When /ð/ occurs initially, it is either dropped or replaced by /d/ (e.g. this and that = /'dɪsn'dæt/);
4. /l/ vocalization. Dark /ɫ/ becomes vocalic /ʊ/ (e.g. milk, table = /mɪʊk/, /teɪbʊ/).   
   When the preceding vowel is /ɔ:/, /l/ may disappear completely (e.g. called = /khɔ:d/);
5. /t/ flottaling is widely spread in Cockney accent. Use of the glottal stop as an allophone of /t/ in various positions, including after a stressed syllable. Glottal stops also occur, albeit less frequently for /k/ and /p/, and occasionally for mid-word consonants. /t/ is realized as a glottal stop /ʔ/ some vowels, laterals and nasals (e.g. butterfly /'bʌʔtəflaɪ/, eat it /i:ʔ ɪʔ/); /t/ between vowels is not aspirated, and is often replaced by /d/, /r/ or glottal stop /ʔ/ (e.g. get away /'gedə'weɪ/, /'gerə'weɪ/, /'geʔə'weɪ/, better /'bedə/, /'berə/, /'beʔə/);
6. Aspiration of /k/, /t/, /p/. London /p, t, k/ are often aspirated in intervocalic and final environments (e.g. upper, utter, rocker, up, out, rock) where RP is traditionally described as having the unaspirated variants. Also, in broad Cockney, the degree of aspiration is typically greater than in RP, and may often also involve some degree of affrication. Affrication may be encountered in initial, intervocalic, and final position.
7. Yod Coalescence. There is coalescence of /t/, /d/ before /j/ into /t∫/ and /dʒ/ (e.g. tube /t∫u:b/, during /dʒurɪᶯ/, tune /ˈtʃuːn/, reduce /rɪˈdʒuːs/), but elision of /j/ following by /n/ (e.g. news /nu:z/).
   1. **Differences in vowels.**
8. The short front vowels /e/, /æ/ tend to be closer in Cockney (e.g. sat /set/, set);
9. Diphthongisation of vowels /i:/ changes into /əi/ (e.g. bead /bəid/), /u:/ changes into /əu/ (e.g. boat /bəut/); When /ɔ:/ is final, it is pronounced as /ɔwə/ (e.g. sore, saw /sɔwə/); When /ɔ:/ is not final, it’s realization is closer /ɔʊ/;
10. Diphthong shift. /eɪ/ is realized as /aɪ/ (e.g. lady /'laɪdɪ/); /aɪ/ sounds as /ɔɪ/ or /aɪ/ (e.g. price /prɔɪs/); /əʊ/ sounds as /æʊ/ (e.g. load /læʊd/); /aʊ/ sounds as /a:/ (e.g. loud /la:d/);
11. /ɪ/ lengthening. /ɪ/ in word final position sounds as /i:/ (e.g. city /'sɪti:/);
12. Weakening. RP diphhong /əʊ/ is weakened to schwa /ə/ (e.g. window /'wɪndə/, pillow /'pɪlə/, you /jə/, to /tə/), especially finally.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, Cockney dialect is traditionally spoken by working-class Londoners. Cockney is also often used to refer to anyone from London—in particular, from its East End. Cockney speakers have a distinctive accent and frequently use Cockney rhyming slang. It is mostly notable for its argot, or coded language. Cockney has its own phonetical, morphological, lexical and word-formation standards. Thus, it can be noted that the English language is quite diverse and exists today in several major versions. However, Cockney dialect is not an independent language, but only English local variant.

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