

Euro-English versus British English

Peter Slotík

Bachelor Thesis
2011



Tomas Bata University in Zlín
Faculty of Humanities

Univerzita Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně

Fakulta humanitních studií

Ústav anglistiky a amerikanistiky

akademický rok: 2010/2011

ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE

(PROJEKTU, UMĚLECKÉHO DÍLA, UMĚLECKÉHO VÝKONU)

Jméno a příjmení: **Peter SLOTÍK**
Osobní číslo: **H08385**
Studijní program: **B 7310 Filologie**
Studijní obor: **Anglický jazyk pro manažerskou praxi**

Téma práce: **Euroangličtina versus Britská angličtina**

Zásady pro vypracování:

Studium pramenů se zaměřením na britskou angličtinu a euroangličtinu

Vymezení a charakteristika britské angličtiny a euroangličtiny

Formulace hypotézy

Výzkum formou analýzy textu

Vyhodnocení výzkumu

Potvrzení či vyvrácení hypotézy

Rozsah bakalářské práce:

Rozsah příloh:

Forma zpracování bakalářské práce: **tištěná/elektronická**

Seznam odborné literatury:

Mollin, Sandra. 2006. Euro-English: assessing variety status. Gunter Narr Verlag Tübingen. (Tübingen 2006)

Fennell, Barbara. 2001. A History of English: A Sociolinguistic Approach (Blackwell Textbooks in Linguistics). Oxford, UK.: Wiley-Blackwell. (Fennell 2001).

Cheshire, Jenny, ed. 1991. English around the World: Sociolinguistic Perspectives. Cambridge [England]: Cambridge University Press. (Cheshire 1991).

Prodromou, Luke. 2010. English as a Lingua Franca: A Corpus-based Analysis. Continuum. (Prodromou 2010).

Vedoucí bakalářské práce:

Mgr. Hana Čechová

Ústav anglistiky a amerikanistiky

Datum zadání bakalářské práce:

1. února 2011

Termín odevzdání bakalářské práce:

6. května 2011

Ve Zlíně dne 1. února 2011

prof. PhDr. Vlastimil Švec, CSc.
děkan



doc. Ing. Anežka Lengálová, Ph.D.
ředitelka ústavu

PROHLÁŠENÍ AUTORA BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE

Beru na vědomí, že

- 2 odevzdáním bakalářské práce souhlasím se zveřejněním své práce podle zákona č. 111/1998 Sb. o vysokých školách a o změně a doplnění dalších zákonů (zákon o vysokých školách), ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, bez ohledu na výsledek obhajoby ¹⁾;
- 4 beru na vědomí, že bakalářská práce bude uložena v elektronické podobě v univerzitním informačním systému dostupná k nahlédnutí;
- 6 na moji bakalářskou práci se plně vztahuje zákon č. 121/2000 Sb. o právu autorském, o právech souvisejících s právem autorským a o změně některých zákonů (autorský zákon) ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, zejm. § 35 odst. 3 ²⁾;
- 8 podle § 60 ³⁾ odst. 1 autorského zákona má UTB ve Zlíně právo na uzavření licenční smlouvy o užití školního díla v rozsahu § 12 odst. 4 autorského zákona;
- 10 podle § 60 ³⁾ odst. 2 a 3 mohu užít své dílo – bakalářskou práci - nebo poskytnout licenci k jejímu využití jen s předchozím písemným souhlasem Univerzity Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně, která je oprávněna v takovém případě ode mne požadovat přiměřený příspěvek na úhradu nákladů, které byly Univerzitou Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně na vytvoření díla vynaloženy (až do jejich skutečné výše);
- 15 pokud bylo k vypracování bakalářské práce využito softwaru poskytnutého Univerzitou Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně nebo jinými subjekty pouze ke studijním a výzkumným účelům (tj. k nekomerčnímu využití), nelze výsledky bakalářské práce využít ke komerčním účelům.

Prohlašuji, že

- 1 elektronická a tištěná verze bakalářské práce jsou totožné;
- 2 na bakalářské práci jsem pracoval samostatně a použitou literaturu jsem citoval. V případě publikace výsledků budu uveden jako autor.

Ve Zlíně 2. 5. 2011



1) zákon č. 111/1998 Sb. o vysokých školách a o změně a doplnění dalších zákonů (zákon o vysokých školách), ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, § 47b Zveřejňování závěrečných prací:

(1) Vysoká škola nevýdělečně zveřejňuje disertační, diplomové, bakalářské a rigorózní práce, u kterých proběhla obhajoba, včetně posudků oponentů a výsledku obhajoby prostřednictvím databáze kvalifikačních prací, kterou spravuje. Způsob

(2) Disertační, diplomové, bakalářské a rigorózní práce odevzdané uchazečem k obhajobě musí být též nejméně pět pracovních dnů před konáním obhajoby zveřejněny k nahlížení veřejnosti v místě určeném vnitřním předpisem vysoké školy nebo není-li tak určeno, v místě pracoviště vysoké školy, kde se má konat obhajoba práce. Každý si může ze zveřejněné práce pořizovat na své náklady výpisy, opisy nebo rozmnoženiny.

(3) Platí, že odevzdáním práce autor souhlasí se zveřejněním své práce podle tohoto zákona, bez ohledu na výsledek obhajoby.

2) zákon č. 121/2000 Sb. o právu autorském, o právech souvisejících s právem autorským a o změně některých zákonů (autorský zákon) ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, § 35 odst. 3:

(3) Do práva autorského také nezasahuje škola nebo školské či vzdělávací zařízení, užije-li nikoli za účelem přímého nebo nepřímého hospodářského nebo obchodního prospěchu k výuce nebo k vlastní potřebě dílo vytvořené žákem nebo studentem ke splnění školních nebo studijních povinností vyplývajících z jeho právního vztahu ke škole nebo školskému či vzdělávacímu zařízení (školní dílo).

3) zákon č. 121/2000 Sb. o právu autorském, o právech souvisejících s právem autorským a o změně některých zákonů (autorský zákon) ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, § 60 Školní dílo:

(1) Škola nebo školské či vzdělávací zařízení mají za obvyklých podmínek právo na uzavření licenční smlouvy o užití školního díla (§ 35 odst. 3). Odpírá-li autor takového díla udělit svolení bez vážného důvodu, mohou se tyto osoby domáhat nahrazení chybějícího projevu jeho vůle u soudu. Ustanovení § 35 odst. 3 zůstává nedotčeno.

(2) Není-li sjednáno jinak, může autor školního díla své dílo užít či poskytnout jinému licenci, není-li to v rozporu s oprávněnými zájmy školy nebo školského či vzdělávacího zařízení.

(3) Škola nebo školské či vzdělávací zařízení jsou oprávněny požadovat, aby jim autor školního díla z výtěžku jím dosaženého v souvislosti s užitím díla či poskytnutím licence podle odstavce 2 přiměřeně přispěl na úhradu nákladů, které na vytvoření díla vynaložily, a to podle okolností až do jejich skutečné výše; přitom se přihlédne k výši výtěžku dosaženého školou nebo školským či vzdělávacím zařízením z užití školního díla podle odstavce 1.

ABSTRAKT

Obsahom tejto bakalárskej práce je téma Euro-angličtiny a britskej angličtiny. Teoretická časť definuje tieto pojmy, najmä problematiku Euro-angličtiny a rôzne pohľady, názory a fakty spojené s touto variantou anglického jazyka.

Práca sa taktiež zaoberá otázkou vplyvu ostatných európskych jazykov na Euro-angličtinu. Praktická časť sa zameriava na porovnanie Euro-angličtiny a britskej angličtiny na základe dokumentov z praxe. Slúži tak ako podklad na potvrdenie či vyvrátenie toho, čím sa zaoberá teoretická časť, a to, či Euro-angličtina je novo vznikajúcou variantou angličtiny vychádzajúcou z angličtiny britskej a ovplyvnenej ostatnými európskymi jazykmi.

Kľúčová slova: Euro-angličtina, britská angličtina, varianta, porovnanie

ABSTRACT

The bachelor thesis in hand deals with the topic of Euro-English and British English. The theoretical part defines both of the terms. It also studies the problems of Euro-English, various attitudes towards it, opinions and facts related to this brand new variation of the English language. The work also provides possible linguistic influences of other European languages on Euro-English.

The work also deals with a question of influence of other European languages on Euro-English. The practical part focuses on a comparison of Euro-English and British English and is based on documents from practice. These serve as a material proving or refuting the claims made in the theoretical part that Euro-English is an emerging variety of English arising from British English and influenced by other European languages.

Keywords: Euro-English, British English, variation comparison

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank to all my friends and family, who supported and helped me. They have always filled me with optimism and without their moral help it would be much harder. I also would like to thank to my thesis supervisor, Hana Čechová, for her useful advices and ideas.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	9
1 BRITISH ENGLISH	11
1.1 History	11
1.2 Background	11
1.3 Geography and most prominent accents	12
1.4 Sociolinguistic Issues	12
1.5 The future of accents in England	13
2 EURO ENGLISH	15
2.1 How Does Euro-English look in reality?	16
2.2 The role of English in Europe	18
2.3 Future of English in Europe	22
2.4 The role of English in work	23
2.5 The role of English in the media	24
3 COMPARISON OF BRITISH ENGLISH VERSUS EURO- ENGLISH	25
3.1. Pronunciation	25
3.2. Vocabulary	26
3.3 Grammar and sentence structure	27
4 PRACTICAL COMPARISON OF EURO-ENGLISH VERSUS BRITISH ENGLISH	28
4.1 Drafting by non-native speakers	28
4.2 Growth of English and Tolerance of Defective English	29
4.3 Fear of Brevity	31
4.4 Consensus building	32
4.5 Eurojargon	33
CONCLUSION	34
Bibliography	35

INTRODUCTION

Imagine, you are walking down a street in your town and asking people passing by one simple question. „Do you speak English?“. It is likely that a large number would give a positive answer. Of course, it is predetermined by the place you live in, but it is safe to say that the number of people in Europe who use English as their second language has increased dramatically in last decades.

People use computers, social networks and other means to acquire and practise their English. The society is becoming cosmopolitan, which creates the need for people from different regions and countries to communicate with each other. For this purpose, they need a language to enable the communication, a so called Lingua Franca as it would be quite impossible to learn each others languages. Nowadays, a term “Euro-English” has emerged. It refers to a term, which actually describes English spoken in Europe by non-native speakers. The phenomenon of Euro-English is a very actual topic amongst many linguists. Some of them consider it a Lingua Franca of the European institutions. They see it as a new variety of English or, without exaggeration as a new language. Some even suggest codification of Euro-English as an official language. Some on the other hand are strictly against this new phenomenon, even referring to Euro-English as a disease, e.g. Wagner in Wagner 2001. For the purpose of the thesis in hand, it will be assumed that Euro-English indeed exists.

The thesis in hands deals with comparison of British English used in the United Kingdom versus Euro-English. British English is considered to be the traditional and „original“ English. It is usually taught at schools as a model English.

In the practical part, grammar, vocabulary and general style of written utterance will be studied. Documents from practice, written in British English and Euro English will be used for this purpose. For example, the English of people from southern Europe is different than of those in Scandinavia, because their primary languages are completely different as well. They have diverse way of speaking and grammatical structures and this fact is somehow reflected in the way, they use a foreign language. A brief facts from the history of English and its development will also be mentioned briefly as it might contribute to the concept of both language variants The thesis statement is as follows :

“It will be proved, that English and Euro English are two different language varieties, but have also lot in common, because they have the same basis. Their similarities and differences will be compared and characterized.”

The work attempts to provide a complex overview of the issue.

1 BRITISH ENGLISH

1.1 History

History of English began with Old English, 450-1100 AD and this language was spoken by invading Germanic tribes. It was completely different to modern English and to such extent that even the native speakers of English would not be able to understand it easily. The second period is called Middle English, 1100-1500. It is connected with French influence and Normans and contained many French words. However, it is still not very similar to today's English. After this period, age of Modern English came. First, there was Early Modern English, 1500-1800. In comparison with Middle English, there were changes in pronunciation. Vowels were pronounced shorter and many new words came into the vocabulary. Another extremely important milestone was the invention of printing. It means that books became cheaper and available to all the classes of people, who could learn to read and educate themselves. The first English dictionary was published in 1604 and thus spelling and grammar became fixed. The development then continued with Later Modern English, 1800 to present. Early Modern language and Late Modern English are basically the same languages. What differs mostly is vocabulary. Late one has much larger vocabulary and that fact is caused by Industrial Revolution and technology, which created an immense need for new words. The other factor is British colonialism and adoption of new words by English. (EnglishClub, 1997-2011)

1.2 Background

Some could suppose, that the English spoken on the British Isles, e.g. in countries of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland is the same, or at least very similar. However, the reality is slightly different and when these people first come there and find out that they have serious problems to understand regional accents spoken in these areas, they are rather surprised. According to Trudgill, regional identity and "*where they are from*" has huge importance for inhabitants of England. Under the influences of background, moving or people who they meet, there is a possibility of changing the accent. But majority of people "*carry at least some trace*" of their original accent for the rest of life. (Trudgill 1999, 1)

1.3 Geography and most prominent accents

In England various dialects and varieties of English language can be found. Essentially, they can be divided into two basic groups, “northern” and “southern”. Nevertheless, this is not very exact, because they do not actually follow boundaries of any countries. It would be more exact to state, that these different language varieties create something like a continuum. Even Trudgill supports this hypothesis. What he actually says about these dialects is that they would rather be differentiated on a “*more-or-less*”, not “*either-or*” basis. (Trudgill 1999, 7) The most famous and used accents in Britain are “Geordie”, “Cockney”, “Jock” or “Scouse”. They are connected with certain region or social group and are recognizable for the majority of the inhabitants living in Britain.

1.4 Sociolinguistic Issues

Wells claims, that “...people are often able to make instant and unconscious judgments on a stranger’s class affiliation on the basis of his or her accent.” (Wells 1982, 29) He also holds the opinion that the accent and also the vocabulary reflect the person’s social status. His theories are also based on the hypothesis, that from the linguistic point of view, there is a significant difference between Britain and U.S.A. .He claims that “phonetic factors assume a predominating role which they do not generally have in North America”. (Wells 1982, 13)

In Britain, a predominant position is occupied by RP. It stands for “Received pronunciation” and is considered to be the most “proper” and pure form of English language. It is spoken by the Queen and the upper class. So, if certain people are heard speaking this way, assumption about their social status can be made easily. But what is meant to be implied is that this accent is special, because it does not differ regionally. It means that RP is not a regional variant, it is an accent of the upper class. It has been given certain prestige. You can travel around Britain and you will find many different accents. But people from the upper class in Britain would speak the same language, no matter which region they come from. According to Wells, this reality can be quite clearly described graphically. If you imagine a pyramid, vertical dimension represents social variations. The horizontal dimension reflects geographical variations. At the bottom of that pyramid lie the lowest class accents. They are represented by broad local accents. On the other side, at the apex, the RP is represented. So, it is obvious that upper class accent has no regional varieties and is universal for the whole area of Great Britain. And logically, any

regional accent can not be understood by the upper-class. Wells created three main objectives, that broad accents reflect :

1. regionally, the highest degree of local distinctiveness
2. socially, the lowest social class
3. linguistically, the maximal degree of difference from RP (Wells 1982,14)

A survey in England in 1972 focused on the above mentioned problems. The aim was to find out, how speech differences are perceived among people and how do they connect them with classes. The list of eleven factors was presented to the respondents and following question was asked: *Which of these factors would you say are most important in being able to tell which class a person is?* (Wells 1982,15)

The answer of most of them was *"the way they speak"*. The second, most frequented answer was *"where they live"*. The smallest number of people answered *"the amount of money they have"*. (Wells 1982, 15)

The result of this survey is clear. It proves that the way someone speaks is the most important factor when judging which class a person belongs to. Also some other surveys prove that people with standard accent, whose speech is not affected by regional accents, are considered to be more intelligent and educated. That is what Giles and Sassoon claim. (Gilles and Sassoon 1983, 305-313) Broad British public does not recognize all the accents just from hearing random speech. But they distinguish two basic categories. They themselves called them "posh" and "common". Posh is represented mainly by RP. Common accent consists of regional dialects or special one called Cockney.

The topic of accents and different speech varieties is very popular in Britain. One of many examples is a movie "My Fair Lady" from year 1964, based on a novel Pygmalion by George Bernard Shaw.

1.5 The future of accents in England

Everything is changing in time and language is not an exception. When speaking about accents in England, there is a group of people which believe that "Estuary English" is going to replace RP. (Wells 1998) Estuary English is a new accent, which is spoken mainly by the social "middle ground". (Rosewarne 1994, 3-9)

Brief definition, according to UCL is that “Estuary English is a name given to the form(s) of English widely spoken in and around London and, more generally, in the southeast of England-along the river Thames and its estuary.” (UCL 1998)

Wells claims, that not only medially known people like sportsmen and politicians are typical users of Estuary English. Even Prince Edward speaks that variety of English. (Wells 1997)

It is necessary to bear in mind that all the accents have something in common, some certain features. They blend together and do not have strictly defined boundaries. Probably, the most important accents in Britain are RP and Cockney.

2 EURO ENGLISH

Euro-English is a term, which actually describes English spoken in different parts of Europe by non native speakers. The phenomenon of Euro-English is a very actual topic amongst many linguists. Some of them consider it as a Lingua Franca of the European institutions. For this reason it comes as a mere surprise that there are even debates about codification of Euro-English as an official language. (Modiano 2001, 13) There is a question, why English and not any other language, such as Spanish, French, Italian or others. Jennifer Jenkins (Jenkins 2009, 40-41) provides the following categories of reasons:

Historical reasons

They are connected to the colonial history of Britain and America. It means that some institutions of the country, like schools, courts, parliament and so on may continue to use English as their language.

Internal political reasons

Usage of English among people from different ethnic groups and nationalities in one country. They need a language to share for the communication and English is used for this purpose in many countries. India being an example of it. The other thing is that different local varieties of English can be also understood as a symbol of national unity.

External economic reasons

USA is an economical power and a desirable business partner for a great number of organisations and companies from different parts of the world. So, they definitely need English as a way of communication. There are also multinational corporations with branches all over the world and their employees have to share certain language.

Practical reasons

English is the language of international air traffic and other similar services. Its position is becoming more and more important also in fields like maritime, emergency services and

police. English is also a language spoken on European union meetings and discussions and has a huge importance in the field of international tourism.

Intellectual reasons

Matters connected to science, technology and education are described in this category. Reality is, that majority of the information stored in electronic format is in English. In everyday life, it means that if you want to have an access to these certain information, you need to be able to, at least, understand English.

Entertainment reasons

Group of reasons connected with issues like music, movies, computers, television or computer games. Main language of all of them is English and this is true especially about popular music.

(Jenkins 2009, 40-41)

2.1 How Does Euro-English look in reality?

There are passionate discussions among linguists about the actual existence of Euro English. Mollin claims that, “Euro English is the Yeti of English varieties: everyone has heard of it, but no one has ever seen it.” (Mollin 2006, 1)

Bearing this statement in mind, it is clearly seen that to define Euro-English is not precisely an easy task. To find a sample text written in Euro-English also proves rather hard. In 2001, Emma Wagner, who works as a translator and translation manager, dealt with these problems. Her job description is to analyze texts written in European Commission. She analyses the texts, judges and corrects them from the linguistic point of view. In her article “Eurospeak-fighting the disease” from May 2001, she presents an example of a text. This text is, according to her, an example of utterance written in Euro-English.

“Mr A welcomed the participants to the ZZZ meeting, in particular to the Malta delegation, that attended the meeting for the first time. He passed the floor to Mrs B who was going to intervene on behalf the French Presidency of the European Union. [..]

Mr A informed about the present stage of the works on the Directive on scaffolding and works in height. He said that in October the Council had agreed a common position. In the other hand, the Parliament had presented comments to the project of Directive. A meeting

between the Parliament's reporters and the Presidency of the Council had taken place for establishing a more official position in the agreement. There had been a second meeting between the Commission and the political groups of the Parliament for discussing the contents of some of the amendments. He said that the differences between the Parliament and the Council were small and that the Parliament wished scaffolds below the normal height to be included."

(Wagner 2001)

In the article mentioned above, she explains the reasons for the mistakes in the text and how they have been made. She distinguishes 6 main areas:

1. Drafting by Non-Native Speakers

It is quite impossible to avoid drafting by non-native users of English. However, it is sometimes a source of problems connected with vocabulary and syntax. The reason is that non-native speakers are just not able to distinguish between what is and what is not natural in English. In some cases, native speakers themselves can lose this specific ability. That happens especially in situations, when they live for a longer term outside their country and lose the contact with their mother-language environment. For example, when you hear a word like "eventual" or "payments delays" misused so many times, you may start to lose knowledge about their real actual meaning. (Wagner 2001)

2. Growth of English and Tolerance of Defective English

Before English became the leading language of the EU institutions, French used to hold this position. In this area, Wagner speaks about comparing French and English used by non-native speakers. She claims that French of non-native speakers is used much more precisely than English of non-natives. She supposes that it is caused by a fact, that the rules of French grammar are stricter. That means that French is not so flexible language as English and therefore, there is not such a big place for creating different language varieties. She also thoughts that "grammar has not been taught in British schools for the past 40 years, so most native speakers can't even explain to their non native colleagues why paragraphs like the one quoted above are not real English ". (Wagner 2001)

3. Fear of Brevity

There is quite a large number of authors, who come from the countries or cultures, which

do not appreciate briefness as a valuable quality. She explains it on the following example. They asked some well recognized French company to proceed a survey for them and then, send them a report. When they sent this report, it was 186 pages long. After following demand to make it shorter and briefer, they made a summary of it, consisting of 50 pages. (Wagner 2001)

4.Eurojargon

Jargon is a special form of language, purpose of which is communication between specialists. Problems arise, if this language gets into wrong context. There are many acronyms, for example CFSP, SLIC or SANCO. Their meaning is clear and evident for people who are familiar with them. But if any men hear them, they can really be more than confused. Wagner mentions an unpleasant habit of Eurocrats. They have a tendency to use the names of towns when they mean something bit different. “Schengen” is not used as a name of town by them, but for certain agreement. “Amsterdam” means a Treaty, “Gymnich” is an informal meeting. (Wagner 2001)

5.”Consensus Building”

Sometimes, for example when writing laws or Treaties, documents are “*inflated*”. (Wagner 2001) The reason for it is simple. They often need to pass at any cost, so they are written in rather fuzzy and inconclusive language and style. However, laws and Treaties written in such way are usually sources of many problems, when they are put into use. (Wagner 2001)

2.2 The role of English in Europe

In Europe, there are 23 official languages: Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Irish, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovene, Spanish, Swedish. (Jenkins 2009, 48) It is obvious that this area, from the linguistic point of view, is very rich. For a relatively small area, it is quite a large number of different languages. It is obvious that such language diversity can pose problems with communication among people from different European countries. The necessity of “European Lingua Franca” is definitely well founded.

In spite of having 23 official languages, there are just three, which shaped themselves as main or most dominant. English, French and German hold such position. (Graddol 1997, 14) But from these three, English is considered to be the one, which is called Lingua Franca of Europe. According to Modiano:

“If, through a EU decree, a distinctive European variety of English became the official language (perhaps sharing this distinction with one or two other prominent European languages), and was the standard for English language education, second-language status would be immediately established. Like India, Singapore, and Nigeria, the EU is a political entity where English functions as a Lingua Franca among linguistically diverse people. It is clear that in all instances around the globe where English is used locally as a language of wider communication, distinct varieties have emerged, and there are strong arguments for promoting such Englishes as educational models. Kachru’s investigations of second-language varieties substantiates this claim (Kachru 1986). Because of the current role of “Euro-English” in the EU, it would be naïve, certainly, to assume that legitimization, codification, and standardization processes will not take place.” (Modiano 2001, 13)

This is one point of view, but there are some linguists who do not favour and support this trend. For example Phillipson represents a rather critical opinion. He believes that people from different parts of Europe should learn each other’s languages instead of sharing one certain language. (Phillipson 2003) But, such solution would be extremely hard to realize and it is also useless to learn many different languages if there can be just one, shared by all. Similar opinion is held by House. She claims that such policy would be “*hypocritical and ineffective*” and instead of having more official languages, EU should confess English as their official language. House herself call it “*language for communication*”. (House 2001, 1-3) Pascal Smet, who is a Flemish-speaking Belgian politic, calls it a “common language” of Europe. He says :

“I note that the engine of European integration is sputtering. One reason is that we do not speak the same tongue, hence my plea for a common European language .“ (Waterfield 2010)

“It seems logical to me that this is English, which is already the lingua franca of international economics and politics. French is not spoken anywhere in the world while English is now increasingly becoming a global language.” (Waterfield 2010)

On the other hand, there are attitudes that, especially for young people, English is not only a language for communication. It is believed that it is also some kind of a way to express social identity and emotions. They create their own vocabulary by mixing compounds from their mother language and English. Among German teenagers, it is no exceptionality to hear words like *Drogenfreak*, *Telefon junkie* or *Metallfan*. (Jenkins 2009, 48-49)

However, it is necessary to mention that Jenkins is not positive about the strength of the role of English as a European lingua franca. She assumes that such position of it is quite recent and she is not confident about its development and its continuance. I can be expected that European English will contain plenty of grammatical, lexical, and phonological changes which will differ from standard traditional varieties of English-British and American. (Jenkins 2009, 49)

Berns puts it this way:

“In the course of using English to carry out its roles [native, foreign and international language], Europeans make adaptations and introduce innovations that effectively de-Americanize and de-Anglicanize English.” (Berns 1995, 6-7)

She coins a special term “*European English-using speech community*” for European people who use English as their second language. In her opinion, there is a chance that in the near future, British English can lose its position of traditional English. It will be considered only as one of the varieties and will be equal with other Englishes, such as Norwegian English, French English etc.. (Berns 1995, 6-7) Famous and well recognized linguist and author of many books, David Crystal, holds quite a controversial opinion about actual existence of Euro English. He claims that :

“I don’t think Euro-English exists yet, as a variety comparable to American English or Indian English or Singlish. But the seeds are there. It will take time. The new Europe is still an infant, linguistically.” (Crystal 2008, 257)

However, that is a point of view of linguists. But actually, they are scientists, who look at this issue from a slightly different perspective than common people. It is quite appropriate to state that linguists present science and speakers present reality. And these speakers, common people, are the actual users of Euro-English. That is why knowing their opinions and attitudes would be valuable. Their opinions considerably differ and important role is played by the nationality of respondents. In 2001, when the role of the English was

not so strong in Europe, there was a discussion at BBC web site. Different people from all the parts of the world were presenting their opinions about the questions:

“Is English taking over as the dominant language in Europe and the rest of the world?”

“Should we all be speaking in one tongue or do we risk losing the cultural diversity of a multilingual world?” (BBC NEWS 2001) The opinions differed a lot. Some people agreed with widespread of English and considered it as a positive fact, because they realize the need of common language shared by people with different mother languages. (BBC NEWS 2001)

“Hi, I’m from Eastern Europe and I’m working now in France as IT programmer. Well, in this country those that speak English are rare birds – even my French colleagues. In my country, as poor as she is, a lot of people are talking very good English. Why here on the continent the people are so stupid and do not understand that without a common language you can’t talk about European Union? English is the best solution”. Mihai, Romania (BBC NEWS 2001)

However, there are also completely opposite opinions. Some people argue and do not like the prominent position of English in Europe. They are not completely against the idea of having one common language for all the Europeans, but they do not agree with English occupying this position. They would rather promote other languages. Their reasons vary. Some say that English is widespread enough all over the world. The others suppose that there are languages like Spanish, French or Italian and according to their claims, they are easier to learn than English. There is also a group of people, who believe that Europe should not share one language, because it kills linguistic diversity and make us monocultural. (BBC NEWS 2001) Following opinion illustrates that reality.

“I find the idea really strange, if not dangerous. From the whole story, it is the English language which will draw enormous advantages and no one else! English as a world language is very widespread and it does not need a new push. The commission should concentrate rather on promoting the linguistic diversity of the EU bureaucrats speak excellent French. I am totally against this suggestion and I am afraid it can be taken as an alarming sign of the anti-democratic spirit of the EU. Juan de Sades, Cordoba, Spain (BBC NEWS 2001)

2.3 Future of English in Europe

From all the facts mentioned above, it is quite obvious that position of English is a prominent one. This statement is supported by an opinion of Margie Berns.

“...it is in my view, likely that English will become the primary language of the citizens of the EC (European Community). Whether or not it is ever officially declared such, it will be even more widely used as a vehicle for intra European communication across all social groups. In addition, the competence that individuals and groups develop in English will be appropriate to the broader European context, not one identical with that of the inner circle.” (Berns 1995, 3-11)

She also presents her attitude about British English. She supposes that British English will come into the position of one of the many sub-varieties of English in the EC. So, it will be no more considered as an “original” English, but it will be just one of many varieties, just as Danish, Dutch or French English, nothing more prominent. (Berns 1995, 3-11) Berns also mentions that during the nativization of English by European users, nativized versions of English will come as a result of this process. Mixed with British English, distinct varieties will be developed probably. Considering all these influences and factors, there is quite a great possibility that in the future, “EU literature” will be written and produced in English. And the language of this type of new literature would be someday considered as a norm and pedagogical model. (Berns 1995, 3-11)

In connection with the role and the future position of English in Europe, it is necessary to look at this issue in numbers. In 2008, there was a survey called “Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe.” Its purpose was to find out, which foreign languages are taught at schools and how many pupils study them. The result of this survey is quite clear, English is the most popular language taught at schools in Europe. According to this survey, more than 90% European children learn English at school and the number is still rising. It is plausible that in the near future, all schoolchildren will be able to speak English at a certain level. The other languages which are studied by European pupils are French, German, Spanish and Russian. However, they together have only 10% share. (data Eurydice 2008) Bearing these facts in mind, it can be clearly seen that the position of English is more than dominant. It is appropriate to mention, that English is studied mainly as the first foreign language. This means that most of the European pupils have to choose two compulsory foreign languages. The first one of them is considered to be preferred or “important” one. In the position of a second language, French and German are the most

popular. The number of people, who learn more than one foreign language is 58%. (data Eurydice 2008)

2.4 The role of English in work

This chapter will explore the role of English as a communication channel in different workplaces.

English shows major significance in many different workplaces in Europe. Banks and financial institutions are great example. Swiss banks use English language at the senior level and similar situation is at the European Central Bank. Despite the fact that this bank is situated in German city Frankfurt and only 10% of its employees are from Britain, English is the official language of this institution. English has also hegemonic position on international business meetings and conferences. 99% of European organizations listed in a yearbook of international associations assign it this role as well. (Crystal 1997, 8)

Ability of communication in English is one of the most frequented demands of European companies. If an employee's job description includes face-to-face meetings, telephone or internet communication, English at certain high level is usually required. (Berns, de Bot and Hasebrink 2007, 20) There was a survey carried out by Truchot. Its aim was to find out, how demands for English vary in different countries in Europe. According to the results of this study, very strong demand for English speaking employees is in France. (Truchot 2001) As a source for the study, Truchot used French daily paper *Le Monde*. There he found, that approximately 70% of job advertisements, printed in this newspaper, required the ability of communication in English. And 95% of these required high-level of this skill. (Truchot 2001) The companies in Belgium seemed to be even more exacting. They also emphasize the competence of proper accent and they consider spoken utterance as the most important field. (Truchot 2001) Quite different situation is in the Netherlands. Companies from this country are not so demanding. They require knowledge of English language only in very specific and highly qualified professions. (Truchot 2001)

The paradox is, that employees themselves do not consider ability of communication in English so important. When they were asked, what they consider as the most important field for future education, their answer was computer skills. However, foreign language education was at the second place. (Berns, de Bot and Hasebrink 2007, 20)

2.5 The role of English in the media

The media in all its possible forms in Europe are available for majority of its inhabitants. English has a special position and is present in all these forms. It is obvious especially in music. English in music sounds more “*stylish*” for young generation (Van der Linden 2001, 30), no matter which country they come from. It is also very popular and widespread to name television shows and programs by English names. *Big Brother* or *Blind Date* are good examples. (Van der Linden 2001,30). Both of these facts, dominance of English on television and music, are clearly represented on the following example. In 2001, very popular show Eurovision Song Contest was whole starred in English. No matter that performers come from all the countries of Europe. (Van der Linden 2001,

3 COMPARISON OF BRITISH ENGLISH VERSUS EURO-ENGLISH

When comparing, there need to be certain criteria and areas specified and stipulated. The situation is not different in the case of comparing languages. Basically, there are three main areas, in which Euro-English and standard British English can be compared.

3.1. Pronunciation

First of these criteria is pronunciation. British people, as native speakers, have definitely different pronunciation to non-native speakers of English from different parts of Europe. This is caused by a fact, that non-native speakers have different habits in pronunciation, which arise out of their mother language. However, when pronunciation is mentioned, there is one interesting opinion. According to Trudgill, “...*standard English has nothing to do with pronunciation.*” (Trudgill 2002, 160) It means that there is not a standard or proper pronunciation. There are just many different accents which people from different regions speak. Accent of French people speaking English is completely different than accent of someone from Britain or Germany. But according to Trudgill’s quote above, it does not mean that these accents could be understood as “wrong” English. This presupposition is supported again by Trudgill: “Standard English is often referred to as “the standard language”. It is clear, however, that standard English is not “a language” in any meaningful sense of this term. Standard English, whatever it is, is less than a language, since it is only one variety of English among many. “ (Trudgill 2002, 160)

Another linguist, Jennifer Jenkins holds an opinion, that it is natural that British people and people from Europe have different pronunciation. She does not see a logical reason, why Europeans should imitate accent of British. (Jenkins 2009,) Jenkins claims:

“I’ve been here [name of institution] very, very long and this has been a tradition that you’re supposed to approximate the native speaker, and unless you are the native British speaker you are sort of regarded as inferior...I don’t see why a good EFL teacher, Austrian English teacher, shouldn’t have a trace of an accent of his local variety of English. We’re talking about international English...and we’re still keeping to this idea that the Austrian teacher...you must sound more British than the British. “ (Jenkins 2000, 30)

According to Jennifer Jenkins, quoted in , there exist a certain prediction about the future development of Euro-English pronunciation. He supposes that the sounds /T/ and

/D/ will be omitted. He offers two basic reasons, why it is possible that such situation will happen. The first reason is, that there are only two other languages in EU, using these sounds, Greek and Spanish. The second and even more important reason is, that their pronunciation is relatively difficult. Because of tendency to substitute these sounds with /t/ and /d/ or /s/ and /z/, widespread among non-natives, it is possible that /T/ and /D/ will be converted into /t/ and /d/ or /s/ and /z/. (Jenkins 2003, 17)

Non-native speakers find difficult to pronounce dark “l” and they tend to compensate it by a clear “l”. That is the reason, why Euro-English will probably substitute dark “l” by clear “l”. Vocalization of “l” is also one of the situations that are not precluded. (Jenkins 2003, 17)

3.2. Vocabulary

The second point of view, to compare languages, is lexical. The attention is focused mainly on vocabulary, new words and differences between them. Trudgill says that there is not such vocabulary, which can be called Standard English. (Trudgill 2002, 169)

As was previously mentioned, with widespread of English language to Europe, new words are being created but they are primarily entering the other languages under the influence of English. *Telefonjunkie* or *drogenfreak* in Germany are examples of such new words – neologisms. (Jenkins 2009, 48-49) They definitely would not enter the standard English as defined at the beginning of the thesis, but are perfectly understood and accepted among German users of English. Another example, in Czech and Slovak environment, people who start to learn English very often misuse the word “*gymnasium*”. They often use it for denomination of secondary school, however, its real meaning is completely different. Thus “*I study at a gymnasium.*”, Czech or Slovak speakers of English would understand what is meant, even though they know it was not used correctly. But if such sentence would be said to a native English speaker, he would be probably very confused.

In the context of vocabulary, Trudgill mentions that there are “...Anglophone people who regard this expansion of English as a danger to the language. ...some French and German speakers have invented English words which do not exist in English, such as *lifting*, or *wellness*, or *handy*, or *pullunder*. This, however, is not a danger to English.” (Trudgill 2002, 150-151)

3.3 Grammar and sentence structure

The third perspective deals with issues of grammar and syntax. There are certain characteristics, which distinguish English used in Europe from the British one. According to Seidlhofer, Euro-English has a tendency not to follow certain grammatical rules precisely (Seidlhofer 2003, 18) She points out four basic phenomena which are typical for European English:

1. Using the same form for all present tense verbs.
2. “who” and “which” can be interchangeable.
3. Use of one universal tag question “isn’t it?”
4. Omission of definite or indefinite article before nouns.

(Seidlhofer 2003, 18-19)

In Europe, the main purpose of English is to enable communication between people with different mother tongues. Such grammatical deviations are highly tolerated among the non native speakers of English, as far as they understand each other. However, an essential question arises: Do non-natives of English have the right to “break rules” of another language? Bearing in mind what Trudgill mentioned above, that there is not a vocabulary, which can be called as standard English (Trudgill 2002, 169), it is possible to say that changes in vocabulary and adaptation of new words are a natural reality. This is quite a frequent phenomenon in many languages, not only in English. But on the other side, English has certain grammatical rules, which are set and there is a question, if non-natives are entitled to change and customize them. Modiano mentions another special characteristic which can be seen in European English and differs it from British. He presents an example from Sweden. Users of English from this Scandinavian country have a tendency to use progressive tense instead of simple present in questions like “*Where are you from?*”. Most people would answer “*I am from...*”. However, in Sweden, typical answer is “*I am coming from Sweden.*” in progressive tense. (Modiano 2003,54-58)

It is obvious that there are certain criteria, suggesting that Euro-English and British English differ. In the practical part of the thesis, this should be proven on practical models. The documents from practice will be compared, bearing in mind the criteria mentioned previously.

4 PRACTICAL COMPARISON OF EURO-ENGLISH VERSUS BRITISH ENGLISH

In the previous chapters, theoretical background was built and outlined. This chapter of the thesis will focus on a practical comparison of the official documents. Certain characteristics of British English and Euro-English were mentioned and described above. This section will focus on locating them in the texts, comparing them and in accordance with the theory described above. It will be extensively based on knowledge and five points, characterized by Emma Wagner in one of the previous parts of the thesis. Grammar and vocabulary will be also surveyed. Surely, it is not possible to realize a survey of pronunciation from a written text and thus this aspect of language will not be surveyed in this work.

There are several documents, which will be used for the purpose of this survey. All of them are from a juridical field. For example one is from The Supreme Court of Great Britain and it is a judgment given on the case known under the name “*ZH(Tanzania) versus Secretary of State for the Home Department*”. The issue of this case related to family issues and the rights of children. The essence of the case is a question, what are the rights of children, whose both parents are not citizens of Great Britain and are about to be deported from the country. (The Supreme Court 2011a) However, the actual content of the issue is not relevant for the purpose of this work. .

The second text which comes from The European Union Civil Service Tribunal. It is called “*Case F-122/06 –Roodhuijzen versus Commission*“. The issue of this case is also connected with family relationships. (Court of Justice of the European Union 2007) However, more texts will be used for proper demonstration.

4.1 Drafting by non-native speakers

The first difference between the documents is clearly seen at the beginning. British and European English use different vocabulary for naming the two opposite sides of a legal process. In European English, words “*applicant*” and “*defendant*” are used. (The Supreme Court 2011a) However, British English uses terms “*appellant*” and “*respondent*”. (Court of Justice of the European Union 2007). An interesting fact comes to mind when looking at the words defendant and respondent. In general, the British are considered a conservative, polite and quite a reserved nation. Naturally the word “*respondent*” sounds more neutral than “*defendant*”. What is meant to be expressed is that the connotational

meaning of a term “*respondent*” is less negative than the meaning of a term “*defendant*”. The explanation is that when someone is to defend themselves they are blamed for something. However, the term “*respondent*” is understood that a person has to respond to certain questions, but is not blamed, only asked to answer and take a stand to a question. Because of the generally known legislative fact that everyone is innocent until their guilt is legally proved (presumption of innocence), the term “*respondent*” is closer to its intended meaning. This difference in vocabulary of British and Euro-English could be understood as an example of “*drafting by non-native speakers*”, characterized by Emma Wagner who claims that non-native speakers usually lack the ability to realize, what is natural in English. (Wagner 2001)

4.2 Growth of English and Tolerance of Defective English

Wagner also mentions, that before the domination of English language in the EU institutions, French used to hold this position. (Wagner 2001) Some words derived from French are still used in Euro-English. In the surveyed text from European legislative, word “*rapporteur*” is used in the following part of the text.

“ composed of H.Kreppel, President, H.Tagars (Rapporteur) and S.Gervasoni, Judges “ (EU Civil Service Tribunal, 2008)

According to Merriam-Webster dictionary, the origin of this word is:

“Middle French, from *rapporter* to bring back, report”

“First Known Use: circa 1500” (Merriam-Webster, 2011)

Speaking of French influences in vocabulary of Euro-English, there are two synonymic words, “*annex*” and “*clause*”. The first one can be found in European judgment (EU Civil Service Tribunal, 2008), second is in the British document. (The Supreme Court, 2011) Their essential meaning is the same, as they both indicate a certain specific type of document that could be attached to a court’s files. Nevertheless, there is a certain difference between these two terms. The fact is, that both of these words are of the Old French origin - words “*annexer*” and “*clause*”. This is to say that Euro-English uses words derived from

Modern French. This could be shown on the next example. The case is the same, only language mutations are different. First one is written in French, second is in Euro-English.

“31 Le deuxième moyen est tire de la violation des articles 5, 7 et 86 á 89 du status ainsi que des dispositions de son annexe IX.” (The Court of First Instance, 1990)

“31 The second plea alleges a breach of Articles 5,7 and 86 to 89 of the staff Regulations and the provisions of Annex IX thereto.” (The Court of First Instance, 1990)

This demonstrates one of many French influences on Euro-English. It has a tendency to adapt vocabulary typical for French, instead of adopting purely British words. To support it, a paragraph from Britain, containing term “*clause*” is attached.

“86 ...In terms of clause 3(1) of the Memorandum, the object of LAML is “to receive premiums from participating members of affiliates...” “ (*The Supreme Court 2011b*)

Another point, which Wagner mentions is a tolerance of defective grammar in Euro-English. (Wagner 2001) A phenomenon connected with grammar, which was mentioned above by Seidlhofer. (Seidlhofer 2003, 18-19 is usage of “*which*” instead of “*who*”. Example can be found in the following sentence.

“He submitted, in particular, that the relationship with his partner had existed for more than two years already, that together they had a child which he had officially recognized and they were expecting a second.” (Court of Justice of the European Union 2007)

Grammatically incorrect phrase “*a child which*” is used here instead of the correct one which would be “*a child who*”. However, the fact is that the actual meaning of the terms “*which*” and “*who*” in such sentence is the same for some non-native speakers. E.g. in Slovak language, there is a pronoun “*ktorý*” used for animate and inanimate objects. In Czech, the situation is the same. Slovak language does not grammatically distinguish those objects and uses one term for them. That is different in English, with their pronouns “*who*” and “*which*”.

4.3 Fear of Brevity

Wagner claims that in Euro-English, there is a tendency to produce extensive pieces of writing. (Wagner, 2001) As a proof of this statement, two factual backgrounds are compared. The first one is from Europe, second is from Great Britain. An example originating from Europe describes a development of a certain case in a time horizon of one year. The actual essence of a case is not important. However, what matters is its length. The section “Facts” of year 2004 contains 38 short chapters. This section, for all the years, has 91 chapters totally. In some of them, there is a description of concrete days of the process. It is extremely detailed and full of particular information as exact dates, references to concrete legislative acts or even quotations etc. (Court of Justice of European Union 2008) For an illustration, short extract follows,

“65 Also on 1 July 2004, the applicant, on the ground that she had been informed that her request for annual leave for the period from 19 July to 27 August 2004 was not going to be approved, sent an e-mail to a member of staff in Unit B 2 to complain that ‘[her] requests for annual leave [were] always refused or at least not signed within a reasonable time’ and to ask that member of staff to help [her] so that [she] could go on holiday [in the summer of 2004]’.” (Court of Justice of the European Union 2008)

Contrariety to this, there is a text from Britain. The section called “The Facts” has only 3 chapters. They are longer than in the previous example, but the total scope of the section is incomparably shorter and much more compact.

“3. Their parents separated in 2005 but their father continues to see them regularly, visiting approximately twice a month for 4 to 5 days at a time. In 2007 he was diagnosed with HIV. He lives on disability living allowance with his parents and his wife is reported to drink a great deal. The tribunal nevertheless thought that there would not “necessarily be any particular difficulties” if the children were to go to live with him. “ (The Supreme Court 2011a)

Sentence structures are shorter and the text looks more consistent.

4.4 Consensus building

As mentioned previously by Wagner, official documents written in Euro-English have a tendency to be written in a foggy language. Their content would be purposely inflated, containing unnecessary information. (Wagner 2001) For illustration, a short extract of a text with some of the mentioned characteristics is offered below:

“By application lodged at the Registry of the court of First Instance of the European Communities on 11 January 2005 and 17 February 2005 respectively, the applicants seek in essence, firstly annulment of the decision by which the European Anti Fraud Office (OLAF) decided to open an internal investigation, of the investigative measures carried out as part of that investigation, of OLAF’s decision to forward to the Italian judicial authorities information concerning them, and of the report drawn up on completion of the investigation and, secondly, an order for damages against the Commission of the European Communities.” (Court of Justice of the European Union 2008)

The paragraph is written as a one sentence. The reasons, why this can be considered as a foggy language are following. The text needs to be read carefully and attentively. It may be confusing to the reader. If it was separated into shorter sentence structures, it would be much more understandable and less confusing.

In contrast, a text from Great Britain follows. It is a generally known fact, that British English has a tendency to use shorter sentences, which can be also clearly seen from this illustration.

“The facts of this case are a good illustration of how these issues can arise. The mother is a national of Tanzania who arrived here in December 1995 at the age of 20. She made three unsuccessful claims for asylum, one in her own identity and two in false identities. In 1997 she met and formed a relationship with a British citizen. They have two children, a daughter, T, born here in 1998 (who is now 12 years old) and son, J, born in 2001 (who is now nine).” (The Supreme Court 2011a)

When comparing these two extracts, it could be concluded that the British text is much clearer and fluent.

4.5 Eurojargon

Another aspect worth investigating in the previous paragraph, is the acronym OLAF. It proves the existence of a special language, which Emma Wagner calls “Eurojargon”. (Wagner 2001) In this case, OLAF means European Anti Fraud Office. (EU Civil Service Tribunal 2008) people, interested in this subject are perfectly familiar with this acronym. However, the same acronym OLAF is used by Ohio Legal Assistance Foundation. (OLAF 2011) It is quite possible that if a layperson from Ohio would hear this acronym in the context of European union, they would be quite confused and surprised. There are many acronyms in the text, which can be misused. Another examples could be DG, which represents Directorate-General (European Commission 2011b) or JRC, standing for Joint Research Centre. (European Commission 2011b) However, JRC is also a name of an American company, which produces navigation systems for ships. (JRC 2011) For someone from this region, it could sound confusing. JSIS in the text from Europe stands for Joint Sickness Insurance Scheme. (EU Civil Service Tribunal 2007). But, there are many other institutions, using such acronym. According to AcronymAttic, JSIS can stand for Justice Sector Information Strategy, Jackson School of International Studies, Jihad Scientific Information Services or Journal of Strategic Information System. (AcronymAttic, 2005-2008). Payment of Individual Entitlements is represented by acronym PMO in the text. According to AcronymAttic, there is a great number of organisations and functions connected with acronym PMO. Project Management Organization, Programme for Minorities, Police Motor Officer, Program Marketing and Outreach are just some of them. (AcronymAttic, 2005-2008)

CONCLUSION

The aim of the bachelor thesis was to examine a newly emerged phenomenon Euro-English, its features and provide a comparison of Euro-English with a standard language variation - British English. It has been proven that even though they share the same basis and they have a majority of characteristics and features in common, there are also some specifics which distinguish them. The differences arise primarily due the usage by people of different origins from various regions across Europe. The language habits of these people differ, based on their mother tongues.

In the field of theory an attempt to define Euro-English was made. A great number of linguists accept its existence although they do not agree upon a particular definition. There are also those who deny the existence of Euro-English and those who even call it a disease. The right of non-native users of English to influence English has been questioned. It has been found that adopting new words and terminology, coining, etc. seems to be a natural process of language development. However, adopting or tolerating deviation of grammatical structure seems inappropriate.

For the purpose of the work, Euro-English was put into an opposition with British English. The essential reason is that British English holds a status of the traditional English used in Europe. It has existed for a long period of time and all the general facts related to it are already known and accepted. Thereby, there are not so many possibilities of exploring in this variety of English language.

In the thesis, examples of Euro-English were presented and practically compared with British English. The practical part confirmed the theoretical background and provided the reader with differences between these two varieties of English. Diversities in the field of grammar, vocabulary and the general style of using language were demonstrated on the examples from the practice of the courts from Europe and Great Britain.

It is a well-established fact that the position of the English language in Europe is strong. According to the findings in the thesis, the status of Euro-English as the new possible European Lingua Franca will be confirmed in the future by the growing number of its users.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

AcronymAttic.2005-2008. „What does JSIS stand for?“. Accessed April 25, 2011.

<http://www.acronymattic.com/JSIS.html>.

BBC NEWS. 2001. „Is the English language conquering Europe?“. Accessed March 20, 2011. http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/talking_point/1490463.stm

Berns, Margie. 1995. „English in the European Union.“ *English Today* 43, Vol.11

Berns, Margie, de Bot, Kees and Uwe Hasebrink. 2007. *In the Presence of English: Media and European Youth*. New York: Springer.

Crystal, David. 2008. *By hook or by cook: a journey in search of English*. New York: Overlook.

Crystal, David, Quoted In Graddol, David. 1997. *The future of English? A guide to forecasting the popularity of the English language in the 21st century*. London: British Council.

EnglishClub.com.1997-2011. „History of the English Language“. Accessed March 20, 2011. <http://www.englishclub.com/english-language-history.htm> .

European Commission Joint Research Centre. 2011a. Accessed March 25, 2011.

<http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/jrc/index.cfm?id=10> .

European Commission. 2011b. Accessed March 25, 2011.

http://ec.europa.eu/about/ds_en.htm .

EURYDICE. 2005. „Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe.“ Accessed March 20, 2011. http://www.mp.gov.rs/resursi/dokumenti/dok60-eng-KD_languages.pdf

Graddol, David. 1997. „The Future of English?“. London: British Council.

<http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-elt-future.pdf>

House, Julianne. 2001. „A stateless language that Europe should embrace.“ *Guardian Weekly* (TEFL Supplement „Learning English“, April).

Japan Radio Co.,Ltd. 2011. Accessed March 25, 2011. <http://www.jrcamerica.com/>.

Jenkins, Jennifer.2000. *The Phonology of English as an International Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jenkins, Jenifer.2003., Quoted In Hinterholzer, Stefan. 2007. *English in the European Union*.Nordestedt: GRIN Verlag.

Jenkins, Jennifer.2009. *World Englishes:A resource book for students, Second Edition*. London: Routledge.

Merriam-Webster.2011. „Rapporteur“ Accessed March 25, 2011. <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/rapporteur> .

Modiano, Marko. 2001. „A new variety of English“. *English Today* 68, Vol.17, No.4:13

Modiano,Marko. 2003. „Euro-English: A Swedish perspective.“ *English Today* 74.

Mollin, Sandra. 2006. *Euro-English:assessing variety status*. Tübingen:Gunter Narr Verlag.

Ohio Legal Assistance Foundation. 2011. Accessed March 25, 2011. <http://www.olaf.org/> .

Phillipson, Robert. 2003.“English-only Europe?:Challenging Language Policy.“ London:Routledge, Quoted In Jenkins, Jennifer. 2009. *World Englishes:A resource book for students, Second Edition*. London: Routledge. p.48

Rosewarne, David. 1994. „Estuary English: tomorrow’s RP?“ *English Today* 37, Vol.10.

Sassoon, Caroline and Giles Howard. 1983. „The Effect of Speakers‘ Accents, Social Class and Background and Message Style on British Listeners‘ Social Judgements.“ *Language and Communication*, v 3(3).

Seidlhofer, Barbara. 2003. *A Concept of International English and Related Issues: From „Real English“ to „Realistic English“?*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

<http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/seidlhoferen.pdf> .

The Court of First Instance. 1990. Antonio Pitrone v. Commission of the European Communities, Judgment of the Court of First Instance given on 23 October 1990. Accessed March 25, 2011. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61989A0046:EN:HTML> .

The EU Civil Service Tribunal. 2007. Roodhuijzen v. Commission, F-122/06, Judgment given on 27 November 2007. Accessed March 25, 2011. <http://curia.europa.eu/jurisp/cgi-bin/form.pl?lang=en&Submit=Rechercher&alldocs=alldocs&docj=docj&docop=docop&docor=docor&docjo=docjo&numaff=F-122/06&datefs=&datefe=&nomusuel=&domaine=&mots=&resmax=100> .

The EU Civil Service Tribunal. 2008. F-52/05, Judgment given on 9 December 2008. Accessed March 25, 2011. <http://curia.europa.eu/jurisp/cgi-bin/form.pl?lang=en&Submit=Rechercher&alldocs=alldocs&docj=docj&docop=docop&docor=docor&docjo=docjo&numaff=F-52/05%20&datefs=&datefe=&nomusuel=&domaine=&mots=&resmax=100> .

The Supreme Court. 2011a. ZH Tanzania (Appellant) v. Secretary of State for the Home Department, Judgment given on 1 February 2011. Accessed March 25, 2011. http://www.supremecourt.gov.uk/decided-cases/docs/UKSC_2010_0002_Judgment.pdf .

The Supreme Court. 2011b. Brent London Borough and others (Harrow London Borough Council (Appellant) v. Risk Management Partners Limited (Respondent), Judgment given on 9 February 2011. b Accessed March 25, 2011. http://www.supremecourt.gov.uk/decided-cases/docs/UKSC_2009_0166_Judgment.pdf .

Trudgill, Peter. 1999. *The Dialects of England, 2nd edition*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Trudgill, Peter. 2002. *Sociolinguistic Variation and Change*. Edinburgh:Edinburgh University Press.

Truchot, Claude (2001). „La lanngue au travail. Évolution des pratiques linguistiques des entreprises multinationals.“ In *Actes du symposium de l' Association Suisse de Linguistique Appliqué. Communiquer en milieu professionnel plurilingue*. Lugano:Université de Lugano, Quoted In Berns, Margie, de Bot, Kees and Uwe Hasebrink. 2007- *In the Presence of English:Media and European Youth*. New York: Springer.

UCL. 1998. „Estuary English“. Accessed April 25, 2011.
<http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/home/estuary/>.

Van der Linden, Erik. (2001). „Verengelsing“. Accessed October 12, 2003.
<http://www.angelfire.com/darkside/spiritje/> , Quoted In Berns, Margie, de Bot, Kees and Uwe Hasebrink. 2007- *In the Presence of English:Media and European Youth*. New York: Springer.

Wagner, Emma. 2001. „*Eurospeak-Fighting the Disease*.“ Cultivate interactive. Accessed March 20, 2011. <http://www.cultivate-int.org/issue4/eurospeak/> .

Waterfield, Bruno. 2010. „Flemish-speaking Belgian minister wants English to be Europe’s common language.“ *The Telegraph*, September 27. Accessed March 20, 2011.
<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/europe/belgium/8028109/Flemish-speaking-Belgian-minister-wants-English-to-be-Europes-common-language.html> .

Wells, John. 1982. *Accents of English:an introduction, Volume 1*. Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.

Wells, John.1997. „What is Estuary English?“.*English Teaching Professional*. Accessed April 25, 2011. <http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/home/estuary/whatis.htm>.

Wells, John. 1998. „Pinning down Estuary English.“ Abstract for lecture given in Lund, Sweden, April 1998. Accessed March 20, 2011. <http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/home/estuary/est-lund.htm> .