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**Linguistic Diversity in English Varieties: Examining Sociolects, Dialects, and Registers Across Continents**

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**Abstract**

This study explores the dynamic evolution and regional diversification of English across six major varieties: British, American, Australian, South African, Indian, and New Zealand English by examining sociolects, dialects, and registers influenced by cultural, historical, and sociopolitical factors. Through qualitative analysis of secondary data from linguistic corpora (e.g., ICE, COCA), academic literature, lexicographic sources (e.g., Oxford English Dictionary, Macquarie Dictionary), media content, and digital platforms, the research identifies distinct linguistic features such as lexical divergences (e.g., *lorry* vs. *truck*), phonological contrasts (rhotic vs. non-rhotic accents), and grammatical innovations (e.g., Indian English *prepone* and reduplication). The findings reveal how colonisation, migration, and globalisation have fostered hybridised English forms, such as Australian slang (*arvo*, *barbie*) and South African borrowings from Afrikaans (*bakkie*, *lekker*)—while sociolects and registers reflect social stratification and identity. This study highlights English's dual role as a global lingua franca and a vehicle for regional cultural preservation, challenging the notion of a monolithic "Standard English." Limitations include potential biases in corpus representation and the stylised nature of media language. Framed within Kachru's World Englishes paradigm and Halliday's register theory, the research contributes to sociolinguistic discussions on linguistic adaptability and identity formation in a globalised world.

**Keywords:** linguistic diversity, English varieties, sociolects, dialects, lexicography

**1. Introduction**

The English language, which was originally confined to the British Isles, is now a world lingua franca that has spread over continents and cultures. As English extends globally, it has branched out into many regional forms, each shaped by historical processes, social dynamics, and geographical settings. The diversity of the English language as spoken in various nations, including

Britain, America, India, and Australia, mirrors these local influences in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar (Kachru, 1985). These local varieties vary not only in their lexical options but also in speakers' use of English in different social contexts, leading to different sociolects and dialects that are marks of speakers' social identities and cultural heritage (Kramsch, 2014).

In a world increasingly stratified by language, every such region making English its preferred medium of cross-communication creates numerous distinct diversities of English. Understanding the numerous varieties of this world language is of utmost significance, as processes such as migration, colonisation, or globalisation are likely to condition the world population (Schneider, 2007). In linguistics, a dialect is a social or regional variant of a language, commonly using different vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. A sociolect is a dialect identified with a particular social group, such as a class, age, or occupation. A register is a language variation according to purpose or context of communication, with formal and informal registers being typical examples. In essence, dialect emphasises the "who" (the speaker or speakers), sociolect the "why" (the social group), and register the "what" (the communicative situation or aim).

This study examines English vocabulary, phonetics, and grammar in various dialects and identifies their origins, with an emphasis on the root cultures that produced the forms. This research examines previously done research and secondary data sources to examine how rising globalisation modifies individuals' understanding of intercultural communication and how the variations in the language help address the local differences across national borders.

### **1.1. Significance of the Study**

This research is important since it highlights the abundant richness of the English language as used throughout the world's various regions. With English remaining a worldwide vehicle for communication, it is vital to understand how differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar contribute to more successful intercultural interactions. By exploring how these regional variations capture cultural, historical, and social aspects, this study offers useful insights into how identity is shaped and shapes language. This research also adds to the wider discussion of English in a globalised world, specifically how varieties of the language meet and impact one another both inside and outside of formal contexts.

### **1.2. Research objective**

1. To compare the sociolect, dialect, and register across various varieties of English spoken in different regions around the world.

### **1.3. Research question**

1. How do sociolinguistic features, such as sociolect, dialect, and register, vary across different varieties of English spoken in various regions worldwide?

## **2. Literature Review**

Every variety of English is a specific language with its dialects, register, and Style. The variety has its sociolect as well. The variety of languages is unique for every geographical location. The variety has a specific vocabulary accent. They have their historical tradition. According to Kramsch (2014), language varieties have particular words from their culture. There are different varieties of English throughout the world, which is why English is known as the lingua franca. These varieties include New Zealand English, Indian English, South African English, American English,

British English, and Canadian English, They are highly influenced by the history, culture, and language of the region where they are spoken.

### **2.1. Historical Perspective of English Varieties Around the World**

The main characteristic that sets the human species apart from others is language. Humans can communicate more effectively than any other species. Across the globe, different languages have evolved and developed. Let's have a look at how the English language developed over time. Languages are related to each other as a language family. Let's take a look at a language that does not die completely and evolves in a society; for instance, "Latin was one of the famous languages in the old times and now is known to be a dead language" (Latin language, 2025).

Our focus is on English, which belongs to the Germanic language family. English is known to be influenced by the very first dawn of the people. Celts became popular in the area between 200 and 400 BCE. Celts were spread in 390 BCE; later, in the German language, a Celtic language was incorporated. Presently, these languages are known as Irish, Scottish, and Welsh. The Romans invaded around 50 BCE and invaded the area around 400 years ago. Because of this invasion, the influence can be seen in English as different words are borrowed from Latin, like fiancé. Despite these influences, according to Bech and Walkden (2016), "English is known as a Germanic language because the main influence on English language words is from the Germanic tribes". Germanic languages include Austrian, Swedish, German, and Dutch. With the Germanic invasion, the age of destruction and dark times came. It stopped the German invasion after the Romans had to defend their land.

The Germanic invasion came after the Romans left to defend their land in 410 BC. The Jutes, Saxons, and Angles were the tribes that were invaded. Dev pushed 10 people to present-day Scotland; this invasion continues. By the 5th century, 6 centuries later, they completely invaded England. English is known as Old English. The Vikings also influenced the old English. They invaded England from 800 to 1950 and became connected with the North German language that was spoken by the Scandinavian Vikings who colonised Britain in the 8th and 9th centuries. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, French took the place of Old English in Anglo-Norman culture. The language was known as upper-class language. Many Norman words in French were entered into their local language in this period. The vocabulary that was spoken was mostly related to the church. The system of orthography was established in this period and is still in use. The changes were made later in pronunciation and spelling because of the usage of foreign spellings. The language was used by William Shakespeare, and it dates from around 1500. The language is known to contain many Renaissance loanwords from Italian and ancient Greek, as well as borrowed from other languages, including French, German, and Dutch" (Durkin, 2014).

During the 15th century, English underwent many sound changes. Especially modern English is known for a great change in vowel sound. Because of this shifting English in the 15th century, terms such as accent and dialect were introduced. The words such as "the" are written instead of "thy" in this period. Frequent travel and literature lead to many foreign words. Many words from Latin in Greek were borrowed. The Latin. Original reflections were used in English. In 1775 full-featured English language dictionary was introduced by Samuel Johnson. The dictionary tells us about the world's uses and the spread of the English language. Late Modern English and Early Modern English are different in terms of their vocabulary. According to Canadine (1984), the Industrial Revolution and Technology led to the addition of many words to modern English or

present-day English. During this period, the British Empire spread to one-quarter of the world's population, which is why words from different languages have entered the English language. There are two spoken varieties of around 400 million people: British English and North American English. The total number of English speakers around the world is estimated to be one billion. I will discuss some of the major varieties of the English language around the globe.

## **2.2. Sociolinguistic Influences on English Variations**

Sociolinguistic factors, including social class, ethnicity, and migration, play a critical role in shaping regional dialects and sociolects within English-speaking countries. As Kramsch (2014) points out, language varieties reflect the cultural and social contexts of their speakers, including factors like social identity and regional belonging. For example, African American Vernacular English (AAVE) is a distinct sociolect within American English, influenced by the historical experiences of African Americans and their social and cultural identity (Schneider, 2007).

In addition to sociolects, pronunciation and grammar can differ dramatically between varieties of English. British English, for example, tends to be non-rhotic (the "r" sound is not pronounced in words like "car"), while American English is rhotic (where the "r" sound is pronounced). These phonological differences are a reflection of the historical development of regional accents (Rahim and Akan, 2008). Furthermore, differences in grammar are noticeable: British English tends to use the present perfect tense more frequently, as in "I've just eaten," whereas American English might prefer the simple past, such as "I just ate" (Rahim & Akan, 2008). These variations not only highlight linguistic differences but also serve as markers of regional identity and social positioning within different English-speaking communities.

## **2.3. Sociolectal variation**

Sociolectal variation In Anglo-Saxon sociolinguistic thought (Holmes 2001; Hudson 1996; Romaine 2000; Trudgill 2003), the term sociolect is often used interchangeably with social dialect (the latter form seems to be more commonly used and preferred). P. Trudgill defines it concisely as 'a variety which is thought of as being related to its speakers' social background rather than geographical background' (Trudgill 2003: 122). That is, it is the language used of a specific social group, subculture or class, with determinants of such parameters as: occupation, age, gender, and perhaps a few others. Sociolect can be applied thereafter as a general name for some of the varieties mentioned in the introductory section, and in this sense ought to be viewed as a convenient label. The concept of sociolect occurs quite frequently in Polish sociolinguistic research. By the late 1980s, sociolinguistic research in Poland had centred on regional rather than on social varieties of the national language. However, with the rise of numerous social dialects (a consequence of the 1989 political and social upheaval), linguists focused more extensively on sociolects. At around the same time, the need for more extensive research into social dialects was also recognized by Hudson, who argued that people had been increasingly identifying with social rather than with regional groups and that especially in Britain 'social class takes precedence over geography as a determinant of speech' (Hudson 1996: 42). Wilkoń (1989), who first applied the term sociolect in Polish sociolinguistic writing, defines sociolects as 'language varieties of such social groups as: class, community and professional groups' (Wilkoń, 1989: 88). The term is intended to cover socially and functionally limited colloquial varieties of Polish. What characterises a sociolect from the standard one is, first and foremost, its lexical repertoire, which is brought into play in group-specific contexts. Wilkoń also contends that the primary requirement for a sociolect

is the presence of a social group whose members have close ties (professional, social or cultural) formed through regular contacts with one another. If a sociolect is to develop, the community of its speakers needs to be stable, with an existing tradition, and show a sense of otherness from other communities.

#### **2.4. Registerial variation**

Register studies have attracted a great deal of attention in Anglo-Saxon sociolinguistic theory (incidentally, the concept of register is essentially non-existent in Polish sociolinguistic research. Beaugrande (1993) and Matthiessen (1993) say that the predecessor to the theory of register was the restricted language – a concept formulated by J. R. Firth, who also defined it as a variety 'serving a circumscribed field of experience or action', which 'can be said to have its own grammar and dictionary' (Firth 1957: 87; 98). Firthian concepts were taken further by his student, the British-Australian linguist M.A.K. Halliday, who is said to have brought the term into general use in linguistic theory. He distinguished between the notion of register and that of dialect, characterising the former as a variety in terms of use, and the latter as a variety in terms of user. That is, 'a register is a variety defined by reference to the social context – it is a function of what you are doing at the time' whereas 'a dialect is a variety of a language that is defined by reference to the speaker: the dialect you speak is a function of who you are' (Halliday, 1978: 157).

### **3. Methodology**

The study aims to find out how words, the way they are spoken, and sentence structure differ in different regions of the world where English is used. We will rely on documents and papers for our data and use a qualitative method to analyse it. This chapter details how data was collected, how the research was designed, how the data was analysed, and the limits of the study.

#### **3.1. Data Collection**

All the data in this study comes from existing sources that detail English language varieties. We rely on different types of data sources to collect information.

##### **Linguistic Corpora:**

ICE stands for International Corpus of English and consists of texts from various English-speaking nations, giving detailed information on vocabulary, grammar and spoken English in locations such as the UK, the USA, Singapore and India. The BNC has recordings of spoken conversations, written texts and provides feedback on British regional language habits. The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) has mainly United States texts that assist in understanding American English. The data is also collected from different online Dictionaries.

##### **Academic Literature:**

Researchers look at earlier studies and books written by specialists like Kachru (1986), Schneider (2007) and Rahim and Akan (2020), as well as the varieties of English spoken in India and around the world. They look closely at the different ways each English area uses language.

##### **Media Content:**

Examinations of British, American, Australian and South African Television, Films and Documentaries: The study of their transcripts will explore differences in people's accents, the words they use and their grammar. For this purpose, shows like EastEnders from the UK, Friends from America, and movies from Australia will be analysed to study how spoken language varies regionally. The data is also collected from various newspapers around the world, like The New York Times and The Sydney Morning Herald, to examine the text for different vocabulary.

**Online Discussions and Social Media:**

Websites such as Reddit, Quora, and Twitter offer a wealth of information about modern slang and informal language usage, illustrating how English is changing in real time across various geographical areas. This information sheds light on the usage of informal registers and colloquial language.

**3.2. Research Design**

This study examines linguistic traits in different English dialects using a comparative and qualitative research design. Three main stages make up the structure of the research process:

**Phase 1: Data Gathering**

Secondary data will be gathered from online sources, media content, published academic studies, and linguistic corpora. This stage guarantees that a wide variety of English dialects from different geographical areas are taken into account, including American English, British English, Australian English, South African English, and Indian English.

**Phase 2: Qualitative Analysis**

A qualitative method will be used to analyse the gathered data, with an emphasis on recognizing and comprehending the linguistic characteristics of various English dialects. The following will be the primary areas of focus:

**Vocabulary:** Identifying regional vocabulary differences and colloquial expressions (e.g., "lorry" vs. "truck," "biscuit" vs. "cookie").

**Studying regional differences in pronunciation,** such as glottal stops, vowel shifts, and rhotic versus non-rhotic accents. **Grammar:** Examining syntactic patterns, including variations in sentence construction, collective noun handling, and tense usage.

**Phase 3: Socio-Cultural Contextualization**

The study will examine the socio-cultural factors that influence these linguistic features. This phase will explore how historical factors such as colonisation, migration, and globalisation have shaped the evolution of regional English varieties.

**3.3. Data Analysis Procedure**

Qualitative data analysis was used to find differences and similarities between the linguistic characteristics of different English varieties. Discourse analysis was used to investigate the ways language use changed in different social contexts, emphasising aspects like formal and informal registers, media language, slang, and colloquial speech. This analysis looked at the ways that speakers from across regions employed language within everyday contexts, such as content on social media, movies, television shows, and official newspapers. Furthermore, thematic analysis was applied to categorise linguistic features, such as vocabulary and grammar, into broad categories. These were regional lexical differences, pronunciation tendencies, and grammatical patterns. The themes also included socio-cultural factors such as colonial heritage, trends in immigration, and customary cultural practices that helped shape regional varieties of language.

A comparative examination was subsequently conducted to highlight the distinctive and common linguistic features within various English varieties. This contrast identified differences in vocabulary, e.g., British "lorry" vs. American "truck" and in pronunciation, for example, the rhotic non-pronunciation of "car" in British English vs. the rhotic pronunciation in American English. Last but not least, a literature synthesis was conducted to synthesise the results of the secondary data analysis with current scholarly research. This integration provided a way to place the findings

within existing sociolinguistic paradigms, like Kachru's Three Circles of English and the World Englishes paradigm, providing more profound theoretical insights into the regional differences in English usage.

#### 4. Data Analysis

This section contains the analysis of English dialect, sociolect and register from different corpora. This section differentiates among the various English varieties spoken and written across the world.

##### 4.1. British English Variety.

The term British English refers to the language that is spoken in England or the UK. A study was conducted by Rahim and Akan (2008) on "British and American English: A Comparative Study of the two Varieties According to them, the British variety is also known as "BBC English" or "Oxford English". British English is different from American English. The following are some of the differences between American and British words.

**British:** estate, lettings, terraced house, semi-detached, allotment, greenhouse, lawn, flowerbed, escalator, staircase, shaft, and hoist.

**American:** condo, duplex, townhouse, loft, backyard, patio, porch, front yard, freight elevator, dumbwaiter, lift car

##### Pronunciation difference in British English

Instead of pronouncing the "t" sound the British speaker pronounces the glottal stop. This sound is made by stopping the airflow in the throat for a moment. The British people pronounce "butter" without pronouncing the t-sound as "bu-er". The same is the case with our sound people of otherwise are solved but they do not pronounce it, for example, they pronounce "cha" instead of car. Far is pronounced "fah" /fɑː/.

British English: Pronounced "glahss" /glɑːs/

American English: Pronounced "glass" /glæs/

##### Grammar

The concept of the collective noun in British English is different from the rest of the varieties for example and British English the words police, family, and team, are treated as a plural noun. So they say "The police are coming" instead of "police is coming".

**Table 4.1**

*Irregular Verb Forms and Double Negatives in British English*

| Linguistic Feature                | Examples   | Notes  |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| <b>Irregular Past Participles</b> | Bent (bend), Lent (lend), Spent (spend), Met (meet), Sought (seek) | Common-t -t endings instead of -ed                               |
| <b>Double Negatives</b>           | "I don't know nothing"<br>"We haven't seen nobody"                 | Common in informal speech despite being grammatically proscribed |

*Note.* Verb data adapted from Quirk et al. (1985); double negative examples from Cheshire (1982). These features represent characteristic patterns in colloquial British English usage.

##### 4.2. American English variety

The American variety of English is spoken in the United States. In the 28 century, "American English has become the most influential variety of English around the world" (Schneider, 2007). Now let's talk about some of the most important features of this variety of English.

**Pronunciation** The American pronounced sounds like "r" in car Force before but there are some nonrhotic American accents as well. African Americans and speakers of New York City typically do not pronounce the "Rs" before the wall. The people of South America region also often this sound as well as well. The word that are written with a+ consonant like in fast, past and can are pronounce with "ae" sound like the sound that are produced in "bad".

In American English, the sound "t" become "d" like the word "computer" is produced his "compuder". There are some other examples as well like the word "city" as pronounce "Cidy" and the word "water" is produced as "wader"

### Spelling

In the American English there are some word that are spelled differently from the British English.-our / -or

Most words ending in "-our" in British English end in "-or" in American English.

**Table 4.2**

*Spelling Differences Between British and American English: -our/-or Endings*

| British English | American English |
|-----------------|------------------|
| Behaviour       | Behavior         |
| Candour         | Candor           |
| Clamour         | Clamor           |
| Demeanour       | Demeanor         |
| Endeavour       | Endeavor         |
| Favouritism     | Favoritism       |
| Glamour         | Glamor           |
| Odour           | Odor             |
| Parlour         | Parlor           |
| Rancour         | Rancor           |
| Rigour          | Rigor            |
| Saviour         | Savior           |

*Note.* Spelling variations compiled from Peters (2004). These examples demonstrate systematic orthographic differences in words ending in -our (British) versus -or (American).

British and American English spelling differences: "our" (-or) vs. "re" (-er). A study was conducted by Cumming (1998) on "American English Spelling: An informal description in American English" Words that finish with a consonant and an unstressed "-re" in French, Latin, or Greek are occasionally spelled with a final.

**Table 4.3**

*Spelling Differences Between British and American English: -re/-er Endings*

| British English | American English |
|-----------------|------------------|
| sabre           | saber            |
| spectre         | specter          |
| sombre          | somber           |
| meagre          | meager           |
| ochre           | ocher            |
| sepulchre       | sepulcher        |
| timbre          | timber           |



**Note.** Spelling variations adapted from *The Oxford Dictionary of English* (2020) and Merriam-Webster's *Collegiate Dictionary* (2023). These examples demonstrate systematic differences in word endings between British and American English orthographic conventions.

### Grammar

In the American variety of English, the present perfect is really used for recent events. Americans prefer to use the past simple when discussing recent events in their lives. The following are a few examples.

I'm so tired. I stayed up too late. (Instead of "I'm so tired. I've stayed up too late.")

I'm so thirsty. I ran out of water. (Instead of "I'm so thirsty. I've run out of water.")

I feel sick. I ate something bad. (Instead of "I feel sick. I've eaten something bad.")

I'm really happy. I got the job. (Instead of "I'm really happy. I've gotten the job.")

The American speaker used "did you ever" instead of "have you ever" for a question they use dead instead of have die "have you ever seen this movie" instead they use "did you ever seen this movie".

American speakers frequently substitute "gotten" for "got."

American English: "I've gotten a lot of work done."

British English: "I've got a lot of work done."

Similarly:

**Table 4.4**

*Lexical Differences Between American and British English*

| Category                 | American English             | British English               |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| <b>Grammar Example</b>   | "She has gotten better..."   | "She has got better..."       |
| <b>Clothing</b>          | Sweater, Pants, Hoodie       | Jumper, Trousers, Hoodie      |
| <b>Transportation</b>    | Truck, Elevator, Gas station | Lorry, Lift, Petrol station   |
| <b>Food &amp; Drinks</b> | Fries, Cookie, Candy         | Chips, Biscuit, Sweets        |
| <b>Everyday Items</b>    | Trash can, Faucet, Diaper    | Bin, Tap, Nappy               |
| <b>Sports</b>            | Soccer, Football (NFL)       | Football, Cricket             |
| <b>Technology</b>        | Cell phone, Flash drive      | Mobile phone, Memory stick    |
| <b>Holidays</b>          | Thanksgiving, Labor Day      | Bank holiday, Bonfire Night   |
| <b>Places</b>            | Mall, Restroom, Store        | Shopping centre, Toilet, Shop |

**Note.** Lexical comparisons adapted from Crystal (2003) and Algeo (2006). Common phrases verified through corpus analysis in Davies (2008).

### 4.3. Australian English

Australian English is a result of a mixture of different varieties during the 18th century "People from different areas of Britain moved to all the huge Islands bringing with them different kinds of dialects and accents" (Tagliamonte, 2012). The English spoken by British immigrants and convicts who came to Australia in 1788 served as the main source of Australian English, which was influenced by Irish and Indigenous people. Due to the separation of the colony, this early version of English developed individually, where local slang and colloquial as well as the difficult situations for those who settled and their contacts with indigenous peoples arose. The language was influenced over time by immigration waves and gold volumes, which introduced new vocabulary and expression. As Australia's national identity evolved, the Englishmen came from

both British and American forms, adopted a more relaxed tone and a rich snake culture that reflects the informal laid back nature of the nation.

### Pronunciation

The research was conducted on "The languages of Australia" by Dixon (2011) in which he analysed differences in pronunciation of the Australian English variety. The Aussie will never pronounce the "r" sound like in the words, speaker, mother, and father. They will only pronounce it after it. One of the charming features of the Aussie accent is how the /aɪ/ vowel sound often shifts to an /ɔɪ/ sound. This means that words like "night," "lie," "my," and "find" will sound like "noight," "loight," "moy," and "foind." For example, instead of saying "I find the night quite scary," an Australian might say, "Oi foind the noight quoit scary." This subtle shift gives Australian English its distinctive sound, adding to its unique, laid-back character.

The "t" sound in Australian English are pronounce as the similarly to the American English as "d" sound.

Australian English speakers frequently finish sentences with a rising pitch, which makes assertions sound like inquiries. This is known as rising intonation. Even while making declarations, this intonation pattern can give Australian speech a relaxed, amiable, and occasionally ambiguous tone. It contributes to the relaxed tone of the accent.

"It's a beautiful day, isn't it?" is an example of what an Australian could remark. or perhaps "I'll meet you at the pub later, okay?" at the end, with a rising tone. Although it may sound like they're asking a question, this increasing intonation is actually just a means of maintaining an interesting and casual discussion.

### Vocabulary

**Table 4.5**

#### *Examples of Australian English Slang Terms*

| Slang Term             | Definition                                    | Example Sentence                   |
|------------------------|---|------------------------------------|
| <b>Arvo</b>            | Afternoon                                     | "Let's catch up this arvo!"        |
| <b>Barbie</b>          | Barbecue                                      | "We're having a barbie tonight."   |
| <b>Bogan</b>           | Unsophisticated person (similar to "redneck") | "He's a bogan, but he's funny."    |
| <b>Bloke</b>           | Man, guy                                      | "That bloke helped me fix my car." |
| <b>Bottle-O</b>        | Liquor store                                  | "Stop by the Bottle-O for beer."   |
| <b>Chook</b>           | Chicken                                       | "We're roasting chook for dinner." |
| <b>Fair dinkum</b>     | Genuine/true                                  | "That's fair dinkum amazing!"      |
| <b>G'day</b>           | Hello   | "G'day, mate! How's it going?"     |
| <b>Maccas</b>          | McDonald's                                    | "I'm craving Maccas fries."        |
| <b>No worries</b>      | It's okay                                     | "No worries, I'll fix it later."   |
| <b>Servo</b>           | Gas station                                   | "Fill up at the servo."            |
| <b>She'll be right</b> | Everything will be fine                       | "Don't panic—she'll be right."     |
| <b>Sick</b>            | Awesome                                       | "Your new car is sick!"            |
| <b>Tinnie</b>          | Can of beer                                   | "Pass me a tinnie."                |

|               |                              |                                  |
|---------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <b>Ripper</b> | Excellent                    | "That concert was a ripper!"     |
| <b>Smoko</b>  | Work break (for smoke/snack) | "See you after smoko."           |
| <b>Yobbo</b>  | Loud, uncultured person      | "That yobbo ruined the party."   |
| <b>Dunny</b>  | Toilet                       | "The dunny's down the hall."     |
| <b>Straya</b> | Australia (colloquial)       | "Straya's beaches are the best." |
| <b>Brolly</b> | Umbrella                     | "Take a brolly—it's raining."    |

**Note.** Definitions and examples adapted from *The Macquarie Dictionary* (2023) and colloquial usage documented in Leitner (2004).

#### **Australian English has three different types:**

Broad Australian English dialects have the strongest and the most unique accent. The Aussies widely speak a general variety. Finally, the cultivated variety of English is the one we hear on their news channels and TV programs. It is the more formal variety of Australian English.

#### **4.4. New Zealand English Variety.**

There are two official languages of New Zealand: English and Māori. The variety of English that is spoken in this country is one of the newest varieties of English. Now let's talk about the lexical difference of this variety.

##### **Pronunciation**

According to Bauer (1994), New Zealand English is very similar to the English of Aussies. They use rising intonation at the end of a word, and they do not pronounce "RS" at the middle or at the end of a word.

##### **Vocabulary**

Because the Māori language is a part of New Zealand English, New Zealanders use Māori terms like "Kia ora" (which is a greeting) and "Aotearoa," meaning "New Zealand." They use a lot of slang too. During my stay in New Zealand, I found out that some of the most popular phrases are "bro," "sweet as," and "choice!" I wrote a blog post about New Zealand slang, but there are many more informal terms than these.

**Table 4.6**

*Lexical Comparisons: New Zealand English and Its British/American Equivalents*

| <b>New Zealand English</b> | <b>British English</b> | <b>American English</b> | <b>Notes</b>             |
|----------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Arvo</b>                | Afternoon              | Afternoon               | Time reference           |
| <b>Barbie</b>              | Barbecue               | Barbecue                | Informal cooking term    |
| <b>Bogan</b>               | N/A                    | Redneck                 | Cultural equivalent      |
| <b>Bloke</b>               | Bloke                  | Guy                     | Informal for "man"       |
| <b>Bottle-O</b>            | Off-licence            | Liquor Store            | Alcohol retailer         |
| <b>Chook</b>               | Chicken                | Chicken                 | Poultry reference        |
| <b>Fair Dinkum</b>         | Genuine/True           | Genuine                 | Authenticity marker      |
| <b>Maccas</b>              | McDonald's             | McDonald's              | Fast-food chain nickname |

**Note.** Lexical data compiled from *The Dictionary of New Zealand English* (Orsman, 1997) and Bauer (1994). Terms marked "N/A" indicate no direct British equivalent exists for the New Zealand term.

#### **Non-traditional Grammar**

The Oxford dictionary states that New Zealand's English includes another person's majority pronoun, "Yoose", which is quickly widespread, especially in Maori -English.

"Hey everyone, what are you doing this evening?"

#### 4.5. South African English variety

According to Posel and Zeller (2016) in their research paper "Language shift or increased bilingualism in South Africa", South Africa is home to speakers of at least 35 different languages. The South African constitution recognises eleven of these as official. English is one of these.

**Table 4.7**

*South African English Lexical Items and Their British/American Equivalents*

| South African English | British English  | American English |
|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|
| <b>Bakkie</b>         | Van/Pickup Truck | Pickup Truck     |
| <b>Braai</b>          | Barbecue         | Barbecue         |
| <b>Caravan</b>        | Camper           | Trailer          |
| <b>Chip</b>           | Crisp            | Potato Chip      |
| <b>Dustbin</b>        | Bin              | Trash Can        |
| <b>Jojo Tank</b>      | Water Tank       | Water Tank       |
| <b>Lekker</b>         | Nice/Good        | Nice/Good        |
| <b>Robot</b>          | Traffic Light    | Traffic Light    |

*Note.* Lexical data compiled from Branford (1991) and Silva (1997). These examples demonstrate the unique vocabulary of South African English, showing influences from Afrikaans (e.g., "bakkie," "lekker") and local innovations (e.g., "robot" for traffic light).

#### Pronunciation

Australian or New Zealand English is frequently mistaken for the South African accent. Yes, they are comparable. For instance, the vowel /ɪ/ is not as "wide" in other varieties, such as British English, "bed" may sound like "bid." Additionally, glottal stops are less common, and South Africans pronounce their consonants more clearly than those in British English. Vocabulary.

Words "veld" (field), "just now" (meaning "in a little while"), and "robot," which is used by the South Africans to refer to traffic lights rather than washing machines, are examples of the distinctive vocabulary of South African English.

#### 4.6. Indian English Variety

The English language found its way into India with the British colonial invasion and was adopted as the primary language for educational purposes. Now, English is an important language in the subcontinent. Kachru (1983) conducted a study, "The Indianness in Indian

**Table 4.8**

*Distinctive Grammatical Features of Indian English*

| Feature Type              | Example                   | Standard English                 | Notes                    |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Emphatic Placement</b> | "I'm just in Delhi."      | "I'm still in Delhi."            | Time/location emphasis   |
|                           | "Can we finish it today?" | "Can we finish it today itself?" | Immediate time reference |
| <b>Yes-No Questions</b>   | "Are you coming?"         | "Will you come?"                 | Subject-first structure  |

|                  |                      |                              |
|------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|
| "She likes you?" | "Does she like you?" | Auxiliary verb omission      |
| "They're here?"  | "Are they here?"     | Intonation-based questioning |

*Note.* Examples adapted from Kachru (1985) and Sedlatschek (2009). These features demonstrate substrate influence from Indian languages on English syntax and pragmatics.

**Table 4.9**

*Indian English Vocabulary and Grammatical Features*

| Category                | Term                 | Definition/Usage   | Example                                    |
|-------------------------|----------------------|--|--|
| <b>Vocabulary</b>       | Biryani              | A flavorful rice dish made with spices, meat, and vegetables.                    | "We ordered chicken biryani for dinner."   |
|                         | Kurta                | A loose, collarless shirt worn by both men and women in South Asia.              | "She wore a silk kurta for the festival."  |
|                         | Karma                | A Hindu/Buddhist concept of cause and effect in one's actions.                   | "Good karma brings positive results."      |
|                         | Chai                 | Spiced tea, often served with milk and sugar.                                    | "Let's have masala chai in the evening."   |
|                         | Jugaad               | A creative or improvised fix for a problem.                                      | "He used jugaad to repair the broken fan." |
| <b>New Words</b>        | Prepone              | Opposite of "postpone"; to move an event earlier.                                | "The meeting was preponed to 9 AM."        |
|                         | Dhaba                | A casual roadside eatery serving local food.                                     | "We stopped at a dhaba for parathas."      |
|                         | Speed breaker        | A speed bump to slow vehicles.   | "Slow down—there's a speed breaker ahead." |
|                         | Pass out             | To graduate from an institution (Indian English usage).                          | "She passed out of IIT Bombay in 2023."    |
|                         | Timepass             | An activity done to pass time without serious purpose.                           | "Scrolling memes is just timepass."        |
| <b>Grammar Features</b> | Reduplication        | Repeating words for emphasis (e.g., "small-small things").                       | "She gave me lots of small-small gifts."   |
|                         | "Only" for emphasis  | Placing "only" to stress a point (e.g., "I was there only").                     | "He came yesterday only."                  |
|                         | "Isn't it?" as a tag | Using "isn't it?" universally for questions (e.g., "You are coming, isn't it?"). | "We'll meet tomorrow, isn't it?"           |

*Note.* Adapted from colloquial Indian English usage.

## 5. Findings

The analysis of linguistic features across various varieties of English reveals significant differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar, which are shaped by cultural, historical, and regional factors. For instance, British English and American English differ in terms of lexical choices, such

as “lorry” versus “truck” and “biscuit” versus “cookie” (Rahim & Akan, 2008). Pronunciation patterns also vary, with British English being predominantly non-rhotic (i.e., the “r” sound is not pronounced in words like “car”), while American English tends to be rhotic (where the “r” sound is pronounced). These variations are not only influenced by geographic location but are also tied to the distinct social identities and cultural histories of each region (Schneider, 2007).

The research found that English, although recognised as one world language, truly comes in numerous different forms based on where it is used. Each area has created its method of using English, influenced by history, culture, and indigenous languages. British and American English, for instance, are vastly different from each other. British individuals employ words such as “lorry” and “biscuit”, whereas Americans use “truck” and “cookie”. British speakers often drop the “r” sound at the end of words (saying “cah” instead of “car”), while Americans usually pronounce it clearly. They also differ in grammar—for instance, Brits use the present perfect tense more often (e.g., “I’ve just eaten”), while Americans prefer the simple past (“I just ate”). Even their spelling is different, such as “colour” in British English and “color” in American English.

Canadian English combines British and American. Canadians tend to sound American, but retain such British spellings as “centre” and “favourite”. They employ distinctively Canadian uses of words such as “eh” at the end of a sentence, or terms such as “loonie” for a one-dollar coin. On the pronunciation front, many Canadians say “cot” and “caught” identically.

Aussie English is particularly famous for its slang and informal manner. Popular Aussie phrases are “barbie” for barbecue, “arvo” for afternoon, and “no worries” to say everything’s all right. Australians also drop the “r” sound like the Brits and tend to alter vowel sounds, for example, saying “night” as “noight”. Their accent is very different and casual and makes for a very characteristic, informal-sounding accent that suits the informal nature of the culture in the country. New Zealand English is close to Australian English, but it also has considerable influence from Māori, the language of the Indigenous New Zealanders. New Zealanders employ Māori phrases such as “kia ora” (hello) and “Aotearoa” (New Zealand). They also employ distinctive slang such as “bro”, “sweet as”, and “choice” to express enthusiasm. Similar to Australians, they use a rising intonation at the end of sentences, which can make statements appear to be questions.

South African English has Afrikaans and other local language words, and it is therefore distinct. A “bakkie,” for example, is a pickup truck, and a “braai” is a barbecue. South Africans refer to traffic lights as “robots” and use the expression “just now” to indicate something will be done immediately. They also pronounce differently; some vowels are similar to those used in Australian or Kiwi English, but they articulate their consonants more distinctly than in British English.

Indian English, influenced by colonial past and India’s various indigenous languages, has its own vocabulary and grammatical patterns. Indians naturally incorporate local terms within English. Some examples include “biryani” (a rice food), “chai” (tea), and “kurta” (a long shirt). They have even developed new English words, such as “prepone” (to reschedule something ahead of time). Indian English grammar at times involves repetition for stress (“small-small things”), use of “only” for stress (“He was there only”), and universal tag questions such as “isn’t it?” at the end of the majority of statements.

These characteristics depict the way English has merged with local patterns of speech. In all, the research demonstrates that English is not one monolithic language, but a malleable and changing instrument that suits the local cultures and requirements. Every regional variety—British, American, Canadian, Australian, New Zealander, South African, or Indian—is a tale of the people who use it. Their past, self, and daily existence are mirrored in the way they use English. This variation is a strength, and it makes English a global language that is also profoundly local.

## 6. Conclusion

This study has highlighted the extensive linguistic diversity among English varieties spoken throughout the world. From observations made in English words, pronunciation, and grammar used in the UK, USA, Australia, South Africa, India, and New Zealand it can be seen that each variety has achieved its distinguished features based on cultural, historical, and social considerations. They not only indicate the uniqueness of English-speaking populations but also establish the adaptability of the language as it develops under varying conditions in various locations. From the unusual pronunciation patterns of Australian English to the influence of Māori in New Zealand English, and the presence of indigenous words in Indian English, the evidence certifies English as anything but a homogenised language.

Also, an understanding of these variations is critical when addressing the global use of English because it is a tool that bridges linguistic and cultural boundaries. Variation among English varieties is a challenge as well as an opportunity for communication, and therefore why the uniqueness of each variety must be appreciated. As the world becomes increasingly globalized, embracing and enjoying these differences has the potential to foster more cross-cultural understanding and a deeper appreciation of how society influences and is influenced by language. The growth of English globally is not only an event in linguistics but also an observation on the strength and versatility of the language in a changing world. Although this research utilised a broad sweep of secondary data sources, there were some acknowledged limitations. The data representativeness was one such problem, since media materials and linguistic corpora did not include the full representation of regional English varieties; those dialects or sociolects associated with rural or remote locations were probably underrepresented. Contextual constraints also arose in that media output like television shows and movies tended to depict stylised dialogue rather than necessarily honest, ordinary speech. Additionally, the dynamic nature of language, particularly in informal and social media contexts, meant that the research might not have been able to capture the latest trends, especially in the dynamically changing realms of slang and internet communication. Finally, because qualitative analysis rested on the researcher's interpretation, there could be a risk of interpretation bias, even if it was minimised; the researcher's viewpoint and existing knowledge could still have swayed the analysis.

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