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**Khalilova NASIBA ABDUMALIYEVNA
ENGLISH FACULTY II GROUP 408 A**

**QUALIFICATION PAPER
THE BASIC NOTION OF DIALECTICAL WORDS IN BRITISH IN
AMERICAN VARIETIES OF LANGUAGE**

**5220100– Philology and teaching languages (The English language) for granting
the bachelor’s degree**

**“THE QUALIFICATION PAPER IS
ADMITTED TO DEFENSE”**

The head of the English

Lexicology department

_____ Matyakubov J.I.

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SCIENTIFIC SUPERVISOR:

_____ Mirsagatova D.

“ _____ ” _____ 2015

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Introduction

Development of a science as a whole and a linguistic science, in particular is connected not only to the decision of actually scientific problems, but also with features internal and foreign policy of the state, the maintenance of the state educational standards which are to the generators of progress providing social, economic society. It forms the society capable quickly to adapt in the modern world¹.

Conditions of reforming of all education system the question of the world assistance to improvement of quality of scientific-theoretical aspect of educational process is especially actually put. As President I.A.Karimov has declared in the program speech “Harmoniously development of generation a basis of progress of Uzbekistan”; “... all of us realize, that achievement of the great purposes put today before us, noble aspirations it is necessary for updating a society, today when we celebrating the 23th anniversary of the National Independence of our Motherland”. The effect and destiny of our reforms carried out in the name of progress and the future, results of our intentions are connected with highly skilled, conscious staff the experts who are meeting the requirements of time².

This qualification paper is dedicated to the learning of different varieties and dialects of English language as a global language in the world.

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The actuality of the qualification paper is determined by increased interest of linguistic in studying the evolution of the English language through the world.

The aim of the present qualification paper is to give a detailed description of the dialectical words of the English language so as to work out concrete recommendation on the study of differences between British English and American English.

¹Каримов И.А. “Гармонично развитое поколение-основа прогресса Узбекистана”:- Ташкент, Шарк, 2013- С.156-168

²Каримов И.А. “Наша высшая цель –независимость и процветание Родины, свобода и благополучие народа\\ Доклад на первой сессии Олий Мажлиса Республики Узбекистан второго созыва от 22.01.2000”:-Ташкент, Халк сузи, 2000-Т.8, С.5-8.

In accordance with the aim of the paper we have worked out concrete **tasks**.

They are:

To analyze dialectical words of English language

To compare British English and American English

To give description globalization of English language

The theme of this qualification paper is “The basic notion of dialectical words in British and American varieties of language”, which differs from each other.

The material includes:

a) Different types of dictionaries.

b) The scientific literature on translation, lexicology, typology and stylistics.

c) The literary works of English and American authors.

The source deals with the list of literature used in paper. Having said about the linguists studied the material before we can mention that our qualification work was based upon the investigations made by a number of well-known English, Russian and Uzbek lexicologists as A.I.Smirnitsky, B.A. Sakalova, M A. Ilyish, N.Buranov, V.V. Vinogradov, O.Jespersen and some others.

The object of the qualification paper is linking globalization and language. English is not the language with the greatest number of native speakers in the countries of the European Union. Its importance for communication is constantly growing.

The subject matter of the qualification paper is to illustrate the variety usage of English in the countries of the European Union as well as the organization itself. At the same time it is meant to show the possible limits of a global language in one part of the world.

The novelty of the qualification paper is determined by the necessity of the study of the Globalization Advancement and Formation of English language.

The practical value of the research is that material and the results of the given qualification work can serve the material for theoretical course of lexicology,

stylistics, typology as well as can be used for practical lessons in translation, home-reading, conversational practice and current events.

The theoretical significance of this paper is that the theoretical position can be used in delivering lectures on Lexicology.

The method of the qualification paper. In the qualification paper we have used such method as comparative, distributional and contextual analyses methods.

The qualification paper consists of following parts:

- 1) Introduction.
- 2) Chapters 1, 2, 3.
- 3) Conclusion.
- 4) The list of used literature.

Introduction motivates the actuality of the theme, declines the aim and tasks, methods of investigation, substantives the scientific novelty, theoretical and practical value.

Chapter I consists of three paragraphs which deal with the background of English language, the rapid evolution of English language. How English language spread all over the world.

Chapter II consists of two paragraphs. In these paragraphs we tried to give information about globalization, the formation of English words and the English as a communicative language.

Chapter III is dedicated to the study of American English peculiarities from British English. In this chapter we have observed the main differences between American English and British English.

Conclusion is about the achieved results of the work under the chosen theme.

CHAPTER I. BACKGROUND OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

English is an Anglo-Frisian language brought to Britain in the 5th Century AD by Germanic settlers from various parts of northwest Germany. The original Old English language was subsequently influenced by two successive waves of invasion. The first was by speakers of languages in the Scandinavian branch of the Germanic family, who colonized parts of Britain in the 8th and 9th centuries. The second wave was of the Normans in the 11th century, who spoke Norman (an oil language closely related).

The history of the language can be traced back to the arrival of three Germanic tribes to the British Isles during the 5th Century AD³. Angles, Saxons and Jutes crossed the North Sea from what is the present day Denmark and northern Germany. The inhabitants of Britain previously spoke a Celtic language. This was quickly displaced. Most of the Celtic speakers were pushed into Wales, Cornwall and Scotland. One group migrated to the Brittany Coast of France where their descendants still speak the Celtic Language of Breton today. The Angles were named from **Engle**, their land of origin. Their language was called **English** from which the word.

It is convenient to divide English into periods—Old English (or Anglo-Saxon; to c.1150), Middle English (to c.1500), and Modern English.

1.1 Old English

The invaders dominated the original Celtic-speaking inhabitants, whose languages survived largely in Scotland, Wales, and Cornwall. The dialects spoken by the invaders formed what is now called Old English. Later, it was strongly influenced by the North Germanic language Norse, spoken by the Vikings who settled mainly in the north-east. The new and the earlier settlers spoke languages from different branches of the Germanic family; many of their lexical roots wreathe same or similar, although their grammars were more distant, including the prefixes, suffixes and

³F.R.Palmer "Semantics. A new outline":- Moscow, Просвещение ,1982 - p 8-13.

inflections of many of their words. The Germanic language of these Old English inhabitants of Britain was influenced by the contact with Norse invaders, which may have been responsible for some of the morphological simplification of Old English, including loss of grammatical gender and explicitly marked case (with the notable exception of the pronouns). The most famous work from the Old English period the introduction of Christianity added the first wave of Latin and Greek words to the language.

It has been argued that the Danish contribution continued into the early Middle Ages.

The Old English period ended with the Norman conquest, when the language was influenced, to an even greater extent, by the Norman French-speaking Normans.

The use of Anglo-Saxon to describe a merging of Anglian and Saxon languages and cultures is a relatively modern development. According to Lois Fundis, (Stumpers-L, Fri, 14 Dec 2001) "The first citation for the second definition of 'Anglo-Saxon', referring to early English language or a certain dialect thereof, comes during the reign of Elizabeth I, from a historian named Camden, who seems to be the person most responsible for the term becoming well-known in modern times."

1.2 Middle English

For the 300 years following the Norman Conquest in 1066, the Norman kings and the high nobility spoke only a variety of French called Anglo-Norman. English continued to be the language of the common people. While the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle continued until AD 1154, most other literature from this period was in Old French or Latin. A large number of Norman words were assimilated into Old English, with some words doubling for Old English words (for instance, ox/beef, sheep/mutton). The Norman influence reinforced the continual evolution of the language over the following centuries, resulting in what is now referred to as Middle English. Among the changes was a broadening in the use of a unique aspect of English grammar, the "continuous" tenses, with the suffix "-ing". English spelling

was also influenced by French in this period, with the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds being spelled the rather than with the letters þ and ð, which did not exist in French. During the 15th century, Middle English was transformed by the Great Vowel Shift, the spread of a standardized London-based dialect in government and administration, and the standardizing effect of printing. Modern English can be traced back to around the time of William Shakespeare. The most well-known work from the Middle English period.

Various contemporary sources suggest that within fifty years most of the Normans outside the royal court had switched to English, with French remaining the prestige language largely out of social inertia. For example, Orderic Vitalis, a historian born in 1075 and the son of a Norman knight, said that he only learned French.

English literature starts to reappear circa AD 1200, when a changing political climate, and the decline in Anglo-Norman, made it more respectable. By the end of that century, even the royal court had switched back to English. Anglo-Norman remained in use in specialized circles for a while longer, but it had ceased to be a living language.

1.3 Modern English

The English language underwent extensive sound changes during 1400s, while its spelling conventions remained rather constant. Modern English is often dated from the Great Vowel Shift, which took place mainly during the 15th century. English was further transformed by the spread of a standardized London-based dialect in government and administration and by the standardizing effect of printing.

Consequent to the push toward standardization, the language acquired self-conscious terms such as "accent" and "dialect". By the time of William Shakespeare (mid 16th - early 17th century), the language had become clearly recognizable as Modern English. In 1604, the first English dictionary was published, the Table Alphabetical. Increased literacy and travel have facilitated the adoption of many foreign words, especially borrowings from Latin and Greek since the Renaissance (In

the 17th century, Latin words were often used with the original inflections, but these eventually disappeared). As there are many words from different languages and English spelling is variable, the risk of mispronunciation is high, but remnants of the older forms remain in a few regional dialects, most notably in the West Country. During the period, loan words were borrowed from Italian, German, and Yiddish. British acceptance of and resistance to Americanisms began during this period. From the late 15th century, the language changed into Modern English, often dated from English is continuously assimilating foreign words, especially Latin and Greek, causing English to have the largest vocabulary of any language in the world. The Dictionary of the English language was the full featured English dictionary. Samuel Johnson published the authoritative work in 1755. To a high degree, the dictionary standardized both English spelling and word usage. Meanwhile, grammar texts by Lowth, Murray, Priestly, and others attempted to prescribe standard usage even further. Early Modern English and Late Modern English vary essentially in vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from the Industrial revolution and the technology that created a need for new words as well as international development of the language. The British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the Earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries. British English and American English, the two major varieties of the language, are spoken by 400 million persons. Received Pronunciation of British English is the prestige variety, while General American English is more influential. The total number of English speakers worldwide may exceed one billion.

There, nowadays, one finds an accent known locally as the Kettering accent, which is a mixture of many different local accents, including East Midlands, East Anglian, Scottish, and Cockney. In addition, in the town of Corby, five miles (8 km) north, one can find Carbide, which unlike the Kettering accent, is largely based on Scottish. This is due to the influx of Scottish steelworkers.

Outside the South East there are, in England alone, other families of accents easily distinguished by natives, including:

- West Country (South West England)
- East Anglian
- West Midlands (Black Country, Birmingham)
- East Midlands
- Liverpool and Wirral (Scouse)
- Manchester (Manchurians) and other east Lancashire accents
- Yorkshire (Varies significantly in each region.)
- Newcastle (Geordie) and other northeast England accents

Major differences in Scottish accents include:

- Glasgow and Strathclyde (Glaswegian/West Scotland Accent)
- Edinburgh and Lothian (East Scotland Accent)
- Aberdeen and Grampian (Aberdonian/North East Accent)
- Dundee and Fife
- Inverness and Highlands

Although some of the stronger regional accents may sometimes be difficult for some Anglophones⁴ from outside Britain to understand, almost all "British English" accents are mutually intelligible amongst the British themselves, with only occasional difficulty between very diverse accents. However, modern communications and mass media have reduced these differences significantly. Some portions of a small number of British films released in America have been dubbed to make viewing of the film more enjoyable for Americans who are unfamiliar with certain British dialects. (e.g. Kegs in the Barnsley dialect, Train spotting in the Edinburgh dialect).

In addition, most British people can to some degree temporarily 'swing' their accent towards a more neutral form of English at will, to reduce difficulty where very different accents are involved, or when speaking to foreigners. This phenomenon is known in linguistics as code shifting.

Standardization as with English around the world, the English language as used in the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland is governed by convention rather

⁴Cronin A.J. "The Citadel":- Moscow, Hayka, 1966- p 12-14.

than formal code: there is no equivalent body to the Académie française or the Real Academia Española, and the authoritative dictionaries (for example, Oxford English Dictionary, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, Chambers Dictionary, Collins Dictionary) record usage rather than prescribe it. In addition, vocabulary and usage change with time; words are freely borrowed from other languages and other strains of English, and neologisms are frequent.

The English language was first introduced to the Americas by British colonization, beginning in 1607 in Jamestown, Virginia. Similarly, the language spread to numerous other parts of the world as a result of British trade and colonization elsewhere and the spread of the former British Empire, which, by 1921, held sway over a population of 470–570 million people, approximately a quarter of the world's population at that time. Over the past 400 years the form of the language used in the Americas — especially in the United States — and that used in the United Kingdom have diverged in a few minor ways, leading to the dialects now occasionally referred to as American English and British English.

Differences between the two include pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary (lexis), spelling, punctuation, idioms, formatting of dates and numbers, although the differences in written and most spoken grammar structure tend to be much less than those of other aspects of the language in terms of mutual intelligibility. A small number of words have completely different meanings in the two dialects or are even unknown or not used in one of the dialects. One particular contribution towards formalizing these differences came from Noah Webster, who wrote the first American dictionary (published 1828) with the intention of showing that people in the United States spoke a different dialect from Britain, much like a regional accent.

This divergence between American English and British English once caused George Bernard Shaw to say that the United States and United Kingdom are "two countries divided by a common language" a similar comment is ascribed to Winston Churchill. Likewise, Oscar Wilde wrote, "We have really everything in common with

America nowadays, except, of course, the language"⁵. Henry Sweet incorrectly predicted in 1877 that within a century American English, Australian English and British English would be mutually unintelligible. It may be the case that increased worldwide communication through radio, television, the Internet and globalization has reduced the tendency to regional variation. This can result either in some variations becoming extinct (for instance, the wireless, superseded by the radio) or in the acceptance of wide variations as "perfectly good English" everywhere. Often at the core of the dialect though, the idiosyncrasies remain.

Having investigated historical background of the English language, I can say that the process of formulation of the English language includes three stages. The history of the English language carries out interesting information. For formulating English language as a global one many nations and other languages took basic role. Old Latin language was the foundation of the English language and all resources of this period were written in it. The influences of the phonetic and lexical changes were great and as a result of these changings English language divided in British and American variants.

⁵Oscar Wilde "The Canterville Ghost": -London, Court and Society Review, 1888, p 5.

Chapter II. English language as a global language

2.1 International English language

It is not by chance that the title of this article is so obviously inspired by David Crystal's 1997 account of the prominent role that English has played all over the globe for some time now. Although English is not the language with the greatest number of native speakers in the countries of the European Union (nor world-wide), its importance for communication is constantly growing. This is part and parcel of one of the latest developments of human societies, the much discussed phenomenon of globalization. Decades before attention started to focus on the modern global scale of mutual influence and interdependence, a handful of European countries decided on gradually joining forces to compete with others. This was the birth of what has evolved into a European Union of 15 member states. It sometimes seems to be taken for granted that, since English is obviously the major lingua franca in the world, it must in consequence also be decisive for making such a union work. The following is an attempt to illustrate the variety of uses of English in the countries of the EU as well as the organization itself but at the same time it is meant to show the possible limits of a 'global' language in one part of the world. Crystal simply characterizes a global language as follows:

A language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country⁶.

He then goes on to mention some of the fields of dominance for English such as the media, foreign language teaching, business, etc. Which are elaborated on later in his book. It should be quite uncontroversial to state that English definitely plays an enormously important role in the countries of the European Union but it may still not be global in the full sense of the term with respect to these countries.

⁶ David Crystal "English as a global language":- Cambridge, Cape Town 8001,1997- p 48.

In July 1998 the member states of the European Union had as many as 13 languages that were official on a national level and 15 with official status on a regional level, if one does not count the languages that are official in more than one country more. Since the Treaties of Rome were signed in 1957 the total number of official languages has grown as follows, these figures, in contrast to the preceding ones, include double counts.

In more detail the restructured system of official languages of the EU member states looks as follows.

It clearly that apart from not being the language with the highest number of native speakers in the EU English is only the national official language of the UK and one of the national official languages of the Republic of Ireland. The other two "big" languages of the EU French and German show a quite different pattern of officiality. French is the national official language in two member states but also has regional official status in a fourth country. German is official on a national level in three cases, on a regional level in two and has an uncertain official status in one more country. Calculating the ratio of one language with official status in comparison with the total of the official languages of the countries of the EU the situation would certainly show a deterioration for most national official languages and an improvement for the languages termed minority languages.

The change is very marked for English since on the one hand the other two widely used languages French and German are official in more countries than English and since on the other Welsh and Scottish Gaelic have received a higher status since 1957. Even though there is certainly no danger for the status of English to drastically change, the situation for the autochthonous minority languages of the UK has improved. After three centuries of official suppression following the Act of Union between England and Wales of 1536, the Welsh Courts Act (1942) was a first attempt at giving Welsh some official recognition. This act was replaced in 1967 by the Welsh Language Act, which had been fought for in massive protests throughout the country and which made possible the use of Welsh for administrative purposes. In

1993 a new Welsh Language Act was published in order to speed up the process of making Wales a truly bilingual country.

This means for instance that all administrative bodies in Wales are required to draw up new rules of procedure catering for those who want to use Welsh in the contact with the respective authority. The Welsh Office is trying to establish and ensure an entirely bilingual service⁷. The newly founded Welsh Assembly, which opened for the first time on 12 May 1999, offers simultaneous interpretation from and into Welsh; an estimated 20% of all speeches are expected to be in Welsh. So far Scottish Gaelic can at most be called a partial regional official language in that only some local authorities may offer their services in Gaelic. As is to be expected it is mostly authorities such as Comhairlenan Eilean Sear operating in areas with a higher proportion of speakers of Gaelic that offer such services. The Scottish Office representing the government has agreed to answer letters written in Gaelic and has already prepared Gaelic versions of important documents⁸. For Irish in Northern Ireland there are not even these minimal concessions. However, if and when the UK fully ratifies the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages of 1992, as was announced in 1998.

The statuses of both Scottish Gaelic and Irish in Northern Ireland are likely to improve (cf. Jones 1998). The official languages of the states to join the Union.

None of the 11 or even 12 countries (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Rumania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Turkey) expected to join the European Union in the near future have English as an official or regional official language, nor French or German. Latvia is quite exceptional in this respect; all official documents have to be drafted in Latvian of course but the Latvian Language Act also explicitly recognizes documents in English, German and Russian to be acceptable for working purposes. All of the countries mentioned above have complicated patterns of official languages, some of which have only recently been

⁷ГолденковМ.А “Caution! Hot dog! Modern activeEnglish”: – Москва, ПРОАТБУК 1999-р 40.

⁸Иофик Л.Л. “Сложное предложение в новоанглийском языке”:- Л., Изд-во Ленигр. ун-та, 1968, С 22-30.

recognized as such by the newly independent national states, and various minority languages with or without regional official status often involving dangerous controversy. There is neither time nor space here to explicate the language policies of the candidates aspiring membership. What is quite important, however, as far as the future status of English within the European Union is concerned is the fact that once more the number of countries with English as an official language relative to the total number of member states is going to decrease.

The official and unofficial use of languages in the official institutions of the EU. Due to its supranational nature the European Union is the organization with the biggest number of official languages world-wide. At present the EU has 15 member-states and 11 official and working-languages, which are not being distinguished or are at least not completely different in status, for the organization as such. Whereas the important international organizations dramatically restrict the number of languages being used for running them, the EU adheres to the principle of allowing at least one official national language per member-state as an official language of the EU as an organization, which will have to be explained in a little more detail further down. Both the Council of Europe and the UNO distinguish so-called working languages from official languages. The UNO uses English and French as working-languages since 1945, Spanish was added in 1948; this means these three languages are used on all levels of running the organization as well as on all official occasions. Chinese and Russian have been used as official languages from the very start, Arabian became official in 1973, that is another three languages are also used for official purposes. For a more detailed account⁹. The German speaking countries have been sponsoring the use of German as an additional language into which documents are translated since 1974. Using the terminology of the Council of Europe this organization has English and French as official languages and German and Italian as working languages. What is meant is that English and French are used for daily work as well as in all official statements, German and Italian can only be used on official

⁹“Optionspolynatsional literary languages” - Kiev, “Науковадумка”, 1981-C.61-64.

occasions. Other organizations are examples of an even more restrictive multilingualism or only have one language to cooperate. The OECD uses English and French, the EFTA English only¹⁰. As stated in the introduction, the European Union tries to at least officially recognize the linguistic needs of all its member states by using as many as 11 official and working languages (Danish, Dutch, English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish and Swedish) at present. The major aims of this policy are to facilitate a truly democratic system of representation. Firstly, the ability of standing for an election for the European Parliament does not depend on the knowledge of languages other than the one(s) of one's country of provenance.

Secondly, all the communication between the member states and the institutions of the EU as well as between the institutions and the citizen should be possible in the official language the member state or the citizen chooses to use. Thirdly, at least all the final and binding documents of the EU are available in all the official languages, which should make them more accessible than in the case of their publication not only in legal language but also in a foreign language. Although the EU offers a complicated and costly system of translation and simultaneous translation services, it is simply impossible to really run all the work in all the 11 official and working languages. They are most fully respected in the Parliament and the Council but on the whole the most important languages are English, French and German. Contrary to what an outsider might believe it is not English that dominates daily business in the EU institutions but French, for two obvious reasons, namely their French-speaking surrounding and the historic fact of the UK joining the organization as late as 1973. Schloßmacher shows for instance that French is predominantly used by the civil servants working in the Commission, the Parliament and the Council, especially in written communication. Within the Council English seems to be more important in those departments that have been created more recently such as the departments dealing with modern technology, research or the contact with countries outside the

¹⁰ Антрушина Г.Б., О.В.Афанасьева “Лексикология английского языка”: - Москва, Изд. Дрофа. 1999- С.10-80.

and. The Court of Justice is a case apart for several reasons, one of which is the existence of one single internal working language French.

Surveys among the citizens of the European Union underline the fact that English is seen as an enormously important language but at the same time not seen as the only language that should or could even be used for communication on a official EU-level). The following data are part of the findings of a larger survey carried out among EU citizens in all member states between December 1996 and October 1998. A questionnaire trying to elicit opinions on EU language policies was made available in all of the 11 official languages of the EU and distributed with the help of various social networks.¹¹ 760 questionnaires could be analyzed (for further details cf. Witt forthcoming). Asked which languages should under any circumstances continue to be official languages of the EU in the case of a reduction of their total number English was not named in a mere 0.4% of all cases. 8.5% of all answers even thought it was possible to only use English in the future.

The importance of English in computer assisted translation within the EU institutions.

Since 1973 the EU has been working on a computerized terminological databank with special emphasis on the needs of the organization itself called Eurodicautom. By far the largest number of entries are terms in English and French with French being represented better than English. As of January 1st 1999 Eurodicautom had approximately 5 million entries distributed . For rough translations or quick information the EU translation services also use the translation system Syzran varying in quality according to the specific language pair. In 1999 English was the language that could be translated into more languages than the other languages that can also be source languages. When trying to assess what English means for both the countries that already constitute the EU and the countries that are most likely going to join the organization, it is extremely important to examine the existing educational systems. Since it would be simply impossible to find out about

¹¹ЕВДОКИМОВ М.С, ШЛЕЕВ Г.М. “Quick Reference Guide US-British matches”: - Москва, Просвещение, 2000- С. 4.

the real knowledge of foreign languages, this seems to be the closest one can get in exploring possible future choices of language in a more global society. It is fortunate to have statistical material provided by Eurydice. The following show figures for the school year 1994/1995, dashes indicate missing numbers or cases where a given language is the mother tongue. All the figures have been calculated on the basis of the figures given in Eurydice, Education Training Youth and Euro stat 1997.

Only English and French are important foreign languages in the time-tables of schoolchildren in primary schools in the EU and selected countries aspiring membership is a West Germanic language spoken originally in England, and is now the most widely used language in the world. It is spoken as a first language by a majority of the inhabitants of several nations, including the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, Ireland and New Zealand. It is the third most commonly spoken language in the world in terms of native speakers, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. But it is more commonly used as a second language than any other, which is why its total number of speakers -- native plus non-native -- exceeds those of any other language. English is an official language of the European Union and many Commonwealth countries, as well as in many world organizations.

Owing to the assimilation of words from many other languages throughout history, modern English contains a very large vocabulary. Modern English has not only assimilated words from other European languages but also from all over the world, including words of Hindi and African origin. The *Oxford English Dictionary* lists over 250,000 distinct words, not including many technical, scientific, and slang terms.

Modern English, sometimes described as the first global *lingua franca* is the dominant language or in some instances even the required international language of communications, science, information technology, business, seafaring, aviation, entertainment, radio and diplomacy. Its spread beyond the British Isles began with the growth of the British Empire, and by the late 19th century its reach was truly global. Following British colonization from the 16th to 19th centuries, it became the

dominant language in the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The growing economic and cultural influence of the US and its status as a global superpower since World War II have significantly accelerated the language's spread across the planet. English replaced German as the dominant language of science Nobel Prize laureates during the second half of the 20th century. English equaled and may have surpassed French as the dominant language of diplomacy during the last half of the 19th century¹².

A working knowledge of English has become a requirement in a number of fields, occupations and professions such as medicine and computing; as a consequence over a billion people speak English to at least a basic level. It is one of six official languages of the United Nations.

Approximately 375 million people speak English as their first language English today is probably the third largest language by number of native speakers. However, when combining native and non-native speakers it is probably the most commonly spoken language in the world, though possibly second to a combination of the Chinese languages (depending on whether or not distinctions in the latter are classified as "languages" or "dialects"). Estimates that include second language speakers vary greatly from 470 million to over a billion depending on how literacy or mastery is defined and measured. Linguistics professor David Crystal calculates that non-native speakers now outnumber native speakers by a ratio of 3 to 1. The countries with the highest populations of native English speakers are, in descending order: the United States (215 million), the United Kingdom (61 million), Canada (18.2 million), Australia (15.5 million), Nigeria (4 million), Ireland (3.8 million), South Africa (3.7 million), and New Zealand (3.6 million) in a 2006 Census.

Countries such as the Philippines, Jamaica and Nigeria also have millions of native speakers of dialect continua ranging from an English based Creole to a more standard version of English. Of those nations where English is spoken as a second

¹²Robert Dodinskiy "Encyclopedia":-Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1987, p- 123-125.

language, India has the most such speakers ('Indian English'). Crystal claims that, combining native and non-native speakers, India now has more people who speak or understand English than any other country in the world.

Because English is so widely spoken, it has often been referred to as a "world language", the lingua franca of the modern era, and while it is not an official language in most countries, it is currently the language most often taught as a foreign language. Some linguists believe that it is no longer the exclusive cultural property of "native English speakers", but is rather a language that is absorbing aspects of cultures worldwide as it continues to grow. It is, by international treaty, the official language for aerial and maritime communications. English is an official language of the United Nations and many other international organizations, including the International Olympic Committee.

English is the language most often studied as a foreign language in the European Union, by 89% of schoolchildren, ahead of French at 32%, while the perception of the usefulness of foreign languages amongst Europeans is 68% in favour of English ahead of 25% for French. Among some non-English-speaking EU countries, a large percentage of the adult population claims to be able to converse in English – in particular: 85% in Sweden, 83% in Denmark, 79% in the Netherlands, 66% in Luxembourg and over 50% in Finland, Slovenia, Austria, Belgium, and Germany.

Books, magazines, and newspapers written in English are available in many countries around the world, and English is the most commonly used language in the sciences with Science Citation Index reporting as early as 1997 that 95% of its articles were written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries¹³. This increasing use of the English language globally has had a large impact on many other languages, leading to language shift and even language death and to claims of linguistic imperialism¹⁴. English itself is now open to language shift as multiple regional varieties feed back into the language as a whole.

¹³ Антрушина Г.Б., О.В.Афанасьева "Лексикология английского языка": - Москва, Изд. Дрофа. 1999- С.10-80.

¹⁴ Коптелова Е, "Speak English": - Белгород, Просвещение, 1998 - С.10-15.

2.2 Dialects and regional varieties of English language

The expansion of the British Empire and—since World War II—the influence of the United States has spread English around the world. Because of that global spread, English has developed a host of English dialects and English-based Creole languages and pidgins. Several educated native dialects of English have wide acceptance as standards in much of the world. In the United Kingdom much emphasis is placed on Received Pronunciation, an educated dialect of South East England. General American, which is spread over most of the United States and much of Canada, is more typically the model for the American continents and areas (such as the Philippines) that have had either close association with the United States, or a desire to be so identified. In Oceania, the major native dialect of Australian English is spoken as a first language by the vast majority of the inhabitants of the Australian continent, with General Australian serving as the standard accent. The English of neighboring New Zealand as well as that of South Africa have to a lesser degree been influential native varieties of the language.

Aside from these major dialects, there are numerous other varieties of English, which include, in most cases, several sub varieties, such as Cockney, Scouse and Geordie within British English; Newfoundland English within Canadian English; and African American Vernacular English ("Ebonics") and Southern American English within American English. English is a pluricentric language, without a central language authority like France; and therefore no one variety is considered "correct" or "incorrect" except in terms of the expectations of the particular audience to which the language is directed.

Scots has its origins in early Northern Middle English and developed and changed during its history with influence from other sources, but following the Acts of Union 1707 a process of language attrition began, whereby successive generations adopted more and more features from Standard English, causing dialectalisation. Whether it is now a separate language or a dialect of English better described as Scottish English is in dispute, although the UK government now accepts Scots as a

regional language and has recognized European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. There are a number of regional dialects of Scots, and pronunciation, grammar and lexis of the traditional forms differ, sometimes substantially, from other varieties of English.

English speakers have many different accents, which often signal the speaker's native dialect or language. For the most distinctive characteristics of regional accents, and for a complete list of regional dialects. Within England, variation is now largely confined to pronunciation rather than grammar or vocabulary. At the time of the Survey of English Dialects, grammar and vocabulary differed across the country, but a process of *lexical attrition* has led most of this variation to die out.

Just as English itself has borrowed words from many different languages over its history, English loanwords now appear in many languages around the world, indicative of the technological and cultural influence of its speakers. Several pidgins and Creole languages have been formed on an English base, such as Jamaican Patois, Nigerian Pidgin, and Tok-Pisin. There are many words in English coined to describe forms of particular non-English languages that contain a very high proportion of English words.

In American English a show may refer to any television program. In British English a show refers to a particular type of programme, usually a comedy or variety performance, with the presence of an audience. The adaptation of a literary work (for example, the dramatization of a novel by Jane Austen) would be described as a drama and a factual programme as a documentary. Neither of these types would be described as a show in British English. In American television the episodes of a programme (Am English program) first broadcast in a particular year constitute a season, while the entire run of the programme – which may span several seasons – is called a series. In British television, on the other hand, the word series may apply to the episodes of a programme in one particular year, for example, "The 1998 series of Grange Hill", as well as to the entire run.

There are also variations in floor numbering between the US and UK. In most countries, including the UK, the "first floor" is one above the entrance level while the entrance level is the "ground floor". In the US the ground floor is considered the first floor. In a British lift one would press the "G" or "0" button to return to the ground floor whereas in an American elevator, one would push the "1", "G", or "L" (for Lobby) button to return to the ground floor. The "L" button in a British lift would take you to the lower ground floor (i.e. the floor below ground, the basement), which may also be numbered "-1" (minus one).

American (AE) apartment buildings / (BE) blocks of flats frequently are exceptions to this rule. The ground floor often contains the lobby and parking area for the tenants, while the numbered floors begin one level above and contain only the flats themselves.

When saying or writing out numbers, the British insert an and before the tens and units, as in one hundred and sixty-two or two thousand and three. In America it is considered correct to drop the "and", as in one hundred sixty-two or two thousand three.

Some American schools teach students to pronounce decimally written fractions (for example, .5) as though they were longhand fractions (five tenths), such as thirteen and seven tenths for 13.7. This formality is often dropped in common speech and is steadily disappearing in instruction in mathematics and science as well as in international American schools. In the UK, 13.7 would be read thirteen point seven.

In counting it is common in both varieties of English to count in hundreds up to 1,900 – so 1,200 may be twelve hundred. However Americans use this pattern for much higher numbers than is the norm in British English, referring to twenty-four hundred where British English would most often use two thousand four hundred. Even below 2,000, Americans are more likely than the British are to read numbers like 1,234 as twelve hundred thirty-four, instead of one thousand two hundred and thirty-four. In BE it is also common to use phrases such as three and a half

thousandfor 3,500 whereas in AE this construction is almost never used for numbers under a million.

In the case of years, however, twelve thirty-four would be the norm on both sides of the Atlantic for the year 1234. The year 2000 and years beyond it are read as two thousand, two thousand (and) one and the like by both British and American speakers. For years after 2009, twenty ten, twenty twelve etc.¹⁵ are becoming common.

For the house number (or bus number, etc.)¹⁶ 272, British people tend to say two seven two while Americans tend to say two seventy-two.

There is also a historical difference between billions, trillions and so forth. Americans use billion to mean one thousand million (1,000,000,000), whereas in the UK, until the latter part of the 20th century, it was used to mean one million (1,000,000,000,000). In 1974 the British prime minister, Harold Wilson, told the House of Commons that UK government statistics would now use the short scale; followed by the Chancellor, Denis Healey, in 1975, that the treasury would now adopt the US billion version. One thousand million was sometimes described as a milliard, the definition adopted by most other European languages. However the 'American' version has since been adopted for all published writing and the word milliard is obsolete in English, as are billiard (but not billiards, the game), trilliard and so on.¹⁷ All major British publications and broadcasters, including the BBC, which long used thousand million to avoid ambiguity, now use billion to mean thousand million. Many people have no direct experience of manipulating numbers this large, and many non-American readers may interpret billion as 10 (even if they are young enough to have been taught otherwise at school); moreover usage of the "long" billion is standard in some non-English speaking countries. For these reasons,

¹⁵Баркхударов Л. С, Штелинг Д.А. "GrammaroftheEnglishlanguage": - Москва, Наука 1973-С.55-60.

¹⁶Антрушина Г.Б, Афанасьева О.В "Лексикология английского языка": - Москва, Изд. Дрофа. 1999- С.10-80.

¹⁷Баркхударов Л. С, Штелинг Д.А. "The grammar of the English language": - Москва, Наука ,1973- С.55-60.

defining the word may be advisable when writing for the public. See long and short scales for a more detailed discussion of the evolution of these terms in English and other languages.

When referring to the numeral 0, British people would normally use nought, oh, or zero, although nil is common in sports scores. Americans use the term zero most frequently; oh is also often used (though never when the quantity in question is nothing), and occasionally slang terms such as zilch or zip. Phrases such as the team won two–zip or the team leads the series two–nothing are heard when reporting sports scores. In the case of association football—known as "football" in Britain and "soccer" in America—Americans will sometimes use "nil" as in Britain, although this usage is mostly confined to soccer journalists and hardcore fans and is not universal among either group. The digit 0, for example, when a phone or account number is being read aloud, is nearly always pronounced oh in both language varieties for the sake of convenience. In the internet age the use of the term oh can cause certain inconveniences when one is referencing an email address, causing confusion as to whether the character in question is a zero or the letter O.

When using the word of the month rather than the number to write a date for example, April 21, both that and 21 April are used in the UK, but as a rule only April 21 would be seen in the U.S. British usage often changes the day from an integer to an ordinal, for instance April 21st or 21st (of) April.

Phrases such as the following are common in Britain but are generally unknown in the US: "A week today", "a week tomorrow", "a week on Tuesday" and "Tuesday week" (this is found in central Texas), "a fortnight on Friday" (the latter referring to two weeks after "next Friday"). In the US the standard construction is "a week from today", "a week from tomorrow", etc. BE speakers may also say "Thursday last" or "Thursday gone" where AE would prefer "last Thursday". "I'll see you (on) Thursday coming" or "Let's meet this coming Thursday" in BE refer to a meeting later this week, while "Not until Thursday next".

In the globalized economy should have, the issue of social standards, the Council and similar institutions can play a positive role of educators. To be sure, because of the involvement of the council and similar institutions, the inevitable domestic changes will be easier for people to accept. Economic and Social Council can provide the necessary logistical support and technical support to the people around through the interpretation of globalization of the benefits and difficulties, through the recommendations to the Government (especially in training), in order to alleviate the inevitable when not suited to contribute.

To enable States to the implementation of social legislation, they must first request the countries to become members of international organizations, in international bodies to express their views may be, there is integration and promote development aspirations. Only when different views are fully reflected in the circumstances, the international community, through the social standards can be universally accepted. Social standards in some developing countries for these remaining concerns, developing countries shouldn't forget that help workers to improve working conditions to increase the input in the production process is conducive to improving the Education level of workers, and through improvement of labor organization, raising labor productivity and production efficiency.

“Globalization” will be accompanied by significant changes in the group, globalization also must be able to closely follow the footsteps of these changes. To this end the Council should be noted that international organizations, increased attention to the environmental agreements, especially by the Rio Conference (June 1992) and the Kyoto conference (June 1997) reached agreement.

The principle and citizens in the community has a hope to promote the harmonization of trade laws and regulations of the strong desire. Built up in this world order, the imperious will gradually disappear, and regulation shall prevail. In this regard, there must be an international body to assist in the formulation of new laws. (China is well aware of this need. For example, just recently, China's legislative body has the concept in foreign countries. For the same consideration, one can see,

the EU and China in March 2000 signed the executive departments to outline important)

The establishment of the Council's Experience in France is worth noting. The establishment of the Council's vision a long history in France. Whenever the French social body, a major shock, the French people feel a joint economic, social and cultural life of national importance, co-chaired the strength necessary. In France there have been many times in history the establishment of the Council or similar body attempt. 1940, France has withstood the last big bang: the military defeat, land occupied, the resistance movement advocates a civil war a decisive step was finally taken to the French reconstruction, in order to restore France's position in the world must be some form of access to France's economic and community help. To this end, The constitution of the Fourth republic, de Gaulle offered to set up consultative meeting of the proposition, this is a consultative body of the economic and Social Council.

In many countries despite their different economic development levels, but they want to go into the world economy, this trend will bring about far-reaching nation economic and social change. How to prepare to meet these changes? How can it withstand the residents of these changes have sufficient acceptance and tolerance? Important one is to get all components of civil society, in other words, so that all walks of life (agriculture, industry, tertiary industry, etc.) of trade union representatives and employer representatives, as well as social organizations, cooperation agencies and mutual aid agency representatives as such , all added to the transformation to go. But how can we do that? Approach is to encourage these organizations the creation of the Council, and similar institutions and innovation, encourage these organizations to achieve international recognition, so that all sectors of society within these organizations meet to discuss all levels (regional, national, international) related issues, would also like to set up an institution in the world, so that these organizations can participate effectively in the major international negotiations.

In a way, Mao Tse-tung follow the same line of thought, reflecting the same kind of request, was founded in 1949 the CPPCC.

How the joint citizen`s effective strength, the joint community, dedicated to national development? An increasing number of countries have begun to raise this issue. In 1989, when the world`s Economic and Social Council and similar institutions for the first time in the Versailles meeting, the participating agencies a total of only 15. 10 years later, the number of bodies has been increased to about 50. This undoubtedly proves that the Council conform to the basic needs of today`s society. This trend will not stop there must be recognized that the various Industry representatives from all sectors of society in the future should be able to not only at the national level, but also regional and international level to express their views.

Industry representatives from all sectors of society should become a politician must be attention to the reality of the world`s pattern of power.

International Association of the Economic and Social Council and Similar Institutions Honorary President Jean Matteoli the Chinese People`s Political Consultative Conference (International federation of the Council, a key member of Executive Committee) formal proposal calling for the United Nations Economic and Social Council`s working methods to be adjusted. The United Nations Economic and Social Council has 54 members, elected by the General Assembly for a term of three years, this is a political representative body, rather than economic and social nature of the representative body. Fight at the international level, particularly at the United Nations Economic and Social Council level, the recognition of civil society`s role in the economy, the time has now arrived. This is certainly not to replace The United Nations Economic and social Council, but to promote this with representative body of political power more attention to the various industry representatives from various sectors of society to shoulder the economic and social responsibility. This reform will

be able to better their economic and socially responsible citizens who function, in the matter of the overall situation is concerned, that collective wisdom and benefit¹⁸.

International Federation of Economic and Social Council and similar institutions can play a very useful role in negotiation and mediation. Because in the International Federation of the internal, inclusive of representatives of States, whether from developed or developing countries, they all have one thing in common: strive to make the economic and social factors complement each other. Because of this, investment, competition, or the environment and a series of differences with the United States on the issue of the International Federation can be a difficult debate gave an impassioned speech, highlighting the other cross-sectional view. The International federation has also indicated that the different social dimensions of the problem investigation and understanding of the different.

Based on the sources in this chapter, I can say that English language is a global one in the world, nowadays. A language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country. While investigating the process of globalization I found out that there are a lot of reasons for making English as a global one. For instance, we live in well developed world with developed technologies. Though, some type of these technologies is computer and internet. English language is a main language which communicates all users of internet from different countries. But, in this chapter, one can find another reasons and fact about globalization process of English language.

¹⁸<http://www.Ribble, M & Bailey, Digital citizenship in schools. Eugene, OR: Enter national Society for Technology in Education>.

Chapter III. Most common differences between American and British English

3.1 Miscellaneous grammatical differences

In our daily life, we very often come across with the variations of one word. Obviously, it is a bit complicated for learners, to differentiate the British and American versions and surely it causes to confusion. In order to overcome this issue, below I'll give the definitions of the common used words of English language in both dialects.

Grammatical differences of American variant consist in following:

1. In that events, when Britannia's use Present Perfect, in Staffs can be used and Present Perfect, and Past Simple.
2. Take a shower/a bath instead of have a shower/a bath.
3. Shall is not used. In all persons is used by will.
4. Needn't (do) usually is not used. Accustomed form -don't need to (do).
5. After demand, insist, require etc should usually is not used. I demanded that he apologize (instead of I demanded that he should apologies in British variant).
6. to/in the hospital instead of to/in hospital in British English.
7. on the weekend/on weekend instead of at the weekend/at weekend.
8. on a street instead of in a street.
9. Different from or than instead of different to/from
10. Write is used with to or without the pretext.
11. Past participle of "got" is "gotten"
12. To burn, to spoil and other verbs, which can be regular or irregular in the British variant, in the American variant always regular.
13. Past Perfect, as a rule, is not used completely.¹⁹

The best way to make sure that you are being consistent in your spelling is to use the spell check on your word processor (if you are using the computer of course)

¹⁹Ilsh B.A "Build Modern English: Textbook. allowance stud.ped.in-Comrade":- L.,(2-e ize)1971, p 31-45.

and choose which variety of English you would like. As you can see, there are really very few differences between standard British English and standard American English. However, the largest difference is probably that of the choice of vocabulary and pronunciation. For further information concerning these areas please refer to the following links below.

American English has grown steadily in international significance since World War II, parallel to the growth of U.S. political, economic, technological and cultural influence worldwide. American English is currently the dominant influence on "world English" (cf. British English) largely due to the following:

1. Wealth of the U.S. economy vs. the U.K., & influences
2. Magnitude of higher education in America vs. the U.K.
3. Magnitude of the publishing industry in America
4. Magnitude of global mass media and media technology influence
5. Appeal of American popular culture on language and habits
6. International political and economic position of the U.S. American and

British English are both variants of World English. As such, they are more similar than different, especially with "educated" or "scientific" English. Most divergence can be ascribed to differing national histories and cultural development (Are Americans Ruining English?), and the way in which the two national variants have changed correspondingly.

The following general categories of difference between standard American English (SAE) and standard British English (SBE) each have their own socialistic value:

- Date writing, number/word order (never use only numbers!)
- Use of commas and periods inside quotation marks
- Business letter salutations, colons vs. commas

Grammar

• His daughter was a thespian who matriculated at the state college. She came to the party with a homo sapiens! The dean said he was an extrovert. He masticated throughout the meal.

There is a consonant, but it acts more like a vowel, because the tip of the tongue doesn't touch anywhere in the mouth. The middle t is what makes a word like meeting sound like meeting. As the most commonly used word in English is the word that is very important. Here are some very high-frequency. The words: the, these, those, they, them, there, they're, their, this, that and then. If these and those are pronounced with a d instead of at the, it sounds like dese and dose, which is considered lower class in America.

In British English the present perfect is used to express an action that has occurred in the recent past that has an effect on the present moment. For example:

I've lost my key. Can you help me look for it?

In American English the following is also possible:

I lost my key. Can you help me look for it?

In British English the above would be considered incorrect. However, both forms are generally accepted in standard American English. Other differences involving the use of the present perfect in British English and simple past in American English include already, just and yet.

British English:

I've just had lunch

I've already seen that film

Have you finished your homework yet?

American English:

I just had lunch or I've just had lunch

I've already seen that film or I already saw that film.

Have your finished your homework yet? or Did you finish your homework yet?

There are two forms to express possession in English. Have or Have got

Do you have a car?

Have you got a car?

He hasn't got any friends.

He doesn't have any friends.

She has a beautiful new home.

She's got a beautiful new home.

While both forms are correct (and accepted in both British and American English), have got (have you got, he hasn't got, etc.) is generally the preferred form in British English while most speakers of American English employ the have (do you have, he doesn't have etc.)²⁰. In British English, collective nouns can take either singular (formal agreement) or plural (notional agreement) verb forms, according to whether the emphasis is on the body as a whole or on the individual members respectively; compare *a committee was appointed* with *the committee were unable to agree*. The term *the Government* always takes a plural verb in British civil service convention, perhaps to emphasize the principle of cabinet collective responsibility. Some of these nouns, for example *staff*, actually combine with plural verbs most of the time.

In American English, collective nouns are almost always singular in construction: *the committee was unable to agree*. However, when a speaker wishes to emphasize that the individuals are acting separately, a plural pronoun may be employed with a singular or plural verb: *the team takes their seats* or *the team take their seats*, rather than *the team takes its seats*. However, such a sentence would most likely be recast as *the team members take their seats*. Despite exceptions such as usage in *The New York Times*, the names of sports teams are usually treated as plurals even if the form of the name is singular.

The past tense and past participle of the verbs *learn*, *spoil*, *spell*, *burn*, *dream*, *smell*, *spill*, *leap*, and others, can be either irregular (*learnt*, *spoilt*, etc.) or regular (*learned*, *spoiled*, etc.). In British English, both irregular and regular forms are current, but for some words (such as *smelt* and *leapt*) there is a strong tendency

²⁰Швейцер А.Д. “Социальные диалекты американского варианта”:- Москва, Наука, 1988 - С.17-20.

towards the irregular forms, especially by users of Received pronunciation. For other words (such as *dreamed*, *leaned*, and *learned*) the regular forms are somewhat more common. In most accents of American English, the irregular forms are never or rarely used (except for *burnt*, *leapt* and *dreamt*).

Lit as the past tense of *light* is more common than *lighted* in the UK; the regular form is used more in the US but is nonetheless less common than *lit*. Conversely, *fit* as the past tense of *fit* is more widely used in American English than British English, which generally favour *fitted*.

The past participle *gotten* is never used in modern British English (apart from in the dialects of North-Eastern and Western England), which generally uses *got*, except in old expressions such as *ill-gotten gains*. According to the Compact Oxford English Dictionary, "The form *gotten* is not used in British English but is very common in North American English, though even there it is often regarded as non-standard." The American dictionary Merriam-Webster, however, lists "gotten" as a standard past participle of "get." In American English *gotten* emphasizes the action of acquiring and *got* tends to indicate simple possession (for example, *Have you gotten it?* versus *Have you got it?*). *Gotten* is also typically used in American English as the past participle for phrasal verbs using *get*, such as *get off*, *get on*, *get into*, *get up*, and *get around*: *If you hadn't gotten up so late, you might not have gotten into this mess.* Interestingly, American English, but not British English, has *forgot* as a less common alternative to *forgotten* for the past participle of *forget*.

Traditionally, British English uses the present perfect to talk about an event in the recent past and with the words *already*, *just* and *yet*. In American usage these meanings can be expressed with the present perfect (to express a fact) or the simple past (to imply an expectation). This American style has become widespread only in the past 20 to 30 years; the British style is still in common use as well. Recently the American use of *just* with simple past has made inroads into British English, most visibly in advertising slogans and headlines such as "Cable broadband just got faster".

"I've just arrived home." / "I just arrived home."

"I've already eaten." / "I already ate."

Similarly American English occasionally replaces the past perfect with the simple past.

Shall (as opposed to *will*) is more commonly used by the British than by Americans. *Shan't* is almost never used in American English (almost invariably replaced by *won't* or *am not going to*) and is increasingly rare in British English as well. American grammar also tends to ignore some traditional distinctions between *should* and *would*; however, expressions like *I should be happy* are rather formal even in British English. The periphrastic future "*be going to*" is about twice as frequent in American English as in British English.

write: In British English, the indirect object of this verb usually requires the preposition *to*, for example, *I'll write to my MP* or *I'll write to her* (although it is not required in some situations, for example when an indirect object pronoun comes before a direct object noun, for example, *I'll write her a letter*). In American English, *write* can be used monotonically (*I'll write my congressman*; *I'll write him*).

In names of American rivers the word *river* usually comes after the name (for example, *Colorado River*) whereas for British rivers it comes before (as in *the River Thames*). Exceptions in British English include the *Fleet River*, which is rarely called the *River Fleet* by Londoners outside official documentation, and also where the river name is an adjective (*the Yellow River*). Exceptions in the US are the *Riever Rouge* and the *River Raisin*, both in Michigan and named by the French. This convention is mixed in some Commonwealth nations, where both arrangements are often seen.

In British English speech, some descriptions of offices do not become titles (*President Roosevelt*, but *Winston Churchill*, *the Prime Minister* and *Mr. Jones*, *the team's coach*), while they do in American English (*President Roosevelt*, *Prime Minister Churchill* and *Coach Jones*).

In British English the word *sat* is often colloquially used to cover *sat*, *sitting*, and *seated*: *I've been sat here waiting for half an hour*. *The bride's family will be sat on the right-hand side of the church*. This construction is not often heard outside the

UK. In the 1960s, its use would mark a speaker as coming from the north of England but by the turn of the 21st century this form had spread to the south. Its use often conveys lighthearted informality, when many speakers intentionally use a dialect or colloquial construction they would probably not use in formal written English. This colloquial usage is widely understood by British speakers. Similarly *stood* can be used instead of *standing*. To an American and still to many Britons these usages are passive and may imply that the subject had been involuntarily forced to sit or stand or directed to hold that location.

In most areas of the United States the word *with* is also used as an adverb: *I'll come with* instead of *I'll come along*, although it is rarely used in writing. *Come with* is used as an abbreviation of *come with me*, as in *I'm going to the office – come with* by speakers in Minnesota and parts of the adjoining states. These parts of the United States have high concentrations of both Scandinavian and German American populations. It is similar to South African English, where the expression comes from Dutch, and is used by Afrikaans speakers when speaking English. These contractions are not used by native British English speakers.

The word *also* is used at the end of a sentence in American English (just as *as well* and *too* are in both dialects) but not so commonly in British English, although it is encountered in Northern Ireland. Additionally, the sentence-ending *as well* is more formal in American English than in British English.

Before some words beginning with a pronounced (not silent) *h* in an unstressed first syllable, such as *hallucination*, *hilarious*, *historic(al)*, *horrendous* and *horrific*, some (especially older) British writers prefer to use *an* over *a* (*an historical event*, etc.). *An* is also preferred before *hotel* by some writers of British English (probably reflecting the relatively recent adoption of the word from French, where the *h* is not pronounced). The use of "an" before words beginning with an unstressed "h" is more common generally in British English than American. Such usage would now be seen as affected or incorrect in American English. American writers normally use *a* in all these cases, although there are occasional uses of *an historic(al)* in American

English. According to the New Oxford Dictionary of English, such use is increasingly rare in British English too. Unlike British English, American English typically uses *an* before *herb*, since the *h* in this word is silent for most Americans.

In conditional sentences, US spoken usage often substitutes *would* and *would have* (usually shortened to *[I]'d* and *would've*) for the simple past and for the pluperfect (*If you'd leave now, you'd be on time. / If I would have [would've] cooked the pie we could have [could've] had it for lunch*). This tends to be avoided in writing because it is often still considered non-standard although such use of *would* is widespread in spoken US English in all sectors of society. Some reliable sources now label this usage as acceptable US English and no longer label it as colloquial. (There are, of course, situations where *would* is used in British English too in seemingly counterfactual conditions, but these can usually be interpreted as a modal use of *would*: *If you would listen to me once in a while, you might learn something*.) In cases in which the action in the *if* clause takes place after that in the main clause, use of *would* in counterfactual conditions is, however, considered standard and correct usage in even formal UK and US usage: *If it would make Bill happy, I'd [I would] give him the money*.

In British English, *have got* or *have* can be used for possession and *have got to* and *have to* can be used for the modal of necessity. The forms that include “got” are usually used in informal contexts and the forms without *got* in contexts that are more formal. In American speech the form without *got* is used more than in the UK, although the form with *got* is often used for emphasis. Colloquial American English informally uses *got* as a verb for these meanings—for example, *I got two cars, I got to go*.

American English further allows other irregular verbs, such as *dive* (*dove*) or *sneak* (*snuck*), and often mixes the past participle forms (*spring–sprang*, US also *sprung–sprung*), sometimes forcing verbs such as *shrink* (*shrank–shrunk*) to have a

further form, thus *shrunk–shrunken*²¹. These uses are often considered nonstandard; the AP Stylebook in American English treats some irregular verbs as colloquialisms, insisting on the regular forms for the past tense of *dive*, *plead* and *sneak*. *Dove* and *snuck* are usually considered nonstandard in Britain, although *dove* exists in some British dialects and *snuck* is occasionally found in British speech.

By extension of the irregular verb pattern, verbs with irregular preterits in some variants of colloquial American English also have a separate past participle, for example, "to buy": past tense *bought* spawns *bough ten*. Such formations are highly irregular from speaker to speaker, or even within idiolects. This phenomenon is found chiefly in the northern US and other areas where immigrants of German descent are predominant and may have developed as a result of German influence²². Even in areas where the feature predominates, however, it has not gained widespread acceptance as standard usage.

3.2 Using the prepositions and adverbs

Use of prepositions before days denoted by a single word. Where British people would say *She resigned on Thursday*, Americans often say *She resigned Thursday*, but both forms are common in American usage. Occasionally the preposition is also absent when referring to months: *I'll be here December* (although this usage is generally limited to colloquial speech).

In the UK, *from* is used with single dates and times more often than in the United States. Where British speakers and writers may say *the new museum will be open from Tuesday*, Americans most likely say *the new museum will be open starting Tuesday*. (This difference does not apply to phrases of the pattern *from A to B*, which are used in both British English and American English.). A variation or alternative of

²¹Druesne G, and Labrie "French Encyclopedia":-France, France national press 1993, p- 299-301.

²²Аракин В.Д."History of the English language": - Москва, Изд. Дрофа, 2001- С.8-19.

this is the mostly American *the play opens Tuesday* and the mostly British *the play opens on Tuesday*.

In the United States, the word *through* can mean "up to and including" as in *Monday through Friday*. In the UK (and for many Americans) *Monday to Friday*, or *Monday to Friday inclusive* is used instead; *Monday through to Friday* is also sometimes used. (In some parts of Northern England, mainly Lancashire and Yorkshire, the term *while* can be used in the same way, as in *Monday while Friday*, whereas in Ireland, *Monday till Friday* would be more natural.) In the United States *on the weekend* is used instead of the British equivalent, *at the weekend*. British sportsmen play *in a team*; American athletes play *on a team*. (Both may play *for* a particular team.)

The verb *enroll* usually takes *on* in British English and *in* in American English (as in "to enroll(l) on/in a course") and the *on/in* difference is used when *enrolled* is dropped (as in "I am (enrolled) on the course that studies....").

In American English, one always speaks of the street *on* which an address is located, whereas in British English *in* can also be used in some contexts. *In* suggests an address on a city street, so a service station (or a tourist attraction or indeed a village) would always be *on* a major road, but a department store might be *in* Oxford Street. Moreover if a particular place on the street is specified then the preposition used is whichever is idiomatic to the place, thus "*at* the end of Churchill Road.

Adding *at* to the end of a question requesting a location is common in spoken American English, for example, "where are you *at*?", but would be considered superfluous in standard British English (though not in some dialects). However, some south-western British dialects use *to* in the same context; for example "where are you *to*?", to mean "where are you"²³.

After *talk* American can also use the preposition *with* but British always uses *to* (that is, *I'll talk with Dave / I'll talk to Dave*). The American form is sometimes seen

²³Green G. "Quest American?": -Moscow, Hayka, 1956 - p 50.

as more politically correct in British organizations, inducing the ideal of discussing (with) as opposed to lecturing (to). This is unless talk is being used as a noun; for example: "I'll have a talk with him" in which case this is acceptable in both British English and American English. In both dialects, *from* is the preposition prescribed for use after the word *different*: *American English is different from British English in several respects*. However, *different than* is also commonly heard in the US, and is often considered standard when followed by a clause (*American English is different than it used to be*), whereas *different to* is a common alternative in British English.

British English sometimes uses *to* with *near* (*we live near to the university*); American English avoids the preposition in most usages dealing with literal, physical proximity (*we live near the university*), although the *to* reappears in American English when *near* takes the comparative or superlative form, as in *she lives nearer/nearest to the deranged axe murderer's house*. In American English, the use of the function word *out* as a preposition in *out the door* and *out the window* is standard to mean "out through". For example, in American English, one jumps "out of a boat" by jumping "out the porthole," and it would be incorrect in standard American English to "jump out the boat" or climb "out of the porthole."²⁴ In British English, *out of* is preferred in writing for both meanings, but *out* is common in speech. Several other uses of *out of* are peculiarly British (*out of all recognition*, *out of the team*); all of this notwithstanding, *out of* is overall more frequent in American English than in British English. In British English, one rings someone *on* his or her telephone number; in American English, one calls someone *at* his or her telephone number.

When referring to the constituency of an American legislator, the preposition "from" is usually used: "Senator from New York," whereas British MPs are "for" their constituency: "MP for East Cleveland."²⁵

In American English, the phrases *aside from* and *apart from* are used about equally; in British English, *apart from* is far more common.

²⁴David Crystal "English as a global language":- Cambridge, Cape Town 8001,1997, p 48.

²⁵ www.wikipedia.com

It is common in British English to say *opposite to* as an alternative to *opposite of* when used as a noun, the only form normally found in American English. The use of *opposite* as a preposition (*opposite the post office*) has long been established in both dialects but appears to be more common in British usage. The noun *opportunity* can be followed by a verb in two different ways: *opportunity* plus *to*-infinitive ("the opportunity to do something") or *opportunity* plus *of* plus gerund ("the opportunity of doing something"). The first construction is the most common in both dialects but the second has almost disappeared in American English and is often regarded as a Britishism.

3.3 Some spelling differences

Before the early 18th century English spelling was not standardized. Different standards became noticeable after the publishing of influential dictionaries. For the most part current British English spellings follow those of Samuel Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language (1755). Among the advocates of spelling reform in England, the influences of those who preferred the Norman (or Anglo-French) spellings of certain words proved decisive. In many cases American English deviated in the 19th century from mainstream British spelling; on the other hand it has also often retained older forms. Many of the now characteristic American English spellings were introduced, although often not created, by Noah Webster in his An American Dictionary of the English Language of 1828. Webster was a strong proponent of spelling reform for reasons both philological and nationalistic. Many other spelling changes proposed in the US by Webster himself and by the Simplified Spelling Board in the early 20th century never caught on. Subsequent spelling adjustments in the UK had little effect on present-day US spelling, and vice versa.

Most words ending in an unstressed *-our* in British English (e.g., *colour, flavour, honour, neighbour, rumour, labour, humour*) end in *-or* in American English (e.g., *color, flavor, honor, neighbor, rumor, labor, humor*). Wherever the vowel is unreduced in pronunciation, this does not occur: *contour, velour, paramour, troubadour* are spelt thus the same everywhere. Most words of this category derive

from Latin non-agent nouns having nominative *-or*; the first such borrowings into English were from early Old French and the ending was *-oror-ur*. After the Norman Conquest, the ending became *-our* in Anglo-French in an attempt to represent the Old French pronunciation of words ending in *-or*, though *color* has been used occasionally in English since the 15th century. The *-our* ending was not only retained in English borrowings from Anglo-French, but also applied to earlier French borrowings. After the Renaissance, some such borrowings from Latin were taken up with their original *-or* ending; many words once ending in *-our* (for example, *chancellour* and *governour*) now end in *-or* everywhere. Many words of the *-our/-or* group do not have a Latin counterpart; for example, *armo(u)r*, *behavio(u)r*, *harbo(u)r*, *neighbo(u)r*; also *arbo(u)r* meaning "shelter", though senses "tree" and "tool" are always *arbor*, a false cognate of the other word. Some 16th and early 17th century British scholars indeed insisted that *-or* be used for words of Latin origin (e.g. *color*) and *-our* for French loans; but in many cases the etymology was not completely clear, and therefore some scholars advocated *-or* only and others *-our* only.

Commonwealth countries normally follow British usage. In Canada *-or* endings are not uncommon, particularly in Western Canada. In Australia, *-or* endings enjoyed some use in the 19th century, and now are sporadically found in some regions, usually in local and regional newspapers, though the most notable countrywide use of *-or* is for the Australian Labor Party. Aside from that, *-our* is almost universal. New Zealand English, while sharing some words and syntax with Australian English, follows British usage.

In British usage, some words of French, Latin, or Greek origin end with a consonant followed by *-re*, with the *-re* unstressed and pronounced /əɾ/. Most of these words have the ending *-er* in the United States. The difference is most common for words ending *-bre* or *-tre*: British spellings *centre*, *goitre*, *kilometre*, *litre*, *lustre*, *mitre*, *nitre*, *reconnoitre*, *saltpetre*, *spectre*, *theatre*, *titre*, *calibre*, *fibre*, *sabre*, and *sombre* all have *-er* in American spelling.

The ending *-cre*, as in *acre, lucre, massacre, mediocre*, is preserved in American English, to indicate the *c* is pronounced /k/ rather than /s/.

Many other words have *-er* in British English. These include Germanic words like *anger, mother, timber, water* and Romance words like *danger, quarter, river*.

Theater is the prevailing American spelling used to refer to both the dramatic arts and buildings where stage performances and screenings of movies take place (i.e., "movie theaters"); for example, a national newspaper such as *The New York Times* uses *theater* throughout its "Theater", "Movies", and "Arts & Leisure" sections. In contrast, the spelling *theatre* appears in the names of many New York City theaters on Broadway (cf. Broadway theatre) and elsewhere in the United States. In 2003 the proposal of the American National Theatre, eventually to be founded and inaugurated in the fall of 2007, was referred to by the *New York Times* as the "American National Theater"; but the organization actually uses "re" in the spelling of its name. The John F. Kennedy Center for Performing Arts, in Washington, D.C., or The Kennedy Center, features the more common American spelling *theater* in its references to The Eisenhower Theater, part of The Kennedy Center. Some cinemas outside New York use the "theatre" spelling.

Nouns ending in *-ce* with *-se* verb forms: American English and British English both retain the noun/verb distinction in *advice / advise* and *device / devise*, but American English has abandoned the distinction with *licence / license* and *practice / practise* (where the two words in each pair are homophones) that British spelling retains. American English uses *practice* and *license* for both meanings.

American English has kept the Anglo-French spelling for *defense* and *offense*, which are usually *defence* and *offence* in British English; similarly there are the American *pretence* and British *pretence*; but derivatives such as *defensive, offensive*, and *pretension* are always thus spelled in both systems. Australian and Canadian usage generally follows British.

American spelling accepts only *-ize* endings in most cases, such as *organize, realize, and recognize*. British usage accepts both *-ize* and *-ise* (*organize/organise, realize, and recognize*).

realize/realise, recognize/recognise). British English using *-ize* is known as Oxford spelling, and is used in publications of the *Oxford University Press*, most notably the *Oxford English Dictionary*, as well as other authoritative British sources. Other references, including *Fowler's Modern English Usage*, now give prominence to the *-ise* suffix over *-ize*. The Cambridge University Press has long favoured *-ise*. Perhaps as a reaction to the ascendancy of American spelling, the *-ize* spelling is now rarely used in the UK mass media and newspapers, to the extent that it is often incorrectly regarded as an Americanism. The ratio between *-ise* and *-ize* stands at 3:2 in the British National Corpus. The *-ise* form is standard in leading publications such as *The Times*, *The Daily Telegraph* and *The Economist*. The Oxford spelling and thus *-ize*, is used in many British-based academic publications, such as *Nature*, the *Biochemical Journal* and *The Times Literary Supplement*. In Australia and New Zealand *-ise* spellings strongly prevail; the Australian *Macquarie Dictionary*, among other sources, gives the *-ise* spelling first. The *-ise* form is preferred in Australian English at a ratio of about 3:1 according to the *Macquarie Dictionary*. Conversely, Canadian usage is essentially like American.

Worldwide, *-ize* endings prevail in scientific writing and are commonly used by many international organizations. The European Union switched from *-ize* to *-ise* some years ago in its English language publications, and this resulted in the coexistence of the *-ize* spelling in older legislative acts and the *-ise* spelling in more recent ones. Proofreaders at the European Union's Publications Office ensure consistent spelling in official publications such as the Official Journal (where legislation and other official documents are published), but the *-ize* spelling may be found in other documents.

disc or *disk*: Traditionally, *disc* used to be British and *disk* American. Both spellings are etymologically sound (Greek *diskos*, Latin *discus*), although *disk* is earlier. In computing, *disc* is used for optical discs (e.g. a CD, Compact Disc; DVD, Digital Versatile/Video Disc), by choice of the group that coined and trademarked the name Compact Disc, while *disk* is used for products using magnetic storage (e.g. hard

disks or floppy disks, also known as diskettes). For this limited application, these spellings are used in both the US and the Commonwealth. Solid-state devices also use the spelling "disk"*enquiry* or *inquiry*: According to Fowler, *inquiry* should be used in relation to a formal inquest, and *enquiry* to the act of questioning. Many (though not all) British writers maintain this distinction; the OED, on the other hand, lists *inquiry* and *enquiry* as equal alternatives, in that order. Some British dictionaries, such as *Chambers 21st Century Dictionary*, present the two spellings as interchangeable variants in the general sense, but prefer *inquiry* for the "formal inquest" sense. In the US, only *inquiry* is commonly used; the title of *The National Enquirer*, as a proper name, is an exception. In Australia, *inquiry* and *enquiry* are often interchangeable, but *inquiry* prevails in writing. Both are current in Canada, where *enquiry* is often associated with scholarly or intellectual research.

any more or *anymore*: In sense "any longer", the single-word form is usual in North America and Australia but unusual elsewhere, at least in formal writing. Other senses always have the two-word form; thus Americans distinguish "I couldn't love you anymore (so I left you)" from "I couldn't love you any more (than I already do)"²⁶. In Hong Kong English, *any more* is always two words.

for ever or *forever*: Traditional British English usage makes a distinction between *forever*, meaning for eternity (or a very long time into the future), as in "If you are waiting for income tax to be abolished you will probably have to wait for ever"; and *forever*, meaning continually, always, as in "They are forever arguing". In contemporary British usage, however, *forever* prevails in the "for eternity" sense as well, in spite of several style guides maintaining the distinction. American writers usually use *forever* regardless of which sense they intend (although *forever* in the sense of "continually" is comparatively rare in American English, having been displaced by *always*). *near by* or *nearby*: Some British writers make the distinction between the adverbial *near by*, which is written as two words, as in, "No one was

²⁶Голденков М.А. "Caution! Hot dog! Modern activeEnglish": – Москва, ПРОАТБУК 1999-С. 230-231.

near by"; and the adjectival *nearby*, which is written as one, as in, "The nearby house". In American English, the one-word spelling is standard for both forms.

ensure or *insure*: In the UK (and Australia), the word *ensure* (to make sure, to make certain) has a distinct meaning from the word *insure* (often followed by *against* – to guarantee or protect against, typically by means of an "insurance policy"). The distinction is only about a century old, and this helps explain why in (North) America *ensure* is just a variant of *insure*, more often than not. According to Merriam-Webster's usage notes, *ensure* and *insure* "are interchangeable in many contexts where they indicate the making certain or making inevitable of an outcome, but *ensure* may imply a virtual guarantee (the government has *ensured* the safety of the refugees), while *insure* sometimes stresses the taking of necessary measures beforehand (careful planning should *insure* the success of the party)."

insurance or *assurance*: In the business of risk transfer, American English speakers will normally refer to *life insurance* or *fire insurance*. In British English, "assurance" refers to risk associated with certainty, such as covering death (death is inevitable), whereas "insurance" refers to uncertainty (such as a home insurance policy). In British English "life insurance" is used for a policy covering uncertainty (for example, a pianist's hands may be covered under "life insurance"). Canadian speakers remain more likely than US speakers to use *assurance*.

matt or *matte*: In the UK, *matt* refers to a non-glossy surface, and *matte* to the motion picture technique; in the US, *matte* covers both.

programme or *program*: The British *programme* is a 19th-century French version of *program*. *Program* first appeared in Scotland in the 17th century and is the only spelling found in the US. The OED entry, written around 1908 and listing both spellings, said *program* was preferable, since it conformed to the usual representation of the Greek as in *anagram*, *diagram*, *telegram* etc. In British English, *program* is the common spelling for computer programs, but for other meanings *programme* is used. In Australia, *program* has been endorsed by government writing standards for all senses since the 1960s, although *programme* is also seen; see also the name of *The*

MicallefProgram(me). In Canada, *program* prevails, and the *Canadian Oxford Dictionary* makes no meaning-based distinction between it and *programme*. However, some Canadian government documents nevertheless use *programme* in all senses of the word – and also to match the spelling of the French equivalent.

Americans tend to write *Mr., Mrs., St., Dr.*; the British will most often write *Mr, Mrs, St, Dr*, following the rule that a full stop/period is used only when the last letter of the abbreviation is not the last letter of the complete word. This kind of abbreviation is known as a *contraction* in the UK. The use of full stops/periods after most abbreviations can also be found in the UK, although publications generally tend to use of American punctuation. Unit symbols such as *kg* and *Hz* are never punctuated.

Americans begin their quotations with double quotation marks (") and use single quotation marks (') for quotations within quotations. British English usage varies, with some authoritative sources such as *The Economist* and *The Times* recommending the same usage as in the US, whereas other authoritative sources, such as *The King's English*, recommend single quotation marks. In journals and newspapers, quotation mark double/single use depends on the individual publication's house style.

In British English, "()" marks are generally referred to as brackets, whereas "[]" are called square brackets and "{ }" are called curly brackets. In American English "()" marks are parentheses (singular parenthesis), "[]" are called brackets, and "{ }" can often be called curly braces. In both countries, standard usage is to place punctuation outside the parenthesis:

Nouns ending in *-ce* with *-se* verb forms: American English and British English both retain the noun/verb distinction *inadvice / advise* and *device/devise*, but American English has abandoned the distinction with *licence / license* and *practice / practise* (where the two words in each pair are homophones) that British spelling retains. American English uses *practice* and *license* for both meanings. American English has kept the Anglo-French spelling for *defense* and *offense*, which are usually

defence and *offence* in British English; similarly there are the American *pretense* and British *pretence*; but derivatives such as *defensive*, *offensive*, and *pretension* are always thus spelled in both systems. Australian and Canadian usage generally follows British.

The spelling *connexion* is now rare in everyday British usage, its employment declining as knowledge of Latin declines, and it is not used at all in America: the more common *connection* has become the standard internationally. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* the older spelling is more etymologically conservative, since the word actually derives from Latin forms in *-xio-*. The American usage derives from Webster who discarded the *-xion* in favor of *-ction* by analogy with such verbs as *connect*.

Complexion (which comes from the stem *complex*) is standard and *complection* usually is not. However, the adjective *complected* (as in "dark-complected"), although sometimes objected to, is standard in U.S. English as an alternative to *complexioned*, but is quite unknown in this sense in the UK, although there is a rare usage to mean *complicated*.

Many words are written with *ae/æ* or *oe/œ* in British English, but a single *e* in American English. The sound in question is /i:/ or /ɛ/. Examples (with non-American letter in bold): *amoeba*, *anaemia*, *diarrhoea*, *encyclopaedia*, *leukaemia*, *oenology* is acceptable in American English but is regarded as a minor variant of *enology*.

The spelling foetal is a Briticism based on a false etymology. The etymologically correct original spelling "fetus"²⁷ reflects the Latin original and is the standard spelling in medical journals worldwide. Exceptions to the American simplification rule include *aesthetics* and *archaeology*, which usually prevail over *esthetics* and *archeology*, respectively, as well as the stronger case of *palaestra*, in

²⁷Khaimovich B.S, Rogovskaya B.I. "A Course in English Grammar":-Moscow, Hayka,1967 -p 22.

which the simplified form *palestra* is a variant described by Merriam – Webster as "chiefly Brit[ish]." ²⁸

Words where British usage varies include *encyclopaedia*, *homoeopathy*, *mediaeval*, and *foetus* (though the British medical community, as well as at least one authoritative source, consider this variant to be unacceptable for the purposes of journal articles and the like, since the Latin spelling was actually *fetus*) ²⁹.

3.4 Various usage of vocabulary

Probably the major differences between British and American English lies in the choice of vocabulary. Some words mean different things in the two varieties for example:

Mean: (American English - angry, bad humored, British English - not generous, tight fisted)

Rubber: (American English - condom, British English - tool used to erase pencil markings)

There are many more examples (too many for me to list here). If there is a difference in usage, your dictionary will note the different meanings in its definition of the term. Many vocabulary items are also used in one form and not in the other. One of the best examples of this is the terminology used for automobiles.

American English - *hood* British English - *bonnet*

American English - *trunk* British English - *boot*

American English - *truck* British English – *lorry*

Movie/film. Most Americans say “Would you like to a movie tonight?” as opposed to “Would you like to see a film tonight?”. However, if you asked a person to see a film, they’d know what you mean. As another person said, critics tend to prefer the word “film” when they’re reviewing one.

²⁸ Антрушина Г.Б, О.В.Афанасьева “Лексикология английского языка”: - Москва, Изд. Дрофа. 1999- С.10-80.

²⁹ Коптелова Е, “Speak English”:-Белгород, Просвещение ,1998 - С.10-15.

Mailman, woman/postman, woman. Postman was in use a few decades back in the USA. Typically they call a mailman/woman, who delivers the mail to your home, according to their gender.

Lounge/living room. A living may also be called a den or family room (homes with multiple living rooms typically designate one as a “living room” and another as a “family room”) and , it include television or a place for entertain friends. A lounge may also be used to entertain and may also include a television. But may also be located at the outside of a house. Some people refer to the area around their pool as the “lounge area” or a deck as a “lounge area”. A lounge may be located in a home (called “the lounge room” or “the lounge”) and many times includes activities such as billiards, possibly at a stocked bar, video games or a television. A lounge room may contain more alcohol and activities than a outdoor lounge.

Underground/subway. Being from New Jersey, which say subways, the underground refers to a place to catch the subway. Most of the US doesn't have subways, so the underground is only referred to if a town happens a historical city below the ground. Portland, Oregon is one such city, so if you ask where the underground is, you'll be shown to a place, where you can tour it. Most cities don't have underground, so if you ask for underground, most people won't know what you're talking about and some may ask if that's some type of new dance club.

Queue/line. The use of queue is very uncommon in the states to the point that if I were to ask how many were in the queue, most people wouldn't understand what you're talking about. They refer to standing and waiting in succession as a line. Queue is starting to gain more popularity with companies that put you on hold, when you call saying that, “You number X in the queue”

Garage. A garage in the UK is where your car gets fixed but in the US it's where your car is parked. This is not always true for the US, as many people park their cars outside their garages and use their garages as storage units or even an additional bedroom. If someone's car is being repaired, we may say any of the following: “It's

at the repair shop”, “It’s being repaired”, “It’s in the shop”, “It’s being worked on”, “My car is being serviced” or etc.

Trousers/pants. In America people use “pants” instead of “trousers” with undergarments referred to as “underwear” (used by anyone), “underpants” (typically for boys) or “panties” (used for women and girls). Long underwear also called long johns, thermals or thermal underwear, are used underneath the outer layer of clothing in the cold weathers to add an extra layer of warmth. Despite having “underwear” in the name, most people wear their regular underwear. If someone said “I spilled coffee on my trousers” then someone would understand what that meant. They often refer to the pants by the style: jeans, khakis (for khaki-coloured pants), dress pants (for occasions one should dress up for), work pants (depends on the type of work someone does), etc.

holiday /vacation. Americans do use the word holiday, but it refers to a special day, such as Christmas or Easter. In the UK, one says “I am going on holiday” whereas in the US says “I am going on vacation”. Some jobs also offer “vacation time” which you earn while you work. Every x hours worked equates to hours of vacation time. Vacation time is used when one needs a vacation or whenever someone doesn’t want to come into work on a given day. Vacation time is paid time off, so if you earn two weeks of vacation time, that means you don’t have to show up to work two weeks and you still get paid for two weeks worth of work. This is typically only offered to people who jobs that required a university degree to get; it’s hardly standard practice and most Americans don’t ever see vacation time during their working lives.

Pub/bar. In the US, they have a few ways to refer to an establishment that services alcohol as their main revenue; bar, pub, tavern or “dive bar”. All of them are the same, with “dive bar” typically being a dirtier place. Sometimes these are denoted with the type. Examples include; Irish pub, biker bar or gay bar. Bar is far more common rather than pub or tavern, but if someone says “ Would you like to go to the local tavern/pub to grab a drink? ” then any American will know what this means.

Food is typically served no matter where you go; even a dive bar has “typical” bar food like fries, hamburgers and chips. Some places sell only small bagged snacks such as bagged chips, bagged pretzels or bagged nuts/peanuts.

Solicitor/lawyer/attorney. A lawyer and an attorney are technically two different things, though most people wouldn't recognize that. An attorney is a person who is asked to act on behalf of another. A good example is when someone knows that he will be going into surgery followed by a long recovery, he may appoint another person to act on his behalf when it comes to paying bills or signing papers. That person is his attorney and doesn't have to have an legal training, but it's wise to pick person that does. A lawyer is a person who is allowed to practice law in a courtroom situation. An attorney that practice law is an “attorney at law”. For example, in the US system of justice , a person who is arrested and cannot afford a lawyer will be appointed a lawyer for free on her/his behalf. In this case the appointed lawyer is an attorney at law because he/she acting on behalf of the criminal and was appointed to do so.

Ill/sick. Sick is more commonly used in America but anyone would understand if you said “I can't come work today. I'm ill.” Sick is more common to the point that days missed due to illness are dubbed “sick days”. Ill and sick are also used to mean “awesome” in some hip-hop culture.

ground floor/first floor- Americans say ground floor for the one that is the lowest (usually underground)(but not to be mistaken with the basement) the term ground floor is only used in big buildings, like hospitals that have floors underground that are used not for storage and first floor for the floor that is the first floor above ground.

braces/suspenders. Suspenders in the us are not for socks, or stockings, women use garter belts for that with little straps that attach but suspenders attach at the belt loop on the outside of slacks/pants/trousers and are held up by your shoulders then attach on the back of your trousers on the belt loops. *Braces* are for teeth.

chips/fries. Chips are hard and packaged in bags they aren't served fresh those are fries. The bigger fries are called steak fries, then in both UK/US they have French fries (which is a common term for any) that are regular sized and then curly fries that come in curly cues.

class/grade. In the USA they say class of 2001, highschool class of 1994, or kindergarten class of 2000. And they use what class do you have next referring to a specific subject (like biology) and its more common get to class, (if you are late for school), pick your classes (When in college) and also always, senior class, junior class, sophomore class and the whole freshman class. Now US people use 1st grade-12th grade too for school before college and when you get to high school you are a freshman in high school, sophomore in high school, junior, senior etc. but they use those terms for college too.

Some speakers of American English are aware of some British English terms, although they may not generally use them or may be confused as to whether someone intends the American or British meaning (such as for *biscuit*)³⁰. They will be able to guess approximately what some others, such as "driving licence", mean. However, use of many other British words such as *snaff* (slang but commonly used to mean "not very good") are unheard of in American English.

Speakers of British English are likely to understand most common American English terms, examples such as "sidewalk gas" (gasoline/petrol)", "counterclockwise" or "elevator (lift)", without any problem, thanks in part to considerable exposure to American popular culture and literature. Certain terms that are heard less frequently, especially those likely to be absent or rare in American popular culture, e.g. "copacetic (satisfactory)", are unlikely to be understood by most British English speakers.

3.5 Voiced and unvoiced consonants and vowel shifts

If you want to master English pronunciation you have to be able to distinguish between these two types of consonants. This is necessary for you to learn the proper

³⁰Green G. "Quest American": -Moscow, Hayka, 1956- p 50.

pronunciation when you learn new vocabulary. And more importantly you need to know the difference between voiced and unvoiced consonants to be able to pronounce the words of English correctly. What makes one consonant be voiced and another not?

A consonant is voiced when it makes the vocal cords vibrate. It is voiceless when it is pronounced without vibrating the vocal cords.

The sound of the letters "b" and "p".

For example, the sounds indicated by the letters "b" and "p" differ only in their vocalization (voicing). They are both "bilabials", that is, they are produced by closing both lips. But the "b" is voiced and the "p" is unvoiced. In this chapter, we will follow common practice and indicate the letters of the alphabet with quotes ("b" and "p") and the sounds with slashes (/b/ and /p/)

You can appreciate the difference by lightly touching with the tips of your fingers your "Adam's Apple" (the voice box that you can see in the front of your throat) as you pronounce the word bowl . You can feel the vibration with the tips of our fingers. Concentrate on the first sound, the consonant /b/ before passing to the vowel represented by the "o". Notice that you can lengthen the sound (something is heard!) without the "o". This is because /b/ is a voiced consonant. Now pronounce the word pole. Do you feel the vibration in the vocal cords? No.

The reason is that /p/ is an unvoiced consonant. Notice that you can't lengthen the sound or hear anything.

When you pronounce these sounds, the vowel "o" with a strong English accent!

Listen to the following exercise until you can distinguish between the two sounds and produce them yourself.

You should be able to tell the difference between the /p/ and the /b/ in the sentence, The doctor said: "Bill, take your pill!

Try it now!

The sounds of the English letters /k/ (sometimes "c") and /g/

It is not only the sounds /p/ and /b/ that are voiced or unvoiced. The same distinction holds for the sounds represented by the letters "k" y "g" in the International Phonetic Alphabet. By the way, do you see that it will not be hard for you to learn the symbols of the IPA? Many of the symbols, like the k and the g are already familiar to you. They are the normal letters of the alphabet.

The IPA symbol k interests us now. It is the "hard" sound of the letter "c", the sound that the letter "c" usually takes before the letters "a", "o", and "u", for example in the words car, coat, cube.

Now can you see how the IPA system makes it easy for you to learn the pronunciation of new words? Now, we don't have to worry that sometimes the letter "c" has the sound of the IPA symbol k (as in the word cold) or that sometimes the same letter "c" of the English alphabet is pronounced as the IPA s (as in the words cell).

Now try to feel in your voice box the vibration in the word coal! You can't because it is the unvoiced partner in the pair. If you touch your voice box while you pronounce the word goal, you do feel the vibration because the sound g is voiced.

Practice the two words coal and goal. But keep on pronouncing the English vowel with its lengthening. Exaggerate the English language character of the vowel. Don't pronounce it as if it were col or gol in your language. And also remember the explosive nature of the consonant represented by the "c" in English when it is pronounced as the IPA k. Blow out the candle when you say coal.

Pero... ¡Qué no suenecomosihablaras de repollo (la col en el Perú) o delfútbol (el gol)! Cuidado con tuacentohispano!

Did you notice that we review various important things about the English sounds as we move along in this practice.From now on, in your listening and in your practice, you must remember the explosive consonants, the special English vowels, and the voiced or unvoiced consonants.

The sound of the letters "t" and "d".

Consider the pair of words tear and dear. Do the same with these words as you did above with the pairs of words coal and goal, and pole and bowl. Can you distinguish which of the initial sounds is voiced and which is unvoiced? Both are pronounced in almost the same place in the mouth but the initial sound of these two words is different in that the letter "t" is usually voiceless and the "d" is usually voiced. However, do not think that the letter "d" in English is always voiced.³¹ You will see that sometimes this letter "d" represents a voiceless sound. This is a very important lesson in the pronunciation of English and when you learn how and when the "d" is unvoiced it will be a valuable tool for you in your mastery of English³².

This difference between the letters "d" and "t" in English is very important in the matter of the past tense of verbs. We will treat this elsewhere.

Also there is another pair of voiced and unvoiced consonants, the sounds represented in English by the letters "s" and "z". We will study them in their most important contexts, that of the third person singular of the present of verbs, and that of the plural of nouns.

But for now, concentrate on the consonants we just looked at.

Now listen and practice! Listen wherever you can (or listen in our book) to the different pairs of voiced and unvoiced consonants. Then make them yourself.

P and B

K and G

T and D

The final consonant of an English word is sometimes doubled in both American and British spelling when adding a suffix beginning with a vowel, for example

strip/stripped, which prevents confusion with *stripe/striped* and shows the difference in pronunciation. Generally, this occurs only when the word's final syllable is stressed and when it also ends with a single vowel followed by a single consonant. In British English, however, a final *-l* is often doubled even when the final syllable is

³¹ Абдуазизова А.А.: "Theoretical Phonetics of Modern English": - Tashkent, 1986, С. 7-50.

³² <http://www.english.phonetic.up.html>.

unstressed. This exception is no longer usual in American English, apparently because of Noah Webster. The *-ll-* spellings are nevertheless still regarded as acceptable variants by both Merriam-Webster Collegiate and American Heritage dictionaries.

The British English doubling is required for all inflections (*-ed, -ing, -er, -est*) and for the noun suffixes *-er* and *-or*. Therefore, British English usage is *cancelled, counsellor, cruellest, modelling, quarrelled, signalling, traveller, and travelling*. Americans usually use *canceled, counselor, cruelest, modeling, quarreled, signaling, traveler, and traveling*.

The word *parallel* keeps a single *-l-* in British English, as in American English (*paralleling, unparalleled*), to avoid the unappealing cluster *-lless-*.

Words with two vowels before a final *l* are also spelled with *-ll-* in British English before a suffix when the first vowel either acts as a consonant (*equalling* and *initialled*; in the United States, *equaling* or *initialled*), or belongs to a separate syllable (British *fu•el•ling* and *di•alled*; American *fu•el•ing* and *di•aled*).

British *woollen* is a further exception due to the double vowel (American: *woolen*). Also, *wooly* is accepted in American English, though *woolly* dominates in both systems.

Endings *-ize/-ise, -ism, -ist, -ish* usually do not double the *l* in British English; for example, *normalise, dualism, novelist, and devilish*.

Exceptions: *tranquillise; duellist, medallist, panellist, and sometimes triallist* in British English.

For *-ous*, British English has a single *l* in *scandalous* and *perilous*, but the "ll" in *marvellous* and *libellous*. For *-ee*, British English has *libellee*. For *-age*, British English has *pupillage* but *vassalage*.

American English sometimes has an unstressed *-ll-*, as in the UK, in some words where the root has *-l*. These are cases where the alteration occurs in the source language, which was often Latin. (Examples: *bimetallism, cancellation, chancellor, crystallize, excellent, tonsillitis, and raillery*.)

All forms of English have *compelled*, *excelling*, *propelled*, *rebellng* (notice the stress difference); *revealing*, *fooling* (note the double vowel before the l); and *hurling* (consonant before the l). Canadian and Australian English largely follow British usage.

Among consonants other than *l*, practice varies for some words, such as where the final syllable has secondary stress or an unreduced vowel. In the United States, the spellings *kidnaped* and *worshiped*, which were introduced by the *Chicago Tribune* in the 1920s, are common. *Kidnapped* and *worshipped* are the only standard British spellings. British *jewellery*; American *jewelry*. The standard pronunciations do not reflect this difference. According to Fowler, *jewelry* used to be the "rhetorical and poetic" spelling in the UK. Canada has both, but *jewellery* is more often used. Likewise, the Commonwealth (including Canada) has *jeweller* and the United States has *jeweler* for a jewel(le)ry retailer.

Conversely, there are words where British writers prefer a single *l* and Americans usually use a double *l*. In American usage, the spelling of words is usually not changed when they form the main part (not prefix or suffix) of other words, especially in newly formed words and in words whose main part is in common use. Words exhibiting this spelling difference include *wil(l)ful*, *skil(l)ful*, *thral(l)dom*, *appal(l)*, *fulfil(l)*, *fulfil(l)ment*, *enrol(l)ment*, *instal(l)ment*. These words have monosyllabic cognates always written with *-ll*: *will*, *skill*, *thrall*, *pall*, *fill*, *roll*, *stall*, *still*. Cases where a single *l* nevertheless occurs in both American and British English include *null*→*annul*, *annulment*; *till*→*until* (although some prefer "til" to reflect the single L in "until", occasionally using an apostrophe ['til]); and others where the connection is not transparent or the monosyllabic cognate is not in common use in American English (e.g. *null* is used mainly as a technical term in law, mathematics, and computer science).

In the UK, *ll* is used occasionally in *distil(l)*, *instil(l)*, *enrol(l)*, and *enthral(l)ment*, and often in *enthral(l)*, all of which are always spelt this way in American usage. The

former British spellings *instal*, *fulness*, and *dulness* are now quite rare. The Scottish *tolbooth* is cognate with *toll booth*, but it has a specific distinct sense.

In both American and British usages, words normally spelled *-ll* usually drop the second *l* when used as prefixes or suffixes, for example *full*→*useful*, *handful*; *all*→*almighty*, *altogether*; *well*→*welfare*, *welcome*; *chill*→*chilblain*. The British *fulfil* and American *fulfill* are never *fullfill* or *fullfil*. Dr Johnson wavered on this issue. His dictionary of 1755 lemmatises *distil* and *instill*, *downhil* and *uphill*.

British English sometimes keeps silent *e* when adding suffixes where American English does not. Generally speaking, British English drops it in only some cases in which it is unnecessary to indicate pronunciation whereas American English only uses it where necessary.

British prefers *ageing*, American usually *aging* (compare *raging*, *ageism*). For the noun or verb "route", British English often uses *routeing*, but in America *routing* is used. (The military term *rout* forms *routing* everywhere.) However, all of these words form "router", whether used in the context of carpentry, data communications, or military. (e.g. "Attacus was the router of the Huns at")

Both forms of English retain the silent *e* in the words *dyeing*, *singeing*, and *swingeing* (in the sense of *dye*, *singe*, and *swinge*), to distinguish from *dying*, *singing*, *swinging* (in the sense of *die*, *sing*, and *swing*). In contrast, both *bathe* and the British verb *bath* both form *bathing*. Both forms of English vary for *tinge* and *twinge*; both prefer *cringing*, *hinging*, *lunging*, *syringing*.

Before *-able*, British English prefers *likeable*, *liveable*, *rateable*, *saleable*, *sizeable*, *unshakeable* where American practice prefers to drop the *-e*; but both British and American English prefer *breathable*, *curable*, *datable*, *lovable*, *movable*, *notable*, *provable*, *quotable*, *scalable*, *solvable*, *usable*, and those where the root is polysyllabic, like *believable* or *decidable*. Both forms of the language retain the silent *e* when it is necessary to preserve a soft *c*, *ch*, or *g*, such as in *traceable*, *cacheable*, *changeable*; both usually retain the "e" after *-dge*, as in *knowledgeable*, *unbridgeable*, and *unabridgeable*. ("These rights are unabridgeable.")

Both *abridgment* and the more regular *abridgement* are current in America, only the latter in the UK. Similarly for the word *lodg(e)ment*. Both *judgment* and *judgement* are in use interchangeably everywhere, although the former prevails in America and the latter prevails in the UK except in the practice of law, where *judgment* is standard. The similar situation holds for *abridgment* and *acknowledgment*. Both forms of English prefer *fledgling* to *fledgeling*, but *ridgeling* to *ridgling*.

The word "blue" always drops the "e" when forming "bluish".

As above mentioned, English language have two variants, as British and American. Over viewing all resources, I have found that there are a lot of varieties which can identify the notion of these dialects, such different ways of using grammar, phonetic distinctions, and lexical options. Though, I proved these varieties of these two dialects with examples.

CONCLUSION

Literacy teaching is progressively becoming more complex. As information technologies and a so-called “flattening” world make global communication and collaboration more ubiquitous, teachers of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing are being forced to change the way they instruct their students. No longer is it adequate to teach literature by asking students to answer simple comprehension questions about a text. No longer is it sufficient to teach composition as if it were only an act of placing written words on paper. No longer is it useful to teach students to speak and compose using a single, standardized English grammar. All of these activities in the English classroom of the past were framed by a single discourse standard seeking a more homogenous cultural identity. Instead, 21st century literacy educators must broaden their curricular horizons and align their teaching with the real-life multicultural and multimodal communication needs of their students who increasingly live and work in a globalized society. Through such critical literacies, students can communicate and collaborate across cultural and national boundaries through technologies that afford them unprecedented ways to reinterpret, appropriate, and negotiate texts in order to participate more fully in local and global communities.

The teaching of critical thinking plays a central role in the teaching of such critical literacy. As the world becomes more complex, increasingly flattened, and, one might argue, ever more interesting and challenging, our students must be prepared to enter it as competent, thoughtful and agentive readers and communicators. In order to prepare them effectively, we as literacy educators must make changes to literacy curricular that traditionally view knowledge making and communication as straightforward, text-based, and individualized, a perspective that was only appropriate before the recent explosion in communicative technologies and resulting economic, social, and cultural realities. To prepare students who can be active and effective world citizens able to make thoughtful decisions and solve global problems, we must first help them to be critical, meta-aware thinkers and communicators.

In the future today`s youth will be required to actively address economic, environmental, and cultural problems that could have widespread and long-term consequences for themselves and their world. In order to be active problem solvers, they should be able to think with clarity, imagination, and empathy. Literacy instruction is one avenue through which such contemporary critical thinking might be taught. By teaching literacy skills strong intercultural reader response theories of literary interpretation, social-cultural methods of language study, global rhetorical approaches to writing, and juxtaposed multimedia representations, students can begin to think critically and globally in a world that, increasingly, will require a politically and socially active citizenry.

Today all the English – speaking countries have own national varieties of its usage (pronunciation, spelling, grammar and vocabulary). The national variety is defined as the speech of a nation and the written form of usage of English Language formally and informally.

Here, I have to remind, that I have given main two differences between American English and British English above, providing the necessary information, I have tried to show the differences in pronunciation, spelling, grammar, vocabulary est.

Generally, it is agreed that no one version is “correct”, however there are certainly preferences in use of English Language. Because American English, Australian English or Canadian English are not exceptional. These reciprocally intelligible varieties do not rank as “dialects” of British English. Each of this language is independent from each other and I learn them separately from one another. They represent national variants of the English Language.

If I decided that I want to use American English spelling then I should be consistent in my spelling (i.e. the color or the orange is also its flavor color is American spelling, but in British spelling “colour”) this is of course not always easy.

Besides, there are many differences between them. I have spoken above, but in my conclusion. I have to touch them chiefly and show the main differences.

Pronunciation

American English pronunciation is characterized by a greater variety of standard. There exist both a national standard (General American) and two major regional standards (Eastern American and Southern American) whose norms, particularly, do not conflict with each other.

General American is the least regional in character and the most widespread type of American standard pronunciation.

Owing to the American media, especially in TV, broadcasting and specifically in networks, nationwide newscasts General American has gained the status a “neutral” standard.

Phonetic and phonological differences from a pronunciation norm are not the social markers in the United States that are in Great Britain. No American “accent” has the prestige of Received Pronunciation.

The comparative analysis of accentual types of words in American English and British English shows that the differences comprise the distribution of the degrees of word stress within the word stress – pattern and in the greater use of the tertiary stress in American English.

The General American intonation has a general resemblance to that Received Pronunciation. There are however, quite a few noteworthy points of difference, both structural and functional.

Grammar

In British English, the present perfect is used to express an action that has occurred in the recent past that has an effect on the present moment.

For example:

I’ve lost my key. Can you help me look for it?

In American English the following is also possible: I’ve lost my key. Can you help me look for it?

In British English the above would be accepted in incorrect. However, both forms are generally accepted in standard American English. Other difference

involving to use of the present perfect in British English and simple past in American English include already, just and yet.

British English:

I've just had lunch

I've already see that film

Have you finished your homework yet?

American English:

I just had lunch or I've just had lunch

I've already seen that film or I already saw that film.

Have your finished your homework yet?

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