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QUALIFICATION PAPER

on the theme: **«VARIANTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN
TEACHING PROCESS»**

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INTRODUCTION

Teaching is an art rather than science, and teacher's gift given by nature is to give knowledge to learners, to help them to get societal figures. Some consider teachers knowledgeable, and on the other hand some may think inexperienced according to various teachers one may encounter during one's lifetime. Seemingly, teachers are nice if they, in fact, possess knowledge; and if a teacher has knowledge, and at the same time good teaching method, is hailed as a professional teacher as a whole. There is a great demand on teachers of English language to teach English in new ways which is the resultant outcome of the teaching process to differ the variants of the usage of the English language. Accordingly, there is an academic variant of the English language is British variant, from the variants of the English language to choose is American English so as to teach as the secondary variant of the English language after British one in the teaching as well as in the learning process.

In the Decree of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Sh.M.Mirziyoyev PD-2909 "On measures to further development of the system of higher education" adopted on April 20th in 2017 it is stated about the creation of textbooks of new generation, paying more attention to teaching a foreign language in innovative ways. Admittedly, the globalization of English language is good for its native speakers, but it may not be relatively good for linguists for their research – which English to search; as well as for teachers in their lessons – which English to teach and explain some differences of English in context during the lesson.

To do research on a language is major science; therefore, there is no stable rule to describe, to explain one language in a particular way. And this is true for English teachers and learners as a second language. As Stevens noted "As English becomes ever more widely used, so it becomes ever more difficult to characterize the ways that support the fiction of a simple, single language. [Peter Stevens 1982:23], there is no expectation for the homogenization of English, but its variation is plausible in any context whether it is in teaching process or in daily communication, it will not matter.

Language variation is very important in methodology and linguistics that is the part of language learning process. Languages vary from one place to another, from people to people, and from one situation to another. However, there are no limitations for one language to say about its limited variation but the phenomenon “variation” is limitless. Therefore, language variation cannot be observed in one particular field of science and study, but in diverse contexts.

Actuality of the theme of Qualification Paper is conditioned by the fact that there are a wide range of variants of the English language such as Scottish English, Irish English, Indian English, Canadian English, American English, British English and many others. In Uzbekistan the basic English is British English in all types institutions ranging from secondary schools to High Educational Institutions. From the above mentioned variants of the English language. To teach American English in comparison with British English considered to be a leading path for learners of English as a second language to enhance their language skills in both variants of the English language.

The main aim of the Qualification Paper is to teach peculiarities of American English alongside with British English as the main variants of the English language in the teaching process. The aims of the Qualification Paper define its tasks.

The object of the work is to teach the variants of the English language on the basis of the research done by other foreign linguists and scholars on the given theme.

The main tasks of the work are:

- To teach the variants take part in the disciplines such as “Grammar in context”, “Vocabulary in context” and “Phonetics”, which are the basic disciplines of learning English for B1 level learners at High Educational Institutions, in its turn, B1 level learners get aware of the variants of the English language in depth.

- include teaching of the American alongside with the British variant of the English language into the curriculum of such disciplines as “Grammar in context”, “Phonetics” which are to taught on academic year;
- to have one or more than two lessons with B1 level learners would be useful for them to consolidate their background knowledge on the Global English language itself.
- to describe the need for including some aspects of the American English into the curriculum, that is because most B1 level learners do not have as much information as needed in terms of the difference between American and British English;
- to give the review of the importance of knowing why American and British English differ much in all aspects of language, as it is known for all aspects, all aspects of a language are closely connected with each other;
- to analyse lexical, phonetic and grammatical differences between American and British English in lessons.

The subject of the work is to show the exact differences in three aspects of the English language: lexicology, phonetics and grammar in depth.

The novelty of the Qualification Paper lies in the fact that the first time an attempt is made to include into the teaching process the variants of the English language (American English, British English) with the help of theoretical materials describing the main differences of American and British English in practical lessons which lead to getting learners to be specific on the usage of the given variants in learning process and to hone their ability to differentiate American and British English from each other.

The theoretical significance of the work lies in the fact that the researches done by John Algeo, Boyanova, Dimitrova S, Paco Gomez, Ryann Eller, Ledin.C, Lois P.Webster, Modiano.M, Ul Hassan, Sardar Fayyaz, constitute the basis of the written suggestion for the inclusion of their materials into the desired curriculum. The theoretical materials are based on lexicology, grammar and phonetics to adapt the collected scientific works of the given theme on daily lessons in a step – by –

step order. For example, in phonetics Paco Gomez's IPA method plays a great role in the teaching process given in data analysis.

The practical significance of the work lies in the fact that the materials collected can be used at practical lessons in such subjects as "Phonetics", "Vocabulary in context" and "Grammar in context" so as to show the difference between the given variants of the English language. By including the variants of the English language into the lesson plan, teachers and, at the same time, learners are at ease to learn a language as it is evident in practical lessons led by the author of the Qualification Paper.

The structure of the work is considered to be the scheme of the resultant work. The Qualification Paper consists of an introduction, literature review, research methodology, data analysis, discussion, conclusion and reference. In the "Literature Review" part, there are shown many scholars who did research in the same field of the given theme. The part "Research methodology" analyses what methods will be used in the research, in its turn, all theoretical significance lies in "Data analysis" that inevitably could "Discussion" part where all the details in the survey are described. "Conclusion" tells about what steps are taken in the research in a generalized way suggesting some new elements of the research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Variants of the language

In any kind of research being done by a researcher, there is an evidence that a new idea, innovation come to one's mind as a result of systematic study in one or more fields of science by a researcher. Seemingly, that means that knowledge comes from science, and at the same time science is the basis of knowledge. A person can learn a lot from past experience witnessed by former specialists in a given field of science. So, that stands for the major role of history in modernity. American and British cultures are fundamentally different in their histories, economies, environments, and social organizations. Although spoken American and British English are generally mutually intelligible, there are enough differences to cause misunderstandings or even a complete failure of communication. Although differences do not involve formal terminology, misunderstandings are possible in everyday life language. There are many varieties of English other than British (here the English of the United Kingdom) and American (here the English of the United States). But present-day British is not the origin of any other variety of the language; rather it and all the other varieties are equally descendant from a form of English spoken in the British Isles in earlier times [John Algeo,1;2006]. All of those other varieties are intrinsically just as worthy of study and use as British and American. But these two varieties are the ones spoken by most native speakers of English and studied by most foreign learners.

British is the form of English now used in the country whence all other forms of English have ultimately derived. Methodological science is not something easy to investigate, especially when language learning and language teaching processes are taking place. Obviously, when it is said about language matter, that is to say that English is well known and globalised language in which many countries communicate and negotiate with each other. As a result, the variants of English emerged, more precisely, each country adapted it in a convenient for them way. Some call it as a dialect, and some call it as a variation. May be it is true according the fact that language is a major science. As the British linguist Richard Hudson

writes, “the discussion will be easier if we have some technical terms to use, as we need to distance ourselves somewhat from the concepts represented by the words language and dialect, which are a reasonable reflection of our lay culture called “common-sense knowledge”, but not helpful in sociolinguistics”. This means that if any study and investigation begin with some terminology essential to one field of science, the study going on by a researcher will be far easier than expected.

Evidently, there are many scientists who investigated much in terms of finding differences between British (BrE) and American English (AmE). Iranian scholars Naghmeh Mirzaie Hosseinzadeh, Aliyeh Kord Zafaranlu Kambuziya and Mansaur Shariati emphasized that every language possesses its rudimentary component sounds[67;2017]. English becomes an important language which is learned/acquired around the world. For learning English, sounds, which are the very beginning elements, should be learned. It must be said that, there is a lot of accentual variation both within Britain and the United States. Also, some Eastern accents in the USA sound closer to BBC pronunciation than to General American, while some British accents resemble General American rather than BBC English. Nevertheless, RP (received pronunciation) and GA (General American) still are, and will most probably continue to be the two accents which learners of English who wish to acquire native-like pronunciation take as their model. The information and data presented make Foreign or English language learners have a better realization of the varieties between British and American English. Moreover, this saying will help them use either of the two English varieties consciously and have a better understanding and knowledge of what they use paving the way for further research concerning other aspects of the varieties between British and American English as well for those interested in these fields [647; 655; 2015]. It is also essential for ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) students to understand the natural patterning and systematic nature of dialects of English, not just the grammatical patterning of standard English that is incorporated into most TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) programs. Besides phonetic varieties, there are other differences including vocabulary, spellings,

grammars, idioms between these two languages provide a wide range of considerable knowledge for researchers. But the differences in terms of vocabulary, grammar, or spelling are small compared with phonetic differences between these two English varieties. They also mentioned that comparative method is a linguistic method used to compare and contrast two or more languages. The obtained results, based on this comparison between British and American pronunciation, will get English language learners to the recognition, conscious knowledge and correct usage of British and American English.

1.2. British and American variant

One of the main difficulties a foreign student may face when learning English pronunciation is the remarkable variety of accents. Like many other languages spoken in such a vast territory and by so many people, spoken English presents wide variation in pronunciation. In spite of that wide variation, three standard pronunciations are distinguished: (1) The Received Pronunciation, also called Oxford English or BBC English, is the standard pronunciation of British English; (2) The General American is the accent considered as standard in North America, and as such it is the pronunciation heard in most of American films, TV series, and national news; (3) The General Australian is the English spoken in Australia. However, these three main accents should be interpreted as broad categories, for the English language has a great and rich diversity of varieties. [Paco Gomez, 2;2009]. Even though English language is seemed to be one, but its varieties are many and familiar variants are mentioned above. One of the main differentiating point in this sense will be different pronunciation of English according to the place where it is spoken. So its phonological feature is very important in a language learning process. Colley Sparkman states that “A good pronunciation of any language is similar to being well dressed; it is the outward semblance of culture and refinement in matters of speech, and it should be a thing of pride to any one because it is one’s principal badge of honor and recommendation to the natives of that speech. Without a good pronunciation one

can never be accepted by foreign people; he is always an outsider and can never really know the people whose language he is butchering. All of us are cautious and a bit suspicious of one who cannot pronounce English well, but we tend to accept with open arms one who probably knows little English, provided he can pronounce that little in a creditable manner. If we bore people, they tend to dispense with our society, and I, personally, soon separate myself from one who antagonizes me with unaccustomed and foreign English sounds.”[Colley F. Sparkman, 227;1926]. That is the case that pronunciation is the vital part ranging from people’s attitude towards each other to learners’ aptitude in language learning process. John Algeo stated that the most obvious difference between British and American is in the “tune” of the language, that is, the intonation that accompanies sentences [John Algeo,16;2004] When a Briton or an American talks, they identify themselves primarily by the tunes of their respective varieties. In singing, the prose tune is overridden by the musical tune, making it much harder to distinguish British and American singers. In any language study a small difference in the variants of one language means a great matter even from the sound system to writing features. And in teaching process it is the teacher who teaches the versions and varieties within one language. The variants of English in this context are British and American as stated above, these two variants of English represent major difference in their phonological system. In terms of the above mentioned Ryan Elerr in his article “The sounds of American English” said that the sounds of American English provides very high quality visual representations of the production of various sounds. These representations and the accompanying explanations are very well done, but it will be up to teachers to figure out how to use them in their pronunciation work with learners. Teachers will also need to guide learners carefully in using the program. Finally, teachers will need to guide learners carefully in using the program. Finally, teachers will need to supplement this material with instruction related to suprasegmental features in order to have a well – rounded pronunciation component in their language classes. Although the scope of the program is limited in these ways, what it does, it does very well. In gaining

language automaticity pronunciation plays a great role, even looking at the learner it can be guessed how far well the learner has aptitude and how the teacher is coping with his teaching proficiency. A well – known PhD Lois P. Webster from Indiana University, who did some work on American English, cited five factors that influence correct pronunciation and that, in turn, relate to problems with pronunciation [30; 2007]: 1. Voicing; 2. Mouth, tongue, and lip position; 3. Stress and rhythm; 4. Intonation; 5. The influence that the students' native language has on learning English.

Correct pronunciation is that which sounds reasonable to the ear of a native speaker - if speech is understandable it is good enough. Even if lexicology science is unique in English, there are considerable differences in lexical devices within different systems of British and American English. The problems that learners of the English language have with vocabulary usually relate to vocabulary differences among languages. There are vocabulary differences when comparing English vocabulary to other languages. Even in the American English culture there are vocabulary differences: for example the use in English of *frying pan*, *fry pan*, *skillet*, and *spider* are regional variants that refer to the same cooking utensil. David Crystal points out how the lexemes from the two regions can be classified into different categories [David Crystal, 2005:308]. To begin with, there are examples of two words that have a single meaning, e.g. sweets which are called candy in America. There are also cases in which the same word is used in both countries but with different meanings, for instance the word *caravan* which is used in both American English and British English, but with different meanings, that is to say that the word *caravan* means “a vehicle towed by a car” in Britain whereas a *caravan* is “a group of people that travel through a desert” in American English. Another category of words are the words that are used more frequently in British English than in American English and vice versa although they have the same meaning, for example *shop* versus *store*. Since word classes like “nouns” are open, new vocabulary is coined all the time, whenever a new word or expression is needed. Theories of second language acquisition have claimed that language input

has a consistent positive effect in improving proficiency. These theories maintain that the input has to be comprehensible to the learner and modified through interactions. In vocabulary acquisition American and British English, the Input Hypothesis [Krashen,1982] has inspired studies of incidental vocabulary learning through reading and listening and analysis of teacher talk as oral input. This paper aims to investigate the lexical features as modified input of teacher talk to second year students of senior high schools. The lexical features are seen from the type-token ratio, lexical density and proportion of the use verbs and nouns. In response to the significance of becoming language inputs to the process of language acquisition, Krashen states that learning a second language in the classroom setting subconsciously could promote language development [Krashen, 26;1982]. Teachers are key persons who have to convey knowledge, direct the students' behavior and instruct vocabulary in the classroom. In this regard, teachers' language competence and content mastery are absolutely imperative. The language employed by teachers in language classes is served as the source of input of language knowledge as well as used to instruct language communication and organize classroom activities.

Teachers from Indonesian University Irmayani and Sri Rachmajanti did some research on vocabulary features of British and American English. They stated that one way to deal with the issue of the impoverished lexical environment in the classrooms observed in their study is to see the vocabulary instructions and lexical environment as problems and approach them with the need for change and innovation. In order to improve the lexical environment, it is necessary to expand the topics, vary the teaching skills and enrich the interaction.

In teaching of English P.Gurrey writes "It is highly desirable to know exactly what one is hoping to achieve. If this can be clearly seen, then the best way of getting to work usually becomes evident." We ought, therefore, to consider carefully what we are trying to do when we are teaching English. And a teacher in one's teaching process may become aware of what variant of the English language in the teaching process. Teachers also make a mistake; as there are a number of

variants of the target language, by teaching only two variants of them on a regular basis, a teacher avoids making a mistake between the usage of the British and American English. In terms of teaching process William Glasser said: “We learn
10% of what we read
20% of what we hear
30% of what we see
50% of what we see & hear
70% of what we discuss with others
80% of what we experience personally
95% of what we teach someone else.”

So by teaching the variants of English, a teacher himself chooses one variant of English in his teaching not making a difference between these two variants of English in his every-day teaching process.

As a result of globalisation the function of English as an international tool for communication needs rethinking in the English language classroom. This does not only include linguistic skills to understand various kinds of accents and to be Understood by others, but it also includes knowledge of other cultures which provides the learners with the ability to respond adequately to problems arising from cultural differences between the participants in international communication [Gnutzmann and Intemann 2005: 20].

Ledin investigated attitudes towards AmE and BrE in Swedish upper secondary school [Ledin C, 6:2013]. The attitudes were compared with the participants' previous influences and, secondly, compared with two previous studies performed in the field. The findings showed that most participants claimed they spoke AmE, closely followed by BrE, but the result showed that most participants, even those who claimed they spoke BrE, actually used AmE. This was in spite of the fact that most participants stated that BrE was their target accent. Regardless of their intended accent, most participants believed they spoke a mixture of both AmE and BrE, as the influence of TV and other media were accounted for as the main contributor to the participants' mixture of AmE and BrE

Alftberg investigated whether Swedish students in secondary school used AmE or BrE by researching attitudes, awareness and usage [Alftberg,65;2009]. The participants were given a questionnaire and they read a list of words out loud. The findings showed that all participants used English with features of both AmE and BrE. Although most participants, particularly the male students, had a higher preference for AmE and in general, to a larger extent, were able to distinguish between AmE and BrE. A divergence in vocabulary was detected as 'school related' items were associated with BrE and 'non-school related' items were associated with AmE. Aftberg acknowledges that a possible change in attitudes towards AmE and BrE was apparent in the investigation, as BrE was no longer viewed as the higher prestige variety.

Modiano states that most observers of the English language recognize the differences between AmE and BrE to be found in pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling [Modiano,18;1996]. However, while punctuation seems to be insignificant, grammatical and stylistic differences are more extensive and important than most observers initially recognize. Some structures might be accepted in one variety of English while it is considered ungrammatical in the other, although such grammatical differences rarely impede communication. Seemingly minor differences do not cause disruptions, but these features are interlinked with the synthesis of lexical choices, pronunciation, spelling which allows communication to proceed without misunderstandings.

By reviewing the works of former scholars who showed interest in the variants of the English language, it was evident that before none of the works were devoted to the theme of the Qualification Paper. New idea and discovery come from systematic reading of past works; so many scholars' opinions are vastly different from each other's which can lead to the emergence of another idea about the variants of the English language, especially in the teaching process from the researcher's perspective.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1. Appropriateness of the chosen method

Research is defined as a careful, systematic investigation in some fields of knowledge, undertaken to establish facts or principles or to find answers to a problem. According to Kerlinger "scientific research is a systematic, controlled empirical and critical investigation of propositions about the presumed relationships about various phenomenon"[Kerlinger,67;1986] Bulmer in 1977 stated: 'Nevertheless sociological research, as research, is primarily committed to establishing systematic, reliable and valid knowledge about the social world. These guidelines are meant to help the graduate student to present his/her proposal ideas in a strong, concise and systematic manner, to be read with a few simple and direct purposes. Before proceeding the researcher has to insure that the research is feasible, i.e. the research is ethical and potentially viable. A formal written consent is usually needed [Bulmer,5;1977]. In writing any kind of qualification paper, there are also methodologies to choose from; the methodology is given in order not to get perplexed in the objects of scientific process and subjects as well. As is known for all, there are two main types of research methodology: qualitative and quantitative ones. The former one is chosen for the given theme to do the research on a precise basis; two types of research brings to light the fact that there are two basic approaches to research: *quantitative approach* and *qualitative approach*. In reporting qualitative studies, we do not talk about 'statistical analysis' or 'research instruments'. But these linguistic differences reflect broader practical and theoretical differences between qualitative and quantitative research. More particularly, in writing up qualitative research, we need to recognise:

- the (contested) theoretical underpinnings of methodologies: giving theoretical basis for the methods chosen
- the (often) contingent nature of the data chosen: clarifying all the findings in depth
- the (likely) non-random character of cases studied: to summarize the points considered before the experiment is done.

[Silverman, 234;2000]

Silverman's advice on the best way to deal with these three potentially problematic aspects of writing up qualitative research is to:

- Make explicit what your theoretical assumptions are
- Spell out the factors that made you choose to work with your particular data
- Explain how you can extrapolate from your study site to other contexts

Qualitative – concerned with a quality of information, qualitative methods attempt to gain an understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations for actions and establish how people interpret their experiences and the world around them. Qualitative methods provide insights into the setting of a problem, generating ideas and/or hypotheses. Rangit Kumar's description of a qualitative methodology is compared with the given research's methodology to clarify what exactly is going to be done in details. (See Table1)

Some principles of realizing research

Table 1

	Rangit Kumar's model	The author's model
Underpinning philosophy	Emprimisim: "the only knowledge that human beings acquire is from sensory experiences"[Bernard,2;1994]	In language and teaching learning a teacher's method and language are the key features moulding learners' aptitude
Approach to enquiry	Unstructured/flexible/open methodology	Observation, questionnaire, survey.
Main purpose to investigation	To describe variation in a phenomenon, situation, issue, etc	To acknowledge ESOL learners of American and British English.
Measurement of variables	Emphasis on description of variables	Dependent: what I see changed.
Sample size	Fewer cases	Lessons are led in three

		aspects: phonetics, grammar, lexicology.
Focus of enquiry	Covers multiple issues but essembles required information from fewer respondents	Experiment is held within 16 students.
Dominant research value	Authenticity, but does not claim to be value – free	Practicality
Dominant research topic	Explores experiences, meanings, perceptions and feelings	B1 learners should be aware of the difference between British and American English.
Analysis of data	Subjects responses, narratives or observational data to identification of themes and describes these	Materials are selected according to the learners' needs.
Communication of findings	Organization more descriptive and narrative in nature	In the end to check learners aptitude on the passed theme.

Rangit Kumar's proposed model on the difference between qualitative and quantitative methodologies on the form of adapted version of the given research description will be a simple explanation of what is going to be done in steps (the left column). Research problem is stated before data collection, in qualitative research the problem is reformulated several times after you have begun the data collection. The research problem as well as data collection strategies are reformulated as necessary throughout data collection either to acquire the 'totality' of a phenomenon or to select certain aspects for greater in-depth study. This flexibility and freedom, though providing you with certain advantages, can also create problems in terms of comparability of the information gathered. It is

possible that your areas of search may become markedly different during the preliminary and final stages of data gathering. During the initial developmental phase, many researchers produce a framework of ‘reminders’ (a conceptual framework of enquiry) to ensure that key issues/aspects are covered during discussions with the respondents. As the study progresses, if needs be, issues or themes are added to this framework. This is not a list of questions but reminders that are only used if for some reason the interaction with respondents lacks discussion.

2.2. Descriptive process of the research

Qualitative methods are generally associated with the evaluation of social dimensions. Qualitative methods provide results that are usually rich and detailed, offering ideas and concepts to inform your research. Qualitative methods can tell you how people feel and what they think, but cannot tell you how many of the target population feel or think that way as quantitative methods can. Questionnaire surveys can be used in a wide range of settings and to gather a variety of different types of information. A small-scale qualitative survey may be conducted to explore in more detail the findings of qualitative research. Observations can be conducted on nearly any subject matter, and the kinds of observations you will do depend on your research question. You might observe traffic or parking patterns on campus to get a sense of what improvements could be made. You might observe clouds, plants, or other natural phenomena. If you choose to observe people, you will have several additional considerations including the manner in which you will observe them and gain their consent [Driscoll, 160;2010].

Observation, sometimes referred to as “participant observation” is the key method of anthropology and in itself can consist of a mix of techniques; informal interviews, direct observation, participation in the life of the group, collective discussions, analyses of personal documents produced within the group, self-analysis, and life histories, notes, diaries and transcripts are often kept and the observation method can generate a lot of written material which the investigator

must synthesize. Participant observation is usually undertaken over an extended period of time, ranging from several months to many years. An extended research time period means that the researcher will be able to obtain more detailed and accurate information about the people he/she is studying. Observation is more appropriate when seeking to uncover:

Observable details

Like daily time allotment. For example, the popular management consultancy technique of the “time and motion study” is a version of observation. The investigator watches the activities and actions of people involved in a process and works out the specific time allocation devoted to every single step, with the objective of improving efficiency by cutting out unnecessary or time consuming steps. Observation can be effective in exploring or exposing secrets or the underlying realities of situations, researchers can discover discrepancies between what participants say – and often believe – should happen (the formal system) and what actually does happen, or between different aspects of the formal system; in contrast, a one-time survey of people’s answers to a set of questions might be quite consistent, but is less likely to show conflicts between different aspects of the social system or between conscious representations and behavior.

What is produced?

A key feature of participant observation is that data should be collected in ways that cause as little disruption as possible to the ordinary activities of the research context. The recording of information largely depends on the research situation. Field notes are generally kept and sometimes it is possible to use tape recorders and video recorders. Whichever methods of recording information are used it is important to be detailed and to devise a system that allows easy retrieval of information.

How should the data be analysed?

Analysis and interpretation of data is undertaken in a similar way to analysing and interpreting data gathered by other qualitative research methods.

Pros of Observation:

1. Deep and nuanced picture can emerge
2. A flexible method that can react to events / ideas, follow leads, pursue avenues of research that had not been considered
3. Gives a researcher insights into individual and group behavior and it may allow them to formulate hypotheses that explain such behavior

Cons of observation:

1. Relies on observer to read social reality accurately
2. Hard to maintain observer role
3. Can need a significant time period

The success of observations are dependent on the how unobtrusively the observations are performed. Therefore, it is important that the participants' attention is not drawn to the observer each time when an observer is in the process of observation. The written log of observations are the raw data that normally must be analysed further. In the given case the observer makes a note whether a teacher uses American English in teaching process. After which even if the teacher does not use American English but where teacher has chance, the observer takes a questionnaire from the learners how well they are aware of American English.

A questionnaire consists of a number of questions printed or typed in a definite order on a form or set of forms. The questionnaire is mailed to respondents who are expected to read and understand the questions and write down the reply in the space meant for the purpose in the questionnaire itself. The respondents have to answer the questions on their own. Main aspects of a questionnaire: Quite often questionnaire is considered as the heart of a survey operation. Hence it should be very carefully constructed. If it is not properly set up, then the survey is bound to fail. This fact requires us to study the main aspects of a questionnaire, namely the general form, question sequence and question formulation and wording. Researcher should note the following with regard to these three main aspects of a questionnaire:

1. General form: So far as the general form of a questionnaire is concerned, it can either be structured or unstructured questionnaire. Structured questionnaires

are those questionnaires in which there are definite, concrete and pre-determined questions. The questions are presented with exactly the same wording and in the same order to all respondents. Resort is taken to this sort of standardization to ensure that all respondents reply to the same set of questions. The form of the question may be either closed (i.e., of the type 'yes' or 'no') or open (inviting free response) but should be stated in advance and not constructed during questioning. Structured questionnaires may also have fixed alternative questions in which responses of the informants are limited to the stated alternatives. Thus a highly structured questionnaire is one in which all questions and answers are specified and comments in the respondent's own words are held to the minimum. When these characteristics are not present in a questionnaire, it can be termed as unstructured or non-structured questionnaires. Structured questionnaires are simple to administer and relatively inexpensive to analyse. The provision of alternative replies, at times, helps to understand the meaning of the question clearly. But such questionnaires have limitations too. For instance, wide range of data and that too in respondent's own words cannot be obtained with structured questionnaires. They are usually considered inappropriate in investigations where the aim happens to be probe for attitudes and reasons for certain actions or feelings. They are equally not suitable when a problem is being first explored and working hypotheses sought. In such situations, unstructured questionnaires may be used effectively. Then on the basis of the results obtained in pretest (testing before final use) operations from the use of unstructured questionnaires, one can construct a structured questionnaire for use in the main study.

2. Question sequence: In order to make the questionnaire effective and to ensure quality to the replies received, a researcher should pay attention to the question-sequence in preparing the questionnaire. A proper sequence of questions reduces considerably the chances of individual questions being misunderstood. The question-sequence must be clear and smoothly-moving, meaning thereby that the relation of one question to another should be readily apparent to the respondent, with questions that are easiest to answer being put in the beginning. The first few

questions are particularly important because they are likely to influence the attitude of the respondent and in seeking his desired cooperation. The opening questions should be such as to arouse human interest. The following type of questions should generally be avoided as opening questions in a questionnaire:

- I. Questions that put too great a strain on the memory or intellect of the respondent;
- II. Questions of a personal character;
- III. Questions related to personal wealth,

Following the opening questions, we should have questions that are really vital to the research problem and a connecting thread should run through successive questions. Ideally, the question sequence should conform to the respondent's way of thinking. Knowing what information is desired, the researcher can rearrange the order of the questions (this is possible in case of unstructured questionnaire) to fit the discussion in each particular case. But in a structured questionnaire the best that can be done is to determine the question-sequence with the help of a Pilot Survey which is likely to produce good rapport with most respondents. Relatively difficult questions must be relegated towards the end so that even if the respondent decides not to answer such questions, considerable information would have already been obtained. Thus, question-sequence should usually go from the general to the more specific and the researcher must always remember that the answer to a given question is a function not only of the question itself, but of all previous questions as well.

3. Question formulation and wording: With regard to this aspect of questionnaire, the researcher should note that each question must be very clear for any sort of misunderstanding can do irreparable harm to a survey. Question should also be impartial in order not to give a biased picture of the true state of affairs. Questions should be constructed with a view to their forming a logical part of a well thought out tabulation plan. In general, all questions should meet the following standards—(a) should be easily understood; (b) should be simple, should convey only one thought at a time; (c) should be concrete and should conform as much as possible to the respondent's way of thinking. For instance, instead of

asking. “Could you write the transcription of the word ‘dog’ in American and British English?” it would be more appropriate to give the question in the following way: “Do you know the difference between [ɔ] and [ʊ]?”

Essentials of a good questionnaire: To be successful, questionnaire should be comparatively short and simple, that's the size of the questionnaire should be kept to the minimum. Questions should proceed in logical sequence moving from easy to more difficult questions. Personal and intimate questions should be left to the end. Technical terms and vague expressions capable of different interpretations should be avoided in a questionnaire. Questions may be dichotomous (yes or no answers), multiple choice (alternative answers listed) or open-ended. The latter type of questions is often difficult to analyse and hence should be avoided in a questionnaire. There should be some control questions in the questionnaire which indicate the reliability of the respondent. For instance, the control questions, thus, introduce a cross-check to see whether the information collected is correct or not. Questions affecting the sentiments of respondents should be avoided. Adequate space for answers should be provided in the questionnaire to help editing and tabulation. There should always be provision for indications of uncertainty, for example, “do not know”, “no preference” and so on. Brief directions with regard to filling up the questionnaire should invariably be given in the questionnaire itself. Finally, the physical appearance of the questionnaire affects the cooperation the researcher receives from the recipients and as such an attractive looking questionnaire, particularly in mail surveys, is a plus point for enlisting cooperation. The quality of the paper, along with its colour, must be good so that it may attract the attention of recipients. Interviewer bias refers to the extent to which an answer is altered in meaning by some action or attitude on the part of the interviewer. The researcher must pay attention to the following points in constructing an appropriate and effective questionnaire or a schedule:

1. The researcher must keep in view the problem he is to study for it provides the starting point for developing the Questionnaire/Schedule. He must be clear about

the various aspects of his research problem to be dealt with in the course of his research project.

2. Appropriate form of questions depends on the nature of information sought, the sampled respondents and the kind of analysis intended. The researcher must decide whether to use closed or open-ended question. Questions should be simple and must be constructed with a view to their forming a logical part of a well thought out tabulation plan. The units of enumeration should also be defined precisely so that they can ensure accurate and full information. After the questionnaire is taken, the next following step to make is to lead a survey after several courses of teaching process after the questionnaire. The questions of the questionnaire are the following (See Table 2):

Table 2

Questions	Yes	No
1. Do you think there are variants of English?		
2. Are they British and Global English?		
3. If you talk to the English speaker, can you differ his/her accent whether it is British or American?		
4. 1)“Fulfil” dreams 2)”fullfil” dreams; the first variant is true		
5. Do you learn American English based on your curriculum?		
6. Do you know the difference between [ɔ] and [ʌ]?		
7. Do you often write “learned”?		
8. Have you ever heard the word “van”?		
9. Is it wrong to put comma (,) before the conjunction “and”?		
10. If to write “color” instead of “colour”, it is right.		
11.Does British English differ from American only in spellings?		
12.“Insure” and “ensure” are different words.		
13.Your given name is your first name.		
14.To write “toward” instead of “towards” is wrong.		
15.“Sports center” should be written “sport center”.		

Surveys are conducted in case of descriptive research studies whereas experiments are a part of experimental research studies. B1 level learners will be under the experiment. Survey-type research studies usually have larger samples because the percentage of responses generally happens to be low. Thus, the survey method gathers data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time; it is essentially cross-sectional. Surveys are concerned with describing, recording, analysing and interpreting conditions that either exist or existed. The researcher does not manipulate the variable or arrange for events to happen. Surveys are only concerned with conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident or trends that are developing. Making up exercises on grammar and phonetics of BrE and AmE are recordings, after the learners did these exercises, the process is itself analyzing, after checking up, the last is interpreting condition itself.

In surveys, variables that exist or have already occurred are selected and observed. After several lessons on the difference between American and British English, B1 learners will be given a test to check whether they get aware of the information or not.

Surveys are concerned with hypothesis formulation and testing the analysis of the relationship between non-manipulated variables. Surveys may either be census or sample surveys. They may also be classified as social surveys, economic surveys or public opinion surveys. Whatever be their type, the method of data collection happens to be either observation, or interview or questionnaire/opinionnaire or some projective technique (s). In case of surveys, research design must be rigid, must make enough provision for protection against bias and must maximise reliability as the aim happens to be to obtain complete and accurate information. Possible relationships between the data and the unknowns in the universe can be studied through surveys. According to the results of the tests taken from the learners, it will be evident whether the teacher could explain the difference in three aspects of two variants of English.

In summary, observation, questionnaire, survey will be the main methods of the research paper on the main basis of qualitative research. As it is known, choosing an appropriate methodology also demands responsibility; as it is in the given work, the chosen methods are considered to meet the needs of conducting research as desired.

DATA ANALYSIS

3.1. Lexical varieties

As a universal language, English provides the opportunities for people from different countries to communicate conveniently. As language is changeable, English also develops constantly and produces many kinds of varieties among which, British English and American English are the two important ones. They have great differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and other aspects. Therefore, it is important to raise the level of mutual awareness of the differences between the two varieties.

The focus of this study is on how contemporary British English differs from American and the importance of teaching American English at High Educational Institutions. That is, in comparing two varieties of a language, it is convenient to take one as the basis for comparison and to describe the other by contrast with it. This study takes British English as its basis and describes American English in relation to that basis. The reason for this approach is that when applicants become students at high educational institutions they may get

perplexed by the existence of American English along with British in learning process. In the process of teaching English as a Foreign Language, teacher plays various pivotal roles. As a primary foreign language to be learnt compulsorily in Uzbekistan since lower secondary school, teaching English must be a medium to deliver a foreign language to the students and make them able to utilize the language communicatively in classroom context. Since English has become a compulsory subject taught at a secondary school level in Uzbekistan, English language teachers are highly required to devote their efforts to make students master the English language. The English teachers are viewed to be the main model for students in the classroom as English is insufficiently exposed to students outside of the classroom. Being able to be a good foreign language model in the classroom, as Richards maintains, is a must for the English teachers in that they are the only ones the students can access in a foreign language learning [Richards,34;2011]. In this sense, the main role played by the one, in most parts, is the researcher contributing some changes into existent data. The first step to do is to look through lexical feature of the language.

When American and British people meet, the first obvious difference is their accent, the pronunciation of words. However, at a deeper and less apparent level, vocabulary differences give the right to treat the two varieties as two completely different languages. Sometimes, words are used in different ways to name the same thing, such as for the American ‘railroad tie’ and the British ‘railway sweeper’. Sometimes, two different words are used but their meaning is quite obvious, such as for the American ‘luggage’ and the British ‘baggage’. In other cases, some words that are common in one place are rare in the other, such as the words ‘soppy’ or ‘row’: although they are listed in American dictionaries, they are very uncommon in American speech but they are quite well known in the UK. Some words retained in Great Britain have been dropped by Americans, such as ‘fortnight’ and ‘constable’ and many no longer used in British are retained in American, such as ‘mad’ (in the sense of angry), ‘fall’, ‘sick’, etc. Many online

sources offer useful comparisons between British and American lexicon, such as the *Macmillan English Dictionary Magazine 2004* and James Smith's *American to British Dictionary*, both of which have been very useful for this work. However, the problem is that before dealing directly with speakers of the other variety, some people do not even think that there are any divergences, apart from pronunciation.

In particular, attention must be paid to false cognates. For instance, British English 'suspenders' are called 'garters' in US English, which use 'suspenders' for the British 'braces'. This also occurs for American 'shorts' that are British 'underpants'; American 'pants' are British 'trousers'. Naturally, awareness of lexical differences is not only for sake of linguistic curiosity: globalisation has increased the possibility of interaction between speakers of the two varieties, and thus the issue has urged the attention of professional linguists and translators, due to a considerable demand of the market. The following sections will briefly give a description of lexical differences in the fields of housing, transport, shopping, food, and numerical systems, as part of everyday language that could be quite confusing. Giuseppina Scotto Di Carlo listed some vocabulary differences in his survey. For instance, the word "chips" means potato chips in America, in Britain it means fried potato. The reason for this can be people's talking habits, their daily communication so on and so forth. We are saying about dialect and language that they are similar concepts, however if we come closer to their meaning and usage, they do not seem similar or even different. That is because, a language is a major science.

Despite careful the design of the materials, some changes will have to be made at some level in most teaching contexts. Many times a textbook presents the material in a way that does not fit the reality of the classroom or the current needs of the students. It is at this point where the teacher has to define what to change, eliminate, add or extend. Adaptation tends to be thought of as a rather formal process in which the teacher makes a decision about, say, an exercise that needs changing, and then writes out a revised version for the class. Adapted material does not necessarily need to be written down or made permanent. It can be quite

transitory: we might think of the response to an individual's learning behavior at a particular moment, for instance when the teacher rewords – and by doing so adapts – a text book explanation of a language point that has not been understood. Madsen and Bowen make the point clearly: "The good teacher is constantly adapting. He adapts when he adds an example not found in the book... He adapts even when he refers to an exercise covered earlier or when he introduces a supplementary picture... While a conscientious author tries to anticipate questions that may be raised by his readers, the teacher can respond not merely to verbal questions... but even to the raised eyebrows of his students" [Shanjid and Tanzina Halim, 635;2016].

Therefore, we can say that the purpose of adaptation is to maximize the appropriacy of teaching materials in context, by changing some of the internal characteristics of a course book to suit our particular circumstances better. In vocabulary discipline a teacher has to adapt the materials where needed. A simple instance is given below.

On the course book “Destination B1” there is a topic “Creating and building” into which the following vocabulary can be a supplement from a teacher’s perspective in order to achieve the aims towards the variant of the language [Malcoln and Steve, 136; 2012].

House Vocabulary

As regards house terminology, there is a straightforward translation from a variety to the other for some terms, such as the American ‘apartment house’, ‘condominium’, ‘duplex’, and ‘row house’, which in British are respectively a ‘block of flats’, ‘owner-occupied flat’, ‘semi-detached house’, and ‘terraced house’. In other cases, there may be no exact British equivalent for the American term, as for ‘brownstone’, used for a house made of red-brown stone, typical of nineteenth century cities in eastern US.

As regards rooms, American and British English have many words in common. However, Americans use the euphemism ‘bathroom’ as a polite synonym for the word ‘toilet’, because many Americans consider the term ‘toilet’ indelicate. The

British 'sitting room' sounds rather old fashioned to American ears, as they always call it a 'living room'. The word 'cupboard' is used with different meanings in the two varieties: the British 'cupboard' can be used to storey all sorts of things whereas Americans use it only in kitchens. Americans would be very surprised to be told to put their clothes in a 'cupboard', since they use a 'closet'. Many differences concern kitchen utensils. Americans use 'can openers', 'electrical outlets', 'dishpans', 'stoves', and 'waste baskets', while British use 'tin openers', 'power points', 'washing up bowls', 'cookers', and 'waste bins'. To wash and dry dishes, American uses the expression 'to do the dishes', while in British it is 'to do the washing up'. Most furniture items have the same names in the two varieties; however, the *MED Dictionary* reports that some differences can create great confusion:

To an American a bureau is a piece of furniture with drawers for holding things such as towels or items of clothing; the British use the expression 'a chest of drawers'. To a British a bureau is a piece of furniture, but with a top part that opens and makes it a writing table. An American would call this a writing table. In American English, a cot is a light narrow bed that can be folded up, for example for camping. In fact, the British call this type of be a camp bed. To speakers of British English a cot is a small bed for a baby with tall sides that have bars, something Americans refer to as a crib. Moreover, tourists have to deal with level numbering differences in the US and UK. In many countries, Great Britain included, the expression 'first floor' is used to indicate the level above the entrance floor, while the entrance level is designated as the 'ground floor'. American usage labels the entrance level as the 'first floor', thus 'ground floor' is not considered. To adapt to tourists or people used to the British level system, many American buildings now use the expression 'ground floor' or another name for the entrance level.

Destination B2, the topic "Travel and transport" on page 12, 2013:

Transport

Many differences between American and British English are related to transport vocabulary. Whereas in British people take a ‘couch’, Americans say they would take a ‘bus’; Americans take ‘subways’, whereas in Great Britain this means of transport is called an ‘underground’. Americans would go by train or ‘railroad’, which is the American equivalent of the British term ‘railway’. ‘Baggage car’, ‘café car’, ‘one-way ticket’, ‘round-trip ticket’, ‘railroad’ are the American equivalents of ‘baggage van’, ‘buffet car’, ‘single ticket’, ‘return ticket’, and ‘railway carriage’ in British. Other vehicle differences are the American ‘motorcycle’, ‘station wagon’, and ‘truck’ against the British ‘motorbike’, ‘estate (car)’, and ‘lorry’. Reminding that British people also drive on the opposite side to Americans, in the UK, the term ‘outside lane’ refers to the higher speed passing lane closest to the centre of the road, while the term ‘inside lane’ refers to the lane closer to the edge. In American English these terms have the opposite meaning.

As regards other street objects, ‘parking meter’, ‘pedestrian’, and ‘traffic’ are shared by the two varieties. However, Americans use the terms ‘crosswalk’, ‘gas station’, ‘overpass’, ‘sidewalk’, and ‘stoplight’ and British ‘pedestrian crossing/zebra crossing’, ‘petrol station’, ‘flyover’, ‘pavement’, and ‘traffic lights’ respectively, only to mention the most evident differences.

Destination B1, the topic “Buying and selling” on page 60:

Shopping

Going shopping might be quite confusing in the two countries if some lexical differences are unknown. First of all, the nouns ‘shop’ and ‘store’ are used somewhat differently in American and British English. In general, Americans use ‘store’ the way British use ‘shop’. Most British ‘shops’ would be called ‘stores’ in the US where the noun ‘shop’ is more often used to mean a small retail establishment, such as an ‘antique shop’ or a ‘gift shop’. British go to the ‘chemist’s’, while Americans go to a ‘drugstore’ or a ‘pharmacy’, where they can buy medicines and other items, such as body care products, stationary, and cigarettes.

To describe clothing, many differences have a one to one equivalent, such as the American ‘bathrobe’, ‘nightgown’, ‘sneakers’, and ‘tuxedo’, which are ‘dressing gown’, ‘nightdress’, ‘trainers’, and ‘dinner jacket’ in British. In other cases, the same word has a different meaning: the word ‘jumper’ exists in both American and British English, but British use the word ‘jumper’ for knitted clothing that covers the top half of the body whereas for Americans it is a sleeveless dress worn over shirt or a blouse. The British ‘vest’ is an American ‘undershirt’, and what Americans mean with ‘vest’, is the British ‘waistcoat’.

Destination B2, the topic “Food and drink” on page 100:

Food

Recipes demonstrate how many differences in food and cooking terminology there are. For instance, a British ‘biscuit’ is an American ‘cookie’, and American ‘biscuit’ is a British ‘scone’. Also some fruit and vegetables terms are different, such as the American ‘eggplants’ and ‘blueberries’ which in British are ‘aubergines’ and ‘bilberries’. Furthermore, American and British use the same words for most categories of meat as beef, pork, and lamb; the differences are for specific meat dishes, as the *MED* explains: For example, what the British call a joint (a large piece of meat, such as a leg of lamb or loin of pork, cooked in an oven and eaten with potatoes and other vegetables) is known as a roast in the U.S. Most Americans would be shocked to hear that the Sunday joint is a British family tradition. To Americans, a joint is not something that people roast, but something that they smoke: a marijuana cigarette. Some others are ‘chop’, ‘ground meat’, and ‘tenderloin steak’ which in British are called ‘cutlet’, ‘minced meat’, and ‘fillet steak’. As regards seafood, what Americans call ‘shrimp’ are ‘prawns’ in Britain; other examples are the American ‘canned tuna’, ‘crawfish’, and ‘fish sticks’ that for the British are ‘tinned tuna’, ‘crayfish’, and ‘fish fingers’.

Destination B2, the topic “Money and shopping” on page 136:

Number

Finally, the system of saying and writing numbers is a little different. The British insert ‘and’ before the tens and the units, as in ‘two hundred and fifty’. Americans

are more likely to read numbers like 1,456 as ‘fourteen fifty-six’ instead of ‘one thousand, four hundred and fifty-six’, unless they are referring to years. Also monetary vocabulary is often said differently. For amounts over the dollar, an American would say both dollars and cents or drop both denominations as in ‘three twenty’ or ‘three dollars and twenty cents’ for \$3.20. In Great Britain the form ‘three pounds twenty’ is the most heard. The British slang form ‘quid’ is a sort of equivalent of the American ‘buck’ for the round amounts, as in 50 ‘quid’, or fifty ‘bucks’. Nowadays we are assisting to a certain change, as the American variety is not taking over, but at least resulting more known by British English speakers as a result of globalisation and the spread of new media. The *MED* has noticed that:

While American and British English show some differences in vocabulary related to shopping and other common activities, all evidence suggests that the two varieties of the language are moving closer together. The movement is mostly eastward. Each year, more words that were once exclusively American are found in the spoken and written language of both Britain and the U.S.

There are many differences between British English and American English. However, the most complicated for English language learners is probably the differences in vocabulary, including idioms and phrasal verbs. In the book “British English and American English” there are given words cited in terms of British and American English words, the one who is going to know these words should learn them off by heart. Below you will see a few of the main vocabulary differences between British and American English:

British English	American English
anti-clockwise	counter-clockwise
autumn	fall
boot (of a car)	trunk
chips	fries or French fries
crisps	potato chips
dustbin or bin	garbage can or trash can
film	Movie (or film)
flat (to live in)	apartment

garden	yard
holiday	vacation
lift	elevator
motorway	freeway or expressway
nappy	diaper
pavement	sidewalk
petrol	Gas or gasoline
postcode	zip code
queue	line
sweets	candy
torch	flashlight
trousers	pants (or trousers)
Tube	Subway or underground
zip	zipper

Christian Lindell from University of Halmstad showed some differences in his investigation of awareness of the differences in British and American vocabulary and spelling which is useful for B1 level students to be aware of.

American English

Apartment

noun) Many Americans understand the BrE term, but do not use it. The term *flat* is also used in *flat tyre* (in AmE *flat tire*), and to express a battery without electricity, as in BrE *flat battery* (in AmE *dead/empty battery*).

Room mate

British English

Flat

Flat mate

The BrE term is not used in the US.

Switchblade

Flick knife

Period (punctuation)

Full stop

The BrE term is not commonly used in the US and might cause disruption for native speakers of AmE.

First name

Given name

The BrE term, while seemingly understandable, is not always comprehensible to native speakers of AmE.

Sidewalk

The term *pavement* in AmE means the area of the street on which vehicles pass. The area alongside the street which is designated for pedestrians is called *sidewalk*. Many Americans will be confused if someone uses the term *pavement* when referring to the pedestrian walkway.

Pavement

Private school

Public schools, in BrE, are privately owned institutions which are associated with the upper class and prestige. The term *public school*, in AmE, refers to schools which are operated with public funds. The term *private school*, however, is understood.

Public school

3.2. Phonetic varieties

Any language spoken by a person is evaluated by the listener according to language accents on the basis of one's preference which that one is going to take into account. A person who is listening to the other person undoubtedly considers speech very formful if the speaker speaks in a pure language without any mistakes ranging from voice to intonation and small aspects of the language. In this case, phonetic system plays a major role in language system on the whole. Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that comprises the study of the sounds of human speech. It is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds or signs, their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neurophysiological status. In the given chapter phonetic system is accentuated on the difference between British and American English pronunciation. At high educational institutions, exactly, in the field of foreign languages a great emphasis lies in the ability to differentiate British and American pronunciation in learning process in order not to get perplexed whether the pronunciation is correct or incorrect according to the varieties of English language. As Sparkman states "A good pronunciation of any language is similar to being well dressed; it is the outward semblance of culture and refinement in matters of speech, and it should be

a thing of pride to any one because it is one's principal badge of honor and recommendation to the natives of that speech. Without a good pronunciation one can never be accepted by foreign people; he is always an outsider and can never really know the people whose language he is butchering. All of us are cautious and a bit suspicious of one who cannot pronounce English well, but we tend to accept with open arms one who probably knows little English, provided he can pronounce that little in a creditable manner.

If we bore people, they tend to dispense with our society, and I, personally, soon separate myself from one who antagonizes me with unaccustomed and foreign English sounds"[Colley, 227;1926]. Therefore, it is very important for learners of English as a second language to know the difference between British and American English pronunciation.

As an instance for learning and teaching the above mentioned different points, Paco Gomez's work would be a good handbook from teacher's perspective to teach students of B1 level at high educational institutions.

The shift from the British diphthong [əʊ] to [ou] is also very distinguishing. The shift consisted in the change of the mid central unrounded vowel [ə] to the close-mid back rounded vowel [o] in the first vowel of the diphthong. This shift is considered to be systematic. In Table 3 several examples of this shift are shown.

Change of diphthong [əʊ] to [ou]

Table 3

Word	British English	American English
Go	[gəʊ]	[gou]
No	[nəʊ]	[nou]
Crow	[krəʊ]	[krou]
Cocoa	[ˈkəʊkəʊ]	[ˈkoukou]
Component	[kəmˈpəʊnənt]	[kəmˈpounənt]
Promotion	[prəˈməʊʃn]	[prəˈmouʃn]
Romantic	[rəʊˈmæntɪk]	[rouˈmæntɪk]

In language learning atmosphere it would be a good approach if pronunciation practice was included first. Each lesson should begin with pronunciation drill no matter which level students you are teaching. Even the best speaker of English may confuse the difference between pronunciation of British and American English. A well-known PhD Lois P. Webster stated that the purpose of pronunciation practice is not necessarily to correct problems but to give practice in the “sound” of English. To determine which speech patterns need practice, observe students and use common sense in deciding how much of a particular lesson needs to be spent on any one point and what the point is [Webster,22;2007]. He suggests three ways of teaching a pronunciation lesson in the following way:

1. Modeling by the Teacher - The class listens as you say a sound, a word, or a sentence. You may wish to exaggerate slightly the first few times, or speak at a slower and more deliberate rate, in order to focus attention on a critical point. When you are teaching a pronunciation lesson, students should always be sure of the point of emphasis, for they cannot efficiently concentrate on too many points at once. If you do exaggerate or slow down, be sure you repeat the model several more times in a style typical of natural conversation. Don't hesitate to model the item a number of times before asking students to repeat. Try to avoid the fault of over-articulation;
2. Imitation by Students - Ask for repetition first by the entire class, next by groups, and finally by individuals called upon at random – in that order. As they repeat, keep modeling the language for them. Otherwise they may be repeating the mistakes of those around them rather than the accurate model you are providing. Finally, you can test students' control of pronunciation by asking them to produce the sound, phrase, or sentence without any modeling on your part;
3. Explanation/Demonstration -- Occasionally you will find that brief explanations and/or demonstrations will help students move more quickly toward accurate pronunciation. You may want to demonstrate the position of the upper teeth and lower lip in /f/ and /v/. It is reasonable to explain in English if your class has sufficient competency to comprehend the explanation.

Turning to the explanation of the change of vowel [ɒ]; letter “o” is pronounced in many different ways in English. Here we have a few illustrative examples of such diversity: Hot [hɒt] in RP, but [hɑ:t] in GA; love [lʌv]; corn [kɔ:n] in RP, but [kɔ:rn] in GA; continue [kənˈtɪnju:]; moon [mu:n]; coast [kəʊst] in RP, but [koust] in GA; house [haʊs]. The so-called “short o”, which often appears in a stressed syllable with one letter “o” such as in dog or model, underwent a change in American English. In British English that sound is pronounced as an open back rounded short sound [ɒ], as in hot [hɒt], or possible [ˈpɒsəbl]. In American English it is pronounced either as an open back unrounded long sound [ɑ:], as in hot [hɑ:t], or as an open-mid back rounded long vowel [ɔ:], as in dog [dɔ:g]. Note that British English prefers a short sound as opposed to American English, which prefers a long sound in all cases. Table 4 shows several words in both pronunciations.

Pronunciation difference between BrE and AmE

Table 4

Word	British English	American English
Box	[bɒks]	[bɑ:ks]
Chocolate	[ˈtʃɒklət]	[ˈtʃɑ:klət] or [ˈtʃɔ:klət]
Clock	[klɒk]	[kla:k]
Cost	[kɒst]	[kɔ:st]
Dog	[dɒg]	[dɔ:g]
Gone	[gɒn]	[gɔ:n]
Got	[gɒt]	[gɑ:t]
Hot	[hɒt]	[hɑ:t]
Job	[dʒɒb]	[dʒɑ:b]
Lot	[lɒt]	[la:t]
Not	[nɒt]	[nɑ:t]
Off	[ɒf]	[ɑ:f] or [ɔ:f]
Possible	[ˈpɒsəbl]	[ˈpɑ:səbl]

Sorry	[ˈsɒri]	[ˈsɑ:ri] or [ˈsɔ:ri]
Stop	[stɒp]	[stɑ:p]
Want	[wɒnt]	[wɑ:nt] or [wɔ:nt]
Wasn't	[wɒznt]	[wʌznt]
What	[wɒt]	[wɑ:t] or [wʌt]

The given table is very useful for explaining the main changes in depth with examples, namely the change of vowel [ɒ] to [ɑ:] and [ɔ:]. Change of [æ]: Around the American Revolutionary War vowel [æ] started to undergo a change in Southern English, the future seed of RP. This near-open front unrounded vowel [æ] is first lengthened to [æ:] and later lowered to the open back unrounded vowel [ɑ:]. However, the change did not take off in GA, bringing about a new difference between both accents. The change of vowel occurs under certain conditions, but it is deemed to be inconsistent, as we will see in the examples below. Vowel [æ] becomes vowel [ɑ:] in RP when:

- Vowel [æ] is before sounds [s], [f], and [θ], as in pass, calf, and path.
 - Vowel [æ] is followed by consonant clusters such as [ns], [nt], [ntʃ], and [mpl], as in dance, can't, ranch, and sample.
 - The changes are not applied before other consonants, as in cat, pal, cab, and drag.
- Here we give some examples to illustrate the above rules as well as a few exceptions.
- Words pronounced with [æs] in GA but with [ɑ:s] in RP: brass, class, glass, grass, pass, mast, past, master, plaster, clasp, grasp, gasp, mask, task, ask, basket. Exceptions: crass, gas, lass, mass, astronaut, pastel.
 - Words pronounced with [æf] in GA with [ɑ:f] in RP: calf, graph, giraffe, half, laugh, staff, after, craft, daft, draft, laughter, raft, shaft.
 - Words pronounced with [æθ] in GA with [ɑ:θ] in RP: bath, lath, path. Exceptions: hath, maths, athlete, decathlon.
 - Words pronounced with [ænt] in GA with [ɑ:nt] in RP: aunt, plant, can't, advantage. Exceptions: ant, banter, scant, mantle.

- Words pronounced with [æmp] in GA with [ɑ:mp] in RP: sample, example. Exceptions: trample, ample.

Around the beginning of XX century several changes took place in the English vowels. One of them was the so-called yod-dropping, the omission of sound [j] before [u:]. The change is named after the Hebrew letter Y, which represents the sound [j]. Both RP and GA embraced the change, although GA extended the cases in which yod-dropping was applied. Yod-dropping before [u:] takes place in RP and GA in the following cases.

- After the post-alveolar affricates [tʃ] and [dʒ], as in chew [tʃu:], juice [dʒu:s], and Jew [dʒu:s].
- After [r], as in rude [ru:d], prude [pru:d], shrewd [ʃru:d], and extrude [Ik`stru:d].
- After clusters formed by a consonant followed by [l], as in blue [blu:], flu [flu:], and slew [slu:]. Apart from this common corpus of words, in GA as well as in many other varieties of English we observe yod-dropping in further cases.
- After [s] and [z], as in suit [su:t], Zeus [zu:s], assume [ə`su:m], and hirsute [ˈhɜ:rsu:t].
- After [l], as in lute [lu:t], and pollute [pə`lu:t].
- Especially in GA, after [t], [d], and [n], as in tune [tu:n], stew [stu:], student [ˈstu:dənt], dew [du:], duty [ˈdu:ti], produce [prə`du:s], and new[nu:].

There are also other changes to emphasize: change of [ɪ] and [aɪ], in some cases the pronunciation of lax vowel [ɪ] in RP becomes other vowels, mainly diphthong [aɪ] and [ə] in the suffixization. For the change to [aɪ], here we have a few examples: dynasty, privacy, simultaneously, vitamin. In the suffixization, pronounced as [aɪ`zeɪfɪn] in RP, the diphthong [aɪ] is transformed into the unstressed and neutral vowel sound [ə], resulting in the pronunciation [ə`zeɪfɪn] in GA. Examples of this change are: authorization, centralization, civilization, colonization, dramatization, fertilization, globalization, hybridization, legalization, localization, mobilization, modernization, neutralization, normalization, optimization, organization, privatization, specialization, synchronization, urbanization, visualization.

The differences in individual sounds between AmE and BrE can be divided into systematic (predictable) ones, and non-systematic (unpredictable) ones. One significant difference between some dialects in AmE and BrE is the post-vocalic /r/, thus some AmE speakers speak with a *rhotic* dialect. Hence, for example, *father*, *mother*, *pleasure*, and *tar* are pronounced with an audible [r]; a strong retroflex r-coloring of the vowel, which means that the tip of the tongue is turned back against the alveolar. In both AmE and BrE the /r/ is not trilled and the airstream is less narrowed than for a fricative.

Another noticeable characteristic of AmE is the pronunciation of the intervocalic /t/. In BrE, /t/ is articulated as a voiceless stop while in AmE it is a voiced tap - a rapid articulation of a stop with a single tongue tip movement. Intervocalic /t/, in AmE, tends to sound as a /d/, as in *butter*, *batter*, *better*, and *fatter*. This feature, in AmE, turns some words into homophones¹⁰ as /d/ also is pronounced in the same way between vowels spelled with *d*, for example, *bidder* and *bitter*, *udder* and *utter*, and *medal* and *metal*. The vowel systems differ in many ways between AmE and BrE. For instance, the vowels in the words *dance*, *example*, *half*, *fast*, *bath* have, in general, an [a:] in dialects spoken in southern England, while in AmE (and in some northern BrE dialects) the vowel is pronounced [æ]. Hence *ant* and *aunt* are homophones in AmE. However, before /r/ and in words spelled with *-lm* AmE use [a:], as in *far*, *car*, *calm*, and *palm*. Similarly, in AmE *father* and *sergeant* have [a:]. AmE and BrE also differ in rounded back vowels. BrE distinguishes between three different back vowels, as in the words *caught*, *cot*, and *calm*, [ɔ], [ʊ], and [a:], respectively. In AmE, there are normally two distinctions, [ɔ] and [a:], thus *caught* is pronounced with [ɔ] and *cot* and *calm* with [a:]. However, in some dialects in America, especially in the Midwest and the West, these vowels merge and are pronounced with the same articulation. Hence *caught* and *cot*, *stalk* and *stock*, and *naughty* and *knotty* may become homophones.

Teachers from Iranian university, Naghmeh Mirzaie Hosseinzadeh, Aliyeh Kord Zafaranlu Kambuziya, Mansour Shariati cited phonetic differences in their

scientific article “British and American Phonetic Varieties”. American vowels differ in length, but these differences depend primarily on the environment in which the respective vowels occur. The back rounded vowel /ɒ/ is heard in British English, or received pronunciation (RP) in words such as: not, hot, block, etc. In American or General American English (GA), this vowel sound is replaced with /ɑ:/, the back unrounded vowel [Dimitrova, 3;2010]. In pronunciation of /ɒ/, the back of the tongue is just below the half-open position, no contact being made between the tongue and the upper molars; the jaws are wide open and there is slight, open lip-rounding; and the tongue tip is behind the lower teeth. /ɒ/ does not occur word-finally or in stressed open syllables. Concerning the pronunciation of /ɑ:/, a part of the tongue between the center and the back is in the fully open position, no contact being made between the rims of the tongue and the upper molars; the jaws are considerably separated and the lips are neutrally open; the tongue tip is behind the lower teeth. /ɑ:/ does not normally occur before /ŋ/. For example, “class” in British English [klɑ:s], in American it is pronounced as [klæs]; “ask” – [ɑ:sk] in British English, [æsk] in American English, “can’t” – [kɑ:nt] British, [kæ(n)t] American; “dance” – [da:ns], [dæ(n)s].

Diphthongs are described as sequences of two vowels pronounced together, the two vocalic elements being members of the same syllable. According to the position of the more prominent element in the diphthong, diphthongs are divided into falling diphthongs, if the prominent element comes first, and rising diphthongs, if the less prominent element comes first. All English diphthongs belong to the first category. Diphthongs can also be opening diphthongs if the degree of aperture increases with the glide or closing diphthongs if the less prominent vowel is closer than the first. There are wide diphthongs, those in which the glide implies a more radical movement of the speech organs (e.g. /aɪ/) and narrow diphthongs, if the two vocalic elements occupy neighboring positions (e.g. /eɪ/) on the vowel chart. There are also centering diphthongs, if the glide is from a marginal vowel in the vowel chart, either back or front, to a central vowel. In terms of length, diphthongs are similar to the long vowels. The most important thing

about all the diphthongs is that the first part is much longer and stronger than the second part. One of the diphthongs /ɪə/ British vs. /ɪr/ American: near – [nɪə] British – [nɪr] American. Along with diphthongs and vowel varieties, there are British and American consonants and some varieties between them including: British non-rhotic /r/ vs. American rhotic /r/, British /t/ vs. American flap /ɾ/ between two vowels, British /ʃ/ vs. American /ʒ/, British /z/ vs. American /s/, British /s/ vs. American /ʃ/, British /ð/ vs. American /θ/. For example, force – [fɔ:s] British/ [fɔ:rs] American, car – [kɑ:] British, [kɑ:r] American; version – [ˈvɜ:ʃn] British/ [ˈvɜ:rʒn] American; blouse – [blaʊz] British/ [blaus] American.

Pedagogy emphasizes that teaching speaking and listening should be in the earlier stage of teaching reading and writing. It dejects the teaching through mother tongue and encourages that most of the English teaching should apply the target language to instruct. When the instructors utilize target language to lecture, students will be able to attain their occasion where they can accumulate the knowledge of the target language. For teaching the phonetic differences of the two variants of the language audio – lingual method seems to be a suitable method to teach and learn for the learners. Harmer emphasizes that audio-lingual methodology seems to banish all forms of language processing that help students sort out new language information in their own minds [Harmer, 64;2001]. That is to say, when students are accumulating their knowledge of the target language, they are at the same time recognizing the differences between the target language and the other variant of the target language.

3.3. Grammatical varieties

Grammar is a technical vocabulary, which gives added meaning and functions to words. Traditional “grammar” involves word order, parts of speech, tense. Each word in the English language has been classified as a part of speech, depending on the role it plays in a sentence. Tottie explains how grammar, as opposed to vocabulary, does not have to change in order to reflect a changing reality [Tottie, 86;2002]. When new vocabulary is coined and borrowed in

response to new circumstances and new phenomena, the changes in grammar have been relatively few even though there are differences between AmE and BrE. The grammatical examples which are normally given are general and not exclusive for either BrE or AmE, thus variations in dialects and circumstantial use, for instance in conversation, fiction, academic writing etc., might differ in terms of their construction of grammatical features. On the course book “Developing grammar in context”, there is a unit “Articles 2: special uses”, the difference between the usage of articles in the British and American English the given additional material below will be a good information for learners to take into account from a teacher’s side in the teaching process.

Tottie explains how indefinite articles are used depending on whether it is followed by a vowel sound or a consonant sound, as in *a dog*, *an apple*. However, in informal AmE, the indefinite article ‘*an*’ is replaced with the phoneme /ə/ as in *a orange*, *an area*, due to the influence of Black English where it is used frequently. Definite article usage differs between AmE and BrE. AmE uses the definite article to a greater extent than BrE, as in *university and hospital*.

AmE My son is at the university.

BrE My son is at university.

AmE Fred is in the hospital

BrE Fred is in hospital [Tottie, 148;2002]

Modiano gives examples of phrases which require a definite article in AmE, but are used without a determiner in BrE; *onto grounds* (BrE), *onto the grounds* (AmE), *members of staff* (BrE), *members of the staff* (AmE), *on average* (BrE), *on the average* (AmE). There are constructions in which BrE has a definite article, as in *in the light of these developments*, while AmE does not, as in *in light of these developments*, although both constructions are accepted in AmE [Modiano,126;1996].

“Developing grammar in context”, a unit “Possessives and demonstratives” on page 194: Genitive. The rule of thumb is that animate nouns, particular in the singular, are constructed with the s-genitive, as in *the girl’s parents*, while other

nouns are constructed with the *of*-construction, as in *the color of my car*. However, in recent years there has been a noticeable change in the use of s-genitive in AmE. The development has shown that abstract nouns, such as *swimming* and *jumping*, get the s-genitive as well as in the following examples of an English newspaper [Hundt, 40;1997]:

AmE: Anita Nall and Summer Sanders – *swimming's* “New Kids on the Block”

AmE: [S] *how jumping's* prize money doesn't yet approach golf or tennis.

Number: Tottie explains how number sometimes varies between AmE and BrE. For instance, AmE speakers tend to prefer the plural form *accommodations* while BrE speakers use the singular form *accommodation*; conversely, AmE speakers say *math* while BrE speakers say *maths*. Noun-noun compounds represent the largest of all categories of new words and a difference in number can be distinguished there as well. In AmE the first noun is generally in singular, as in *drug problem*, *trade union*, *road policy*, *chemical plant*. In BrE the first noun is sometimes in plural, as in *drugs problem*, *trades union*, *roads policy*, *chemicals plant*.

Verbs: there are differences in verb morphology between AmE and BrE. With regular verbs the dental suffix is normally realized as [t] after a voiceless consonant, as in *stopped*, as [d] after a voiced consonant, as in *mailed*, and as [ɪ d] after a dental consonant, as in *ended* and *wanted*. There are features of both endings in both AmE and BrE.

Modiano acknowledges the differences in verb forms as perhaps the most significant dissimilarity between AmE and BrE. A number of BrE verbs have a *t*-inflection while AmE verbs tend to conform to the standardized *-ed* structure. These differences constitute a subtle distinction in pronunciation which often goes unnoticed in pronunciation, but indicates in which English a text is written. It is worth mentioning that many AmE conjugations are considered Standard English in BrE, thus both versions are accepted as correct. A course book “Developing grammar in context”, a unit “The past simple” on page 18:

BrE	AmE
burn, burned	burn, burnt
dwell, dwelt	dwell, dwelled
get, got	get, gotten
learn, learnt	learn, learned
smell, smelt	smell, smelled
spell, spelt	spell, spelled
spill, spilt	spill, spilled
spoil, spoilt	spoil, spoiled

Prepositions: Tottie explains how the same prepositions sometimes take different forms in AmE and BrE. *Toward* is commonly, in BrE, spelled with an -s and *among* (accepted in AmE and BrE) is spelled with -st, although the form *amongst*, in BrE, is considered old-fashioned [Tottie, 172;2002]:

AmE: He walked *toward* the entrance

BrE: He walked *towards* the entrance

AmE, BrE: He found it *among* the flowers

BrE: He found it *amongst* the flowers

Another example of divergence between AmE and BrE is the two forms of the preposition *around*, as in: AmE, BrE: She walked *around* the block

BrE: She walked *round* the block.

There are some general features in the differences between AmE and BrE regarding punctuation. For example, the hyphens are more frequently used in BrE when writing compound nouns whereas, in AmE, they are written with two words; for instance, in BrE *co-operation* and in AmE *cooperation*. One of the main diverging features, when writers are dividing a word at the end of a line, is that in BrE the system for dividing a word is based on the morphological breaks in a word, for example, *struct-ure*. AmE, on the other hand, is syllabic, for example, *struc-ture*. However, the matters of word dividing have more or less disappeared as word-processing programs and new technology automatically adjust the margins. The comma is used differently in AmE and BrE. For example, when listings occur

in writing, in BrE, there is no comma between the second and the last item, while in AmE there is a comma following the second to the last item:

AmE: The cover has red, white, and blue flowers

BrE: The cover has red, white and blue flowers

It is Noah Webster, who is responsible for most of the spelling differences. After the Americans achieved independence, Noah Webster took the liberty of simplifying some of the features of the English language, for instance *colour* and *color*, where colour with **-our** is specific for British English whereas color with **-or** is specific for American English. The spelling differences between British and American English are presented in the table below.

	British	American
our/or	behaviour	behavior
ae/e	paediatric	pediatric
oe/o	mementoes	mementos
oeu/eu	manoeuvre	maneuver
re/er	metre	meter
ise/ize	criticise	criticize
ce/se	defence	defense
gramme/gram	kilogramme	kilogram
ogue/og	dialogue	dialog
e/-	judgement	judgment
que/ck	cheque	check
l/ll	fulfil	fulfill
ll/l	travelling	traveling

American spelling in comparison to British spelling is simpler in some aspects. Kirkpatrick [87;2007] mentions that the simplification of words containing **-our** such as *honour*, *labour* or *neighbourhood* into only **-or** in *honor*, *labor*, *neighborhood*, or as Boyanova [56;2013] mentions the change of **-ae/-oe/-oeu** in *anaesthetist*, *mementoes*, *manoeuvre* into **-e/-o/-eu** in *anesthetist*, *mementos*,

manoeuvre are some of them. British English also uses **-re** as in *theatre*, *centre* and **-ise** in words like *recognise*, *personalise* where American English uses **-er** in *theter*, *center* and **-ize** in *recognize*, *personalize*.

Hogg and Denison [293;2010] present more words which are shorter in American English than in British English: *programme* or *catalogue* in British spelling and *program* and *catalog* in American spelling. Then there are words, which do not have their own category, because there are just few instances, for example *judgement* in British English and *judgment* in American English (the omission of *-e-*) or the different spelling for some words, as for the special way of paying: British *cheque* and American *check*.

Among other well known differences between British and American spelling is the use of either a single or double l. According to Hassan [411;2012] British English tends to use the double *-ll-* before a suffix beginning with a vowel: *travelling*; and Boyanova [57;2013] adds that the final *-l* is doubled in American English when the final syllable is stressed: *fulfill*. The verb ending *-ize* is the prevalent spelling in AmE, as in *fraternize*, *jeopardize*, *militarize* etc., as BrE rather use the *-ise* ending, although there are variations in BrE while both variations sometimes are accepted, as in *organize/organize*, *naturalize/naturalise*, etc.

Some spellings, nevertheless, have to be learned since they do not follow any pattern and cannot account for a systematic nature. The differences, just to give a few examples, are, AmE *check* while BrE *cheque*, AmE *plow* while BrE *plough*, and AmE *tire* while BrE *tyre*.

The Presentation – Practice – Production (PPP or 3P) method is popular among EFL teachers because it is straightforward and easy to implement. In fact, the PPP method follows common sense and does not require much advanced pedagogical experience. Most people have used some variation of the PPP method to learn something at some point in their lives. This method is accepted an appropriate method for teaching grammar varieties for its convenience. From the principals of this method, the teacher presents a new theme, and practice takes

place, then the product (learners' understanding on the passed theme) is obtained with the help of exercises created by the author of the Qualification Paper.

Many works were looked through and analysed. In general, the effectiveness of teaching inevitably depends on the method and technique chosen by a teacher, in the given research effectiveness of teaching English and its variants not only depend on the methods of teaching, but on a teacher's deep knowledge of the English variants.

DISCUSSION

4.1. Analysis of the resultant research

Being a researcher is defined as a leading path to science. If a researcher did something that was useful for others, the efforts were not for air, but people may benefit from findings. So in terms of proof, as the aim of the research was to penetrate variants of the English language to B1 level learners, the first step was to observe whether B1 learners are taught the variants of English. The list of students who were under the survey:

1. Avezov Ozod
2. Azatbaeva Miyassar
3. Baydullaeva Bibifatima
4. Bisenbaeva Aruna
5. Duysenbaeva Nilufar
6. Isaeva Diana
7. Ermukhambetova Farangiz
8. Koblasheva Aysha
9. Kodirova Mukhayyo
10. Maksetova Ayelita
11. Nagmatullaeva Marina
12. Nagmetullaeva Liliya
13. Sultanov Dauletniyaz
14. Saburova Shakhnoza
15. Tenelova Mukhabbat
16. Tursinbaeva Zulfiya

The observations showed that there is no particular discipline for learning the difference between the variants, but on the discipline “Vocabulary in context”, academic year students may get some information on the American English from this textbook, but not in depth. That was just in terms of lexical varieties. In other aspects of the English language they were not taught the difference. In order to be

sure whether they were aware of the difference of two variants, on 2nd May in 2019, at Nukus State Pedagogical Institute, in the room 319, in the lesson of Dospanov Ruslan “Grammar in context” a questionnaire was taken from one group consisting of 16 students, whose levels were B1. In the questionnaire 15 students participated out of 16, one was absent. The answers were not similar with one another (See Table 5):

Questionnaire

Table 5

Questions	Yes	No
1. Do you think there are variants of English?	15	0
2. Are they British and Global English?	6	6
3. If you talk to the English speaker, can you differ his/her accent whether it is British or American?	10	5
4. 1)“Fulfil” dreams 2)“fullfil” dreams; the first variant is true	7	8
5. Do you learn American English based on your curriculum?	4	11
6. Do you know the difference between [ɔ] and [ɒ]?	9	6
7. Do you often write “learned”?	8	7
8. Have you ever heard the word “van”?	9	6
9. Is it wrong to put comma (,) before the conjunction “and”?	7	6
10. If to write “color” instead of “colour”, it is right.	14	1
11. Does British English differ from American only in spellings?	3	11
12. “Insure” and “ensure” are different words.	5	10
13. Your given name is your first name.	11	2
14. To write “toward” instead of “towards” is wrong.	12	2
15. “Sports center” should be written “sport center”.	8	7

The respondents may find some of the questions difficult, that is, they did not answer “yes” or “no”, in the 2nd question the number of empty places were 3,

in the 9th – 2, in the 13th – 1. According to the answers it became evident how much they were aware about the difference between the two variants. In the 2nd question a possible right answer should be “no”, so that British English is global English, the variant of the British English is American. In the 4th question a possible right answer was “no”, almost half of them answered right, but not all of them. In the 5th they learn British English, not American on the basis of curriculum. In the 6th question most of them answered they knew the difference, but could not answer and explain when needed. The other features are seen in the table. The aim of taking this questionnaire was to clarify it would be useful if we taught variants of the English language to B1 learners. As the results of the answers were not good, but satisfactory, there is a great need for the researcher to teach the variants to those learners. After the questionnaire, the learners participated in the lesson under the survey on 7th May in the room 311 at Nukus State Pedagogical Institute. A typical lesson plan for the desired lesson from the researcher’ perspective:

Lesson plan

Level: B1

Date: 7.05.2019

Teacher: Utepova Durdana

Theme: *Phonetic differences between British and American English*

Materials: handouts, pen, pencil, blackboard, speakers and visual materials

Number of students: 16

Language level: intermediate

Time: 40 minutes

Aim:

Educational: to practice the difference of the British and American accent

Developing: to be able to work individually and do the tasks appropriately

Objectives: At the end of the lesson, students

1. will be able to differentiate sounds [ɑ], [æ], [ɒ], [ɔ], [ə] where needed
2. improve their listening skills

Methodology of the lesson: audio – lingual method

Procedure:

I. The beginning of the lesson

Greeting.

Warming up.

II. Main part

Detailed explanation of the theme:

Activity 1. “Repeat after me”

The teacher brings a poster where all sounds with the words are written. When the teacher pronounces each word, the students repeat after the teacher and at the same time teacher stops in each word explaining why the same word is pronounced differently in two variants of the English language. For this, the words selected are the followings (See Table 6):

Pronunciation difference of words in British and American English Table 6

Word	British English	American English
Box	[bɒks]	[bɑ:ks]
Chocolate	[ˈtʃɒklət]	[ˈtʃɑ:klət] or [ˈtʃɔ:klət]
Class	[kla:s]	[klæ:s]
Ask	[ɑ:sk]	[æsk]
Student	[ˈstju:dənt]	[ˈstu:dənt]
Go	[gəʊ]	[gou]
Near	[nɪə]	[nɪr]
Hot	[hɒt]	[hɑ:t]
Job	[dʒɒb]	[dʒɑ:b]
Car	[kɑ:]	[kɑ:r]
Can't	[kɑ:nt]	[kænt]
Promotion	[prəˈməʊʃn]	[prəˈmouʃn]
Possible	[ˈpɒsəbl]	[ˈpɑ:səbl]

Sorry	[ˈsɒri]	[ˈsɑ:ri] or [ˈsɔ:ri]
Stop	[stɒp]	[stɑ:p]
Want	[wɒnt]	[wɑ:nt] or [wɔ:nt]
Wasn't	[wɒznt]	[wʌznt]
What	[wɒt]	[wɑ:t] or [wʌt]

Handouts

Activity 2.

Teacher distributes answer sheets before turning on the recording. Typical answer sheets and the sample of the exercise are the following:

Answer sheet

1. a)AmE b)BrE
2. a)AmE b)BrE
3. a)AmE b)BrE
4. a)AmE b)BrE
5. a)AmE b)BrE
6. a)AmE b)BrE
7. a)AmE b)BrE
8. a)AmE b)BrE
9. a)AmE b)BrE
- 10.a)AmE b)BrE
- 11.a)AmE b)BrE
- 12.a)AmE b)BrE

Listen to the recording and find whether it is British or American accent.

Only one word in one sentence can be British or American English word.

1. She is not [nɑ:t] (US) a doctor, she is a teacher.
2. The boxes [bɒks] (UK) over there are empty.
3. What [wɑ:t] (US) is your name?
4. My dog's [dɔ:g] (US) name is Torami.

5. Salary promotion [prə`məʊfn] (UK) is the best way to motivate workers to do their best.
6. Students [ˈstu:dənt] (US) are preparing for their exams at the moment.
7. When I came into the room, everyone was dancing [dɑ:ns] (UK).
8. These products were produced [prə`dju:s] (UK) in China.
9. There are different types of flowers near [nɪr] (US) Margeret's house.
10. "Toyota" car [kɑ:r] (US) is the most popular one for its old name.
11. Gulaysha Esemuratova is one of the famous female writers [ˈraɪər] (US) in Karakalpakstan.
12. Kindness is the best force [fɔ:s] (UK) to heal a human – being.

Lesson plan

Level: B1

Date: 8.05.2019

Teacher: Utepova Durdana

Theme: *Grammatical differences between British and American English*

Materials: handouts, pen, pencil, blackboard and visual materials

Number of students: 16

Language level: intermediate

Time: 40 minutes

Aim:

Educational: to learn how to differ British and American grammar structure

Developing: to be able to choose one version from two quickly

Objectives: At the end of the lesson, students

1. will be able to differentiate between British and American grammar rules
2. improve their reading skills

Methodology of the lesson: PPP method

Procedures:

I. The beginning of the lesson

Greeting.

Warming up.

II. Main part

Detailed explanation of the theme.

The usage of articles:

AmE: My son is at the university.

BrE: My son is at university.

AmE: Fred is in the hospital.

BrE: Fred is in hospital.

Putting or not putting the comma before the conjunction “and”

AmE: I like an apple, pear, and bananas.

BrE: I like an apple, pear and bananas.

Number:

BrE	AmE
Accommodations	Accommodation
Maths	Math
Drugs problem	Drug problem
Trades union	Trade union
Roads policy	Road policy
Towards	Toward
Amogst	Among
Around/round	Around

Spelling:

BrE	AmE
Fulfil	Fulfill
Enroll	Enroll
Skilful	Skillful
-se	-ize
Characterise	Characterize
Prioritise	Prioritize
-re	-er

Centre	Center
-ce	-se
Defence	Defense
(e)	(-)
Judgement	Judgment
Ageing	Aging
-ogue	-og
Dialogue	Dialog

Handouts

Activity:

Choose one of the appropriate word given according to the given accent in the brackets.

1. She spelt/spelled her name incorrectly. (UK)
2. People's attitude toward/towards (US) you is the result of your attitude toward/towards them. (UK)
3. There are bottles of wine, a cake, bread, tea (,)/() and sweets. (US)
4. Organization/Organisation plan is an initial way for teachers to write a lesson plan. (UK)
5. When he entered the canteen, the milk on the cooker had been spilled/spilt. (US)
6. Islam's brother studies at (the)/() university named after Berdakh. (UK)
7. There are butterflies around/round the flowers. (UK/US)
8. It is easy for one to find one's own place amongst/among others. (UK)
9. I am ill, I am still in (the)/() hospital. (US)
10. The traffic light has three colours – red, yellow (,)/() and green. (UK)

The survey results showed that most of the students, who participated in the lessons, claimed they benefited much from the lesson devoted to phonetic, grammar features of the two variants of the English language. They said they were

acknowledged much of the information they had not had before concerning the American English variant. The results of the exercises on the topic they did show they understood the differences between the American and British English: the number of mistakes some of the students made is just not more than four, which can be a good result from the researcher's perspective.

CONCLUSION

There are many languages throughout the world, and English language is a global language spoken and known by the majority of people. English language varies according to its geographical location as well as according to the people who adopted it to their convenience. As the president of the Republic of Uzbekistan Sh.M.Mirziyoyev is paying more attention to teachers and their work done on teaching a foreign language in innovative ways; the variants of the English language seem to be a leading path for ESOL learners to raise their aptitude and hone their ability in three aspects: Grammar, Vocabulary and Phonetics. Teaching the variants is very important and it is broad as well.

The Qualification Paper deals with the brief review of the variants of the English language, especially, American and British English. That is to say, even if English language is one language, but its variants differ vastly language systems: vocabulary, grammar, phonetics, that was given in the review of the literature of the other scholars who contributed to the variants in a broader sense taking all language aspects into account.

Although there are differences between them with the development of globalization and communication between the USA and UK, British English and American English are now influencing each other. There are many varieties of English other than British (here the English of the United Kingdom) and American (here the English of the United States). But present-day British is not the origin of any other variety of the language; rather it and all the other varieties are equally descendant from a form of English spoken in the British Isles in earlier times. British is the form of English now used in the country whence all other forms of English have ultimately derived. The focus of this study is on how contemporary British English differs from American and the importance of teaching American English at schools. That is, in comparing two varieties of a language, it is convenient to take one as the basis for comparison and to describe the other by contrast with it. This study takes British English as its basis and describes American English in relation to that basis.

Nowadays one of the urgent issues is teaching a foreign language to ESOL learners in a pure English language. If one teacher pronounces the word “class” as [kla:s], the other may use [klæs], by hearing such kind of differences in the aspects of the language, learners get perplexed whether that teacher uses English in a correct way or this teacher is using [kla:s] instead of [klæs]. In order to be sure what exactly could be an effective approach for solving the above mentioned problem, three types of research methods in research methodology were chosen to conduct the research: Observation, questionnaire and a survey. The effectiveness of the research methodology can be seen in the theoretical and practical significance of the Qualification Paper. The observation took part in English courses at Nukus State Pedagogical Institute named after Ajiniyaz. The basic variant of the English language used in the teaching process was British English, but not any other variant used. There are many variants of the English language ranging from Scottish to Indian ones, among these types of variants American variant of the English language is also considered as familiar as British English for all over the world, especially if it is in Education System of Uzbekistan, stemming from such ideas, there are a number of tasks were to include teaching of the American alongside with the British variant of the English language into the curriculum of such disciplines as “Grammar in context”, “Phonetics” which are to taught on 2018 – 2019 academic year; to have one or more than two lessons with B1 level learners would be useful for them to consolidate their background knowledge on the Global English language itself. The discipline “Vocabulary in context” itself includes topics on the difference between American and British words included in the textbook. In case of vocabulary, the only thing to do from a teacher’s perspective is to add some more materials based on the topic; to describe the need for including some aspects of the American English into the curriculum, that is because most B1 level learners do not have as much information as needed in terms of the difference between American and British English; to give the review of the importance of knowing why American and British English differ much in all aspects of language, as it is known for all aspects, all aspects of a

language are closely connected with each other; to analyse lexical, phonetic and grammatical differences between American and British English in lessons.

Apparently, the materials were first collected on grammar, vocabulary and phonetics to show the exact difference between American and British English, that the researches done by John Algeo, Boyanova, Dimitrova S, Paco Gomez, Ryann Eller, Ledin.C, Lois P.Webster, Modiano.M, Ul Hassan, Sardar Fayyaz, constitute the basis of the written suggestion for the inclusion of their materials into the desired curriculum. The theoretical materials are based on lexicology, grammar and phonetics to adapt the collected scientific works of the given theme on daily lessons in a step – by – step order. The course books that were looked through are “Destination B1, Grammar and vocabulary” and “Destination B2, Grammar and vocabulary” the authors of which are Malcolm Mann and Steve Taylors – Knowles, “Developing grammar in context, Intermediate” the authors are Mark Nettle and Diana Hopkins.

All in all, according to our research we have done, it was clear that it is possible to teach American English alongside with British if to follow the process described in the Qualification Paper: using adaptation technique of materials and choosing an appropriate method of teaching will be a positive way to achieve the aims from a teacher’s perspective. The effectiveness of the suggested Qualification Paper is seen in practical terms led by the author of the Qualification Paper which resulted in the creation of authentic exercises on American and British English differences. With the help of such materials not only teachers, but also learners benefit much in terms of enhancing background knowledge of English and raising awareness of the variants of the English language. In the future the data given in this Qualification Paper will be the basis of the teaching American and British English variants. The results of the research is evident in the practical part, by following the steps as shown in the research done, teachers all over Uzbekistan will get learners aware of British and American variants of the English language in their teaching process, which lead to the inclusion of them into Language learning process.

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