

УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ У БЕОГРАДУ
ФИЛОЛОШКИ ФАКУЛТЕТ

Весна Д. Милевска

**АМЕРИЧКИ И БРИТАНСКИ ЕНГЛЕСКИ:
ВАРИЈАНТНЕ РАЗЛИКЕ НА РАЗЛИЧИТИМ
НИВОИМА ЈЕЗИЧКЕ СТРУКТУРЕ**

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**AMERICAN AND BRITISH ENGLISH:
VARIANT DIFFERENCES AT SOME LEVELS
OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURE**

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АМЕРИЧКИ И БРИТАНСКИ ЕНГЛЕСКИ: ВАРИЈАНТНЕ РАЗЛИКЕ НА РАЗЛИЧИТИМ НИВОИМА ЈЕЗИЧКЕ СТРУКТУРЕ

Употреба енглеског језика као међународни језик подразумева неопходност његовог сталног истраживања, дискусије, упоређење и имплементацију у развоју нових условима. Фокус ове докторске дисертације је на могуће разлике и варијације које постоје између британски енглески и амерички енглески.

Циљ је да се дискутују, опишу и анализирају детаљно могуће варијације које могу постојати између две варијанте, истовремено узимајући њихов међусобни утицај у обзир.

Поред земаља у којима се говори као матерњи језик, енглески такође игра важну улогу као светски језик у употребу у технологији, медицини, рачунарске науке и многим другим областима које се базирају на стручност и формалну комуникацију између професионалаца на међународном нивоу .

Поред тога, део дискусије односи се на општег значаја који амерички енглески данас има преко британски енглески.

Основна хипотеза је да Интра језичка упоредна анализа оба стандарда, америчког и британског, показују разлике (контраста) у следећим областима:

Изговор:

- Исто писање, различити изговор
- Различито писање, исти изговор

Вокабулар

- Различите речи за исте појмове
- Исте речи за исте појмове, делимичне разлике у значењу
- Исте речи разлике у стилу, конотацију и фреквенцији
- Еуфемизми
- Политички коректни изрази
- Језичка креативност: сложености: реферирање на реалност културе

Граматика

- Разлике у структури реченице
- Разлике у употребе глаголских облика, укључујући и разлике у фреквенцији

Одељак Истраживање представља резултате добијене из свих четири категорије поменуте путем упоређивања одређеним бројем одабраних узорка из обе језичке варијанте у питању.

Затим се закључци добијају и резултати су приказане у закључку, показујући да ли је главна хипотеза потврђена потпуно, делимично, или уопште није потврђена.

Кључне речи: амерички, британски, изговор, правопис, лексема, структура, теза, упоређење, резултати.

Научна област: језичке науке

Ужа научна област: Контрастивна анализа енглеског језика

УДК:

AMERICAN AND BRITISH ENGLISH: VARIANT DIFFERENCES AT SOME LEVELS OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURE

The use of English language as an international language implies the necessity of its constant research, discussion, comparison and implementation in the constantly emerging new conditions. The focus of this doctoral thesis is on the possible differences and variations that exist between British English and American English. The aim is to discuss, describe and analyze in detail the possible variations that may exist between the two variants, while also taking their mutual influence into consideration.

Beside the countries where English is spoken as a native language, it also plays an important role as a world language due to its use in technology, medicine, computer science and many other fields which concentrate on expertise and formal communication between professionals on the international level.

In addition, part of the discussion refers to the overall importance that American English nowadays has over British English.

The main hypothesis is that *an Intra-lingual contrastive analysis of both the standards, American and British, will show differences (contrasts) within the following areas:*

Pronunciation

- Same spelling, different pronunciation
- Different spelling, same pronunciation

Vocabulary

- Different lexemes for the same terms
- Same lexemes for the same terms, partial differences in meaning
- Same lexemes with differences in style, connotation and frequency
- Euphemisms
- Politically correct expressions
- Language creativity – in reference to cultural reality

Grammar

- Differences in sentence structure
- Differences in the use of verb forms, including differences in frequency.

The research section presents the results obtained from all the four categories mentioned above by means of comparing a certain number of selected samples from both the language variants in question. Then conclusions are drawn from the results and presented in the conclusion, showing whether the main hypothesis has been confirmed either completely, partially, or not at all.

Key words: American, British, pronunciation, spelling, lexemes, structure, thesis, comparison, results.

Scientific field: linguistic sciences

Specific scientific field: Contrastive analyses of English language

UDC:

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1.Introduction

1.1English language as means of communication

English language has obtained the status of the prime world language due to its multiple functions in international communication: it is the lingua franca for politics, diplomacy, international academic and business conferences, the leading language for science and technology, mass media, computers and entertainment. English language as the main medium worldwide is important both in global and local sense. The expansion of communities of users of English has indicated pragmatic, conceptual and discourse variation that has created new communicative needs.

As one of the means for communication, language has crucial implications for humanity as stated by Crystal:

Why does language provide such a fascinating object of study? Perhaps because of its unique role in capturing the breath of human thought and endeavour. We look around us and we are awed by the variety of several thousand languages and dialects, expressing a multiplicity of world views, literatures and ways of life.

(Crystal 1996:1)

Speaking itself as part of a language is not something that is just an inner part of our nature, but includes all our experiences and practice that we go through in our lives. According to Francis,

Speech, the universal human activity the very mark and defining criterion of humanity and its unique possession is not an innate part of man's nature at all. Each individual member of the race must experience in himself the task of learning it from other humans with or without their conscious assistance.

(Francis 1954:6)

However, according to Crystal, language can be argued to have become global in reality when

it develops a special role that is recognized in every country. Such a role will be most evident in countries where large numbers of people speak the language as a mother tongue- in the case of English.

(Crystal 1997: 4)

Before continuing to refer to other matters connected to English language as one of the main global and most widely used languages, the primary step is to look at its history, its origins and development.

1.2 History of language

Since the ancient times many languages have been used on the territory of Great Britain and for a certain period of time Latin was the essence of communication for the educated classes, as stated by Allason-Jones below:

By end of the first century AD the increasingly cosmopolitan flavor of the urban population will have resulted in many languages being heard in Britain with the consequence that a knowledge of Latin would have been essential for efficient communication between people who could have originated as far afield as Scotland, Africa or Turkey.

(Allason-Jones 1989:174)

The circumstances changed with the newcomers, but those new conditions were not in favour for the natives as noted by Sherley-Price in the following.

These newcomers were from the three most formidable races in Germany, the Saxons, Angles and Jutes... It was not long before such hordes of those alien peoples vied together to crowd into the island that the natives who had invited them began to live in terror.

(Sherley-Price 1968:55-6)

Natives did not have many opportunities for development as in those vigorous times, kingdoms, people, languages changed quickly and for no reason. New kingdoms were formed. This has also been observed by Williams:

It was in these latter regions that the rising kingdom of Northumbria , Mercia and Wessex took shape between 600 and 800.And it was in those districts that a recognizable Wales was defined.

(Williams 1985:26-27)

All these changes and people left traces, but still before the appearance of the Normans, Anglos Saxons also had written records. Namely,

On the whole, Norman administrators probably had less experience than the Anglo Saxon ones of written records and the Normans before 1066 had not shown such a consistent interest as the Anglo Saxons in recording their history and institutions in literate forms

(Clanchy 1993:26-7)

Normans tried to clean up everything that did not correspond to their standards that is to say such things, according to them, were barbaric:

Cleansed our language from barbarism and made vulgar sort here in London... to aspire to a richer puritie of speech.

(Bailey 1992:37)

Greek, Latin and French had priority over the native English based on Germanic dialects and there were no English authors, no English grammar taught at all.

Are learning Greek and Latin Grammar and no English Grammar, reading Greek and Latin authors and no English authors, and writing Greek and Latin exercises and no English exercises, the best means to an English style? Are the French and Germans wrong in teaching French and German otherwise, or are their mother-tongues less nearly related to Greek and Latin?

Or are our languages and literature less worthy to receive attention than theirs?

(Hollingworth 1980:189)

Although, these languages were more or less equally used, there was certain ambiguity between similar words, as observed by Amis:

A meaning change occurs when the meanings of two similar sounding words (often of Latin and Greek origin) are confused as in The Council is not a paradigm of virtue.

(Amis 1980:27)

When English grammar and English language had their own position and status established, some scientist writers claimed that the basis of English was Greek language:

In 1783 for instance the writer of one dictionary Lemon claimed that “the groundwork of our modern English tongue is Greek”

(Crowley 1989:41)

Others had different insights. Namely, Alexander Gil called his people to raise their consciousness and start using their mother tongue, as stated by Moore:

In his own work Logonomia Anglica from 1621 Alexander Gil in Latin addressed his fellow townsman and with great passion appealed to take care and preserve mother language.

(In Moore 1910:8)

Discussion on the origin of the English language continued and certain opinions have been expressed which refer to the fact that it has some connection to the old Anglo-Saxon kingdoms.

It has recently been suggested that the boundaries between dialects of Old English though corresponding roughly with those of the ancient kingdoms might best be seen as ecclesiastical.

(Hogg 1992:4)

English could not develop as a language until the fourteenth century as it was overshadowed by the main languages, Latin and French. Instead, it was only referred to as a dialect, as remarked upon by Strang in the following.

Until the fourteenth century English language was in dark shadow of these two languages which were dominant especially in the sphere of written communication, so it is very frequently named as dialect language par excellence.

(Strang, 1970:224)

The statement that English dialects and terminology changed and developed over time and that many terms underwent certain changes from Old English through Middle English to the language used today has also been confirmed by MC Laughlin in the following quote.

It has been shown how the OE and early Middle English term for animal deer changed to its present meaning ruminant animal, hooved, antlered and with spotted young under the pressure of the loans beast, creature and animal

(Mc Laughlin 1970:303-313)

1.3 Shakespeare's English

Such changes can be seen even more clearly when reading Shakespeare who used language that was completely different from the one studied at school those days. This is confirmed by Jagger's statement that 'Shakespeare would have been punished, if he had used English at school, as the rules of the day ordered that in "public schools" no one who finished first grade was to speak English, not in the classroom nor during the games'. (Jagger 1940:19)

On the contrary, Shakespeare continued creating new words and forms, or, as Burnley puts it:

Then he arose from the sleep and all those things that he had sung in his sleep he had fixed in memory and quickly he added to those words many words in the same metre of song dear to God.

(Burnley 1992:28-31)

Some of the readers or audiences at the time found his innovations strange, some accepted them with admiration, but, as a consequence, English language became richer. This has also been observed by Ferry:

Elizabethan readers might be alerted they often read aloud or experienced words as they sound and that adjective noun combinations like idle show were a specially prominent feature of this poetry.

(Ferry 1988:2-3)

Shakespeare's language survived and so did his work. There are words he used which have gone out of fashion, but some of these still survive and are in use even today, as noted by Baugh and Cable:

It is also noteworthy that many histories of English have overlooked the regional survival of thou and thee .Once again Baugh and Cable state that they are in ordinary use today among the Quakers.

(Baugh and Cable 1978:242)

Shakespeare had his own contribution to the King's English, which became the basis for the language of the administration and correspondence.

King's English had an eminent position in the history of English language than it was traditionally given as lingual and stylish characteristic of its correspondence by which it confirmed the standard of the administrative language itself.

(Richardson 1980:726-50)

1.4 Other language problems

Problems which have been noted regarding studying English grammar indicate that it was not very easy to find ways to study the grammar of a language that was not used by the educated classes, as stated by Mugglestone:

Samuel Johnson defined grammar schools as schools “where taught languages were learnt together with the grammar”, and that is why it was very difficult to introduce later a program which would include learning of a language,i.e., English, which was not used by educated people.

(Mugglestone 1995:268)

It has been noted that students using an unacceptable variant of English, i.e., their regional dialects, not the accepted standard, for example, the Queen's English, faced a serious problem and had to adapt their speech. McCrum et al. have also remarked on this phenomenon:

From the 1880s at Bedford Modern school local boys with a North Bedfordshire accent were so mercilessly imitated and laughed at that if they had any intelligence, they were soon able to speak standard English... At Oxford it had become virtually a condition of social acceptance among the undergraduates that one should speak the Queen's English with a specific accent and intonation.

(Mc Crum et al 1992:13)

Other problems in that period were printing, reproduction and disseminating the language to all the places on the Earth where English was used, which is so eloquently expressed in the quote by Shaw below:

To employ an artist calligrapher to copy the transliteration for reproduction by lithography, photography or any other method that may serve in the absence of printer's types to advertise and publish the transliteration with the original Doctor Johnson's lettering opposite the transliteration page by page and a glossary of the two alphabets at the end and to present copies to public libraries in the British Isles, the British Commonwealth, the American States North and South and to national libraries everywhere in that order.

(Shaw 1962:9)

The influence of other languages and the adoption of foreign words replacing or modifying the old ones and giving them new meanings is also worth mentioning. This is exemplified by the following quote from Wilkins:

Since Learning began to flourish in our nation there have been more than ordinary Changes introduced in our language; partly by new artificial Compositions partly by enfranchising strange foreign words, for their elegance and significance which now make one third part of our Language and partly by refining and mollifying old words, for the easie and graceful sound by which means this last century may be conjectured to have made a greater change in our tongue ,than any of the former as to the addition of new words.

(Wilkins 1968:8)

However, not all agreed with this process, and return to primitive purity was given as a possible solution, as stated by Sprat below:

The society had been most vigorous in putting in execution, the only remedy that can be found for this extravagance and that has been a constant Resolution to reject all amplifications, digressions and swellings of style; to return to the primitive purity and shortness when medn deliver'd so many things almost in an equal number of words.

(Sprat 1959:113)

The circumstances were not good for English at the end of the eighteenth century, but the rapid changes with the rise of the Industrial Revolution in the next century also revolutionized the language, to which the quote by Houghton below also bears witness.

In the nineteenth century scientific English again enjoyed substantial lexical growth as the industrial revolution created the need for new technical vocabulary and new specialized professional societies were instituted to promote and publish in the new disciplines

(Houghton 1975:19)

With the growth, the ground for the establishment of the English Grammar was prepared, and so was the process of codification.

Lindley Murray is a grammarian whose work on codification had also great influence both in Britain and North America and that is why he is called father of English Grammar

(Howatt,1984:122)

It was also observed and concluded by Crystal that language changed at the end of the eighteenth century it was quite different from what we have today.

However despite this apparent continuity the language at the end of the 18th century is by no means identical to what we find today. Many words though spelled the same have different meaning.

(Crystal 1995:76)

Sledd agrees with Crystal and has stated the following:

Whether you or I or others who fixed our linguistic notions several decades ago like it or not, the contemporary English language of the Nineteen Sixties- the language we have to

live with, the only language we have to survive with – is not the language of the Nineteen Twenties and Thirties

(Sledd/Ebbitt 1962:89-90)

The traces of the roots and the plain bareness of the Old English that lived on, especially among the common people, can also be found to be used by certain people, including educated speakers addressing all the people - an audience of both the educated and common people. An example of such a usage is provided by McCrum et al below:

When in 1940 Winston Churchill wished to appeal to the hearts and minds of the English –speaking people it is probably no accident that he did with the plain bareness for which Old English is noted: ‘We shall fight on the beaches; we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the street, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender. In this celebrated passage, only surrender is foreign – Norman French.

(Mc Crum et al 1992:58)

Also, in this context, it is interesting to note that alternatives can be chosen by radical parties to oppose traditional usage of words and thus make any terms political, as shown by Cameron in the following.

Meaning works by contrast; the words you choose acquire force from an implicit comparison with the ones you could have chosen but did not. By coining alternatives to traditional usage, therefore the radicals have effectively politicized all the terms

(Cameron 1994:31)

In the meanwhile, while scientists, grammarians and others involved in different fields of language are fighting for codification, there are educated people who are still very much attached to tradition and refuse to change their idiomatic usage of language.

What hope is there for change when we find two of the Principles of the largest secondary schools in New Zealand... using these expressions: ‘taime-table’ for ‘time-table’; ‘Ai’ for ‘I’ ‘may own’ for ‘my own’.

(Gordon and Abell 1990 :27)

Similarly, according to Fowler and Fowler, there are still groups of people who would

Prefer the familiar word to the far-fetched

Prefer the concrete word to the abstract

Prefer the single word to circumlocution

Prefer the short word to the long

Prefer the Saxon word to the Romance.

These rules are given roughly in order of merit; the last is also least.

(Fowler and Fowler 1906:11)

1.5 Existence of variants and dialects of English

The reasons for the existence of variants and dialects of English are miscellaneous, but they depend on several factors. According to De Camp,

The origins of the English dialects lie not in pre-migration tribal affiliations but in certain social, economic and cultural developments which occurred after the migration was completed

(De Camp 1958:232)

Based on the data from 1997 provided by the British Council, one billion people on this planet at that time were studying English as a foreign language and about 750 million people were considered as second-language speakers of English.

The role of English is a global, meaning a language that is widely accepted all around the world and can be equally spread whether as a first, a second language, or simply as a dialect among certain groups of people.

Although it is an internationally spoken language, it should not be understood that it is the one and only widely spoken language, as noted by Tripathi below.

To think of English as the language of inter-state communication (except, perhaps at the minuscule top) is to ignore the reality of everyday life and to assume that before its advent there was no communication and there cannot be any now without it, between one part of the world and another.

(Tripathi 1992:7)

Despite the importance of the wide role of the English language, there is no shared common opinion within different societies how it should be taught:

It is obviously difficult to think of one and only language politics within a culture which is socially differenced, which misses the mutual values where there is not a single opinion for the issues of educational targets.

(Protherough /King 1995:4-6)

According to Wardhugh an individual realizes the importance of using a language for everyday activities and habits, to be able to overcome the doubts and uncertainties, and the fear of being able to maintain self- confidence in the outside world.

Routines, patterns, rituals, stereotypes of everyday existence provide us with many of the means for coping with that existence, for reducing uncertainty and anxiety and for providing us with the appearance of stability and continuity in the outside world.

(Wardhugh 1985:21)

To achieve that self-confidence, continual normative rules and judgments must be established agreeing to the terms of usage and the tradition of usage.

In the absence of any formal enactment or judiciary recognition, linguistic norms are not only capable of being abrogated by 'established usage'; they have no effective existence at all unless they are confirmed by the tacit agreement of usage... in matters of grammar, no ought is effective unless it is confirmed by an is, and whatever there is, needs the support of a multiplicity of oughts....No one can deny that traditions of usage are maintained by continual normative judgments.

(Haas,1982:5-7)

In the quote below, Sprat offers another solution for these problems.

The society had been most vigorous in putting in execution, the only remedy that can be found for this extravagance and that has been a constant Resolution to reject all amplifications, digressions and swellings of style; to return to the primitive purity and shortness when medn deliver'd so many things almost in an equal number of words.

(Sprat 1959:113)

The usage of language could be somehow connected to the linguistic behavior of the individual who could either insist to belong to a group or to be unlike that group:

...individual creates for himself the patterns of his linguistic behavior so as to resemble those of the group or groups with which from time to time he wishes to be identified or as to be unlike those from whom he wishes to be distinguished.

(Le Page and Tabouret-Keller 1985:181)

In today's world we are surrounded by English in the media, films (movies), papers, books, computers and social networks, while all other languages are pushed aside so the individuals try to be part of the group where English is in the center, as also confirmed by Pennycook:

When language is so much written in and which so much present in media, it constantly pushes other languages aside, decreasing their use both in qualitative and quantitative sense.

(Pennycook 1994: 13-4)

This does not mean that the other languages will vanish but the point is that English will become a universally used language, as pointed out by George as well:

Other languages will remain, but will remain only as the obscure Patois of the world, while English will become the grand medium for all the businesses of government, for commerce, for law, for science for literature, for philosophy and divinity. Thus it will really be a universal language for the great material and spiritual interests of mankind.

(George,1867:6)

The universality is also connected to the local use of English because, whilst it is an international tool of communication, it is a native language to/for a number of people as well, as seen in the following statement by Yano:

Glocal language a term which was coined from global and local and refers to the fact that English is at the same time means for international communication and means for expressing identity of those that are used it

(Yano 2001:124)

A mutual relationship is created within the standard English, so the language itself becomes influenced by the non-standard, that is, by its different dialects and variants' of which Bartsch states the following:

Within one language as diasystems there is inter influence of standard and non standard variations, so that through a social mobility and influence of the mass media, non standard variations are becoming closer to the standard and the standard itself is being "vernaculized".

(Bartsch,1987:278)

Primary changes usually occur among speakers during their conversations and discussions in their minds and it takes some time before they are put on paper, or, as Wyld puts it:

Drama of language development is played on the lips and in minds of living beings, not in the books and written documents that is, changes are made firstly in the speech.

(Wyld,1927:44)

1.6 Standard English

According to Svetlana R. Stojic, Standard English, regardless of its potential variants, language functions as a homogeneous system. In her book “The Standardization of English Language”, she recognizes the following characteristics of Standard English:

- **Uniqueness**, which is the main linguistic characteristic in standardization in suppressing of the optional variants on all levels of language structure as in phonology, orthography, grammar and lexicology.
- **Autonomy**, as it is regarded as an unique independent language system since it does not represent variety, some higher idiom regarding the other languages, but it is separate and unique although that is characteristic to each idiom regarding the similar ones.
- **Literacy**, here only in orthographic system the whole standardization has been achieved
- **Codification**, that is attempt to create single phase norm of use and one variant is really identified as language
- **Modernization**, adjustability to the standard language to the necessities of the society where it is used
- **Intertextuality**, higher-level of abstractness and objectivity on behalf of the efficiency which enables satisfaction of higher cultural necessities in the sphere of science, technique as well as in ordinary conversation.
- **Internationalization**, connected to modernization and intertextuality as it enables and helps communication through national and language borders.
- **Potential variant** which refers to the possibility to more parallel standardizations of the same language sometimes due to different cultural political and economic and geographic conditions.

(R.Stojic 2005:241-244)

Three "cycles" of nations where English is used have been identified and they are as defined by Clyne et al. in the following:

The term Inner circle where English is used as the primary language such as in the United States, United Kingdom, Australia and Canada, Outer circle countries such as India and Singapore and expanding circle countries China, Japan, Korea and Egypt.

(Clyne et al 2008:31)

Thus, the questions that are also imposed are:

“Can varieties be accepted as standard?”

“How much grammar variation is possible?”

Such questions about norms and standards mainly focus on limited, grammatical and phonological variations resulting from the spread of English worldwide. Although, there is no clear definition for the standardization of English, language speakers use this expression as they know perfectly what it refers to. George Sampson 1925 expressed the opinion that Standard English should not even be defined, with which also Crowley agrees:

There is no need to define Standard English speech. We knew what it is and there is an end on't. We know Standard English when we hear it just as we know when a dog, when we see it without the aid of definition. Or to put it in another way we know what is not Standard English and that is sufficiently practical guide. One wants a definite example of Standard English we can tell him that it is kind of English spoken by simple unaffected young Englishman like the Prince of Wales.

(Crowley 1989:246)

Standard language is not isolated from the other aspects and forms in the society; on the contrary, it is integrated in all spheres of life. This is also supported by Downes:

In that way standard language also becomes “social institution and part of abstract, uniting identity of great and internally differenced community.

(Downes 1984:34)

Sometimes, language can be seen as a symbol for a whole group and a sign of recognition when different groups are compared to each other, which is also witnessed in Weinreich's statement below:

People become aware for the characteristics of their language when compared to the others exactly in situation of language contact and pure standard language then becomes symbol of group integrity.

(Weinreich 1953:100)

Language should be generally seen as a basis of a group and it must have certain norms and rules. Any exceptions to these rules just refer to either historical, social or some other circumstances. Similarly, Bugarski argues that

Standardization is an essential characteristic of language in general and norms of some idioms are nothing but special cases, optional and derivational as their own crystallization that some language communities consciously take in certain historical and social circumstances.

(Bugarski 1986:216)

Standardization is also the basis for literate language, to be distinguished from the other languages. The standardization is made with certain purpose:

Literate languages do not differ from the others by the fact that they are standardized but how they are consciously standardized, standardized over spontaneous measure.

(Katicic 1971:42)

Sometimes languages contain diversity that can be seen and understood in the same way when written and spoken language are compared.

Descriptivism points out the change is regarding the stability diversity opposite to / versus monobasic, use/ opposite to / versus? authority and spoken opposite to / versus written language .

(Drake 1977:1)

During the process of standardization, the level of importance between the things that *should* be done and *might* be done is shifted, as emphasised by Nash in his claim below that

almost all prescriptions are negatively framed so that things that should be done or that should be avoided become more important than things that might be done

(Nash 1986:132)

Sometimes negative things arise from the disorder which comes from the misunderstanding between real usage and real information in language, as also pointed out by Quirk:

Level to which prescription is seriously or pathologically in disorder to the real usage is in large measure a direct result of permanent absence of real information and at the same time for linguists represents critics and challenge

(Quirk 1968:70-1)

The ideology of language prescriptivism is defined as language norms and rules that certain people consider as the best for use in order to have efficient communication, as can be seen in the quote by Kroch/Small below

Language prescriptivism is ideology that guardians of standard language use to impose their own language norms on people who have their own perfectly useful norms.

(Kroch/Small 1978:45)

However, the norms and rules which are defined by language prescriptivism are not determined by newscasters but, instead, the newscasters are defined by such norms and rules, as observed by Joseph:

The fact is that the newscasters do not determine rules and norms; the rules and norms determine the newscasters. Individuals are chosen for the position largely on the basis of their linguistic traits- including voice quality – and how great a cross section of the audience these traits are likely to appeal to.

(Joseph 1987:119)

Nevertheless, linguistic norms, codification and determination are things that must be learnt and used by all citizens in order to achieve correct forms of communication.

When it comes to codification it is very necessary for each ambitious citizen to learn the correct forms and when he is writing, not to use the irregular forms that he might use in his own native dialect.

(Hudson 1980:33)

The linguistic component is not something that is isolated but it is deeply connected to the attitudinal social norms, all of which are connected to the direct experience of the speaker.

Relation of behavioral component of the attitude to social norms becomes stronger, excellent regarding the other two components which development requires relevantly direct experience.

(Vlahovic 1997:67)

Triandis defines attitudes as a complex made of distinct parts:

Attitudes are complex as they are made of three components: cognitive, affective and behavioral.

(Triandis 1971:3)

Norms, rules, and components that were previously mentioned are included in a great number of typologically distinct varieties and dialects. Still, English in its standard form is spoken in more than 60 countries. These observations are also supported in the statement by Cheshire below.

Only a few centuries ago the English language consisted of a collection of dialects spoken mainly by monolinguals and only within the shores of a small island. Now, it includes such typologically distinct varieties as pidgins and creoles 'new' Englishes and a range of differing standard and non-standard varieties that are spoken on a regular basis in more than 60 different countries around the world.

(Cheshire 1991:1)

Various variants and dialects are spoken in the English speaking countries on a daily basis, but still there are people, who need to use English for specific purposes and, therefore, they have to learn and then apply the standard forms in use in their country. This can also be seen in Kroch/Small's statement below.

Ideology helped by guards of standard language imposes its language norms on people who have their own perfectly useful norms already

(Kroch/Small,1978:45)

In the same vein, Giles developed his speech accommodation theory according to which

Standard forms of pronunciation will have highest status while the strongest regional varieties will have the lowest

(Giles 1980:29)

In general terms, certain linguists have defined English as a social dialect. It applies to great number of groups of people and one such group is especially important and strong in Great Britain. Among those linguists is Cox, who argues that

Standard English is also a social dialect: its use is a marker of social group membership and the relationship between standard and non-standard dialects ad social class in Britain is particularly strong.

(Cox,1991:28)

In his Pronunciation Dictionary from 1836, Smart defined variants with the help of his representative speakers, while the common standard dialect is defined in the following:

The common standard dialect is that in which all marks of a particular place and residence are lost and nothing appears to indicate any other habits of intercourse than with the well bred and well informed wherever they may be found

(Mugglestone 1995:54)

In the Enclosure of Oxford Dictionary of English Language from 1933, Standard English is defined as the form of English language which is spoken by individual and local modified majority of polite people in Great Britain, and Sherman's view of the same can be observed in the following statement:

The perfection and grace with which one speaks his mother tongue is justly regarded as an index of its culture and associations we instinctively gauge the cultivation of men by their pronunciation as well as by their spelling and grammar.

(Sherman 1885: iii)

Beside this general understanding of this variant, Levitt/Levitt provide definitions of all spheres of its implementation:

Standard English is the name given in this country to that form of language which is most readily understood everywhere. It is approximately the English spoken by BBC announcers on the national programmes, it is recommended and taught by schools and colleagues; it is what is usually meant by 'The Queen's English' ... The chief value of SE is in its usefulness.

(Levitt/Levitt, 1959:132)

Wyld considers that speech standard variant (accepted Standard English) is a class dialect:

"By the side of these (regional dialects) there are numerous other types of English that are not characteristic for any special geographic area, but rather of social divisions or sections of population of these. the chief type which most well bred people think of when they speak of English, in regards to its name, it may be called Good English, Well-bred English, Upper-class English and it is sometimes, too vaguely referred to as Standard English. For reasons which will soon appear it is proposed here to call Received Standard English. This form of speech differs from various regional dialects in many ways, but most remarkably in this, that it is not confined to any locality, nor associated in any one's mind with any special geographical area; it is in origin... the product of social conditions and it is essentially a Class Dialect. Received Standard is spoken within social boundaries with an extraordinary degree of uniformity all over the country

(Wyld, 1936:2-3)

In any discussion on the frames of social dialect, it has to be remembered that it can belong to different social categories, as argued by Kress in the following:

Standard English is thus shown to be one specific conjunction of geographical and social dialects. It is the case that this one form of English has a particularly social dialects. It is the case that this one form of English has a particularly high status; fairly loosely and generally speaking, it is the language of those who enjoy a high level of education, wealth, economic and political power and live within the geographical (and social and cultural) ambit of London.

(Kress 1979:47)

In contrast, new orthodoxy opposes the opinion that Standard English is a social dialect and it should be regarded as superior to dialect, as also claimed by Marenbon:

At the center of new orthodoxy is its devaluation of Standard English. From this derives its opponents' hostility to grammatical prescription: because they do not believe that its grammar should be prescribed to children (a position they try to support by mistakenly insisting that grammar cannot prescribe); because they cannot accept that Standard English is superior to dialect, they insist that the language school children use can be judged only by its appropriateness.

(Marenbon 1987:251-2)

Basic English, which is limited to 850 words, is considered to be ordinary English, intended just to give readers as little trouble as possible, as exemplified by Richards' statement below.

Basic English, though it has only 850 words, is still normal English. It is limited in its words and its rules, but it keeps the regular forms of English. And though it is designed to give the learner as little trouble as possible, it is no more strange to the eyes of my readers than these lines, which are in fact in Basic English.

(Richards 1943:20)

One of the definitions that Quirk used is to define Standard English as a combination of the complex functions which include equally a grammar, a vocabulary and their use:

Standard English is ... that kind of English which draws least attention to itself over the widest area and through the widest range of usage ... this norm is complex function of vocabulary grammar and transmission, most clearly established in of one the means of transmission (spelling) and least clearly established in the other means of transmission (pronunciation).

(Quirk1962:95)

Every educated and intelligent person has to learn and be able to use the Standard form of language together with all changes that happen to the language. Similarly, Lloyd states that

Standard written English... is the tool of intelligence. Any thinking person must use it, because only this form of the language provides the instruments of delicate intellectual discrimination. And it is not static. As the needs of the intellect change, Standard English changes.

(Lloyd 1951: 287)

Another side of Standard English is that it is considered to be a tool for unity as well as for strengthening national power, as also claimed by Heath below.

Many people believe in Standard English as a semi-patriotic target which contributes to the national power and unity

(Heath 1980:31)

Individuals and groups of speakers accept the codification and standardization and their language abilities are judged according to those norms and rules. This is also supported by the statement below by Garvin and Mathiot.

The standard language serves as a frame of reference for speech usage in general by providing a codified norm that constitutes a yardstick for correctness. Individual speakers and groups of speakers are then judged by their fellows in terms of their observance of this yardstick

(Garvin/Mathiot 1968:368)

Although, Standard English has undergone a great number of changes and certain standardization and this has not stopped, i.e., changes and reforms occur in the language all the time. In this process, Steiner emphasises the role of conscious intentionality as can be seen in the following statement.

Development of standard language increases the role of conscious intentionality which is manifested through different forms of language reforms.

(Steiner 1982:14)

Another essential element included in the creation of Standard English is ethical formation, which is active in international communication and co-operation, as defined by Brozovic in the following.

It is important for the definition of the standard language that it is an autonomous type of language, always with norms and functionally polyvalent, which is created when an ethical or national formation participating in international civilization starts to use its own idiom which functioned previously only for the necessities of that ethical civilization.

(Brozovic 1970:28)

Yet another definition of Standard language is provided by Haugen:

The ideal aim of the standard language codification can be defined as minimal variation of the form and the elaboration as maximal variation of function.

(Haugen 1972:348)

During the process of education, special attention should be drawn to the acquisition of the Standard English, recognized as being of vital importance for the learners' future and prosperity, and Quirk describes the same aspect thus:

Children need to acquire Standard English. This is a matter of their educational progress, their career prospects, their social and geographical mobility

(Quirk 1990:7)

It is believed that certain prestigious groups wield great influence on Standard English from time to time, primarily under the influence of such groups, certain changes occur. Giles describes this process with the use of the imposed norm hypothesis:

Imposed norm hypothesis claims that standard dialect or accent obtains its prestige directly from the status of the social group that uses it. That is why the most acceptable pronunciation "the prettiest" or "the most pleasant" accent is simply because of its prestige and social connotations.

(Giles et al 1974:406)

It has to be accepted that it is a fact that, for each person who intends to have a good career, Standard English provides the ticket to a better position and prosperity, or, in Fairclough's words:

Standard English together with the accepted pronunciation is a passport for a good job and an influential position on national as well as on local level

(Fairclough 1989:58)

Increase in vocabulary is a continuous process. A vast number of words from various backgrounds enter into English every day. Cannon provides some explanation as to why foreign words are adopted in the following.

It would seem that most new loan words nowadays refer to new things for which the foreign term is taken over (so-called cultural borrowings) while the other factors are of minor importance. In addition, English has increased its range of donor languages.

(Cannon 1987:89)

The reason why the City of London is taken as a standard is the constant movement of people to and from the metropolis, which was especially evident during the fifties, sixties and seventies. Rosewarne agrees with this, as can be seen from his statement below.

The most likely reason for this is the eastward movement of “popular London “speakers from the east of the metropolis. With its origins in Victorian times, this movement was accelerated by the blitz and then by the municipal schemes in the fifties, sixties and seventies. The Estuary in question is then, the Thames estuary.

(Rosewarne 1994:4)

There are lots of correlations between different dialects that can be found in the literature, of which Winford provides an example in the following.

A general pattern of correlation between creole and lower status on one hand and acrolect (English and higher status) on the other is a fairly common feature of all the communities reported on in the literature.

(Winford 1991:572)

As was previously noted, Standard English is a passport to progress, so speakers, for example of African origin, can switch from dialect to the Standard English without any effort, as found by Sebba:

Young British black speakers switched routinely between Creole and London English. This switch indicates a culture for which this goal stands as an ideal; building your own place is a plausible goal in the Jamaican culture but very unusual in Britain, especially for a black person.

(Sebba 1993 :121)

1.7 Division of English

On the other hand, English is divided into a language of natives and non-natives, which gives rise to much discussion and sometimes even to very unpleasant situations. This has also been observed by Christophersen albeit in a slightly happier mood:

What I am unhappy about is a tendency to assume that there is a mysterious, semi-mystical difference between two groups of people, natives and non-natives, a difference which affects forever the way their minds work when handling the language concerned.

(Christophersen 1990:62)

This is a very common situation, especially in the countries which used to be under British governance and where resistance grows from time to time, as also witnessed by Tripathi:

The partisans of English keep discoursing on its value as a status symbol in countries previously governed by the British, but appear oblivious of the resistance it breeds.

(Tripathi 1992:9)

It has to be presumed and, at the same time, accepted that the English spoken outside England and that in the United States share the same constructions and have deep roots in all the spoken and written variants, of which Miller's comment below can serve as an example.

On a wider scale we would have to recognize that Scottish English shares constructions with the English of Canada and the Southern United States.

(Miller 1933:99)

There is much controversy connected to these variations and Standard English, one instance of which is exemplified by Filppula in the following:

The influence of Irish on the grammar of Hiberno-English is more controversial. One grammatical construction characteristic of Hiberno English is exemplified by the following expression. 'It's looking for more land a lot of them are'. This structure is known as clefting and in standard British would be 'A lot of them are looking for more land'./'What most of them are looking for is more land'(perhaps better?).

(Filppula 1991:55)

The biggest danger to Standard English is the improper education that might be obtained through badly thought out theories, as argued by Brooks below.

Its most dangerous enemy he says is not education properly understood but miseducation: foolishly incorrect theories of what constitutes good English an insist on

spelling pronunciations and the propagation of bureaucratise, sociologese and psychologese, which American business, politics and academies seem to exclude as a matter of course.

(Brooks 1985:53)

When English is learnt as a second language, it can be very well ruled by non-native speakers and the fact that it is not the native language should not be an obstacle

A second language, in contrast may well be one learned in school, too, but one used within the learner's country for official purposes, i.e 'by the government for its own internal operating and promoted through the power of the state'.

(Conrad and Fishman 1977:8)

The huge influence that English has, can be illustrated by the fact that even in countries where there are two or more official languages, English is the superior one, as illustrated by Labrie in the following.

Language retention for English in Canada is given as 111,4 percent, which means that English is spreading at the cost of other languages;

(Labrie 1988:1309)

Still, there are certain groups of people who want to reduce the influence of English and to separate variants into independent linguistic identities. Avis provides an example from Canada:

Not the least of the factors contributing to the independence of Canadian English are the attitudes of Anglophone Canadians which strongly support a separate linguistic identity

(Avis 1983:4,11)

Remnants of colonialism still exist, especially in Africa, where English is learnt only through education, and so many people cannot benefit from its use. This is also pointed out by Kanyoro below.

Opponents counter that English is a language foreign to Africa and to African thought and carries the stigma of colonialism. Because English is acquired only through the educational system, it excludes the majority of Kenyans from participating in the development of their own country.

(Kanyoro 1992:415)

There is another fact which indicates that English in certain of its geographical areas has influence only in the urban but not in rural areas, of which Myers-Scotton gives the following example.

One estimate suggests that in Nairobi over half of the population know English but the proportion of English speakers is much lower in rural areas.

(Myers-Scotton 1993b:38)

Speech genres are yet another problem, and Bakhtin defines them as follows.

Speech centres are such fictions as where the listener and any speaker presupposes not only the existence of the language system he is using but also the existence of preceding utterances – his own and those of others, with which his given utterance enters into one kind of relation or another.

(Bakhtin 1992:69)

China is also one of the countries where English is only learnt as a second language, and certain social expressions and idioms are related to cultural and social conditions (in China), as shown in Cheng's comment below.

It does, however contain several expressions and idioms related to cultural and social conditions in China in 1970s. Chin-Chuan Cheng comments Iron and steel and hat factories and caps are fabricated to force upon someone's head (to label) and phrase means 'wanton attack'

(Cheng 1992:170)

Continuous changes and miscellaneous uses cause numerous problems in communication, which is emphasized further especially when Standard English is used for international communication.

Graddol et al. also acknowledge this problem:

Diversity and change have often been seen as problems in English as well as in other languages. I also look then at the debate surrounding an appeal by a prominent linguist for a single standard variety of English to be used throughout the international community.

(Graddol et al 1996:3)

Social factors are especially important and noticeable in the context of the mass media, which play the most important role in wide use of English. To this, Haralambos adds social control:

Mass media in modern industrial societies act “as means of social control”

(Haralambos (1986:28)

Although linguists want to emphasize their role,, they are unable to have much of an impact on the influence of the mass media.

Bell considers that the neglecting of the mass media came among the other, as result that linguists believe that they can influence the educational system but not the mass media.

(Bell 1983:39)

Another factor that should be taken into consideration is the existence of formal education as basis for indicating good and bad language. In the same context, Bloomfield argues that

There is a belief that members of the [speaking] communities who speak one language without dialectic differences and that have no alphabet and/ or?/nor? a system of formal education, would not make any difference between good and bad language.

(Bloomfield 1927:394)

The social factor is equally involved in removing of the improper forms from language as they are in mutual interrelation. Moving even further, Leitner connects social standards and those of speech:

The case for such attempts to level up pronunciation as put forward by Mr. Lloyd James is that it is the business of State education to remove improper or at any rate socially unpopular forms of speech behavior, because this is in practice an obstacle to getting on it in the world. ‘You cannot raise social standards without raising speech standards’, he says

(Leitner 1983:62)

Social, political and cultural prejudices can lead to esthetic judgments or, as Trudgill puts it:

Esthetic judgments that are given are actually “the result of one conglomerate of social cultural, regional, political and personal associations and prejudices “

(Trudgill 1983a:225)

Varieties are not isolated when we refer to certain communication. On the contrary, they are connected to all the previously mentioned factors and certainly to people as they are primarily involved in that communication. Romaine’s reflections on the same issue are as follows:

Research for mutual comprehension does not refer that much to language relations between varieties as to social relations, because people not varieties mutually understand or do not understand.

(Romaine,1994:14)

Each variety has its own characteristics and it takes a great deal of time, attention and work to classify the types of variety. Beal explains his way of dealing with this problem below.

A vast amount of research would be needed in order to quantify the amount and type of a variation for each feature, so for the time being I have presented these feature as if they were invariable. It is important to remember that this is an idealization.

(Beal 1993:192)

Variety, language similarity and mutual comprehension may not be easily understood and the relationship between them cannot be seen directly. Corder sees this relationship slightly differently:

There is no clear relation between language similarity and mutual comprehension. Primarily, it could be said that there is a subjective socio-psychological dimension of mutual comprehension.

(Corder:1973:53)

A great amount of research has been done into language. As a result, among other things, creative writing has replaced grammar in the classroom. On this subject, Carter argues that

During the sixties and the seventies, the grammar completely disappeared from the classroom and left its place to creative writing. Besides that, it was less and less spoken about correct language and more for the use which suitability depends on the context.

(Carter 1995:7)

Innovations in language together with research into language have found their own place in the community. It must be emphasized that this is not an isolated instance accepted only by one individual speaker, but by a group of speakers in the community:

Speaker of the community that receives the innovation is willing from some reason to identify with the speakers from the community where the innovation comes from.

(Milroy,1992:182)

Language community may impose certain situations and dialects as a norm or a rule although the speakers of that community know that, although it is a widely accepted standard, it is still a decision that only that community can make.

In language community it is widely accepted a variety which becomes over dialect norm but also the best form of a language which evaluated more than the regional and social dialects although it is known that the other are appropriate in certain domains.

(Ferguson 1971:224-225)

Vocabulary based regional variations are virtually only found when they are connected to the traditional dialects. This is also agreed by Trudgill as shown in the following.

Regional variation in vocabulary is infrequent outside the traditional dialects. Where it does exist, it is often restricted to the domestic, the local the jocular of the juvenile.

(Trudgill1990:119)

However, researchers are very interested in finding out the reasons why borrowings take, or do not take, place between certain variations. Leisi takes this somewhat further by stating that

Scholars have also enquired into the less subjective and more linguistic reasons why items are or are not borrowed from the one variety into the other.

(Leisi 1985:227)

Although this thesis focuses on the variants that exist in British and American English, there are numerous other types of English, which all have their own standards that they can apply and use in their particular region. Similarly, Verma notes the following:

We must note that English does not necessarily mean British or American English. There are a number of standard Englishes for there are several English-speaking countries in each of which there is a Standard English peculiar to that country.

(Verma 1982:175)

New cities that were created especially in the new continents and English colonies contributed to the creation of new dialects and accents, to which notion Kersvill adds the following.

New cities are predecessor of dialects and accents leveling what went on in whole England.

(Kersvill 1996:299)

Simpson commented the following on the problems with the two variants.

Francis Lieber, editor of Encyclopedia Americana 1830, wrote that many troubles which result from the differences between these two variants could be stopped and mix-ups regarding taste, correctness and correct choice of speaking form would be avoided.

(Simpson 1986:41)

According to Radovanovic, this is true because

Once established, variant differences tend to become deeper and to develop.

(Radovanovic 1986:181)

Fowler, on the other hand, identifies those who are attracted to the more elegant variations as follows.

It is the second-rate writers those intent rather on expressing themselves prettily than on conveying their meaning clearly & still more those whose notions of style are based on a few misleading rules of thumbs that are chiefly open to the allurements of elegant variation.

(Fowler 1926:130-1)

Nevertheless, RP (Received Pronunciation), or BBC English, appealed to various people at different levels of the society, as shown in the statement by McCrum below.

Within British isles, the spread of RP by the BBC, first on radio, then on television, helped to reinforce what was an already strong connection in many people's minds between education and 'Standard English'- usually perceived as the pronunciation found in the public schools, the universities, the professions, the government and church. The Influence of this association was in its day enormous, even though RP was spoken by only 3 percent of the British population, a tiny fraction of the world's English speaking community.

(McCrum et al 1992:18)

That RP, or BBC English, was confirmed as a true standard was thanks to the fact that it was frequently identified as the English of Eton or Christ Church. On the other hand, it could have been called Oxford English to give that label to the English language. However, that would not have been proper, as noted by Chapman below.

This is clearly intended by a phrase with which I am familiar 'the English of Eton and Christ Church'. If Oxford English means either of these things- and I think it is used to mean both- it can be shown to be an inaccurate label. There is really nothing which can with propriety be called Oxford English.

(Chapman 1932:540-1)

Thus, RP can be defined as a standard which is recognized all over the country, used by administration and courts, and it is the language of the educated population of Britain, as also witnessed by Ellis below.

In the present day, we may, however, recognize that a Received Pronunciation can be found all over the country, not widely differing in any particular locality and, admitting certain degree of variety...It may be especially considered as the educated pronunciation of the metropolis, of the court, the pulpit and the bar.

(Ellis,1869:23)

Meanwhile, it should be remembered that also other terms exist that are used instead Received Pronunciation, of which McArthur provides examples in the following.

Wyld also uses the term Public School English and beside that in the literature there are also terms General British, Standard southern pronunciation and standard (spoken) British English while among the speakers in England RP is frequently mentioned only as Standard English.

(McArthur 1992:851)

There are many other, different definitions of Received Pronunciation, one of which is provided by to Holmes as follows.

RP stands not for Real Posh but rather for Received Pronunciation – the accent of the best educated and the most prestigious members of English society. It is a claimed label deriving from the accent which was received at the royal court and it is sometimes identified with Queen's English although accent used by Queen Elisabeth II is a rather old fashioned variety of RP.

(Holmes 1992:13)

It could also be argued that Received Pronunciation can be perceived by many to be associated with positive attributes and characteristics, as also noted by Lette:

Most of the English population equate good articulation with higher IQs better looks, cleanliness, sex appeal and reliability. It's called Received Pronunciation

(Lette 1993:97-8)

A similar aspect connected to RP regarding class is provided by Cutforth in the following.

An interesting impression of RP voice in 1950s is presented by the case of a BBC journalist, whose voice sounds like all the self conscious superiorities of both caste and intellect rolled together.

(Cutforth 1955:146)

Slightly off the topic, on the subject of word sets in which RP and General American have differences, Lewis recognized four significant sets.

There are four important sets of words in which RP and General American generally differ in the vowel choose/ choice/chosen. The largest and better known is the set of so-called bath-words, which have /æ/ in General American and /ɑ:/ in RP. This set is defined by the occurrence of a spelling a followed by s. Only 300 words fulfill these conditions and only one third have /ɑ:/ in RP and the remainder have /æ/ in both varieties.

(Lewis 1968-9:65)

A great number of linguists are reluctant to admit that there are dialects and variants of English language and simply recognize only the Standard English while regarding the rest of the variants almost as mere foreign languages. This is also the case with Fowler, as can be seen below.

Fowler confines his attention largely to British English not because he is ignorant of other varieties, but because he regards them almost as foreign languages. In an earlier book, he firmly stated that Americanisms are foreign words and should be so treated; that is, treated on a par with words from French or German, with no [more]intention thereby to insult American English than these other languages.

(Fowler and Fowler 1905:11)

Similarly, the other side of the ocean, young American learners do not want to accept RP, but easily accept the American pronunciation over the Standard English.

For good or ill, the younger speakers of first-language English regard American pronunciation as a norm and a teenager who wishes to disguise his regional or class accent finds it easier to do this by learning American rather than by attempting Standard English.

(Burgess 1964:195)

According to Quirk, the English tend not to affix less emotional value to sentence structure but are more passionate about vocabulary, whereas it is the opposite with Americans:

sentences have lower symbolic and emotional power in Britain than in the USA but dictionary among British is “a bible”.

(Quirk 1974:148-65)

Beside other things, one of the reasons that has to be taken into consideration in the adoption of Standard English is the individual's origins, which can be noticed in the speech although with difficulty. Sometimes it is very difficult to abandon one's roots. An anecdotal example of this is provided by O'Neill below.

He lived in Yorkshire since his college days... Yet not a trace of his Irish has he dropped in all these years. Must be going to night classes. Then again, perhaps it isn't so odd. I've travelled the world, teaching. Don't suppose my accent's changed noticeably. Still crisp, professional, BBC orthodox. Received, they used to call it. Must be nice being Irish, it occurred to her suddenly. You can be educated and successful and still sound as if you come from somewhere.

(O'Neill,1994:59)

For the determination of a speaker's social class, different indicators are available. Among these, the most common are the names for meals, as also noted by Smith:

Meals names are well known class indicators:

Any Englishman who does call lunch dinner indicates at once and for sure to any other Englishman that he hails from somewhere below the middle of the middle class

(Smith 1985:153)

Sometimes it is difficult for people to understand each other if they are talking in different dialects and that can lead to misunderstandings. This has also been observed by Cottle, as shown below.

The comprehension of a dialect can lead to disturbance in communication

... Northern lorry driver in Bristol was genuinely delayed and (when all the horns were sounding behind him) puzzled at the dockside notice Wait while the lights are flashing – they weren't, but he dutifully waited until they were.

(Cottle 1975:69)

Mencken gives another example with the noun "baggage":

An American, by his boasting of the superiority of all the American generally, but especially of their language, once provoked me to tell him that 'on that head, the least said, the better' as the Americans presented the extraordinary anomaly of a people without a language. That they had mistaken the English language for a baggage (which is called plunder in America) and stolen it.

(Mencken 1977:30)

American and British variants and their speakers are trying to convince one another that one or the other is more correct than the other. There are many comments by the Americans that British accent is clipped, as shown by Stevens in the following.

British accents are often thought of as clipped by Americans, possibly because of the greater tension and lesser degree of lengthening in stressed vowels

(Stevens 1972:78)

To the English, Americans appear to try in every way and in every possible situation to give their opinions and present their new forms in the field of language such as new modes of spelling, words, phrases and even politics, which the English tend to find hard to swallow, as shown by the following statement by Graham.

The Americans are well known to set great store by liberty and of course we have no right whatever to interfere with their opinions concerning principles or forms of political government. But, it becomes a serious matter for themselves, probably by way of showing their independence, new modes of spelling; and they are perpetually introducing all sorts of meanings, words and phrases, none of which have the remotest title to be called English.

(Graham 1869:167)

A further point worth considering is the domination that Americans want to have that is so evident they do not want to accept the fact that, for example, France defends itself against American linguistic colonialism all the time, which also Kahane point out in the following.

As French was twice in its history a world language, some Americans consider the dominance of America a stroke against the dignity of France, which persistently defends itself from Americanisms, which they consider to be a symbol of colonialism and language lending and a betrayal?.

(Kahane 1983:233-5)

Politics regarding language development is of great importance to Americans, and, for them, it and the future of the country are of equal significance, as also witnessed in the statement by Dicker below..

While we observe development of language politics in the USA, also we observe the future of the nation.

(Dicker,1996:250)

Although Americans like to present unity, they have to accept the fact that there are numerous differences in American English between the North and the South, as also illustrated in the following comment by Feagin.

The most noticeable and probably the greatest regional contrast is that between North and South. This division is in addition to vocabulary and pronunciation differences, underscored to some extent at least by grammatical features.

(Feagin 1979:258)

There are several dialects in everyday use in America, some of which are spoken by native peoples, further defined By Waggoner below.

Non-immigrant and non-colonial languages are still in daily use in some native American environments. About half a million of the more than one million American Indians and Alaskan natives can speak their traditional languages

(Waggoner 1988:82)

As regards prosodic elements of pausing in speech, Williams and his associates observed differences in teachers' evaluations of black and white students, the details of which are shown in the following.

Results showed that both black and white teachers evaluated white children as culturally advanced and black as culturally dropped back although white teachers such evaluation expressed in higher level.

(Williams et al 1976:113-128)

After independence, the discussion in America on the national language or national variant of English lasted for a long period of time and, during that time, the American variant of English was codified by means of grammar, language manuals and dictionaries. In the part titled “Dissertation on the English language” from 1789, Webster stood for the establishment of an American standard not only for national, but also for practical reasons. Tucker provides more detailed description of Webster’s views below.

Our political harmony is concerned with the uniformity of language.

As in independent nation our honor requires us to have a system of our own in language as government. Great Britain whose children we are and whose language we speak should no longer be our standard for the state of her writers is already corrupted and her language on her decline. But if it were not so, she is at too great a instance to be our model and to instruct us in the principles of our own tongue ... (for) within a century and a half North America will be peopled with hundred millions of men all speaking the same language (isolation new idea, intercourse with native peoples will produce in a course of time a language in North America as different from a future language of England as the modern Dutch, Danish and Swedish from the German or from one another

(Tucker, 1961:136-7)

Webster was already seventy years old when in 1828 he published a new dictionary titled “An American Dictionary of the English Language” in two volumes, containing approximately 70.000 words. In the preface, he speaks of the necessity of a common language inheritance with Britain to be preserved and language divergence observed as a consequence of natural development, not as a result of political and cultural imperative. His ideas are provided in more detail by Friend as follows.

It is not only important but in a degree necessary, that the people of this country should have an American Dictionary of the English language for although the body of the language is the same as in England and it is desirable to perpetuate the sameness yet same differences must exist:

“...No person in this country will be satisfied with the English definitions of the words congress, senate, assembly, court for although these are words used in England yet they are applied in this country to express the ideas which they do not express in that country...”

“... A great number of words in our language require to be defined in a phraseology accommodated to the condition and institutions of the people in these states. The necessity of a Dictionary suited to the people of the United States is obvious.”

(Friend, 1967:48)

Standard American English is called General American or Network English. The term General American refers to the variety without distinguishable dialectical or regional characteristics.

In an enclosure to Oxford dictionary, Burchfield defines it as a form of American English taught to foreigners, which is a clinically analyzed form of speech and is not used by the majority of Americans. More on his views are provided below.

It may be true that there is a form of Standard American to which all Americans ultimately aspire. If there is I have not yet encountered it though the several approximations to one standard spoken form tend to merge into one in written form of the language when the copy editors of newspapers and of books and journals have done their work. What one finds in American/America? is a series of freeranging, self assertive, unrestrained regional forms of English.

(Burchfield, 1989:122)

Educated American speech is another name for the standard variant of speech, on which opinions vary as can be seen from Robertson’s comments below.

Educated American speech then is historically neither a form of nor a departure from British Received Standard. Even within the United States, no single standard of pronunciation is now accepted, speakers of main regions pronounce in their own way and nobody expects the cultivated Chicagoan to add to the speech of Charleston nor the cultivated Charlestonian to imitate Boston or Philadelphia. The differences in no way deter communication; therefore, several regional standards coexist comfortably –adding in fact a pleasant variety which standardizations, if it could be achieved, would only destroy.

(Roberston, 1954:405)

As codification of English language was made simultaneously in Britain and the United States, two variants of this language have been created. The process of further development of the English language on the opposite sides of the Atlantic proposed appearance of differences due to different ways of life and different language contacts, which, in essence, do not destroy their common structure as the standard language variants have mutual system of norms.

The differences between the variants are insignificant as regards grammar and syntax since the basic grammatical rules are identical, and the most emphasized differences are on the phonological level, that is, in pronunciation and lexemes. These differences are of purely linguistic nature, but, in principle, the variants do not only have a linguistic but also a socio-linguistic aspect.

When referring to the differences between the variants, we usually speak about Americanisms and Briticisms. The first dictionary of Americanisms was compiled by John Pickering and printed in 1816 with the title “A Vocabulary or Collection of Words and Phrases,” which has been regarded as being particular to the United States of America.

In comparison, the term Briticism was coined by an American, Richard Grant White, and first appeared in 1868, but not many in England were prepared to accept the term. Clyne et al describe Peters’ ideas in more detail in the following.

Peters draws attention to particular lexical and orthographic features being preferred in particular regions or continents because of British and American spheres of influence underling(s)? the continued dominance of these inner circle variants above the other.

Non acceptance of pragmatic studies and discourse variation is also significant. This has been discussed in contrastive pragmatics studies which have been focused on levels of directness on speech acts such as requests, complaints and apologies. So, it can be assumed that although there is general consensus to many issues and positive disposition to a more symmetrical pluricentricity there is usually silence when there is discussion on the pragmatic and conceptual level .

(Clyne et al 2008:31)

Communication is an essential link between meaning and action in organizations. Language forms are key to the aspects of culture. Language can have a significant effect on global performance by means of influencing the degree of success in the communication process within/between global teams.

Linguistic diversity also raises a number of issues that are particularly related to the use of language. More significant in terms of context are the fields that examine meaning and use of language in social and cultural contexts.

Differences can also occur between native speakers of different variants of English. For example, the English word “data” is pronounced differently by native speakers in the US and in the UK. Certain differences in the syntax can occur even within the varieties of native English.

Closely related to pragmatics is sociolinguistics, the study of the effect of any or all aspects of society, including normal expectations and the context of the way language is used.

By definition, how language differs according to social factors between groups is what linguistics pursues to analyse, which requires socio-cultural analyses since differences in speaking vary from culture to culture.

The emergence of movies, the radio and the TV, popular culture spread with tremendous speed through all types of mass media and thus the influence of American variants on different levels of language structure increased. Consequently, American pronunciation has had a tremendous influence on young people’s pronunciation in Britain, as also testified by Burgess’ statement below..

For good or ill, the younger speakers of English as a first language regard American pronunciation norm and teenagers who wish to disguise their regional or class-based accent find it easier to do this by learning American pronunciation rather than by attempting standard English.

(Burgess 1964:195)

The use of English language as an international language implies the need for constant research, discussion, comparison and implementation of the newly created conditions.

2.Methodology

Generally speaking, this doctoral thesis consists of two parts, the first of which is the theoretical part, where three levels of language are discussed, and which forms the source for the analysis made in the second part, that is, the Research part.

2.1. Subject of research

The subject of this research work is an Intra-lingual contrastive analysis of both the American and the British standard through contrasts that already exist at the levels of Phonology, Vocabulary and Grammar.

2.2 Aims of the research

The aim is to discuss, describe and analyse in detail the possible variations that may exist between the two variants and to define the status of the variants in Standard British and Standard American English as regards the existing literature. The hypothesis set in this doctoral thesis, is to be checked within the following areas:

Pronunciation

- Same spelling, different pronunciation
- Different spelling, same pronunciation

Vocabulary

- Different lexemes for the same terms
- Same lexemes for the same terms, partial differences in meaning
- Same lexemes with differences in style, connotation and frequency
- Euphemisms
- Politically correct expressions
- Language creativity – in reference to cultural reality

Grammar

- Differences in sentence structure
- Differences in the use of verb forms, including differences in frequency.

2.3. Tasks of research

The task of this research is to focus on the possible variants that might exist between Standard British English and Standard American English. The samples are chosen according to the set parameters and criteria and originate from the material used for this doctoral thesis and the Internet as another source. The frequencies are checked by means of

- using groups of native speakers (English and American);

- making use of the two existing corpora of the English language: *BNC* and *COCA* although it has to be emphasized that each covers a different time period; and
- utilizing two corresponding grammars: *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English*.

We start with the level of Phonology, where following areas will be analyzed:

- Same spelling, different pronunciation and
- Different spelling, same pronunciation

For the first of the above, **Same spelling, different pronunciation** refer to words which are spelled in the same way in the both variants but still there are differences in their pronunciation. Samples have been selected in the following way. Namely, the source was the Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Ten words for each letter of the alphabet are to be extracted randomly from words listed with two pronunciations in the dictionary. Then separate tables with these words are created to be given to the two groups of native speakers. The background details for these native speakers are nationality, education level and age. The first group is the British one, consisting of three females British, aged 60, Bachelor degree, aged 54, Bachelor's Degree and aged 31, Bachelor's Degree.

The members of the American group is made of two males American, aged 23, with Bachelor's Degree and the second aged 28, with Master's Degree and one female American, aged 32, with Bachelor's Degree)

To begin with, lists with the above-mentioned words are given to the native speakers and then they read them out recording them so that their pronunciation can be observed and analysed. To follow, their pronunciation of the words is compared with that of those given in Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Then, the results obtained are presented in diagrams and, based on them, conclusions are drawn regarding how many of the pronunciations of the selected words comply completely, partially or not at all with those in the reference book used.

In the second area of the phonological level, **Different spelling, same pronunciation**, refers to words which exist in both variants and they do have the same spelling but the pronunciation is the same. Samples are extracted from the material used in the theoretical part, i.e., *English around the world* by Yalop (ref), *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* by

David Crystal (ref) and *Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. The first two sources for samples have already been discussed in the theoretical part and therefore, they have been taken for further research. As part for the Longman dictionary, words were again selected at random, that is to say, words were chosen from those listed with different spellings. Words were organized in tables in alphabetic order and then their frequency was checked in the two corpuses, BNC and COCA. Another way to check it was to prepare questionnaires regarding the words used to be given to the two groups of native speakers, asking the following questions:

Do you recognize the words? (If the answer is yes) How often do you use them? Very often; rarely; never.

The results are presented in the form of diagrams and conclusions are drawn from them on how many words comply completely, partially or do not comply at all with the sources used.

The other linguistic level analyzed in the thesis is the lexical level, of which the first area is concerned with **Different lexemes for same terms**. The samples were taken from the following sources: *American English* by Albert H. Marckwardt (ref), *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* by David Crystal.

Words are organized in nineteen tables in alphabetical order, but not all tables have the same number of words, which means that the numbers in tables vary according to the samples found.

The frequency of the words is checked in two ways. Firstly, the samples chosen are checked against the two corpora BNC and COCA. Secondly, questionnaires are given to both groups of native speakers with the following questions:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

The results are presented in diagrams and conclusions are drawn based on how many words comply completely, partially or do not comply with the original material.

For the next area at this level, **Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences in meaning**, the sources for samples to be taken from are *American English* by Albert H. Marckwardt in 1958, and *Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*.

The total number of words analyzed is 105. Words that were taken from the first book above have already been discussed in the theoretical part while the words from the second were selected randomly from words that are listed with more than one meaning. They are organized in tables where their meanings in British and American English are given. The frequency of these words is checked in the same ways as already mentioned in the previous section, namely, by

using the two corpuses, BNC and COCA, and questionnaires to the native speaker groups with the following questions:

Do you recognize the words? (If the answer is yes) How often do you use them? Very often; rarely; never

The results thus obtained will be presented in diagrams and conclusions drawn based on how many words of the words comply completely, partially or not at all with the original sources.

The samples for the next area on the lexical level, **Same lexemes with differences in style, connotation and frequency**, are collected from the following sources: *A Survey of Modern English* by Stephan Gramley and Kurt –Michael Patzold 1992 and *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* by David Crystal 1987. These samples have already been discussed in the theoretical part and have also been used for further research.

The 50 words extracted from the above sources are given in tables with explanations of their meaning. The frequency of these words is checked like they were in the previous section.

As soon as the frequency of the words in question has been checked, the results obtained are given in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the words completely, partially or not at all comply with the meaning given in the original source.

The next part of the study focuses on the area of **Euphemisms**. The relevant samples have been already been discussed in the theoretical part. The source that used to check the frequency of these euphemisms is *American English* by Albert H. Marckward. The total number of samples extracted is 59 words, which are organized in tables. They are explained and their frequency is checked as in the previous sections. The results obtained are presented by means of diagrams and conclusions are made based on whether the findings comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

The area of this lexical level to follow as part of this research is **Politically correct expressions**. As in the previous areas, samples have been discussed in the theoretical part of this thesis. Certain books have been consulted but this is a more specific area and more research has been done on the Internet, more specifically, the samples are taken from www.scribd.com list of politically correct terms. 61 words thus obtained are organized in tables with their corresponding meanings explained. The frequency is checked in the two ways already described in the previous sections. Similarly, the results thus obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are

drawn based on whether the results comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

The last part of this level is the area of **Language creativity – in reference to cultural reality**. Relevant samples are taken from **American English** by Albert H. Marckwardt (1958). As with the previous areas, they have been discussed in the theoretical part.

The 57 words extracted are organized in tables with explanations given of their meaning. Their frequency is again checked in the same way as in the previous sections. After their frequency has been checked, diagrams are constructed to represent the results obtained and conclusions are made based on whether the findings comply completely, partly or not at all with the original source.

The third and final level of this part of the research is the grammatical level, because the pragmatic level requires further analysis and therefore is only covered in the theoretical part in reference to the lexical level. At this level two areas are analyzed:

- Differences in sentence structure
- Differences in use of verb forms, including differences in frequency

The first area of this level covers **Word order; Present Perfect Tense versus Past Simple Tense; and Sentences which contain the words *already, just, yet.***

As with the previously mentioned areas of research where the main hypothesis has been checked, samples are discussed in the theoretical part and have been used in the research part. For the first part of **Differences in sentences structure** samples have been taken from *Survey of Modern English* by Stephen Gramley, Kurt Michael Patzold. 5 pairs of sentences from British and American English are given in tables. Their frequency will be checked in two ways: using two grammars, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis, and using questionnaires to the two groups of native speakers, asking the following questions:

Do you recognize these pairs of sentences? (If yes) How often do you use? Very often; rarely; never

The results are presented in diagrams and conclusions are drawn based on whether they comply completely, partially or not at all with the original sources.

The second part is **Present Perfect tense versus Past Simple Tense**. There are a great number of samples which can be used for this area. For this research, it has been decided to use the Article by Merry Maxwell and Lindsay Clandfield.

The 5 pairs of sentences extracted have been placed in tables, which indicate British and American usage. Their frequency is checked in the same two ways as in the section above: using *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis and a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers, asking these questions:

Do you recognize these pairs of sentences? (If yes) How often do you use? Very often; rarely; never

To finish with, the findings are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

The third part of the grammatical level is **Sentences which contain the words just yet and already**. Once again, it has been decided to use the Article by Merry Maxwell and Lindsay Clandfield to obtain relevant sentences. The 5 pairs of sentences extracted are placed in tables showing British and American usage. Next, their frequency is checked in the same two ways as in the above section: with the use of the two grammars, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis and that of the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Do you recognize these pairs of sentences? (If yes) How often do you use? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

The second area to be analyzed at the grammatical level is **Differences in use of verb forms, including differences in frequency and Verb agreement with collective nouns**

For this area, samples are taken from *Survey of Modern English* by Stephen Gramley, Kurt Michael Patzold and the *Article* by Merry Maxwell and Lindsay Clandfield

The 5 pairs of sentences thus obtained from British and American English are given in tables. Their frequency is checked as in the previous section. The results are then presented in diagrams and conclusions on the basis of how much they comply, completely, partially or not at all, with original source.

The second part of this area is **Use of delexical verbs *have* and *take***. The samples are taken from the Article by Merry Maxweel and Lindsay Clandfield. The five pairs extracted are organized in tables and their frequency is checked in two ways: with the two grammars, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *A The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis and using a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers, asking the questions

Do you recognize these pairs of sentences? (If yes)

How often do you use? Very often; rarely; never.

The results are presented in diagrams and, basing on how well they comply (completely, partially or not at all) with the original source.

The third part focuses on **Use of auxiliaries and modals**. The samples are taken from the Article by Merry Maxweel and Lindsay Clandfield and the four pairs selected are organized in tables, with their frequency checked in two ways: with the two grammars, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *A The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis and using a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers, consisting of the following questions:

Do you recognize these pairs of sentences? (If yes) How often do you use? Very often; rarely; never.

The results are presented in diagrams and conclusions made based on whether they comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

The final part of this area at the grammatical level is **Past Tense Forms**, where Samples are taken from *Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. The ensuing 15 pairs of irregular verbs are organized in tables and their frequency checked in the same way as in the previous section. The results are then presented in diagrams and conclusions drawn based on whether they comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

It has to be emphasized that both corpora which have been used to check the frequency cover different periods. Namely, the British National Corpus covers the period until 1993 and The Corpus of Contemporary American until 2010. Also, lexemes which differ in their number of elements could not be compared and it is the same case with longer phrases.

3. Phonological part

The first section of the theoretical part of this study is focused on the differences that exist at the phonological level of English. In order to conduct correct and precise research, all

the previously noted issues should be taken into consideration when phonology is in question to avoid unwanted results, as also stated by Upward below,

Neglecting of the phonological principle led to that process of acquisition of literacy in English language and as a result of that it became difficult in the whole world and there are consequences in the process of studying, education and communication.

(Upward 1998:7)

There are a number of other factors that determine pronunciation and orthography when we look into the past and also when social and economic factors are included. Labov provides an example of this in the following.

This may be illustrated by the finding that initial voiceless th is realized progressively more often as a stop t or an affricate t θ than as fricative θ as the classification of the speaker changes from upper middle to lower middle, to working to lower class.

(Labov 1972:188-90)

Kenyon provides another example, this time on how one can tell just by a person's pronunciation where they come from:

In rural New England the opposition /o:/ to /ɔ:/:/ is maintained both before pre- and non prevocalic /r/ hoarse, boring /o:r/ but horse ,warring? /ɔ:/: or/, however, this opposition is highly recessive.

(Kenyon 1969:229)

3.1 Received Pronunciation versus General American

In this section, a comparison is made of two standards of English, namely, Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (Gen Am). First, the hypothesis set for this study is discussed in theory, and then later through the samples chosen and checked.

The objects analysed are in the realm of sounds, i.e., consonants and vowels, including their pronunciation, spelling (orthography), stress and intonation.

Taking into consideration the fact that the two standards, that is., RP and Gen Am, are widely accepted, all the facts and changes that occur on the phonological level are to be reviewed and compared. .

Firstly, it is to be defined what is referred to as Received Pronunciation, in other words, what the standard is that is used in most of the private schools in England by the upper classes

and which is no longer regarded as non regional standard. Yallop et al. provide a further definition in the following.

Still, many learners of English around the world, especially in the areas where Britain is still regarded as the home of the English language, are introduced to and accept Received Pronunciation (RP) as the 'best' or 'normal' pronunciation of English. The Received Pronunciation (RP) as the standard pronunciation was firstly described by the British phonetician Daniel Jones in his English Pronouncing Dictionary of 1917.

(Yallop et al.1999:31)

3.2 Sounds

Sounds in the English language are divided in two major groups: consonants and vowels.

Between RP and Gen Am, there is no difference in the number of consonants, twenty four. As for vowels, there are sixteen in Gen Am and twenty in RP.

3.2.1 Consonants

Both the variants in question are in equal terms when it comes to the system of consonants used, but still certain features can be discussed with regard to the place, the manner and force of articulation. These are defined by Gramley et al. as follows.

1. Place of articulation: there are four main ones (lips, alveolar or tooth ridge, the post-alveolar or pre-palatal region between the alveolar ridge and the palate, and the palate itself) and one less frequently used, the teeth.

2. Manner of articulation: there are seven types (stop or plosive, affricate, fricative, nasal, lateral, semi-vocalic, and voiceless, vocalic).

3. Force of articulation: distinguishes soft or lenis from hard or fortis. This distinction generally coincides with voicing, i.e., the distinction between voiced and voiceless. This third opposition involves only the stops, affricates, and fricatives (i.e. the obstruent).

(Gramley et al 1992:89-91)

Table 1 English consonants

Manner	Labial	Dental	Place Alveolar	Post-alv.	Palatal
Stop	p, b		t d		k, g
Affricate				tʃ, dʒ	
Fricative	f, v	θ, ð	s, z	ʃ, ʒ	
Nasal			N		ŋ
Lateral	M		L		ʎ
Semi-vowel			J	R	W
Voiceless vowel			H		

The two systems which have been analyzed should not be considered as full equivalents. The differences that emerge are so-called semi-vowels, defined by Gramley et al. below:

Semi-vowels are consonants which are usually produced without audible friction in, or stoppage of the air coming from the lungs. If they are analyzed phonetically they act like vowels.

(Gramley et al 1992:89-91)

Letters with a function as semi-vowels are the following: *w, r, j*. *r* is sometimes regarded as a frictionless consonant or an approximant.

Generally speaking, there are fewer variations in consonants than in vowels, and, thus, when we talk about the semi-vowels, we should refer to the division of those speakers who pronounce the so-called post-vocalic /r/ and those who do not. In England in Received Pronunciation, /r/ is not pronounced, for example, in *beard, stare, stairs*.

Another case where /r/ is not pronounced is when it appears after a vowel. In Received Pronunciation, these cases are called non-rhotic pronunciation and it can be illustrated by the following pairs:

/ˈspa/ /spar/
 /ma/ /mar/,
 /tuba/ /tuber/,
 /fought/ /fort/.

Thus, this post vocalic *r* is not pronounced in words which actually have the letter *r* such as **car, star, fur, stare, four** in final position. /r/ also has another function, so called *linking /r/* as in the words **starry, furry, staring** as well as in complex words as ‘**a car engine**’, ‘**a star is born**’, ‘**don’t stare at me**’, ‘**four and a half**’, ‘**four o’clock**’, where it is directly followed by a vowel.

In RP, some non-rhotic speakers do pronounce /r/ although it is not justified by history or spelling and some critics take it as bad pronunciation although there are many cases where RP speakers use it.

It has also been noted that the non-prevocalic /r/ is disappearing, which is typical for RP, while in Gen Am it is pronounced wherever it is written.

Furthermore, what should be borne in mind is the infrequency of /r/ in comparison to /m/ and /n/, and also /ʒ/ in comparison with /ʃ/.

/ð/ is never found before another consonant in the same syllable. There are certainly some exceptions and that is the case when it is separated from another consonant. As stated by Gramley et al

the regular inflectional (d) (= /d/ of the past tense and past participle), as in smoothed, or (s) (= /z/ of plural nouns or the third person singular simple present of verbs), as in paths or breathes.

(Gramley et al 1992:89-91)

Another feature concerning the consonants in British and American English is h-dropping and it could be said that this is more typical for Americans than for the English. The most typical example is the consonant /h/ in words such as *her, he, him*, which is not pronounced if these words are unstressed or they are used in so-called weak forms.

Americans do not pronounce /h/ even in words that are stressed such as *hat, house* and *horse*, and this could be also the case in many urban accents of England where these words are pronounced ‘*at, ’ouse, ’orse*’.

Another characteristic worth discussing here is the simultaneous pronunciation or so-called co-articulation of /t/ and the glottal stop /ʔ/, which is typical for many urban environments in Great Britain. This is quite frequently the case when /t/ is completely replaced by /ʔ/. It is this phenomenon that explains the humour in the following remark made by a Glaswegian: ‘*My name’s Pa’erson, with two t’s*.’ (McIntosh 1952:53) This pronunciation is particularly associated

with cities such as London, Plymouth and Glasgow and they are sometimes represented with spellings like *be'er* for 'better' or /be/ for 'bet'.

On the other side of the ocean, New Yorkers, for example, often use /t/ and /d/ (**tanks** for **thanks**, **dis** for **this**), or the affricates [tθ] and [dð]. Many African American speakers of English have /t/ and /d/ at the beginning of a word, but /f/ and /v/ at the end (**dem** for **them**; **wiv** for **with**).

Another characteristic pronunciation of /t/ is found in words such as **metal**, **writer**, **plenty**, **Santa**, which in General American is normally pronounced as /d/ or it may be even deleted after /n/.

If the preceding consonant is not dental or alveolar, then almost all of the English pronounce "ju": pronunciation for the spellings such as *u, ui, ew, iew/ieu eu, ue*.

Most of the General American accents have /u:/ almost everywhere, but this is not the case with RP as it varies a little, especially when it appears after /θ/, /s/, /z/, /l/ and in all other cases it is usually found.

3.2.1.1 Phonological processes

The following discussion refers to the differences that emerge from the following two different phonological processes.

- **Palatalization**
- **Assimilation**

The former refers to cases when /s/z/ /t/d/ are pronounced slightly farther back (at the palate rather than the alveolar ridge), which can be illustrated by the following examples provided by Gramley :

Unpalatalized	Palatalized
-ion: /s/ (<i>missile</i>)	/ʃ/ (<i>mission</i>)
/z/ (<i>fuse</i>)	/ʒ/ (<i>fusion</i>)
/t/ (<i>motive</i>)	/tʃ/ (<i>motion</i>)
-ure: /s/ (<i>fissile</i>)	/ʃ/ (<i>fissure</i>)
/z/ (<i>please</i>)	/ʒ/ (<i>pleasure</i>)
/t/ (<i>Advent</i>)	/tʃ/ (<i>adventure</i>)
/d/ (<i>verdant</i>)	/dʒ/ (<i>verdure</i>) (<i>General American only</i>)

(Gramley 1992:97)

There are certain cases where there are no differences in the pronunciation between the two variants in question. A typical example for unpalatalized form is the pronunciation for Tuesday: /tju:zdi/ in RP and /tu:zdi:/ in Gen Am

There are also certain slight differences between many RP speakers and General American ones who have palatalized form of / tʃu:zdi/ ‘**Chewsday**’. RP has /edju:keit/ (unpalatalized) for **educate**, while GenAm has /edʒ u:keit/ (palatalized). RP has both /imi:di:t/ (unpalatalized) and /imi:dʒit/ (palatalized) for **immediate** and / isju:/ (unpalatalized) and /iju:/ (palatalized) for **issue**, while General American has only the unpalatalized form in the former and the palatalized form in the latter case.

Assimilation

The change or loss of consonants is achieved through the process called assimilation. Most allophonic variants in English are the result of this. In American English, there is a loss of aspiration of fortis stops in the word when they appear in the final position and it is the same with the intervocalic /t/. In some cases, the assimilation is in the direction of a pause or silence. Sometimes /t/ adapts the sonority of the preceding and following vowels. This kind of process is also included in the process of palatalization.

The following are well-known examples of assimilation in modern English which occurred long ago and have remained frozen or irreversible:

- *a change in voicing and force of articulation: in **have to** ‘must’ /hæftə /, the /v/ of **have** has become a voiceless, fortis /f/ owing to the influence of the/t/ that follows*
- *a change in the manner of articulation: the original /d/ of **soldier** has become /dʒ / under the influence of following /j/: (RP) /səʊldʒə/ (GenAm) /soʊldʒər /.*

(Gramley et al 1992:95)

3.2.2 Vowels

Gramley et al define vowels as follows:

A vowel is defined, phonetically, as a sound which is produced without audible friction or blockage in the flow of air, along the central line of breath from the lungs through the mouth.

(Gramley et al 1992:86)

Vowels are determined according to the following characteristics:

- the height of the tongue
- the horizontal position of the tongue
- the complexity of the vowel.

Another phenomenon that only applies to American English is nasality, which in British English varies individually and regionally.

The position of the tongue

Short vowels have remained stable throughout the centuries. The only significant exception is the use of the vowel /i/ in RP as the final *y* or *ie* in words such as *lazy* and *Suzie*. In most other cases there is a long /i:/ here.

Complexity of the vowel: length and diphthongization

Complexity refers to every deviation from the short nature of a vowel. Length as another characteristic of monophthongs is indicated by /:/ as also stated by Gramley et al below.

*The two diphthongs /eɪ/ and /əʊ/, which exist in RP, or /oʊ/ in General American, (Gen. Ame.) are realized in many variants. In General American, they are realized as long monophthongs, for example, **gate** [ge:t] or **goat** [go:t]. Diphthongs /aɪ, aʊ, ɔɪ/ are pronounced as diphthongs in almost all accents. Length difference may sometimes be used to distinguish writer from rider in General American, as both words have voiced and flapped [d] in the middle.*

(Gramley et al 1992:102-103)

The number of different vowel sounds is large and diphthongs are part of these sounds. Four diphthongs vary considerably across the English speaking world as exemplified by the words below collated by Yallop:

- *say, bay, bait, made, main*
- *so, toe, boat, mode, moan*
- *sigh, buy, bite, side, sign*
- *sow (female pig), bough, bout, loud, crown*

(Yallop 2003:35)

Variants of English speech are determined by numerous features of the pronunciation of vowels such as the vowel in the words *tune, student, dune, duke*. These words have typical diphthong in RP, which is simplified to a single vowel in General American, for example, the words *toon, stoo-dent* etc.

In RP, the vowel /a/ in words like *laugh, path, bath, pass, fast* is typically long like in *spa, start, and sparse*. In contrast, in General American it is very similar to the vowel in the words *bat, bad*.

What should be noted here is the tendency to differentiate between stressed and unstressed syllables and the reduction of the vowels in unstressed ones.

Occasionally, there is a combined effect of non-rhotic pronunciation and vowel reduction in words like *China, diner, minor*, all of which end in indeterminate vowel which is sometimes called *schwa*.

In certain cases with words such as *secretary* and *February*, speakers of General American do not reduce the vowel. In RP this is not so, meaning that there is a reduction or even an omission of the vowel. In all these cases, the stress is on the first syllable.

When comparing the RP and Gen Am systems of vowels, seventeen in RP and sixteen in GenAm are taken into consideration. The situation becomes even more complicated when a non-prevocalic /r/ is included, which refers to an orthographic /r/, not followed by a vowel but a consonant, or occurring at the end of the word.

With reference to General American, the oppositions which might exist between /i:/ and /ɪ/, between /eɪ/, /e/ and /æ/, between /ɔ:/ and /oʊ/, and between /u:/ and /ʊ/ are obvious when they are followed by /r/ and, in such cases, they are more or less neutralized. /r/ possesses the characteristics of a semi-vowel and functions as a consonant only in few English accents. This is also illustrated by Gramley et al in the following.

Combinations of the vowel /r/ in General American are often in reality phonetic diphthongs whose final element is an r-coloured schwa.

This is the case, for example, with fear /fɪr/ = [fɪə] or cure /kjʊr/ = [kjʊə].

The central vowel /ɜ:/ is r-coloured without the need for a schwa [ɜ:]. Another example purr /pɜ:r/=pɜ:/ This can be the case with /a:/ + /r/ as well, which may show up as [a:] as in car /ka:r/ = [ka:]

(Gramley et al 1992:103)

In the following table, Table 2, the full system of vowels in General American, collated by Moulton, is presented on the left and on the right can be found the restricted system of vowels that occur before non-prevocalic /r/.

Table 2 The vowels in General American

<i>Full system</i>		<i>Before /r/</i>	
/i:/	<i>Bead</i>	/ɪr/	<i>Beard</i>
/ɪ/	<i>Bid</i>		
/eɪ/	<i>Bade</i>		
/e/	<i>Bed</i>	/ɛr/	<i>Bared</i>
/æ/	<i>Bad</i>		
/ɑ:/	<i>bod(y), father</i>	/ɑ:r/	<i>barred, farther</i>
/ɔ:/	<i>Bawd</i>		
/oo/	<i>Bode</i>	/ɔr/	<i>Bored</i>
/ʊ/	<i>Book</i>		
/u:/	<i>Booed</i>	/ʊr/	<i>Boor</i>
/ʌ/	<i>Bud</i>	/ɜ:r/	<i>Bird</i>
/ə/	<i>NASA</i>	/ər/	<i>Barbered</i>
/aɪ/	<i>Bide</i>	/aɪr/	<i>Buyer</i>
/aʊ/	<i>Bowed</i>	/aʊr/	<i>Bower</i>
/ɔɪ/	<i>Coy</i>	/ɔɪr/	<i>Coyer</i>

(Moulton, 1962:77)

In the left-hand column, there are only fifteen phonemes because /ɜ:/ appears exclusively before an /r/ in GenAm. For this reason, an analysis is conceivable in which no /ɜ: (r)/ appears at all, but only / ʌ (r)/. After all, /ɜ:r/ and /ʌr/ do not stand in opposition in American English since there are no minimal pairs contrasting them.

(Wells 1982:480)

Still, there has been a great deal of discussion on this because certain opinions exist that would make it even more difficult to compare the vowel systems in the two variants in question.

As already mentioned earlier, RP has vowel +schwa, schwa alone or a long vowel alone instead of the American sequence vowel +/r/. Even in the six pairs of a vowel or a diphthong plus /ə/, the final element consists of the central vowel schwa.

Generally speaking, the General American /r/ has turned into /ə/ in Received Pronunciation, although there are still cases when both /r/ and /ə/ are equivalent in words with postvocalic /r/.

The table below, constructed by Gimson, presents the vowels used in Received Pronunciation.

Table 3 The vowels in Received Pronunciation

<i>Full system</i>		<i>Before /r/</i>	
/i:/	<i>Bead</i>	/ɪə / (also /ɪr/)?	<i>Beard</i>
/ɪ/	<i>Bid</i>		
/eɪ/	<i>Bade</i>		
/e/	<i>Bed</i>	/eə / (also /er/)?	<i>Bared</i>
/æ/	<i>Bad</i>		
/ɑ:/	<i>bod(y), father</i>	/ɑ:/	<i>barred,</i> <i>farther</i>
ɒ	<i>bod(y)</i>		
/ɔ:/	<i>Bawd</i>	/ɔ:/	<i>Bored</i>
/əʊ/	<i>Bode</i>		
/ʊ/	<i>Book</i>	ʊə	<i>Boor</i>
/u:/	<i>Booed</i>		
/ʌ/	<i>Bud</i>	/ɜ:/	<i>Bird</i>
/ə/	<i>NASA</i>	/ə/	<i>Barbered</i>
/aɪ/	<i>Bide</i>	/aɪə /	<i>Buyer</i>
/aʊ/	<i>Bowed</i>	/aʊə /	<i>Bower</i>
/ɔɪ/	<i>Coy</i>	/ɔɪə /	<i>Coyer</i>

(Gimson 1989:139-141)

Thus, it might be assumed that the oppositions /ɪ /-/ ɪə / and /e/-/er/-/eə / occur before a prevocalic and sometimes intervocalic /r/ as in the following examples:

spirit /'spɪrɪt/

spear it /'spɪərɪt/

Harry /'hɛəri/

hairy /'hɛəri/

herring /'hɛrɪŋ/

hair ring /hɛə'rɪŋ/

However, according to Bronstein et al,

*...in General American, **spirit** and **spear it** are indistinguishable, but **marry** and **Harry** are often (regionally) distinguished from **Mary/merry** and **hairy**.*

(Bronstein 1960:152)

In rural New England, the opposition /o:/ /ɔ:/ is maintained both pre- and non-prevocalic /r/, as in **hoarse**, **burn** /o:r/, but **horse**, **warring** /ɔ:r/. However, this opposition is highly recessive.

The following table, Table 4, collated by Kenyon, illustrates the differences which exist in the pronunciation of the short and long vowel /ɑ:/ in General American.

Table 4 Short and long /ɑ:/

RP has many words using /ɑ:/ which are pronounced with /ə/ in /Gen Am. They include the following:	
Advance	Mask
After	Mast
Answer	Monograph
Ask	Nasty
Aunt	Overdraft
Banana	Pass
Basket	Passport
Bath	Past
Blast	Pastor
Broadcast	Path
Castle	Plant
Class	Plaster
Command	Raft
Dance	Ranch
Disaster	Raspberry
Example	Rather
Fasten	Reprimand
France	Sample
Giraffe	Slander
Glass	Slant
Grass	Staff
Half	Task
Last	Telegraph
Laugh	Vast

(Kenyon 1969:229)

3.3. Transcriptional systems

The symbols used for phonemic transcription of English vary greatly depending on the purpose or according to the phonetic features. The differences that appear in Gen Am and RP are something that should be expected due to the number of recognized vowel phonemes. Also,

many dictionaries use symbols which are very similar to the spelling for example, <o> for / əʊ / or /oo/ and /a/ for / æ /, etc.

Phonetic variety in vowels

According to Gramley et al, *the most typical phonetic variation can be presented by the diphthong /aɪ/, which varies considerably in four ways:*

1. retraction of the first element;
2. raising of the first element;
3. weakening of the second element, resulting in some cases in a mimophthong;
4. a split of the single phoneme into two distinct allophones in complementary distribution.

(Gramley et al 1992:106)

Table 5 below, also by Gramley, depicts the transcriptional systems in use at different times by different authors.

Table 5 Transcriptional systems

Key words		Gimso n 1989	Jones 1950	MacCarth y 1965	Kenyo n 1969	Trager and Smith 1951	RHWCD 1991
Bead	keyed	/i:/	/i:/	/ii/	/i/	/iy/	/ē/
bid	kid	/ɪ/	/ɪ/	/i/	/ɪ/	/i/	/i/
Bed	kedge	/e/	/e/	/e/	/ɛ/	/e/	/e/
Bad	cad	/æ/	/æ/	/a/	/æ/	/æ/	/a/
Bard	card	/ɑ:/	/ɑ:/	/aa/	/ɑ(r)/	/ɑ(r)/	/ā (r)/
bod(y)	cod	/ɒ/	/ɔ/	/o/	/ɑ /	/a /	/o/
Bawd	cawed	/ɔ:/	/ɔ:/	/oo/	/ɔ/	/ɔh/	/ô/
Budd(ha)	could	/ʊ/	/u/	/u/	/ʊ /	/u /	/õõ/
Booed	cooed	/u:/	/u:/	/uu/	/u/	/uw/	/õõ/
Bird	curd	/ɜ:/	/ə:/	/əə/	/ɜr/	/ə(r)/	/ûr/
Bud	cud	/ʌ/	/ʌ/	/ʌ/	/ʌ/	/ə/	/u/
be(deck)	c'ld(could)	/ə/	/ə/	/ə/	/ə/	/ə/	/ə/
Bade	cade	/eɪ/	/eɪ/	/eɪ/	/e/	/ey/	/ā/
Boyd	cloyed	/ɔɪ/	/ɔɪ/	/oɪ/	/ɔɪ/	/oy/	/oi/
Bide	Clyde	/aɪ//	/aɪ//	/aɪ//	/aɪ//	/ay//	/i/
Bode	code	/əʊ/	/ou/	/oʊ/	/o/	/ow/	/õ/
Bowed	cowed	/aʊ/	/au/	/aʊ/	/aʊ/	/aw/	/ou/
Beard	cleared	/ɪə/	/ɪə/	/ɪə/	/ɪ(r)/	/ɪr/	/ēr/
Bared	cared	/ɛə/	/ɛə/	/eə/	/ɛ(r)/	/er/	/âr/
Board	cord	/ɔə/	/ɔə/	/oə/	/ɔ(r)/	/ɔr/	/ôr/

Boor	cured	/ʊə/	/ʊə/	/ʊə/	/ʊ(r)/	/ur/	/ũõr/
(bar)bared		/ə /	/ə /	/ə /	/ə /	/ər /	/ər /

Symbols from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) are used in Gimson 1989, Jones 1950 and Kenyon 1969 (1924). The differing conventions reflect both phonetic differences in Received Pronunciation vs. General American and changes in time (1950 vs. 1989).

The conventions employed by Mac Carthy 1965, as well as the conventions by Trager and Smith 1951 share the use of only a limited number of special symbols, which makes typewriter use feasible. Furthermore, Trager and Smith base their transcription on systematic considerations, concerning English phonology. That is to say they use: single symbols for short simple vowels; double symbols for complex vowels, which are always a combination of a simple vowel and a high front element (/y/), a high back element (/w/) or an element of length (/h/), as well, of course, as (/r/).

The final system was given by Random House Webster's College Dictionary, ed. R. B. Costello, 1991 which is typical of many dictionaries intended for native speakers, especially in North America. It uses the symbols suggested by common English spellings and modified by such traditional conventions as diacritical marks for short (<~>) and long (<¯» vowels.

(Gramley et al 1992 :107)

3.4 Punctuation

Punctuation is governed largely by convention, but one should always bear in mind the importance of individual preferences, as also noted by Carey below.

I should define punctuation as being governed two-thirds by rule and one-third by personal taste'

(Carey 1972:13)

As regards punctuation, there are certain points that should be considered. Cramley mentions two important functions in the following.

*The **separating function** refers to indentation or free lines in order to mark paragraphs and spaces between words. So, there is the Full stop in Received Pronunciation and period in American English, then the semi-colon [;], the comma [,], the dash [—] but brackets (British English) or parentheses (American English) [()], etc. Commas, dashes, brackets/parentheses and inverted commas (British English) and quotation marks (American English) [“ ” or ‘ ’] are generally used in pairs when they mark embedded material.*

*The **grammatical function** of punctuation includes the following: the use of the question mark [?], the exclamation point/mark [!], the apostrophe ['] as a marker of possessive case [or to show something having been removed], underlining (in handwriting) or italics (in print) for emphasis or to mark the use of linguistic material or foreign words as well as other less central conventions.*

(Gramley et al 1992 :115)

There are a number of modern monolingual English dictionaries that also include rules and conventions of English punctuation.

Yet, another feature closely connected to punctuation is *intonation*, which signals the speaker's mood at the time of speaking. Coulthard maintains that there are two significant factors connected to this:

One has to do with the general meaning of rises and falls [in speech] and the other is concerned with how intonation serves to structure information in discourse as when a fall to low signals that a particular mini topic is ended.

(Coulthard 1987:60)

Consequently, it can be argued that the meaning of even the most complex patterns can be interpreted just by listening to the tone and/or the pitch the speaker employs while speaking.

According to Halliday,

Tone marks the kind of activity involved by a complex pattern built out of a simple opposition between certain and uncertain...If certain, the pitch of the tonic falls ; if uncertain, it rises.

(Halliday 1973:124)

3.5 Spelling

Prior to the commencement of the comparison of the already established standards, a brief historical review of the changes to spelling over the ages needs to be given. To begin with, writing in the latter half of the 16th century, Mulcaeter had a great deal of influence on the generations to come regarding orthography, which can be noted in the following:

For thie considered not, that ... common reason and common custom... will neuer yield to anie priuat conceit, which shall eme euidentile either to force them or to crosse them, as thie themselues do, neuer giuing anie precept, how to write right, till theie haue rated

the custom as a most pernicious enemie to truth and right, euen in that thing, where custom hath most right, if it haue right in anie.

(Mulcaster 1582:7)

The following is an example of orthography from the records of Malone, from which it can be observed that in certain words the distinction in spelling between now and then* is great.

There iz no alternativ. Every possible reezon that could ever be offered for altering the spelling of wurds, still exits in full force; and if a gradual reform should not be made in our language, it will proov that we are less under the influence of reezon than our ancestors

(Malone 1925:29)

With the growth of the English language, changes followed through the eighteenth century but still some habits, even those of the most educated people, changed slowly, as witnessed in the following statement by Goad.

The variety of pronunciations in the House of Commons throughout the eighteen century has amazed us, even in these days when all classes are represented. Members, being educated in the country Grammar School, wrote with care and elegance, but read their speeches with the local accent of the shires from which they came.

(Goad 1958:215:16)

Mc Knight emphasized that, personally, he had many problems and difficulties with orthography but that it did not stop him writing, as shown below.

I am a very bad writer of orthography and can scare me a, b, c, i, e if it were laid before me. The printer may helped me to deliver to you true English; but I am true man to my God and my King, he finds it not in my copy.

(Mc Knight 1928:220)

Next, on what should be seen as the foundation of modern orthography Smith concludes that:

only the uses of the first? and the fourth type of position outside the area where they come from and the last preserved position are becoming the basis for orthography of modern English.

(Smith 1992:56-7)

Let us take a step back to the eighteenth century, when Dr Johnson published his dictionary. According to Yallop, in Johnson's time *it was still possible to write fabrick rather than fabric, recal rather than recall, autor rather than author, and croud rather than crowd. Dr Johnson himself in his correspondence seems to have used three different spellings for the word that we now write 'governor' and its alternative spellings were 'governer' and 'governour'.*

(Yallop 2003:26)

After analyzing these alternative spellings, there is no indication of a compelling reason why one spelling should be accepted over the other. Even today, the words appall and enroll can be found also spelt with one *l*. However, if an exception is made for these two, why can we not write "croud" to follow the spelling of "loud" and "cloud"? From the current point of view, the 18th century alternatives go against public acceptance of standardized spelling and are simply unacceptable and would be judged as incorrect.

A host of words are open to alternative spellings based on their levels of acceptance, and as a result, there are still cases when we write, e.g., aging or ageing, judgement or judgment, queuing or queueing, annex or annexe, drier or dryer, instal or install, gibe or jibe, jail or gaol, and whir or whirr. Publishers and editors, however, tend to prefer one alternative over the other and use it consistently, but they do not claim the other to be incorrect. All in all, though, such spellings are considered to be only a small fraction of the English vocabulary.

In the following, Gramley explain why spelling can be problematic:

English spelling itself has a bad reputation for the fact that many words have more than one spelling because many phonemes could be represented by a whole series of graphemes which are defined as units of spelling consisting of a letter or a sequence of letters, or because that one grapheme can be used for the representation of various phonemes.

(Gramley et al 1992 :116)

There are also other reasons why the sounds and writing do not correspond. Emery provides three in the following.

There is huge difference, or so called imperfect degree of correspondence, between sound and sign due to the following factors:

- *historical spellings which have been retained {cough, plough, though, through};*
- *etymological spellings (subtle and doubt with a despite the lack of /b/ in the*

pronunciation; this on the model of Latin subtilis and dubitare, even though older English had sutil/sotil and doute without a /b/);

- *a variety of foreign borrowings (sauerkraut, entrepreneur or bhang). (Emery 1975: 1)*

3.5.1 The spelling of consonants

The spelling of the consonants is less difficult or complicated and therefore easier to remember. Namely, in the most of the cases there is correspondence between one sound and one letter, for instance, *k* stands for /k/, *b* for /b/. Yet, there are certain exceptions but they are easy to remember, for instance, /k/ in *kn* as in *know* and /b/ in *mb* as in *comb*. If no letter can be found from the Latin alphabet to represent a certain phoneme, a combination of two letters are used to represent it: /th/, /ch/, /sh/. This is given an example of by Gramley et al in the following.

The fact that th is used for both /θ/ and / ð/ and ch for /tʃ/, /k/, and /ʃ/ is, of course, inconsistent, but the principles are easy to grasp. Initial th represents:

- */ ð/ in grammatical or function words, i.e., pronouns (they, them, their, this, that, etc.), the basic adverbs (then, there, thus), or the definite article the;*
- */ θ/ in all the other (lexical) words, such as thing, think, theatre, thunder and thin;*
- */t/ in a few exceptional cases such as Thomas, thyme, Thames and Thailand.*

(Gramley et al 1992 :116)

There are also other cases which are typical for *th*: it is pronounced /ð/ when *th* is followed by *e* as in *leather, weather, father, brother* etc. Exceptions to this rule are some words of Greek origin like *anthem, aesthetic and menthol*.

In all other cases when *th* is not followed by *e*, it is pronounced /θ/ in words such as *gothic, lethal, method, author, diphthong, and athlete*. Exceptions do exist, especially in cases where inflections are added, for example, *breathing* (breathe) and *worthy* (worth).

Another specific group is formed of words from Middle English, which, although spelled with *ch*, are all pronounced /ʃ/, for example, *chalet, chandelier, champagne, and chic*. Greek words with initial or medial *ch* are pronounced /k/ in words such as *chaos, character, chemistry, chorus, chord, architect, and Archimedes*.

3.5.2 The spelling of vowels

Vowels in English can appear alone <a, e, i, o, u> and, in that case, they represent a vowel in a stressed syllable, and their graphic interpretation varies according to the graphic environment. Holmberg provides further definition in the following.

When, however, two letter-consonants or one letter-consonant and the space at the end of a word follow, the letter-vowels are interpreted (in the same order) as /æ/, /e/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/, /ʌ/ (or /u/) (Received Pronunciation) or /a:/ (General American), and /ʌ/

Examples are **mad(den), pet(ting), hit(ter), hot(test), run(ner)**. In a number of words u is not /ʌ/ but /ʊ/ for example, **bush, push, bull, pull, bullet, put, cushion, butcher, puss, pudding**.

(Holmberg 1964:50)

The following table, provided by Venezky, presents the spelling and pronunciation of long vowels with examples and exceptions.

Table 6 The long vowels, spelling and pronunciation

Spelling		Examples	Exceptions
<a> + G + V=	/ei/	rate, rating mete, scheming	have, garage allege, metal, extremity
<e>	/i:/	extreme	extremity
<i/y>	/ai/	ripe, rhyme divine	machine, river divinity
<o>	RP/əʊ/ Gen.Am/ou/	joke, joking verbose	come, lose, gone verbosity
<u>	/(j)u:/	cute, renewal	

(Venezky1970:108)

Table 7 below, also compiled by Venezky, provides the spelling and pronunciation of the short vowels with examples and exceptions.

Table 7 The short vowels, spelling and pronunciation

Spelling		Examples	Exceptions
<a> +C + C/↔=	/æ /	rat, rattle ¹	Mamma
<e>	/e/	met, mettle	-
<i>	/ɪ/	rip, ripping	-
<y>	/ɪ/	System	-
<O >	RP/ɒ/ Gen Am/a:/	Comma	Gross
<u>	/ʌ/	cut, cutter	Butte
	/ʊ/	put, bush ²	

(Venezky1970:108)

Together with examples and exceptions, the next table lists spelling and pronunciation of words with a single letter *a* both in Received Pronunciation and General American English.

The next table, illustrates the difference in pronunciation between RP and Gen Am regarding /a:/ vs. /æ/.

Table 8 Words with /a:/ in RP but /æ:/ in Gen Am

Spelling	Examples	Exceptions
<a> + <f> = /a:/	<i>after, daft</i>	<i>baffle, raffish</i>
<s> <th>	<i>ask, pass path, father</i>	<i>gas, as, basset math, hath</i>
<a> + <m> + C = /a:/ <n> + C	<i>example, sample advance, trance</i>	<i>ample, ramble random, Atlantic</i>
<a> + <l> + <f> = /a:/ <m>	<i>half, calf palm, calm¹</i>	<i>Ralph, Alfred Talmud, almanac</i>

(Venezky1970:108)

Table 9 depicts the pronunciation of vowels before *r* together with examples and exceptions for both RP and AmGen.

Table 9 The pronunciation of vowels before *r*

Spelling	RP	GenAm	Examples	Exceptions
<ar> + V + (V/O) = <er>	/ɛə/ /ɪə/	/ɛr/ /ɪr/	<i>wary, warier here, cereal</i>	<i>are, aria, safari Very</i>
<ir> <yr>	/aɪə/ /aɪə/	/aɪr/ /aɪr/	<i>fire, inquiry tyre</i>	<i>Delirium -</i>
<or> <ur>	/ɔ:/ /ʊə/	/ɔr/ /ʊr/	<i>lore, glorious bureau, spurious</i>	<i>- bury, burial</i>
<ar(r)> (+ VC) = <er(r)> <ir(r)> <yr(r)> <or(r)> <ur(r)>	/æ/ /e/ /ɪ/ /ɪ/ /ɒ/ /ɜ:/	/a:/	<i>arid, marriage peril, errand empiric, irrigate, iris lyric foreign, oriole, borrow burr, furry, purring</i>	<i>catarrh, harem Err GenAm squirrel - worry, horrid muriel, urine RP hurry, turret¹</i>

<ar> + 0/C =	/ɑ:/		par, part	Scarce
<er>	/ɜ:/		her, herb	concerto, sergeant, RP
<ir>	/ɜ:/		fir, bird	clerk
<yr>	/ɜ:/		Byrd	-
<or>	/ɔ:/		for, fort	-
<ur>	/ɜ:/		cur, curd	attorney

(Venezky1970:108)

Spelling reform

English spelling appears to be rather stable and it has resisted any serious attempts for change. There have been two significant developments, as observed by Glaser, which need to be mentioned:

Popular spellings, especially in America and in the language of advertising, affect numerous words, in particular ones originally with <-gh> such as donut (doughnut), nitelite (nightlight), thruway (throughway), but also such expressions as kwik (quick) or krispy kreme (crispy cream). Beside such unofficial reforms, a certain regularizing tendency has brought about standardized American English by levelling out to or (honour > honor), re to er (centre > center), etc.

(Glaser 1972)

Spelling pronunciation

Speech habits are also influenced by spelling and in such cases the so-called spelling pronunciation comes to question as also stated by Potter below.

In instances such as traditional /fɔːrɪd/ (RP) or /fɔːrɪd/ (GenAm), for example, becomes /fɔːhed/ (RP) or /fɔːrhed/ (GenAm) and <t> which is often silent is pronounced by many speakers. Of all the influences affecting present day English, that of spelling upon sounds is probably the hardest to resist.

(Potter 1979:77)

This should be seen as a tendency by people to write as they speak and speak as they write. According to Stringer, incredible as it may seem, this offers certain advantages:

[Paradoxically, one of the advantages of our illogical spelling is that ...] it provides a fixed standard for spelling throughout the English speaking world and once learnt, we encounter none of the difficulties in reading we encounter in understanding strange accents.

(Stringer 1973:27)

There are words which are usually written differently in Britain and the USA. Several types of groups of words are involved, of which one compiled by Yallop is shown below.

There are about 30 words that end in ‘-our’ in British spelling but ‘-or’ in American.

Examples, the American spelling:

<i>behavior</i>	<i>harbor</i>	<i>neighbor</i>
<i>color</i>	<i>honor</i>	<i>odor</i>
<i>favor</i>	<i>humor</i>	<i>rumor</i>
<i>flavor</i>	<i>labor</i>	<i>vapor</i>

The British spellings of the same words:

<i>behaviour</i>	<i>harbour</i>	<i>neighbour</i>
<i>colour</i>	<i>honour</i>	<i>odour</i>
<i>favour</i>	<i>humour</i>	<i>rumour</i>
<i>flavour</i>	<i>labour</i>	<i>vapour</i>

(Yallop 1999:27)

However, the *our* spelling can also be found in America, for example, *glamour* as well as *glamor*, and it is not a rare to see *or* spellings in Britain either, e.g., *author*, *error* and *squalor*.

Some words in British English are spelled slightly differently in American English. Examples of this, put together by Yallop, are illustrated below according to specific spelling characteristics.

American spelling of words ending in er

<i>center</i>	<i>liter</i>	<i>somber</i>
<i>liber</i>	<i>scepter</i>	<i>theater</i>

British version

<i>Centre</i>	<i>litre</i>	<i>sombre</i>
<i>Fibre</i>	<i>sceptre</i>	<i>theatre</i>

no doubling of the letter l in American spelling

<i>Counseling</i>	<i>labeled</i>	<i>traveling</i>
<i>Jeweler</i>	<i>traveled</i>	<i>woolen</i>

British usage normally doubles l

<i>Counselling</i>	<i>labelled</i>	<i>travelling</i>
<i>Jeweller</i>	<i>travelled</i>	<i>woollen</i>

Americans generally use the shorter forms of some words:

analog **catalog** **program**

ax **dialog**

The British tend to prefer the longer forms:

analogue **catalogue** **programme**

axe **dialogue**

Americans spell these words with the letter *s*:

defense **pretense** **vice**

The British use the letter *c*:

defence **pretence** **vice**

(Yallop 1999:29)

There are also other variants, which are presented in the following table (Table 10), with the American variants on the left and the British on the right:

Table 10 American and British variants

American	British
Disk	Disc
Draft	Draught
Gray	Grey
Plow	Plough
Skeptical	Sceptical
Airplane	Aeroplane
esthetics	aesthetics*
ether*	Aether
ameba	amoeba*
anemia	Anaemia
anesthesia	Anaesthesia
appall	appal*
archeology	archaeology*

To avoid generalization some of the distinctions that occur can be exemplified by the following: in Britain, *you check up on something* (= examine so as to determine accuracy, quality), but *you cash a cheque*; or *you tire* (=you become tired) *but you have tyres on your car*. In American English,

there is *to check / a check* and *to tire / a tire* for the same without any concrete distinction in spelling between them. Things are changing and the alternatives that used to be British in the past are now American. Some of the spelling variations apply to a large group of words, some only to individual cases, such as some of those presented in the next table (Table 11), compiled by Benson et al.

The symbol * indicates usage which is mutual for both variants

Table 11 More examples follow for American and British spelling variants

Br	Am	Br	Am	Br	Am
axe*	Ax	Gaol	jail*	orthopaedics	Orthopedic
bale out	bail out	garotte*	Garrote	paediatrician	Pediatrician
battleaxe*	Battle-ax	gauge*	gage	Panellist	Panelist
Boloney	baloney*	Gonorrhoea	gonorrhoea	Paralyse	Paralyze
B.Sc.*	B.S.	Gramme	gram*	pedlar*	Peddler
buses*	Busses	grey*	gray	plough*	Plow
caesarian*	Cesarian	gynaecology	gynecology	practice (n.)	practise (Л.)
callisthenics	calisthenic	haemo-*	hemo-	premise*	Premiss
Cantaloupe	cantaloupe	homoeopath	homeopath	pretence (Л.)	pretense (n.)
carat (gold)*	karat	Hosteller	hosteler	Primaeval	primeval*
cauldron*	caldron	Inflexion	inflection*	Programme	Program
Cheque	check	instil*	instill	(not	
Chequer	checker	jeweller*	jeweler	Pyjamas	Pajamas
Chilli	chili*	Jnr	Jr.*	Renegue	renege*
cigarette*	cigaret	kilogramme	kilogram*	sanatorium*	Sanitorium
Cissy	sissy*	largesse*	largess	scallywag*	Scalawag
citrous (adj)	citrus*	Leukaemia	leukemia	sceptical*	Skeptical
Connexion	connection	libellous*	libelous	smoulder*	Smolder
councillor*	councilor	licence (n.)	license (n.)	Snowplough	Snowplow
counsellor*	counselor	Liquorice	licorice*	Snr	Sr.*
defence*	defense	Manoeuvre	maneuver	storey*	story
diarrhoea*	diarrhea	marvellous*	marvelous	sulphur*	sulphur
disc	disk	Mediaeval	medieval*	throughway*	Thruway
doughnut*	donut	mollusc*	mollusk	titbit*	Tidbit
draughtsman	draftsman	mould*	mold	traveller*	Traveler
Draughty	drafty	moult*	molt	Tyre	Tire
encyclopaedi	encyclopæd	moustache*	mustache	vice (tool)	Vise
Enquire	inquire*	M.Sc.*	M.S.	wilful*	Willful
ensure*	insure	Oedema	edema	woollen*	Woolen
Faeces	feces	oesophagus	esophagus		
Foetus	fetus*	Oestrogen	estrogen		
Floatation	flotation*	offence*	offense		

(Benson et al 1986)

4. Lexical level

If we want to go back historically to define the framework within which the English language developed, with the Thames on its northern border, we need to go to the most southern regions of England from the City of London to the English Channel, Dover, and Canterbury, which was the home of the English church, in Kent, the centre of sea power and trading prosperity. Kent is one of the home counties and used to be called the Garden of England because of its fertile agricultural land and lovely rich hills of the North Downs. It used to be, and still is, the image many people have of England. Different invasions added the dialects of various invaders to and merged with the language, thus giving rise to what is now known as *Old English*. Historical, geographical, cultural and linguistic elements contributed to the development of English language in different ways.

On the way from pure history and a geographical definition of England to the history of English language, many aspects that American and British English have in common or that have become inter-related can be found. A good example for this is a book called “English for American Readers” (1992) by David Grot. He demonstrated the linguistic consequences of using the term *county*. The term **county** itself has a different meaning and he has also provided two lists with items that would be likely distinctive. Furthermore, these lists can be seen as relevant in two ways: one informs non-British people what certain terms mean, and the other advises the British about the ways their usage of English may be different from that of the person they are talking to. In the same context, Crystal describes the differences between Americans and the British as follows.

On the other side, American identity is much bound up with home origins. Conversations between Americans meeting abroad will commonly include and early focus on their home or colleges, whereas this is unlike Britons (assuming they talked to each other at all).

(Crystal 2003:306)

On the topic of vocabulary, Algeo states that, among all the levels in the structure of language, vocabulary changes the fastest, as can be seen below.

According to the statistical data, 85% of attention is directed to lexical units and only 15% to grammar. Algeo claims that the language of journalists, editors and their readers changes mainly in the vocabulary, but the greatest mysteries of syntax and morphology are reserved only for a few of them.

(Algeo 1985:64)

There are numerous examples where British and American English variants can be distinguished between and analyzed on several language levels. One of such levels is the lexical level. It has to be also emphasized that, later on in this thesis, I will try to search for differences at pragmatic or semantic level as well and it needs to be noted that, at certain points, the lexical and pragmatic levels will overlap because, as observed by Cruse,

Each lexical constituent is also a semantic constituent.

(Cruse 1986:40)

4.1 The development approach

The development approach employs as its criteria the use, the intelligibility and the regional status seen throughout the stages that the regional words have to pass through before they can be accepted into Standard English.

There are words which can be divided into several categories based on their use. In category one, there are words that are neither understood nor used in the other variety. For example, American English “*merges*”, or British English “*hives off*“. The second group includes items that are understood, but not used anywhere else, e.g., the American words *checkers*, *cookie* and *howdy*, or the British English *draughts*, *scone* and *cheerio*. In group number three, there are items that are used and understood by both variants, but which still have a separate flavour, American or British, such as American English *figure out* and *movie* or British English *car park* and *telly*.

The lexical material that is included in the last group is widely used in one variety and has lost the flavour that it used to have in the other. Examples of such vocabulary items are American English *boost* and *debunk* and British English *brass tacks*, *semi-detached* and *pissed off*.

Gramley et al also comment on the categories above in the following.

*There can be no doubt that many items start in group one and end up in the last group. It has to be added, however, that there is often no agreement on which group an item is in. **Student**, for example, in the broader-than- university sense of ‘young person at school’, used to be common only in American English, but is making its way into British English as well.*

(Gramley et al 1992:358)

One of the most determinate factors whether a word is accepted or not is the national flavour of a word. A certain number of people in Britain tend to resist the admission of hosts of American words into British English. Therefore, for instance, the word *hopefully* as in

“**hopefully, he will be back soon**” acted as a call to arms for the purists who pointed out that it had come across the Atlantic.

Another group of people, especially those of the younger generations, are more tolerant and easily accept and welcome words that originate from American English. Interestingly enough, the British appear to be less tolerant towards American loans than vice versa. On the flip side, loan words in American English are far fewer than the other way around.

4.2 Classifying lexical differences

In order to describe the vocabulary of the two regions in question, several distinctions have to be made:

- lexemes which are only found in American English or General American,
- lexemes that are only found in British English or Received Pronunciation
- lexemes from one or the other variety which have become established throughout the world as part of Standard English.

On lexical differences and Standard American, British and World English, Crystal states the following;

*While **Congress** and **Parliament** originate in their respective countries, from a linguistic point of view, it is no longer particularly useful to call one American English and the other British English. They are now part of World Standard English (WSE).*

(Crystal 2003:308)

There are also certain cultural differences, but they are not connected to World Standard English. In this group of words are such American English vocabulary items as ***Ivy League***, ***Groundhog Day*** and ***revenue sharing***, and ***British English A- levels***, ***giro*** and ***VAT***. Some of these words may enter World Standard English in due course.

The meaning of some words can be straightforward, that is to say, they have the same meaning, but the other variant uses a synonym instead, as exemplified by the following:

British English ***current account*** = American English ***checking account***

British English ***estate car*** = American English ***station wagon***.

However, certain words have entered World Standard English (WSE), but they have also preserved their additional meanings, characteristic either to the British or the American variant, of which the word *caravan* is a typical example. Similarly, words which are part of the WSE vocabulary have a synonym in one or the other variety, sometimes in both. American English

and British English have the word **undertaker** but **mortician** is only found in American English. American and British English use the word **pharmacy**, yet there are also other different lexemes for the same in both varieties: **drugstore** in American English and **chemist's** in British English. Other examples of words which have no WSE meaning can be illustrated by the following:

American English *flyover* = British English *flypast*

British English *flyover* = American English *overpass*.

Another aspect which should not be forgotten is the effect of frequency, as some words are used in both varieties, but, in some cases, they are more commonly used in only one of them. This is the case with the words *flat* and *apartment*. The first lexeme is the more frequently used in British English and the other in American English. More examples of this type are *shop* vs. *store* and *post* vs. *mail*.

Starting the analysis from the point of formal written English and moving towards informal spoken English, it can be observed that the differences increase substantially. Such variations are noticeable, but the exact number of cases cannot be given.

The influence that these two varieties have had on each other since the beginning of the previous century has been increasing constantly, especially from the direction of American towards British English. This influence is certainly due to the popularity of American films (movies), music and television programmes, and as a result, some American vocabulary has become part of the everyday language in British English. The most specific case is the active use of **mail**, especially among younger people. The reverse influence is less obvious, although British films (movies) and programs do appear in the US media, and therefore, the awareness of UK vocabulary should not be underestimated.

Recent research published in both varieties shows great lexical distinctiveness. A few of the forms researched have no background to be included in any general dictionary, but they do play an important role in the regional patterns and some have been preserved for usage at the local level.

Nonetheless, the number of these lexemes is extremely high when taking into consideration the vocabulary that refers to abbreviations in use at local festivals, institutional differences (including politics), banking, legal systems, armed forces, sports, honours, and the local fauna and flora.

When an informal collection was made in 1970, 5,000 differences were easily noticed but later it was realized that this kind of work could not be done informally. That is why David Grote had 6,500 entries in 1992, but he dealt only with the use of British English for American readers. It is not just a matter of dealing with different words but with different meanings for the same words. For example, British English uses the word *chips* for the American English word *French fries*, while the American English word *chips* means *crisps* in British English. .

The following comparison of the two variants by Professor Edmund E Miller highlights certain interesting differences between American and British vocabulary.

AMERICAN

subway train

furniture store

newspaper clipping

That's tough

Lousy slob +

From the ground up

Elevator

Elevator boy

It wasn't a picnic

Phonograph records

To have the jitters

It was nearly six' o clock +

*What did he have to do today?+
today?*

*As phrased by Marckwardt, this is another case of "ENGLISH SPOKEN,
AMERICAN UNDERSTOOD".*

BRITISH

underground /Tube train

furniture shop

newspaper cutting

Oh crumbs!+

Great impudent oaf+

down to its last detail

Lift

Lift boy

It wasn't a beanfest

Gramophone records

to get icebergs down your back

*It was getting on for six
o'clock+*

What had he got to do

(Marckwardt 1958:4)

On the basis of all the previously seen examples, the term English language, when used for the American variety of English, implies a higher level of mutual unintelligibility.

As observed by Marckwardt, American English is different and a totally independent entity:

The term English denies the implication of a separate language. At the same time, the adjective American, unblushingly appropriated, as is our wont, without regard for the feelings of the inhabitants of this continent outside the national borders of the United States, is intended to indicate more than the mere transplanting of a vernacular to a new soil, but rather to suggest its new growth as a somewhat changed and wholly indigenous organism.

(Marckwardt 1958:5)

Like in all past research into this topic, and also in this doctoral thesis, the aim is to find answers to many questions related to the relationship between the British and American variants of English, including their cultural history, institutional development and physical environment. In other words, as Marckwardt puts it:

Which of them are peculiar to the English-speaking people on the American continent and which they do not share with speakers of English elsewhere on the globe?' In short, how does American English reflect the American tradition and the American character? And further, what language processes have operated to produce such differences between British and American English, and how have they operated?

(Marckwardt 1958:6)

4.3 Influences

There are only a few languages which might be considered to be pure. English has adopted items from many languages which have had had influence on it throughout the centuries.

Native American

With the colonization of America, the problems arose with Native Americans: their land was occupied and communication was a problem. In one way or the other, both sides had to learn how to live with each other, as stated by Lippi-Green below.

The white and Indian must mingle together and jointly occupy the country or one of them must abandon it... in the difference of language to-day lies two thirds of our trouble... schools should be established, which children should be required to attend; their barbarous dialects should be blotted out and the English language substituted

(Lippi-Green 1997 :115-118)

There have been innumerable conflicts but the mutual influence between the Native American languages and English cannot be denied.

*English is a symbol of a concept that Indians have aptly expressed as **vasudhaiva kutumbakam** (the whole Universe is a family). It is true that not everyone may agree with this perception, but that there is such a positive reaction towards British English cannot be denied.*

(Kachru 1991:10-11)

Native American words that were adopted into English underwent considerable changes in their form and meaning during the borrowing process.

The list below in Table 12 contains vocabulary, classified according to the aspects of life fields of activity that they present, originating from different Native American languages that existed in the North American continent.

Table 12 Native American influence

TREES, PLANTS, FRUITS	FOODS	ANIMALS	FISH
Catalpa	hominy	cayuse	menhaden
Catawba	hooch	chipmunk	muskellunge
Hickory	pemmican	woodchuck	porgy
Pecan	pone	terrapin	quahog
Persimmon	succotash	Opossum	
poke (-berry, -weed)	supawn	skunk	
scuppemong		raccoon	
Squash		muskrat	
Tamarack		moose	
Sequoia			
AMERICAN CULTURE	POLITICAL TERMS	MISCELANEOUS	
Manitou	caucus	Chautauqua	
pot latch	mugwump	Chinook	
Powwow	tammany	Podunk	

Sachem		
Skookum		
Totem		
Papoose		
Squaw		
mackinaw		
moccasin		
tomahawk		
wampum		
hogan		
igloo		
kayak		
tepee		
wigwam		

(Marckwardt 1958:25)

Other borrowings that come from more familiar languages such as Latin, French and Italian usually closely correspond with the original meaning of the word.

Loan words do not go through changes only when and (soon) after they have been adopted but they also undergo certain changes as a part of the development of the English language itself. It is always interesting to analyze the particular parts of speech which these borrowings represent. Usually without an exception, American loan words are nouns and they are the most superficial type of borrowing. Marckwardt, however, notes that

eight of such loan words have become verbs, and among them are caucus, powwow, tomahawk, hickory, skunk (in a slang sense), wigwam, potlatch, and mugwump, although the last three are certainly rarely used.

(Marckwardt 1958:31)

All processes and borrowings of this kind are very important and influential upon the language. With the time passing by, all functional changes, compounds as well as derivatives, have been considered and, according to certain sources, fewer than 50 loan words have been introduced into the language. On the other hand, Marckwardt argues that

According to one estimate, present-day English contains some 1,700 words connected to the word Indian such as:

Indian claim, Indian summer, Indian file, Indian gift and giver, Indian creeper, and Indian cucumber

They are all clearly American in origin. The Dictionary of American English lists eighty, the earliest, Indian field and Indian meal, with citation dates of 1634 and 1635, respectively.

(Marckwardt 1958:33)

French influence

During their conquest of the continent, English had contacts with the French and their influence and non-English culture also reflected on the language. A number of words of French origin used for different aspects of life and field of activity can be traced to present-day American English. An illustration of these, collated by Marckwardt, is given in Table 13 below.

Table 13 French influence

PLANTS AND ANIMALS	EXPLORATION AND TRAVEL
Caribou	Portage
Crappie	Pirogue
Gopher	Carry-all
Pumpkin	Toboggan
	Voyageur
	Bateau
	Cache
FOODS	COINAGE
Chowder	Cent

Brioche	Dime
Jambalaya	Mil (?)
(pie) a la mode	
Praline	
Sazarac	
TOPONYMICS	MISCELLANEOUS
Bayou	(Indian) brave
Butte	Cajun
Chute	Calumet
Coulee	Canuck
Crevasse	chambray
Flume	charivari
Levee	lacrosse
Prairie	lagniappe
Rapids	parlay
Sault	picayune
	rotisserie
	Sashay
FURNITURE AND BUILDING	
Bureau	
Depot	
Shanty	

(Marckwardt 1958:35)

The process of large-scale borrowing from French first began after the Norman Invasion in 1066. Still, the nineteenth century should be marked as a period when the most words from French were borrowed. Generally, these were terms that referred to art, literature, dress, textiles, furniture and cooking although they have different sense and flavour when used in American English. This is also confirmed by Marckwardt:

In the course of the borrowing process, the French words were by no means as violently distorted in form and pronunciation as were the American Indian terms. Even though the spelling may have been considerably altered at times, as in the case of gopher, derived from gaufre, 'honeycomb,' a radical change in pronunciation is not necessarily implied.

(Marckwardt 1958:37)

Most of the borrowed words were nouns, the most widely used being *portage*, *cache* and *toboggan*.

With respect to compound formations, undoubtedly the most prolific of the borrowed words was prairie, which is represented by more than eighty combinations in Webster. Gopher, with fourteen on record, makes a poor second. Such derivatives as picayunish, picayunishness, tobogganer, and tobogganist serve to increase the total impact of French upon American English, but these pale into insignificance in comparison to the recent popularity of the -ée suffix. Particularly striking, has been the tendency to apply the originally feminine form of the past participle (-e) to masculine derivatives as well.

British English in general preserves, or at least used to preserve, the niceties of both gender and written accentuation, but in the United States an employee could be either male or female from the time of the first use of the word.

(Marckwardt 1958:37)

Spanish influence

This group of borrowed words has also been classified according to different aspects of life and the field of activity they represent, and are presented in Table 14 below.

Table 14 Spanish influence

PLANTS AND ANIMALS		RANCH LIFE	
Alfalfa	Chigger	Buckaroo	Peon
Marijuana	Cockroach	Chaparral	Quirt
Mesquite	Coyote	Chinch	Ranch
Yucca	Mustang	Corral	Reata
Armadillo	Palomino	Cuarta	Rodeo
Bronco	Pinto	Hacienda	Stampede
Barracuda	Vinegarroon	Lariat	Wrangler
Bonito		Lasso	
Pompano			
FOOD AND DRINK	BUILDING	MINING	CLOTHING
chile con carne	Adobe	Placer	Chaps
Enchilada	Cafeteria	bonanza	Poncho
Frijole	Patio		Serape
jerk (jerked meat)	Plaza		Sombrero
pinion nuts	pueblo		ten-gallon hat
Tamale			

(Marckwardt 1958:41)

In the Dictionary of Spanish Terms in English by Harold Bentley, there are about 400 borrowings, but Dr Ralph W. Sorvig has doubled this number with loan words that come from the American Southwest. *Tomato, barbecue, savannah, chocolate* and *sarsaparilla* belong to

this group and are most frequently used Spanish loanwords in English nowadays. The words for races and nationalities also appeared very early.

*A few Spanish loans have given rise to two words in English. In **lariat** and **reata**, the first includes and the second omits the definite article. **Vamose** and **mosey** are both from Spanish **vamos**, a form of the verb **to go**.*

(Marckwardt 1958:44-45)

Most of the borrowed words were nouns, but there are also exceptions with words of the type "oco", which is an adjective, or **pronto**, an adverb, and the verbs **vamoose**, **mosey** and **savvy**. Then, there are also nouns such as **stampede**, **lasso**, **ranch** and **barbecue**, and hybrids, **filibuster** and **jerk**, which developed into verbs.

Marckwardt provides more details of some Spanish loan words in the following.

*The most interesting combinative development is to be seen in connection with **cafeteria**. In Spanish, **/-erta/** was and is still a highly productive suffix, as a ten-minute walk through any Spanish-speaking city or village will clearly demonstrate. The main street will be lined with signs bearing such legends as **carniceria**, **ferreteria**, **planchaclena**, **tinto- reria**, **carpinteria**, **abarroteria** and as one approaches the United States border, even **drogena** and **loncheria**.*

(Marckwardt 1958:46)

Dutch influence

Words of Dutch origin, preserved in American English, have also been classified according to the aspects of life and the field of activity they are used to describe, and are presented in Table 15 below.

Table 15 Dutch influence

FARM AND BUILDING	FOOD	TOPONYMICS
Hay barrack	Cole slaw	Bush(back country)
Stoop	Cookie	Hook (of land)
Saw buck	Cruller	
	Pit	
	Pot cheese	

	waffle	
TRANSPORTATION	MISCELLANEOUS	SOCIAL QUALIFICATION
Caboose	Boodle	Boss
Scow	Dingus	Patroon
Sleigh	Dope	Yankee
Span (of horses)	Dumb(stupid)	
	Logy	
	Poppycock	
	Santa Claus	
	Snoop	
	Spook	

(Marckwardt 1958:48)

What is considered to be typical of the words originating from Dutch is that most of them are translations, rather direct appropriations of Dutch vocabulary items. One typical example is *pot cheese*, which was modified from Dutch *pot kees*.

*At least twenty different etymologies have been proposed for the most typical American of all words, **Yankee**, but among these the most credible seems to be Dutch **Jan Kees**, 'John Cheese/ a term applied to the New Englanders somewhat contemptuously.*

(Marckwardt 1958:49)

Dutch is regarded as the closest to English and it has provided the largest contribution of loan words to the American lexicon. There are certainly changes which have occurred in form and pronunciation, but they are fewer in number than for the other more distant and less closely related languages to English. A great number of the words spelled with double *oo* like food, used to be spelled with *oe* in Dutch and pronounced as in *pull*. This was also the case with words such as *hoek*, *snoe-pen*, *stoep* which are corresponding partners in English to *hook*, *snoop*, and *stoop* (the last two are pronounced with u:). The famous Santa, or Santa Claus, was derived from the Dutch gift-bringing character called Sinterklaas, St Nicholas

German Influence

German loan words, or words showing some degree of German influence, have, as with the other borrowed words, been classified according to the aspects of life and field of activity they are used to describe. They are presented in the following table, Table 16.

Table 16 German influence

FOOD AND DRINK	SOCIAL	EDUCATIONAL	MISCELLANEOUS
Beer soup	Kris Kringle	Diener	Bub
Blutwurst	Pinoche	Festschrift	Bum
Hock beer	Poker	Semester	Fresh
Delicatessen	Ratskeller	seminar	Hausfrau
Dunk	Saengerfest		Hex
Fossnocks	Stein		Katzenjammer
Frankfurter	Turner		Loafer
Hamburger	Turnverein		Nix
Lager beer	Belschnickel		Ouch
Liverwurst	Beer garden		Phooey
Noodle	Bower		Spiel spieler
Ponhaus	Christmas tree		Wunderkind
Pumpnickel			
Sauerbraten			
Schnitzel			
Smear case			
Snits			
Springerle			
Stollen			
Sweitzer cheese			
Thick milk			
Wienerwurst			
Zwieback			

(Marckwardt 1958:53)

As with the Dutch borrowings, the words borrowed from German are actually more like direct translations of German words in English, especially with compounds such as *rainworm*, *cookbook* and *backcountry*, which originate from *Regentvurm*, *Kokbuch* and *Hinterland*. Most of the German borrowings took place in the nineteenth century and they are primarily nouns, but there are certain interjections like *nix*, *ouch* and *phooey* and also *hurrah*, which are considered to be an importation from German as well.

The most productive word forming elements produced by the German influence are the prefix *k* and the suffixes *fest* and *burger*. *Fest* is found in words like *gabfest*, *talkfest*, *swatfest* and *slugfest*.

Marckwardt adds food-related German loan words based on their place of origin to the list:

A number of German food terms adopted in this country have geographical designations. Frankfurter, wienerwurst and even the more recent braunschweiger and thuringer are all instances sausages labelled in terms of their presumed place of origin. Hamburger steak, a designation first appearing in 1884, is but further extension of this same tendency.

(Marckwardt 1958:55)

Generally speaking, the influence of some groups of loan words which contributed to the diversity of the English language has been greater, some groups have only left faint traces; yet, they all made their own contribution, whether large or small.

4.4 Some other miscellaneous comparisons

Furthermore, there are certain particular examples and comparisons which refer to different words, groups and their meanings, the investigation of which could be also useful at this lexical level. One such is the transitive verb **loan**, which appeared for the first time in England in 1920 and is nowadays found in most American dictionaries. Unlike their American counterparts, the British prefer the verb **lend** to **loan**. Marckwardt provides a further example below.

*First of all, there are situations where British English appears to have acquired two synonymous words for the thing or idea at about the time of our earliest colonial settlement. One striking illustration of this is afforded by the English equivalents for what in America is called a **bedbug**. First of all, the word **bug**, originally signifying in*

England, as it now does in America, an insect of any kind, specialized in meaning and came to be applied only to the offensive little creatures found chiefly in beds and bedsteads.

(Marckwardt 1958:62)

History has played an important role in the replacement of certain vocabulary, namely, in that words from the motherland were used along with those in use in the New World, but later choices were made, for example, in the seventeenth century, the word **druggist** replaced **apothecary**, which had an unfavorable meaning. It was used for a “retailer seller of medical drugs”, and later spread to Scotland, and other American colonies.

Taking into consideration the regional dialects in Britain in the seventeenth and the eighteenth century, it is not strange that the newsletters introduced vocabulary and any other characteristics of those dialects to the colonies in America. Consequently, even today, some of the words from these regional dialects are found in American English while they are not found in Standard British English. Another example of this is provided by Marckwardt in the following.

*We have already seen this to be true of **bug**, for which American English preserves the early general meaning, whereas the specialized significance ‘**bedbug**’ prevails in England today. The word **apartment** offers another illustration of the same tendency, operating, however, with the aid of the grammatical form and functions of plurality. This term was, from 1641 on, applied to ‘a portion of a house or building consisting of a suite of rooms’ allotted to the use of a particular family. **Apartment** still has this meaning in the United States. In England, beginning in 1715, **apartment** seems to have been confined in meaning to a single room, the older sense of a suite of rooms being expressed by the term **flat** or by the plural **apartments**. This plural development did not spread to the United States, where single-room quarters must be referred to as **one-room apartments**.*

(Marckwardt 1958:65-66)

There are also other words which have gone through similar development, e.g., the word **tariff**. This originally Arabic word came to English through Italian and primarily referred to arithmetical table, but it was later applied to an official list or schedule and duties which are imposed on imports and exports.

The status of infrequently used words changed in the course of time. A good example of this is the word **baggage**, which was first used in the fifteenth century and means what is now called

luggage in England. It survived as *baggage* in the United States, but it disappeared from British English in the eighteenth century. Other cases of the same are *rubbish*, *purulent* or *corrupt matter* and *trashy article*, which were commonly used in England in the sixteenth century.

Yet another reason for the replacement of words is that a word can bring about a change in its own status by having a different meaning in the speech of the upper classes. An example of something similar to this is provided by Marckwardt:

*This happened to **jack** for 'knave' in cards. The ordinary term in the United States is **jack**. The word was first used in this sense in the game of all fours, sometimes in the seventeenth century. A little later it spread for a time to all card games, and apparently it was this broadened meaning that was carried to America.*

(Marckwardt 1958:67)

Regarding words changing their word class, the most common change is from a noun to an adjective, which happens both in British and American English, as shown in the following statement by Marckwardt below.

Undoubtedly the most frequent type of change which is encountered is that of noun to adjective or perhaps it would be more accurate to say the use in an adjunct or joined function...

(Marckwardt 1958:83)

Beside the conversion from an adjective to a noun or that of a noun to a verb, also other functional changes exist such as the case of **clap board**. It was first recorded as a verb in 1637, a time when the colonists started to cut and plane timber into finished building materials. A further example of such changes is that of verbs into adjectives, as in *call hurry consignment* and *hurry up wagon*, which used to be a slang term for a police car.

Although the word *book house* has been replaced with the French term for borrowing, it has been subsequently preserved in combinations such as *bookshop*, *bookbinder*, *bookcase*, *book collector*, *book fair*, *booklover*, *book review*, *bookroom*, *booksale*, *book trade* etc.

Compound foundations are especially typical of American English and they are not only connected to the dawn of its birth, but this usage has constant earmarks of an indigenous style.

*The same strong tendency toward the formation of compound is evident from a study of the individual word-entries in the **Dictionary of Americanisms**. There are twenty compound words with **stage** as a first element, forty-seven formed from **beaven**, and over*

*a hundred with **yellow** or with a combination already formed from the word **yellow-dog contract**.*

(Marckwardt 1958:87)

Any further discussion on particular vocabulary should start with the settlement of America, which is connected to the environment, and thus words for new flora and fauna had to be created because there were no suitable existing words for them.

Owing to the new environment and totally different economic conditions, changes also occurred in the context of institutions as well farming. Thus, combinations like these emerged:

log house, log cabin, corn, cotton belt, gin round up, land office, hog ranch, stum fence, hired man, hired girl, hired hand and hired help.

Furthermore, regarding the political and governmental issues, terminology was enriched and as exemplified by *lame duck, boss rule, favourite son, dark horse, carpetbagger* and *peanut politics*.

The proportion of compounds in American English is much greater when compared to that in British English. If they are considered within the framework of American development, their proportion is even greater. As regards sport terminology, baseball has references for every specific player position in the team except for the catcher and pitcher.

There have developed, moreover, any number of compound terms associated with the game: pinch-hit, bush league, double header, grandstand play, college try, charley horse and rain check.

(Marckwardt 1958:88)

Similarly, there is a newer invention of combining basketball and sedentary poker terms as in the following compounds: *full house, straight flush, jackpot, penny ante* and *seven card stud*.

Another important aspect came along with new inventions in America and England, which resulted in each country independently creating new terminology connected to, e.g., radio, automobile industry, television and railroads. Particular examples of related vocabulary connected to railroads are provided by Marckwardt in the following.

*For example, in American railroad terms, there are such combinations as **hox- car, handcar, chair car, jerkwater, waybill, stopover, sideswipe, milk train, hog engine, sidetrack, and roundhouse**.*

(Marckwardt 1958:89)

Metaphors have also played an important part in the creation of the American compounds. As an example, a disc jockey has nothing to do with horses: he is a person employed in a radio station. Marckwardt provides further examples of other metaphor-based compound nouns below.

Rat race, captive mine, ghost town, double talk all employ one of their elements figuratively. Finally, there is often a strong element of incongruity in the two or more parts comprising the combination: taxi-dancer, prowl car, squawk box, prairie schooner, and cow college.

(Marckwardt 1958:90)

As in the past, today's new words are made by adding prefixes and suffixes to a single word. A vast number of words have been created this way, of which Marckwardt gives an example in the following.

Allen Walker Read once remarked that a history of American opposition movements could be written from the treatment of the prefix /anti/- in the Dictionary of American English. The newer Dictionary of Americanisms lists no less than 105 of these combinations, ranging all the way from antifederalist, through anti-secession and anti-Mormon, up to /anti/- braintruster and /anti/-C.I.O. Other prefixes which have been particularly fruitful are de-, pro-, semi-, and super-, the last of these bearing witness to the national tendency toward hyperbole.

(Marckwardt 1958:90)

Some of the suffixes have been used extensively, for instance, *ette*, which is used to mark the female gender as in **farmerette**, **usherette**, **capette** (policewoman) and **drum majorette**. Moreover, the same suffix is used in words like **kitchenette**, **dinette** and **bathinette**, in which it is intended to give the idea of something being diminutive. Other productive suffixes are *ster* and *eer*, which have their own connotations as in **gangster** and **speedster**. Suffixes like *ist*, *ician* and *tor* used with occupations led to the formation of words such as **receptionist**, **cosmetician**, **beautician**, **mortician** and **realtor**.

In contrast to all the suffixes above, which are used to create nouns, the suffix *ize* is used to create new verbs, of which **itemize**, **accessorize**, **demoralize**, **burglarize**, **slenderize**, **simonize**, **winterize**, **hospitalize**, **Americanize**, **Morganize**, **Fletcherize**, **sanforize** and **Turbenize** can serve as examples..

One of the earliest suffixes used for compounds and the creation of new words is *er*, but the biggest and the most interesting difference between British and American English in the use of the suffix *ery*, which is used in England to indicate a class of materials, or even a place, or an occupation.

*Thus, **bakery** in England refers to the craft of the baker or the place for making bread, rather than to the place where baked goods are available to the consumer, as has been true in the United States since 1827. Likewise, **grocery**, used in England for the merchandise itself since the fifteenth century, was applied to a retail establishment in America as early as 1659.*

(Marckwardt 1958:92)

To compare, such combinations as *cookbook* and *cook stove* are used in American English while British English makes use of words like *cookery*, *ironmongery*, *deanery* and *rockery*, which are totally strange for American English speakers.

Another common and important process is the shortening of words by means of removing syllables either from the beginning or the end of the word. One type of shortening has been named *back formation*. There are a huge number of verbs in English which end in *ate* and have the corresponding derivation noun with the suffix *ation*. The following vocabulary items have been produced just in such a way: create-creation, deviate-deviation, placate-placation, ruminate-rumination. English has borrowed a few nouns in *ation* while originally there were no corresponding verbs ending in *ate*, which was the case with *donate* and *donation*.

The oldest and one of the earliest back formations in American English is *locate*, which actually first appeared in a Virginian travel account in 1652. The corresponding noun *location* was adopted from British English half a century ago. Further examples of such formation are provided by Marckwardt as follows.

*Verbal nouns with other variations of the final **-tion** suffix have given us **locomote**, once slang but now obsolete, **electrocute** in 1889, **emote**, labeled *jocose* by Webster in 1934 excoriated by Schele de Vere in 1871 as violent contraction.*

(Marckwardt 1958:94)

Another fertile way of enriching vocabulary is blending. Several types of blending could be found. In the first group, there are words which combine a single syllable or two syllables of an initial word. Examples of this process include the following:

cablegram (cable telegram) 1868
travelogue (travel monologue) 1903
newscast (news broadcast) 1937
Airacuda (a fighter bomber named for barracuda) 1937
pianotone 1939
camporee (camp jamboree)

Further examples of blending are given by Marckwardt below.

hydramatic, longram, campership, paratrooper, airathon inspectoroscope and ***Skycycle***
(Marckwardt 1958:96)

Another type of blending is when the initial syllable of the first word is combined with the final part of second as in the following examples:

motel (motor hotel)
celtuce (celery lettuce)

Claire Luce's coinage

globaloney (global baloney)
trainasium (*training* gymnasium)
racon (radar beacon)
tiglon (tiger, lion)
elevon (elevator aileron).

(Marckwardt 1958:96)

Acronyms are also created with the combination of the initial syllables of two or more words, as exemplified in the following:

minicam (*miniature camera*)
amtrac (amphibious tractor)
shoran (short range radar)
loran (long range navigation).

(Marckwardt 1958:96)

Combinations of the initial syllables can be treated in different ways and sometimes they can be even seen as one word. They might be pronounced as a single word as in

radar (*radio detection and ranging*)
UNESCO, CARE (Co-operative for American Remittances to Europe)

asdic (anti-submarine detection investigation committee)

voder (voice operation demonstrator)

Socony (Standard Oil Company of New York),

USAFI, USIS and *NATO*.

(Marckwardt 1958:96)

Due to different conditions, certain words have developed special meanings. In America, every seventh year, a professional holiday is granted and that is why American life is seen as sabbatical; also, corn refers more to maize rather than to grain, and a biscuit is a small cake made with soda or baking powder.

A distinct difference between American and British vocabulary can be noticed especially with infrequently used words. Occasionally, some of these words have a wider meaning in the US and a narrower one in England, as exemplified in the following comments by Marckwardt.

*Freight offers an excellent example of this type of change. In England, it is applied to merchandise transported by water, and as such it bears a relationship to the word **fraught laden**. Early in the nineteenth century, freight came to be applied in the United States to merchandise dispatched overland as well as quite possibly because long-distance shipping from one part of the country to another often involved hauling by land as well as by water.*

(Marckwardt 1958:104)

Another way of ‘new’ vocabulary is by combining together lexical items of different fields, of which McCarthy provides examples below.

There are also combinations of lexical items that are typical of certain fields, for example, desirable residence, tastefully modernized or compact patio style garden, which are found in the advertisements of property agents in England.

(McCarthy 1990:64)

Combinations of two lexical items are also created by means of collocations, which can be found in both variants. Below, Firth gives a definition of *collocation*.

Collocation refers to any combination of two lexical items. Night, for example, combines not only with dark but also with brooding, dull, frosty, hopeless, long, mantling, naked, perpetual, tedious and waxing.

(Firth 1957:196)

Nevertheless, it should be emphasized that such combinations have another role as well: to activate what has already been stored in the speaker's mind, as evidenced in Van Dijk's statement below.

These sets of lexical items activate in readers stored knowledge (of things, places, people and their roles) with which they flesh out what is said in the text and thus make the text coherent in their minds.

(Van Dijk 1977:98-9)

One very familiar example is with the word **college**, widely used and accepted in the United States, and used along with **university**, as with the typical American expression **going to college** meaning **going to university**.

Pie is another everyday word that has undergone many developments. Originally, it was used for baked meat or fish covered with a pastry crust. Then, in the sixteenth century, it was also applied to fruit baked in the same way. Also, in the United States, the term has gone through different phases. First, the double crusted pastry was replaced by an open faced pie, then by meringue-covered pie and, finally, it became an oblong cut of ice cream with a thin layer of chocolate.

Similarly, the word **politician** received unfavorable connotations on account of the rough days of Jacksonian democracy and the era after the civil war. Yet, a later entry for the word in Oxford English dictionary reveals another difference between British and American English, as noted by Marckwardt:

'One keenly interested in politics; one who engages in a party politics or in political strife, or who makes politics his profession or business; also (especially in U.S.) in a sinister sense, one who lives by politics as a trade.

(Marckwardt 1958:106)

In England, **lumber** used to refer to things no-one wanted and took up room. Correspondingly, lumber room was the place where all unnecessary or unwanted or unused toy presents were put. It is still used in some of the dialects which have survived through the centuries and that it is the proof for all the made changes.

Verb **haul** is just another example of considerable changes in meaning. Namely, in England it used to mean **use of force or violence** and then **pull/draw with force** whereas, in the United States, it is often used as a synonym for **drawing** or **carting**.

One of the best and striking illustrations for the change in meaning is definitely with the development of the word **saloon**, which in its American meaning is equivalent to the British English word **public house/pub**. It originated from the French word **salon** and was borrowed to mean a **drawing room**. This connection with elegance and fashion remained in British England and there was even the coinage **saloon car** for an automobile.

The word **public house** entered the language in the United States in 1704, when the British legislature affected the American colonies. Hence, it was natural to create a new term that would refer to a drinking establishment which was not a hotel. However, the first term that came up was **bar room**. **Tavern** was a word originally used to denote a drinking place but had nothing to do with accommodation. In the United States it was used to refer to a hotel or inn.

The word *opera house* has also encountered certain changes: it was used to mean *theatre* or *auditorium* in the nineteenth and early twentieth century in many small towns.

Business college was coined as a term in 1865 but there are no data of *barber college*, for example.

The terminology connected to different occupations has undergone a series of changes which are very similar to the changes within the educational institutions. **Doctor** and **professor** might serve as the best examples of this. Both terms are more restricted in their usage in Britain as, for instance, surgeons are titled **Mr** although they hold a **MD degree**, and professorships are less numerous in the United States. On this topic, Marckwardt states the following.

In America, dentists, osteopaths, chiropractors, optometrists, chiropodists, and veterinary are all doctors, and in addition the tremendous extension of the doctorate in American graduate schools, and the lavish manner degrees add to the number of doctors on the other levels as well.

(Marckwardt 1958:115)

Something similar happened to the word **professor** but it began even earlier and went further. In the past, it was used to address principals and male grade school teachers. In the North of the United States, many of the holders of doctorate did not obtain the rank of professor. Furthermore, one who was a professor and doctor at the same time was called a professor.

The word **engineer** has been used in a number of rather strange combinations. At first, it was connected to the railroad and, in England, in a general context, it referred to the engine driver. Further compounds of the word, to name just a few, *patent engineer*, *recreation engineer*,

erosion engineer and casement window engineer, illustrate the variety of occupations this word has been applied in.

Lexemes referring to meals have also changed through time. To start with, *dinner* and *supper* were very precise and accurate descriptions. In the past, they referred to lighter meals at around noon, which were consumed away from home, especially by males. Then, over time, they changed into heavier meals at home in the evenings, which resulted in changing the meaning of supper.

When referring to the rooms of a house, one should begin with the word **restroom**, which was originally the part of the house used only on weekdays, especially to entertain guests, and for holidays and festive occasions. In the United States, it was presented as the parlor and in England as the drawing room (also sitting room or parlour).

Sitting room became old fashioned and went out of use when also **parlor** disappeared and that family room became the living room.

Unlike the English, the Americans have a home, not a house. He builds himself a home and his building contractors are home builders. The house holder is the homeowner. The vacuum sweepers, dishwashing machines, irons, and the other mechanical devices of the American household are called *home appliances*.

4.5 An impossible lexical contrast

There are hosts of examples of lexemes in use both in British and in American English, but it is still impossible to give a precise answer to the question whether an expression in British English has an equivalent in American English and vice versa. Sometimes there is not a single one to be found to correspond with its variant counterpart, or if correspondence is found, it is only partial.

The best example for this impossible lexical contract is concerned with the hierarchy of university teaching. Hence, a British professor is not the same as professor in the US because there they have a full professor (most senior), associate professor and assistant professor (most junior). In contrast, the equivalent British ranks, i.e., a reader, a senior lecturer and a lecturer, constitute a system which is explained in more detail by Crystal below.

An associate professor is roughly equivalent to a reader, and lower grades of lecturer can be equated with an assistant professor. But it is not possible to identify the AmE equivalent of a senior lecturer, and in the days when tenured positions were serious academic options, there was even less equivalence, as a BrE lecturing post was usually

tenured, whereas an AmE assistant professorial position was usually not (but rather, 'tenure-track').

(Crystal 2003:308)

The lists in Table 17 below illustrate corresponding lexical items. The rules of convention by Benson & Ilson (1986) have been adopted.

Table 17 American vs British English

American English	British English
absorbent cotton	cotton wool
Administration	Government
airplane	aeroplane
allowance	pocket money
Aluminum	aluminium
Antenna	Aerial
apartment building	block of flats
Archie Bunker (<i>colloq.</i>)	Alf Garnett
ash can	Dustbin
ass (<i>colloq.</i>)	arse
Auto	car
baby carriage	pram
back-up	tailback
Baggage	luggage
baseboard	skirting board
bathroom	lavatory, toilet
bathtub	bath
beltway	ring road
Big Dipper	The Plough
bill (<i>money</i>)	Note
billfold	wallet
biscuit	(<i>roughly</i>) scone
blue jeans	jeans (<i>blue denim</i>)

bobby pin	hair grip
bookstore	bookshop
Bronx cheer	raspberry (<i>noise</i>)
bulletin board	notice board
bureau	chest of drawers
caboose	guard's van
call-in (program)	phone-in (programme)
can	tin
candy	sweets
car (<i>train</i>)	carriage, wagon
carryall	holdall
casket	coffin
catsup	(tomato) ketchup
charge account	credit account
check (<i>restaurant</i>)	bill
checkers	draughts
checking account	current account
clothespin	clothes peg
comforter	eiderdown
conductor (<i>train</i>)	guard
cookie	biscuit (<i>roughly</i>)
Corn	maize, sweet corn
Cot	camp bed
cotton candy	candy floss
county seat	county town
crib	cot
crossing guard	lollipop man/lady
depot	(railway) station
derby	bowler (hat)
desk clerk	reception clerk

detour (<i>road sign</i>)	diversion
dial tone	dialling tone
diaper	nappy
dish towel	tea towel
divided highway	dual carriageway
dollhouse	doll's house
dormitory	hall of residence
draft	conscription
drapes	curtains
driver's license	driving license
druggist	pharmacist
Drygoods	drapery, soft goods
dump truck	tipper lorry
eighth note	quaver
electric cord	flex
elementary school	primary school
elevator	lift
emergency cord	communication cord
engineer	engine driver
Eraser	rubber
exhaust fan	extractor fan
expressway (<i>in city</i>)	motorway
Fall	autumn
fanny (<i>slang</i>)	buttocks
faucet	tap
fire department	fire brigade (nowadays: Fire & Rescue)
first floor	ground floor
flashlight	torch
floor lamp	standard lamp
flutist	flautist

football	American football
freeway	motorway
freight train	goods train
French doors	French windows
French fries	chips
garbage	rubbish, refuse
garters	suspenders
gasoline	petrol
girl scout	girl guide
grade crossing	level crossing
installment plan	hire purchase
billboard	hoarding
vacation	holiday
homemaker	housewife, home help
intern	houseman
ice cream	ice
popsicle, ice	ice lolly
hot water heater	immersion heater
internal Revenue Service	Inland Revenue
intermission	interval
jell-O	jelly
John Q Public	Joe Public
rummage sale	jumble sale
sweater, pullover	jumper
jack	knave (<i>cards</i>)
run	ladder (<i>hosiery</i>)
leash	lead
lemon soda	lemonade
track	line (<i>railway</i>)
business suit	lounge suit

grab bag	lucky dip
squash	marrow
math	maths (<i>colloq.</i>)
ground / chopped meat	mince
car, automobile	motorcar / car / motor
fender	mudguard
mom. mommy (<i>colloq.</i>)	mum, mummy (<i>colloq.</i>)
nail polish	nail varnish /polish
newsdealer	newsagent
nightgown	nightdress
zero, nothing	nil
zero	nought
tick-tack-toe	noughts and crosses
license plate	number plate
crepe	pancake
underpants	Pants
kerosene	paraffin
solitaire	patience (<i>cards</i>)
Sidewalk	pavement
Mailbox	pillar box
building permit	planning permission
Mail	Post
zip code	post code
shrimp cocktail	prawn cocktail
Flat	puncture
Stroller	pushchair
Line	Queue
Racetrack	racecourse (<i>for horses</i>)
Railroad	railway
moving van	removal van

Raise	rise (<i>in salary</i>)
traffic circle	roundabout
row boat	rowing boat
Sailboat	sailing boat
Saltshaker	Saltcellar
Salesclerk	shop assistant
signal tower	signal box
crosstie, tie	sleeper (<i>railway</i>)
Ramp	slip road
lawyer	solicitor
Wrench	spanner
(hard) liquor	spirits
track meet	sports(school)
Scallion	spring onion
Orchestra	stalls
public school	state school
Pit	stone (<i>fruit</i>)
Valve	stopcock
Underpass	subway
rutabaga	swede
swinging door	swing door
jelly roll	swiss roll
telephone pole	telegraph pole
telephone booth	telephone box/kiosk
row house	terraced house
liability insurance	third-party insurance
Pantyhose	Tights
labor union	trade union
Sneakers	trainers
truck stop	transport cafe

Molasses	treacle
shopping cart	trolley
pants suit	trouser suit
Subway	Tube
cuff	turn-up
subway	underground
Undershirt	vest
Vest	waistcoat
rest room	WC , toilet, loo
Scotch	Whisky

Regarding the complexity of the pragmatic level and taking into consideration the fact that it demands special attention I am going to elaborate it but only in close connection to the previous lexical level. I have decided to this because a lot of the examples are very close in their meaning and in some cases they even overlap. As an approach for dealing with the lexis of two variants of a certain language is needed, Trudgill et al. provide a description of a frequently employed one below.

Perhaps the most common way to deal with the lexis of two varieties of a language is what may be called pragmatic approach. This method compares words and phrases with their referents or meanings in terms of sameness and difference. Despite varying approaches with sometimes far more groupings, five different groups may conveniently be recognized.

(Trudgill et al 1985:4.3)

The language in use can be different but also the way in which it is used may refer to different attitudes, whether positive, negative or neutral, towards miscellaneous groups of people, as testified in the following comment by Edwards.

My sister she's a right little snobby... if she came here now she'd speak plain English, but she can speak Patois better than me. She speaks it to me to some of her coloured friends who she knows Patois but to her snobby coloured friends she speaks English. She talks Queen English brebber. She's the snotty one of the family.

(Edwards 1986:121)

Sometimes, speakers may decide to use code-switching to provide better understanding of the context.

Code-switching, showing multiple identities in non conventionalized exchanges, is also used as neutral strategy. Since each code communicates a particular identity in a given situation when it is unclear which identity offers the speaker the most positive evaluation, the speaker may use code-switching as a solution

(Myers-Scotton 1989:333-9)

Conversation may also depend on the personal background of the speakers and whether they come from Britain or the USA. The British are more reserved while the Americans tend to be more open and offer more personal details about themselves. Pin and Turndorf use the term *interactional encounters* for conversation, and describe below how the process folds out.

In Interactional encounters with strangers the opening phrase involves a gradual, step-by-step disclosing of and asking for ,more or less personal details about the other person, for example where they live, come from, went to school, etc after which the conversation can move on to a common theme of discussion

(Pin and Turndorf 1985:180)

As previously concluded in the analyses on the lexical level, and also noted that the lexical and pragmatic levels overlap at certain points, words and their meanings in British and American English can be discussed within the framework of the following groups.

The first of these usually consists of those that have no difference in meaning and American and British English speakers have no difficulty in understanding each other. The second contains words present in both British and American English, but with a different meaning. These are usually words that are connected to the nature such as **moor** or **heath** in British English, or **prairie** and **canyon** in American English. The vocabulary that covers social and political institutions as, for example, **Yorkshire pudding** or **back bench** in British English and the American words **succotash** and **favorite son**.

However, it is very important to emphasize the fact that, although there are differences in meaning in one or the other variety, this causes no misunderstandings between the two. Nevertheless, it is not always like that, as sometimes even attitudes can cause some difficulty:

Attitudes as catalysts of voice changes, is a determinant of comprehension between languages and as well as determinant in conclusion of the teacher about the student

(Cooper/Fishman 1974:5)

A sub-category to the second group, *lexical gap*, might cause some problems as well, as can be seen in the quote from Benson et al below.

*A variant on this type of distinction is what has been called a **lexical gap**. Here the referent or concept has been known in the other variety but not lexicalized, that is, only paraphrases are available, for example:*

*British English a **chapel** 'a local (branch) of a printers' union' or*

*British English (slang) **to tart up** 'to dress up in a garish manner'.*

(Benson et al 1986:29)

In the third group there are different words and phrases, used in both varieties but refer to the same idea as in

British English	<i>petrol</i>	American English	gas(oline)
American English	<i>a truck</i>	British English	<i>a lorry.</i>

The group to follow covers words which exist in both variants, but have a completely different meaning. To give an example, what is *a vest* in British English is *an undershirt*. in American English, while the AmE word *vest* in means *a waistcoat* in British English.

Yet another form of variation is found in the next group, where both varieties share one and the same word and also agree about its meaning, but the word has gained an additional meaning in one variation. This can be illustrated by the word *leader* “someone/something that leads” , which in British English also has the same meaning as the American English word *editorial*.

The word *fall* exists in both varieties and means “a downward movement” but in American English it also has the meaning of the season the British call *autumn*. Some of such words may have different meanings derived only from a certain context, as exemplified by Benson et al below.

Examples in British English are sit or enter for when they collocate with exam, while freshen has the extra meaning ‘add more liquid etc. to a drink’ in American English only in collocation with drink.

British English set an exercise is American English assign an exercise

(Benson et al 1986)

The last group consists of words frequently used in and shared by both variants, which have the same meaning, but one of the variants has another additional expression that the other does not have, examples of which are provided in the following.

The word *taxi* exists in both varieties but there is also the word *cab* in American English. Both of them share the word *raincoat* but only the British wear a *mackintosh* or a *mac* when it rains. **Pharmacy** is a word found in both British and American English and it has the same meaning in the both variants, but alternative synonyms also exist: **chemist’s** in British and **drugstore** in American English.

4.6 Relative frequencies and cultural associations

Relative frequencies and cultural associations are concepts that should also be considered when investigating the differences between variants of a language. Ilson points out the importance of the former in the quote before.

*Many writers make absolute statements and do not take into account the evidence for relative frequencies. Too little use has been made so far of the two large-scale corpora assembled at Brown University for American English and at Lancaster, Oslo and Bergen (LOB) for British English. It is not the case, for example, that **railroad** is found exclusively in American English or **ox~railway** only in British English:*

*‘ in the Brown corpus **railroad** appears forty-seven times and **railway** ten; in LOB **railway** appears fifty-two times and **railroad** once ’*

(Ilson 1990:37)

Few people are aware of the differences in cultural associations created by the meanings of words in both variants in question, as exemplified by Ilson in the following.

It is often pointed out, for example, that robin refers to two different birds but it is hardly ever mentioned that the English one is considered a symbol of winter while the American robin is the harbinger of spring.

(Ilson 1990:40)

Another example is the frequently used word **vacation**, which has completely different connotations. For the American English word **vacation** the British use the word **holiday**. In British English, **vacation**, however, is used in different meanings, all of which carry the idea of ‘empty/not filled’, for example, *a vacant look in her eyes, a vacant room/house*.

One of the most amazing pragmatic changes has occurred with the word **depot**. Since its conception in British English, it has been given several meanings, starting from a **deposit** or **collection**, then a *place where anything could be placed* and finally, *a goods station at a terminus*. On the other hand, in the United States, the very same building was used to store goods, sell tickets and even provide shelter to passengers, and now it means a *waiting room for bus passengers*. Correspondingly, a **depot wagon** (from a **horse drawn vehicle**) became a **station wagon**. Another example is **picayune**, which originally meant a small coin but then the meaning was extended to *something mean* or *contemptible*. Similarly, **apache**, whose original meaning was “dancing character of the low class of French halls and cafes”, today represents a curious instance of what is called **loan followed by repayment**. Further nuances related to social class are provided below by Benson.

*Difficult and controversial, though of great importance in both the United States and Great Britain, are the social class associations that items can have in the respective variety. It is therefore not unimportant for Americans to know that British English **lounge** ‘is definitely non-U drawing room definitely U’ where [U means ‘upper class’]*

(Benson 1986:36)

On the flipside, British people might be interested to know, as stated by Fussell

*that in America ‘**Proles say tux, middles tuxedo**, but both are considered low by uppers, who say **dinner jacket** or (higher) **black tie**’*

(Fussell 1984:152)

4.6.1 The fields of university and of sports

Comparison carried out in these two fields provides further specification of what has to be taken into consideration in this research.

People

In the field of education, higher education in America, tertiary education in Britain can be divided two groups:

(1) *those who teach at the faculty:*

American English	British English
<i>(full) professors</i>	<i>professors</i>
<i>associate professors</i>	<i>readers</i>
<i>assistant professors</i>	<i>senior lecturers</i>
<i>instructors</i>	<i>lecturers</i>

(2) *those who study:*

<i>freshmen</i>	<i>first year students or freshers</i>
<i>sophomores</i>	<i>second year students</i>
<i>juniors</i>	<i>third year students</i>
<i>seniors</i>	<i>final year students</i>

(Gramley et al 1992 :362)

In American English, teaching and research is organized in **departments**, but in British English in **faculties**. The supervision of these departments is done by **heads of departments** in American English and **deans** in British English. There is a difference between a **dean** in the United States

and Britain, as, in the United States, he or she is usually a **head of a major division in a college**. At the top of the American system is the president. This is completely unknown in Britain, where there is **chancellor** and **vice chancellor**, a title, which, as a term, also exists in the United States but means **the head of the university system**.

Activities

A student in the USA can go to a college where he/she has a **major** and a **minor subject**, whereas in Britain the student goes to university and has a **main** and a **subsidiary subject**.

The words for residential buildings for students also differ

a *dorm(itory)* in American English

a *student hostel* or a *hall (of residence)* in British English

Students must be careful with their behaviour or they might be *suspended* (US) or simply *rusticated* or, in the worst situation, *sent down* (UK), or *expelled* (US & UK). A **class** as a term is an expression common to both variants and students get a **term paper** (US) or a **long essay** (UK). Further examples are provided by Gramley et al. below.

And at the end of a semester, trimester, quarter (all American English) or term (in common for both) they sit (British English) or take (in common for both) exams which are supervised (American English) or invigilated (British English) by a proctor (American English) or invigilator (British English). These exams are then corrected and graded (American English) or marked (British English).

(Gramley et al 1992 :363)

Regarding the grading, as it can be noted below, there are certain differences in the evaluation scales used by the two varieties.

American colleges and universities mark from A (high), via B, C and D, to F (low = fail), which are marks known and used in the UK as well. Overall results for a term as well as for the whole of one's studies in the USA will be expressed as a grade point average, with a high of 4.0. In the UK a person's studies may conclude with a brilliant starred first, an excellent first, an upper second, a lower second or a third (a simple pass).

(Gramley et al 1992 :363)

If students are good and obtain a **BA**, which is the same for both varieties, or a **BS**, which is American English, or **BSc** in British English, they can continue and become *graduates* in

American English, or *postgraduates* in British English. If they continue with their studies, they will have to write their *MA thesis* in American English or *MA dissertation* in British English. At the highest level, one will find the *doctoral dissertation* in American English and *doctoral thesis* in British English.

Sports expressions

Colloquial speech is usually full of idiomatic expressions and it appears that the largest proportion of these originate from sports. There are many different sports but main differences in language usage are mostly based on the typical national sports of the two countries, that is, **cricket** and **baseball**.

Since the two sports resemble each other, they actually share some expressions:

***batting order** ‘the order in which people act or take their turn’;*

***to field** ‘enter a competition’ as in to field candidates for an election;*

***to take the field** ‘to begin a campaign’.*

The user should, however, beware of the seemingly similar, but in reality very different, expressions (British English) to do something off one’s own bat ‘independently, without consulting others’ vs. (American English) to do something off the bat ‘immediately, without waiting’.

(Gramley et al 1992 :363)

As cricket and baseball are typical national sports, all these expressions are connected to one or the other. So these expressions have become part of British English and American English although sometimes they have nothing to do with the sport except their origin:

***to stump** ‘to baffle, put at a loss for an answer’*

***put out a batsman** ‘by touching the stumps’; to get someone out of play*

***to stonewall** ‘to draw out discussion intentionally and avoid giving an answer’ (slow, careful overly protective play by a batsman).*

Other expressions from cricket which are not commonly used in American English are the following:

***a sticky wicket** ‘a difficult situation’ and*

***it/that is not cricket** ‘unfair or unsportsmanlike’.*

The following expressions, also based on cricket, are unknown or less familiar in American English:

to hit something for six ‘to have a resounding success’,
to queer someone’s pitch ‘to spoil someone’s plans’,
to be caught out ‘to be trapped, found out, exposed’,
a hat trick (also soccer) ‘something phenomenally well done’,
She has had a good innings ‘a long life’.

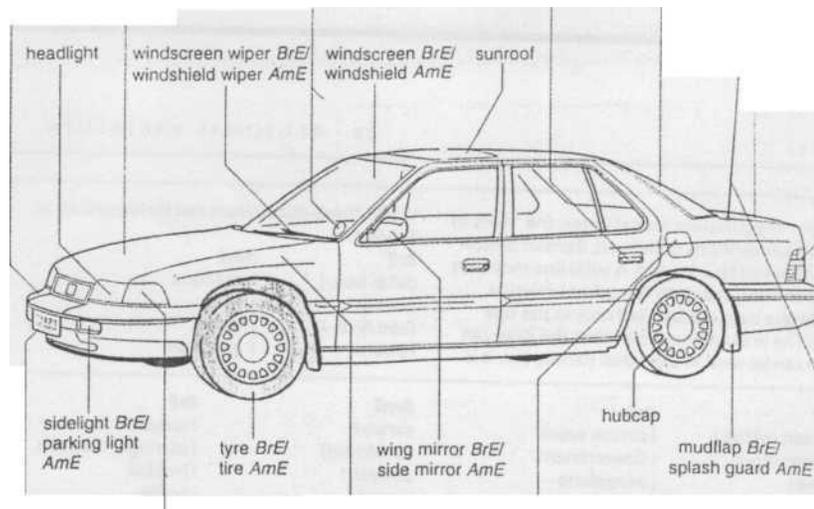
The most typical baseball expressions, collated by Gramley et al, with a taste of Americanism in them are as follows:

to play (political, economic, etc.) hard ball ‘to be serious about something’,
to touch base ‘to keep in contact’,
not to get to first base with someone ‘to be unsuccessful with someone’,
to pinch hit for someone ‘to stand in for someone’,
to ground out/fly out/foul out/strike out ‘to fail’,
to have a/one strike/two strikes against you ‘to be at a disadvantage’,
to play in/ to make the big leagues ‘to work/be with important, powerful people’,
a double play ‘two successes in one move’,
a rain check ‘postponement’,
a grand slam (also tennis and bridge) ‘a smashing success or victory’,
a blooper ‘a mistake or failure’,
a doubleheader ‘a combined event with lots to offer’,
batting average ‘a person’s performance’,
over the fence or out ‘average of the ball park ‘a successful move or phenomenal feat’,
out in left field ‘remote, out of touch, unrealistic’,
off base ‘wrong’.

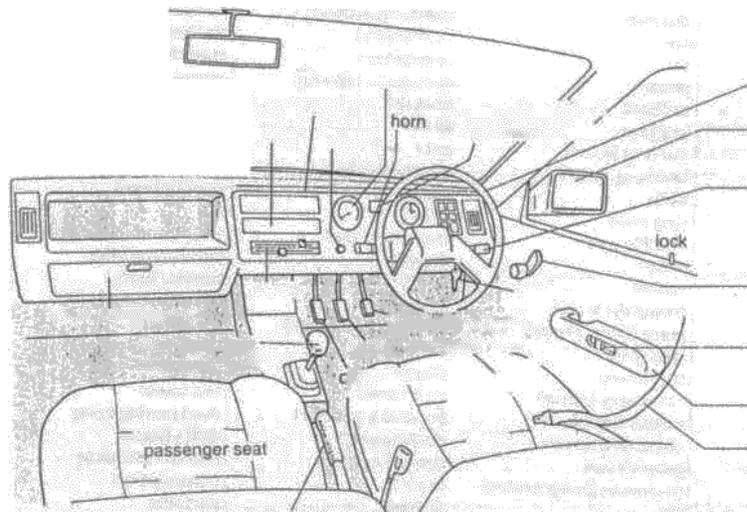
(Gramley et al 1992 :364)

What follows next is the vocabulary connected to cars, both to their exterior and interior.

Exterior of a car



Interior of a car



British English

windscreen
rear-view mirror
speedometer
steering wheel
dashboard
petrol gauge
wing mirror
windscreen wiper
indicator switch

American English

windshield

air vent choke
gas gauge
side mirror
windshield wiper
turn signal lever

window winder

window roller

heater

glove compartment

gear lever / stick

gear shift

door handle

arm rest

accelerator

gas pedal

clutch

driver's seat

ignition

seat belt

4.7 Euphemisms

Marckwardt defines euphemism as follows:

It means verbal prudery or the avoidance of the unpleasant word, which is another somewhat indirect product of the frontier which, from a pragmatic and lexical point of view at least, is often closely allied to verbal glorification.

(Marckwardt 1958:122)

The use of euphemisms, according to Cameron and Coates, can also be connected to women's fight for their rights.

Deborah Cameron and Jennifer Coates (1988) offer a critical account of the role of women in the situations of linguistic change investigated by Labov. While they concede that the research appears to demonstrate women initiating changes in the direction of prestige norms they question the status of the male norms in terms of which the women's behavior is examined.

(Cameron et al 1988:16)

Another definition is that euphemisms were introduced in order to avoid offending anyone or unpleasant situations, especially in the past when many words or expressions were found to be offensive to females. To give an example, below, you can find Aichison's explanation for her choice of vocabulary in the preface of her book Teach Yourself Linguistics:

I have tried to avoid sexist linguistic usages found in the earlier versions, which misleadingly implied in places that only males of our species could talk. I have done this

partly by using the plural (people instead of he), partly by using indefinites (a person anyone) followed by a plural pronoun and partly by interchanging he and she in places where a neutral between sexes pronoun is required.

(Aitchison 1992 :viii)

Closely related to the euphemisms themselves there are the characteristics which have connections to the user's origin and age, where he/she lives etc. Eble also ties in sexual distinctions:

Sexual distinctions in language use overlap with various combinations of other distinctions such as age, geographic region, socio-economic class, identification, occupation and specific social situation.

(Eble 1977:296)

Thus, it can be assumed that the type of the sentence structures that opposite sexes use are different.

Women prefer to string clauses together (like a set of pearls) while men employ complex sentences (like a set of Chinese boxes, one within the other)

(Jespersen 1922:251f)

However, in addition to gender, age can play an important role as it will greatly influence whether women or girls are participating in one particular conversation.

Because of its present derogatory meaning Maggio suggests using (young) woman instead of a girl, though women themselves may go on using the term either of long habit, local custom or because they still think of themselves in that way.

(Maggio 1988:53)

It is still unclear what the reason is for starting to replace words, for instance, **casket** with **coffin**, perhaps to suggest something more elegant or simply to avoid terms connected to death and burial.

The use of euphemisms in America started early in the nineteenth century and was mostly due to two reasons: women's position in the society, and the predominately middle-class character of the American culture.

There are also differences between the two varieties of English regarding the use of euphemisms. For example, what the English call **a loo**, Americans call a **toilet**. Marckwardt provides quite a few American euphemisms for expletives below.

*American English has developed a whole lexicon of near-swearing, including **darn, drat, doggone, blasted, Sam Hill, gee whittaker, gee whiz,** and their progeny of sixty- seventy others, most of them still bearing more resemblance to the particular morsel for which they have been substituted.*

Darn offers a fairly satisfactory example of the way one of these terms developed.

(Marckwardt 1958:127-128)

Another issue included in this part of the research is the use of political terms and their correct use. It could be even argued that they are used as a movement which has its own consequences in different parts of our lives. Dunant provides a rather extreme example of this below.

At a more apocalyptic level, political correctness is hailed as a movement which, if allowed to run unchecked, will curtail free speech, deny common sense, threaten the foundations of family life and rewrite our literary and national histories until all notions of western values have been denied.

(Dunant 1994:viii)

A great number of examples of lexical and idiomatic expressions and the differences that exist between these two varieties have been presented in this paper. Still, both American and British speakers are already familiar with most vocabulary connected to everyday speech as well as international communication in use in each of the variants. However, as shown in Crystal's anecdote below, misunderstandings can still arise.

THE PLAY WAS A REAL BOMB!

If you are an American reader, you are in no doubt: it was *a total disaster*. If you are a British reader, you are in no doubt: it was *a tremendous success*.

'The question is: did the speaker like it or not?'

The point illustrates the need to be careful with idioms, as well as individual words, when crossing ' the Atlantic.

(Crystal 2003:310)

For both varieties, interpretation is very important and sometimes it is hard to give exact idiomatic equivalents between British English and American English.

A list follows with exceptions of these idioms

<i>British English</i>	<i>American English</i>
<i>the lie</i>	<i>lay of the land</i>
<i>to turn on sixpence/</i>	<i>a dime</i>
<i>a skeleton in the cupboard/</i>	<i>closet</i>
<i>cash on the nail/</i>	<i>barrelhead</i>
<i>blow one's own trumpet/</i>	<i>horn</i>
<i>off the back of a lorry/</i>	<i>truck</i>
<i>put in my two pennies' worth /two cents' worth.</i>	

(Crystal 2003:310)

The next list is of idioms which have no easy equivalents and must be interpreted in order to be understood.

British English

hard cheese! (=bad luck!)

drop a brick (=blunder)

in queer street (=in debt)

a turn-up for the books (=a surprise)

the best of British! (=good luck!).

American English

right off the bat (=with no delay)

feel like two cents (=feel ashamed)

out of left field (=unexpectedly)

take the Fifth (=refuse to answer)

play hardball (=no holds barred)

a bum steer (=bad advice).

(Crystal 2003:310)

There are a number of idioms in American English such as “ants in his pants” and “a quick buck” which have become common in both varieties, and thus there is no problem with comprehension.

5. Grammatical level

In this section the two variants of English language in question are to be analyzed at the grammatical level, where, although the differences are not so significant, they are still provide an interesting object of research for this doctoral thesis as they will provide a more complete picture. Generally speaking, there are relatively few grammatical differences between educated speakers of British and American English.

The section to follow is concerned with the most significant part of syntax, i.e., the functions of verbs.

5.1 Verbs

A great deal of attention should be paid on verbs as they give rise to the most common differences between British and American English. However, it is often extremely difficult, and often not even advisable, to make a judgement on what is correct or what is not as, for example, two forms of past participle are commonly in use for both variants.

The Oxford Guide is usually more hesitant than Fowler about making definite judgments of [what is] correct and incorrect. The past tense has an a for the past participle as in began and drank. It is an error to use begun or drunk... for the past tense

(Weiner 1983:24)

When contemplating verbs, one's mind focuses on the tenses and the context in which they are used and, in general, this is shared by all languages in the world, as also stated by Comrie:

Tense is a deictic category ,i.e locates situations in time, usually with reference to the present moment....Aspect is not concerned with relating the time of the situation to any other time-point, but rather with the internal temporal constituency of the one situation : one could state the difference as one between situation – internal time (aspect) and situation –external time (tense)

(Comrie (1976:5)

One of the differences is with the verbs that have nasal ending, such as ***dream, lean*** and ***spill***. These verbs usually have two forms for past tense and past participle. That is to say, they can function as regular verbs by adding the suffix ***ed*** or as an irregular verb adding ***t***. Verbs that belong to this group are the following: ***burn, dream, dwell, kneel, lean, learn, spell, spill*** and ***spoil***.

The main difference is that American English verbs take /*ed*/ suffix for past simple and past participle and in British English verbs function as irregular verbs and mostly they end in /*t*/. Nevertheless, this is not the case for all verbs, as there are also verbs ending in **m**, **n** or **l** which do not have two forms, as for example, **deal**, **mean**, and **dream**. They can be either irregular in both variants or simply add the suffix /*ed*/ like regular verbs in both varieties.

According to Gramley Americans tend to prefer the /*ed*/ to the /*t*/ suffix, especially in some colloquial forms. Another very frequent difference is that the British prefer present perfect to past simple in certain contexts.

I just ate

vs.

I have just eaten

Americans may occasionally use irregular past participle forms instead of irregular past simple forms to achieve higher level stylistic formality, as stated by Gramley below.

*A further widespread phenomenon that appears to be greater tendency in American English is that non-standard past tense forms are used higher up in the scale of the stylistic formality. This is especially the case with the pattern **sprung** for **sprang** and also non-standard simple past tense like **rung**, **shrunk**, **sung**, **sunk**, **stunk**, **swung**.*

(Gramley et al 1992:350)

There are also some other differences regarding the past tense and past participle, but they are individual cases, usually connected to the different pronunciation of these forms.

ate British English /*et*/
American English /*eit*/

shone British English /*ʃɒn*/
American English /*ʃəʊn*/

American English also has irregular past tense forms of **dove** and **snuck** beside the already commonly used **dived** and **sneaked**. On the other hand, British English uses **quitted**, **betted** and **fitted** instead of **quit**, **bet** and **fit** in American English. Other examples are **proven** and **shaven** which are used as well as **proved** and **shaved** as past participles. Further examples are provided by Gramley below.

*Furthermore, American English has the past participles **beat**, **shook** and **swelled** beside the normal forms **beaten**, **shaken** and **swollen** in expressions like*

to be beat meaning 'completely exhausted',
all shook up meaning 'upset'
to have a swelled head meaning 'be conceited'.

(Gramley and et al 1992:350)

What is characteristic to both varieties is the use of present, not past simple, in narration, as observed by Hullen in the following.

However, the majority of text units are not located in the past as is the norm in narrative texts, but in the present. The present tense is characteristic of expository texts.

(Hullen 1987:16-17)

5.1.1 Get and have

When comparing these two verbs, attention needs to be paid to the meanings of "got and "gotten", which are defined in detail by Quirk in the following.

Have got is used " for possession, obligation or logical necessity in both varieties:
possession: *I've got a book on that subject;*
obligation: *You've got to read it;*
logical necessity: *It's got to be interesting.*

This is a situation which is more frequent in American English and it is less widely spread phenomenon in British English.

Have/has gotten, which actually does not occur in British English at all, means 'receive', as in *I've just gotten a letter from her.*

In its modal sense, *have gotten* means 'be able, have the opportunity', as in:
I've gotten to do more reading lately.

(Quirk et al 1985:350)

In some typical verb phrases Americans prefer *have* to *have got*, for example:

Do you have the time?

vs.

Have you got the time?

Answers also tend to vary:

I don't

vs.

I haven't

There is another conclusion made by Quirk who points out that the above distinctions can also be made by means of using lexical rather than morphological tools:

*In British English, these distinctions can be made by lexical means, but not morphologically. In addition, the past form **had got** is not a real option for expressing possession in either variety, but it is just barely possible in the modal meaning of obligation in British English.*

They had got to reply by yesterday.

(Quirk et al 1985:350)

5.1.2 Do and have

The next topic of discussion is the use of **have** not only to express possession and obligation but also events. It functions as a full lexical verb and uses the auxiliary **do** when used to form a question or a negative. In American English, only the perfect auxiliary can act as an operator, which means that it inverts exclusively and negates directly. The situation is very similar in British English, but there is the lexical **have**, especially when it is used to express possession so it can be treated as an operator as shown in the following examples:

I haven't any idea;

***Have you a book on this subject?** or*

Hadn't she any news?

However, this use has been on the decrease and is quite rare nowadays, as also observed by Quirk and al. below.

This use, which is as good as unknown in American English, is becoming rarer in British English, especially in questions and even more so in past tense use.

(Quirk et al 1985:350)

The verb **do** is important in both the varieties, especially when it is used in context of certain events like **having lunch, having a good time, having trouble** etc.

*One misunderstanding which is still just barely possible is based on the fact that possession may be expressed without **do** in British English and **do** may be reserved for events; hence, the following possible, but unlikely exchange:*

American: Do you have children? ['possess']

Briton: Yes, one a year, [event, 'give birth to']

(Stevens 1972:351)

Another function for *do* is to act as a proredicate. It can have the following forms ***do, does, did, done, and doing***, which are used to replace the lexical verb to avoid repeating it.

For example:

A: ***Did you write to the hotel?*** ***Have you written to the hotel?***

B: ***Yes, I did*** ***Yes, I have***

This is expected for a typical British English construction of a dialogue. The American reply would be

B: ***Yes, I did*** or ***Yes, I've done so*** ***Yes, I have / Yes, I've done so.***

It has to be emphasized the American alternatives are also possible in British English.

In the southwest of England, the auxiliary verb *did* is also used to indicate habitual events.

We did come back and we did have a glass or two of cider and then we did go and have a bit of breakfast, come out again and then we did have another drink before we did start off.

(Ihalainen 1991 :154)

Depending on context, it is much more common that *do/does/did* is used to emphasize that the speaker really means what he/she is saying ***Do have some more coffee***, or to protest or contradict ***I did finish it/my homework.***

5.1.3 Modal auxiliaries

The next difference involves the frequency of the modal verbs ***should, shall, ought to, dare, need*** and ***must***. All of these are used more or less infrequently in British English and might be even more infrequent in American English.

First, ***dare*** and ***need*** will be discussed and compared. Collins has observed that

*Dare and need are more likely to be used as blends between operators and lexical verbs in American English. This means that they will use do-periphrasis, but an unmarked infinitive, for example: ***don't dare think about it.****

****Ought*** is often used without ***to*** in questions and negations [in American English], that is to say, in non-assertive contexts. ***He ought not do that*** is an increasingly frequent pattern not only in American English but also in British English.*

(Collins 1989:141)

British English speakers use the form *used to* quite frequently and in direct negation it has the form *used not to*. In the American English as well as in British English, the preferred form of negation is with *didn't use(d) to*.

In the second type of conditional sentences, the modal verb *would* is used to express willingness as in the following example:

If you would agree, everything would be fine. If you didn't keep refusing to agree,....

Both varieties show no differences regarding this point, but there is also one specific use of American English, that is, the use of *would* even if there is no volition expressed:

If it would rain, everything would be okay.

Quirk et al add another dimension to its use:

A further point involving would is that the expression 'd rather, which is a contraction of would rather, is sometimes re-expanded to had rather, chiefly in American English. The growing use of the modal will with first person pronouns (I/we will) instead of traditional shall is an instance where British and American usage are converging. Increasingly even in Southern Standard British English, the forms formerly connected to American English are becoming the norm'

(Quirk et al 1985:352)

Shall is frequently found in questions made by both American and British English speakers when they are asking about the desirability of the speaker to do something, requesting advice/suggestions or when offering to do a 'favour'. For example

Shall I get you an ashtray?

It should not be neglected that phrases of the type **Would you like me to ...? Should or can I...?** can replace the above mentioned phrase with **shall**.

The next modal is *must*, which, compared to *have (got) to*, is becoming more infrequent, especially when it refers to obligation in American English. However, Jacobson is of a different opinion:

In its epistemic use for logical necessity must is very much alive and is now met also in clauses negated by not. A usage that appears to be fairly recent in origin

(Jacobson 1979:311)

The following American English example is typical of this type:

His absence must not have been noticed, which would sound rather strange to a British person, who would say *His absence can't have been noticed* (in the meaning: 'I'm sure they didn't notice his absence'), while the positive structure *His absence must have been noticed* would be acceptable for both American English and British English speakers.

There are also differences in the use of *may* and *might* in different dialects, which are still alive and well today, as pointed out by McDonald in the following.

In Tyneside English, the sense of possibility expressed by may is carried by might instead.

Mind, it looks as though it might rain, doesn't it?

(McDonald 1981:284)

5.2 Subjunctive

Compared to British English, subjunctive is more commonly used in American English. To contrast, the so called formulaic subjunctive of the type:

I wish I /he/she/it were..... If I were you,

is used less in both varieties.

In addition, there is another sub-type called *mandative subjunctive*, which is more of a characteristic of American English although also in use in Britain, and is used after predicates of command or recommendation, but also with other predicates for future action.

We suggest/ recommend that you be on time tomorrow

It is important/ mandatory that you not misunderstand me.

According to Quirk,

While this is somewhat formal usage in American English, it is by no means unusual in the everyday language. In British English, on the contrary, it is largely restricted to the formal written usage, though it seems to be making a come-back due to American influence

(Quirk 1985:352)

British English makes use of the so-called *putative should* as in “*It is mandatory that you should not misunderstand me*”. This is also possible and available in American English. The British also use the *indicative should* as in the following example: “*It is mandatory that you don't misunderstand me*”. This option is completely unacceptable in American English.

5.3 Present Perfect

Present Perfect is used and interpreted differently by the two variants, as illustrated by Vanneck below.

*While there is basic agreement, American English speakers may choose to use the past in sentences with the adverbs **yet**, **just** or **already**. All of them would almost automatically trigger the use of Present Perfect in British English.*

*American English **He just/ already came***

*British English **He has just/ already come***

(Vanneck 1958)

5.4 Complementation

In the models of complementation, there are four rather essential differences between British and American English. The first model is the use of *that clause* together with verbs of command, recommendation and future action with subjunctive.

The second is the use of *infinitive compliment* with verbs expressing emotion like *love*, *like*, *hate* and *prefer* as in *They would like [for] you to come*. The construction *forto* with adjectives is typical of both varieties as in *They would be happy for you to come*.

The *for.....to* construction is more typical in American English. Although, it is not frequently used in American English, it is not unfamiliar in British English either.

For is found in both varieties when something separates the main verb from the infinitive

They would like very much for you to come.

The third pattern is with *copular verbs*, which link the subject to a complement and are ascriptive like *be* and *become* and can be presented by the following example.

He is silly.

It is also used with cognitive verbs such as *seem* and *appear* as in

He seems silly.

Also, sensorial verbs like *look*, *sound*, *feel*, *smell* and *taste* can be employed as in

He looks silly.

There are no problems if the patterns in use in each variety are followed by an adjective as illustrated in the examples above. In cases where they are followed by a noun, differences exist.

British English and American English allow nouns when ascriptive *be* or *become* follow:

He is /became a fool.

Verbs **appear** and **seem** take noun predicative complements in British English. The same is not possible in American English because they require **to be**:

He seemed (to be) a fool.

Sensorial copulas in British English allow a noun to follow, but American English requires *like*:

He looked (like) a fool.

However, Gramley makes the following distinction.

*Still, even in British English not every noun may follow directly, which is to say without **be** or **like**. This seems to be possible only when the noun is more or less adjectival in nature: (to seem\look a fool = to seem\look foolish).*

(Gramley 1992 :353)

5.5 Concord

There is no difference between the two varieties regarding this final point of this section concerning the verb. The most essential difference is to do with *notional concord*, which is used in British English. Words like *people* and *police* are plural in both varieties. British English has more collective nouns consisting of people and used with the plural form, but they do not exist in American English.

To illustrate this issue, the following can serve as examples:

government, team, committee, council and *board*

So, if in British English :

The council have decided to make further enquiries

in American English

The council has decided to make further enquires.

However, it must be noted here that while the verb in third person singular can also be used in British English, the plural form emphasises the individuals in the group and the singular the group as a unit, the former seen as more formal.

5.6 Tag questions

Tag questions are more typical in British English than in American English, as also pointed out by Algeo in the following.

Tag questions, at least those which show changing grammatical correspondence according to the subject and the auxiliary in the main clause as in

He's coming early, isn't he?

are probably more common in British English than in American English, which seems to prefer the non-grammatical type as exemplified by

I'll return it tomorrow, okay?

Certainly, those without reversed polarity are rare in American English for example:

They are leaving tomorrow, are they? [where *are they?* is used to show either surprise or even aggression in British English]

(Algeo 1988:11)

5.7 Nouns

As regards nouns, British English does not differ much from American English. It is worth noting, though, that some nouns which are singular in one variant are plural in the other, for example, *overheads* and *Maths* and *overhead* and *Math*, respectively.

Another distinction between the two lies in countable and uncountable nouns. To give an example, ***accommodations*** and ***sports*** can be found in British English, but only uncountable ***accommodation*** and ***sport*** in American English.

Furthermore, in American English the nouns ***inning*** and ***baseball*** have both a singular and a plural form. In British English, there is only one form, ***innings***, the same for both singular and plural. In some special cases in British English, plurals can be made of nouns which are normally singular like ***fish*** (fishes), but this is something that cannot be even imagined in American English.

The use of the suffix *er(s)* is also specific, especially for more casual variants of nouns and adjectives, as also observed by Honey below.

Mention should be made of the suffix –er(s), which is typical of public schools (in the BrE sense) and is used to produce informal variants of nouns and adjectives. These class marked derivations are unlikely to be used by non U[pper-class] speakers. Examples of this are champers (champagne), preppers (pregnant), rugger[s] (rugby football), soccer and starkers (stark naked).

(Honey 1991:49)

Numbers are also treated differently. Most typically, there is no plural with numbers ten / hundred / thousand / million, when they are denoting an exact number and followed by a noun as in ***five thousand/hundred/million/ten books*** (exact number). However, when they are expressing vagueness, i.e., the idea of many/various, they assume the plural form and the preposition ***of***

before the noun as in *thousands/hundreds/millions/tens of books* (vague number). Both forms are common and acceptable and grammatically only correct in British English.

5.8 Pronouns

So far, collective nouns and notional concord have been discussed. Both variants agree on the use of the group pronoun *their* no matter which verb form is chosen in the following example:

The council is/are going to consider this at their next meeting.

On the other hand, there is a difference which might emerge when the collective noun (*committee / council*) is interpreted to be singular, the pronoun *which* is used. British English only prefers the pronoun *who* if the interpretation is plural

The Committee, which is considering the move,...

vs.

The Committee, who are considering the move,...

A variant which is well worth mentioning, and typical for AmE, is the use of a particular pronoun for the second person plural.

*Another pronoun difference is the widespread, yet not grammatical, use of a distinct second person plural pronoun in Southern, American English, i.e., **you all**, sometimes shortened to possessive **you all's** or **y'all's**.*

*Although a few other second person plural forms exist in both British English [albeit extremely rare] and American English, such as **youse**, none of them has the relative acceptance of **you all**.*

(Gramley et al 1992:354)

In American English, *one* is traditionally used as an initial reference. To follow suit, *he*, *his*, *him* and *himself* are used to avoid repetition later.

One tends to find himself in agreement in order to maintain his self-respect.

To provide variety, *one ... oneself...one's* can also be used. This and further variations are also given by Gramley et al in the following.

*Aside from the fact that indefinite **one** has always been overly formal and stiff and therefore hardly a part of lively colloquial English, American English users are increasingly finding the use of the masculine form needlessly sexist and opting for either the British English repetition of a form of **one** or the combination **he or she** or singular **they**, as in:*

One tends to find him- or herself / themselves ('also themselves) in agreement in order to maintain his or her/their self-respect.

(Gramley et al 1992 :354)

Regarding the use of *he* and *she* after copular verbs, their use in American English is more frequent as in the following examples.

(On the phone)

A: *May I speak to (NAME), please?*

B: *This is he/she*

In contrast, the British simply use the phrase *Speaking* or the longer version *This is (NAME) speaking* to answer the same question.

When prepositional expressions for location are used in British English the pronoun may be omitted as, for example, '*We have cellar with water in (it)*'.

5.9 Articles

There are several differences in the use of articles, which can be presented with the following examples:

British English *to/in hospital*

vs.

American English *to/in the hospital*.

Seasons in both varieties (spring, summer, autumn, winter) can be used with or without the definite article as there is an alternative word in American English for autumn, fall, which cannot be used without the article *the*: *in the fall*, not *in fall*.

5.10 Prepositions, conjunctions and adverbs

Different kinds of adverbs are used in these two varieties. Namely, American English speakers prefer to use **while**, **among** and **amid**, while the British would rather use **whilst**, **amongst** and **amidst** instead in formal speech, which are very rarely used in the United States.

The British like to use **in respect of** but neither variant has any problems with the use of **in respect to**. Also, both varieties use **behind**, **apart from** and **on top of** but the American variety also has **in back of**, **aside from** and **atop**, which in the United Kingdom are not in use.

There are also several opposite compound prepositions. For example, Americans use **aside from** but the British **apart from**, or the former use **in behalf of** while on the other side of the ocean it is **on behalf of**. Beside the prepositions both the variants have in common, American English

also uses **off**, **opposite of** and **alongside of** without any difference in meaning. Another dissimilarity is the omission by American speakers of the preposition with days, so it is typically American to say just *Tuesday* instead of *on Tuesday*, as is the case with the British. Such omissions can also be seen in the use of other time expression such as in *She starts work (on) Monday*.

The prepositions *out* and *out of* are also used differently. That is to say, *out* is used with two dimensional objects, for example, *out the window, door* etc. On the other hand, *out of* might be used in both American and British English, but especially in the latter.

The prepositions to be discussed next are **round** and **around**, which somehow overlap in their meaning but, in American English, their meanings are slightly different because *round* is not frequently used. The difference that might be found between **round** and **around** in British English is illustrated by the following examples.

to go round the earth ‘in a circular movement, as, for example, a satellite’

vs.

to go all around the world ‘to travel to various places anywhere in the world.’

The use of the preposition **through** is depicted in this example of American English:

Volume one of the dictionary goes from A through G.

This is not typical of British English as a Briton would say *from A to G*, or use *from A to G inclusive* instead, which might be sometimes considered ambiguous.

It is important to note that, although American English does not prefer the use of Present Perfect, both varieties use the preposition *for* in order to introduce a period of time in the past.

I’ve been working for an hour. (from a point in the past until now, not totally in the past)

Also, when individual periods are involved, both American and British speakers of English would use *in*

I have gone twice in (the past) two weeks.

If negation is included, **for** is preferred to **in** in British English, but **in** is the preferred option in American English.

I haven’t gone for (the past) two weeks (BrE)

I haven’t gone in (the past) two weeks. (AmE)

Gramley uses the terms *continuity of non-action* and *non-occurrence of individual acts* to define that difference between British and American English:

In other words, British English usage is generalized from the continuity of non-action, while American English usage is generalized from the non-occurrence of individual acts.

(Gramley et al 1992 :356)

The prepositions **at** and **over** both also have their own specific use in the two variants of English, as stated by Gramley et al.:

*an additional difference in application of generalities is the preference for **at** in British English vs. **over** American English for longer holidays and weekends*

*[, e.g.,] **at/over Easter***

*Here **at** usage stresses the relatively punctual nature of the time unit, while American English usage underscores its longer absolute length. The use of **at the weekend** (British English, but impossible in American English) fits this pattern and treats weekend punctually as in **at the end**.*

*The American English use of **on** (or **over**) **the weekend** treats weekend in the same way as a weekday (**on Monday**).*

(Gramley et al 1992 :356)

If a fixed period of time needs to be indicated, **from** is used in American English, but the British omit this preposition and they might even insert certain other elements as shown in the following examples.

American English: ***We'll meet two weeks from Saturday***

British English: ***We'll meet Saturday fortnight.***

There are also differences in the use of prepositions connected with clocks and time. Informal American English makes use of **of** or **till** instead of the commonly used **to**.

It's quarter of ten/ quarter till ten

Of is not used in British English and the use of **till** is rare as well. Informal British speaker might also use **gone**, but only as an optional addition, not to replace the preposition **to**.

It's gone quarter to eight - we'd better get a move on.

Such a construction would be utterly incomprehensible to an American.

Both varieties share and use the form **past** but in American English it is only used with *quarter* and *half*: ***quarter/half past ten***, otherwise, ***after*** is used: ***twenty after six***.

Each variant also has other preferences. For example, American English prefers **lest** and it is very commonly used as in

Be quiet lest he call the police.

However, the British find this slightly out of date and use the form **in case** or **otherwise**.

Be quiet in case he should call / he calls the police./ Be quiet – otherwise he'll call the police

The former construction is not possible in American English, but both variations would find it acceptable to use **so that**:

..... so that he won't call the police.

There are other cases, too, which include the use of prepositions, as described by Gramley et al:

A final preference worth mentioning is the use of time expressions without a preposition, which is more common in American English than in British English:

The meeting started seven-thirty.

Differing word class membership

*In American English, the prepositions **plus**, **like** and **on account of** are sometimes used as conjunctions, as in*

I don't feel like we should go out on account of it's late, plus I'm tired.

*In British English, on the other hand, the adverbs **directly** and **immediately** can also be used as conjunctions, as in*

Immediately / Directly you came he left.

(Gramley et al 1992:356)

There is no adverbial conjunct in British English which might appear together with the conjunctions **and**, **nor**, **but** as opposed to American English:

I don't like French cheese, but nor do I like cheddar.

Intensifiers have a different effect if they are placed in different positions in the sentence, as also mentioned by Greenbaum:

Since the intensifiers were in pre verb positions in the experiments, they did not evoke the verbs to the same extent as they might have done if positioned finally.

(Greenbaum 1974:85)

More examples

It's twenty to four.

It's five past eight.

It's behind the building.

I'll see you at the weekend.

I haven't seen her for ages.

On Mondays, we take the bus.

[from] Monday to Friday inclusive.

I looked out of the window.

I moved towards the car.

You're in the firing line.

He's got a new lease of life.

It caters for all tastes.

Half the cash goes on clothes.

She's on heat

They live in X street.

(Crystal 2004:311)

There are numerous examples which illustrate the differences in the context and use of prepositions that could be the main grammatical differences between these two varieties of English.

Based on the results represented in the Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English language from a study which compared the distribution of prepositions in two million samples of printed text, the following was found:

The percentage of prepositional occurrences in British English was 12.34 per cent, compared to 12.21 percent in American English.

There were 81 prepositions that were found in COCA and BCN, accounting for 99.9 per cent of all the prepositional occurrences. Just 13 prepositions were found only in British English, and, coincidentally, also just 13 in American English. For the details, see Table 19 below.

Table 19 Prepositions

<i>Prepositions occurring only in the COCA</i>		<i>Prepositions occurring only in the BCN</i>	
<i>Preposition</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Preposition</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Unlike	42	Worth	104
Pursuant	20	Barring	3
excluding	13	Less	3
Pro	5	Failing	2
Astride	3	Re	2
Atop	3	Touching	2
involving	3	Bar	2
Post	3	Afore	1
vis-à-vis	2	a la	1
dell'	1	Bout	1
Infra	1	Qua	1
Inter	1	Vice	1
with-but-after	1	Neath	1

(After D. Mindt & C. Weber, 1989)

The top eight prepositions are listed in Table 20 below.

Table 20 Top Eight Prepositions

<i>Preposition</i>	<i>AmE</i>	<i>BrE</i>
Of	36,432	35,287
In	20,870	20,250
To	11,165	10,876
For	8,992	8,738
With	7,286	7,170
On	6,183	6,251
At	5,375	5,473
By	5,244	5,724

Crystal sums up the results as follows.

*The conclusion is plain: whatever the differences in prepositional usage between the two varieties, as represented in these corpora, they are far outweighed by the similarities. However, in interpreting the figures two points must be borne in mind. These samples are of written English only, and many of the examples above (such as asking the time) are characteristic of speech. The differences are likely to be greater when medium is taken into account. Also, British English usage is changing under the influence of American English. **Talk with** is now common in British English as opposed to **talk to**, and while the British traditionally fill **in** or sometimes **up** forms, they now commonly fill them **out**, as Americans do. How far the factor of language change will fundamentally alter the linguistic picture remains to be seen.*

(Crystal 2004:311)

5.11 Word order

There are certain characteristics that refer to the word order in American English and British English. Firstly, the position of the object pronoun: British English has the form **Will you give it me?**, which is occasionally used but not so common. However, these two forms are common to both varieties: **Will you give me it? Will you give it to me?**

Another difference can be noted in the complementary closing of business letters. The American English usage is **Sincerely yours** but in British English it is **Yours sincerely**.

Inversion of the type **Monday last, River Thames** is possible, but only in British English. In American English, the form **the Mississippi River** is possible. In both variations, **the Thames** are **the Mississippi** are also correct.

Post-modifiers are more freely used in American English than in British English, especially in the names of dishes as in **Eggs Benedict** and **Pea Soup Louise**

When used in journalistic style in American English, both pre- and post-modifiers are more frequently used than in British English, and the British novelist Graham Greene would be introduced more formally using the form **Graham Greene, the British novelist**.

Word order is of utmost importance for any variety of English. Thus, if the relationship between the participants in a conversation is unclear, the roles should be modified in order not to issue direct orders or to avoid direct confrontation, as also observed by Leech et al. below.

*In the situations where the role relationships between participants are not clear, Ss may well choose indeterminate expressions such as **Is that the phone?**, which Hs can interpret as a genuine question or as a veiled order. Ss can thus get around imposing their will on others too openly and directly and an unpleasant confrontation is avoided*

(Leech et al 1990:195)

This might also be connected to the meaning of the conversation, as meaning is regarded as an interactive category. Edmondson calls it *the hearer-knows-best-principle*, which he defines as follows.

Meaning is an interactive category; it is the H who at any given time determines the meaning of utterances not the S, though S may self correct in a later contribution to the conversation. This has been called hearer-knows-best principle.

(Edmondson 1981:50)

Indirect speech in English has a specific word order and can convey factual background information in certain situations as shown by Searle:

To derive the meaning of indirect speech acts such as Can you pass the salt? Ss need a theory of speech acts a theory of conversation, factual background information and general powers of rationality and inference

(Searle 1979:176)

Ss' utterances can explain the mutual process by which Hs obtains the meaning from Ss' utterances. Grice called this the *cooperative principle*.

*In his seminar article from 1975, Grice sets out to explain the interface process through which Hs derive meaning from S utterances. He starts from the basic assumption that people work together to achieve some goal in a conversation. This cooperative principle manifest itself in certain consequences which he summarizes in 4 maxims: *Quantity, Quality, Relation and Manner**

(Grice 1975:46)

Opposite to this is the fact that the word order utterance itself as well as the context where it is used can sometimes cause problems when a request or order is analysed, as in the following example by Sadock.

But it can also convey a request to open a door or to bring a blanket or to pay a gas bill. In fact it is difficult to think of a request that the utterance could not convey in the right context.

(Sadock 1978:286)

One of the possible situations could be turning down a request. A corresponding pre-responding exchange could go as follows:

Would you rather I wrote a cheque?

Yeah - you got a card I suppose – a banker's card?

Yes I have – yes

Yes I think – in this case

(Owen 1983:34)

Finally, discourse markers should be mentioned, which, according to Schiffin, can have two references:

Discourse markers such as no, right, well, you know, you see, I mean etc share various features. They relate participants and the text on the other hand. Markers refer either to preceding discourse (anaphoric reference) or to following discourse (cataphoric) or both. This reference function is called indexical function.

(Schiffrin 1987:322)

6. Research part

The aim of this research is to set hypotheses to test through an intra lingual contrastive analysis whether the two standards, British English and American English, have differences (contrasts) within the following areas:

Pronunciation

- Same spelling, different pronunciation
- Different spelling, same pronunciation

Vocabulary

- Different lexemes for the same terms
- Same lexemes for the same terms, partial differences in meaning
- Same lexemes with differences in style, connotation and frequency
- Euphemisms
- Politically correct expressions
- Language creativity – in reference to cultural reality

Grammar

- Differences in sentence structure
- Differences in the use of verb forms, including differences in frequency.

The task of this research is to focus on the possible variants that might exist between Standard British English and Standard American English. The samples are chosen according to the set parameters and criteria and originate from the material used for this doctoral thesis and the Internet as another source. The frequencies are checked by means of

- using groups of native speakers (English and American);
- making use of the two existing corpora of the English language: *BNC* and *COCA* although it has to be emphasized that each covers a different time period; and
- utilizing two corresponding grammars: *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English*.

7. Phonological level

We start with the level of Phonology, where following areas will be analysed:

- Same spelling, different pronunciation and
- Different spelling, same pronunciation

7.1 Same spelling, different pronunciation

For the first of the above, **Same spelling, different pronunciation** refer to words which are spelled in the same way in the both variants but still there are differences in their pronunciation. Samples have been selected in the following way. Namely, the source was the Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Ten words for each letter of the alphabet are to be extracted randomly from words listed with two pronunciations in the dictionary. Then separate tables with these words are created to be given to the two groups of native speakers. The background details for these native speakers are nationality, education level and age. The first group is the British one, consisting of three females British, aged 60, Bachelor degree, aged 54, Bachelor's Degree and aged 31, Bachelor's Degree.

The members of the American group is made of two males American, aged 23, with Bachelor's Degree and the second aged 28, with Master's Degree and one female American, aged 32, with Bachelor's Degree)

To begin with, lists with the above-mentioned words are given to the native speakers and then they read them out recording them so that their pronunciation can be observed and analysed. To follow, their pronunciation of the words is compared with that of those given in Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Then, the results obtained are presented in diagrams and, based on them, conclusions are drawn regarding how many of the pronunciations of the selected words comply completely, partially or not at all with those in the reference book used.

Table № 7.1.1 Word starting with letter a

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Anti	æn.ti	æn.taɪ	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Asthma	'æs.mə	'æz.mə	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Ate	et	eɪt	+	+	-	-	-	+
4	Allied	'æl.aɪd	ə'lɑɪd	-	-	-	+	+	+
5	Alternate	'ɒl.tə.neɪt	'ɑ:l.tə.neɪt	-	-	-	+	+	+
6	Anesthesia	æn.əs'θi:zi.ə	æn.əs'θi:zi.ʒə	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Artistic	ɑ:'tɪs.tɪk	ɑ:r' tɪs.tɪk	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Aspire	ə'spaɪə	ə'spaɪr	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	Astrology	ə'strɒl.ə.dʒi	ə'stra:l.ə dʒi	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Averse	ə'vɜ:s	ə'vɜ:s	+	+	+	+	+	+

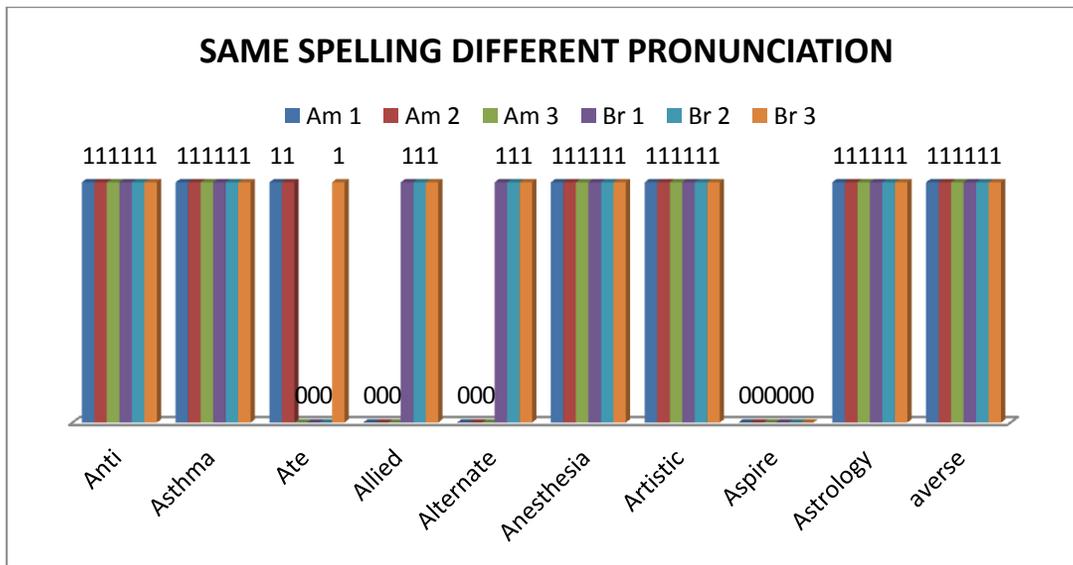


Diagram № 7.1.1

Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.2 Word starting with letter b

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Backbone	bæk.bəʊn	'bæk.boʊn	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Backdrop	'bæk.drɒp	'bæk.drɑ:p	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Broadcaster	'brɔ:d.kɑ:stə	'brɑ:d.kæs.tər	-	-	-	+	+	+
4	Butterfly	'bʌt.ə.flai	'bʌt̬.ə.flai	-	-	+	+	+	+
5	Buzzword	'bʌz.wɜ:d	'bʌz.wɜ:d	-	-	-	+	+	+
6	Bastion	'bæs.ti.ən	'bæs.tʃən	-	+	+	+	+	+
7	Bathrobe	'bɑ:θ.rəʊb	'bæθ.roʊb	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Booster	'bu:stə	'bu:stər	-	-	-	-	+	+
9	Banner	'bæn.ə	'bæənə r	-	-	-	+	+	+
10	Baroque	bə'rɒk	bə'rɑ:k	-	-	+	+	+	+

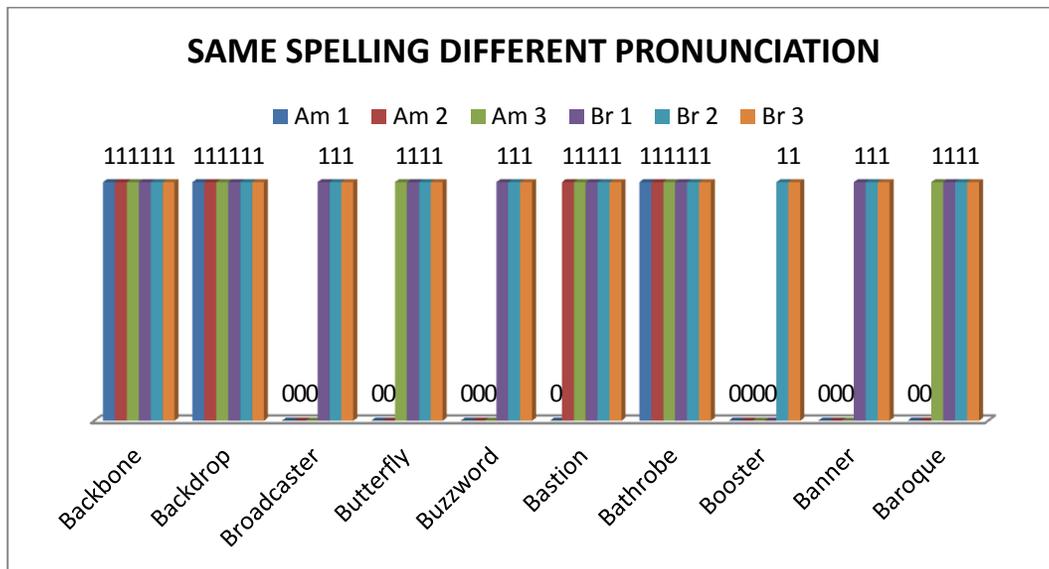


Diagram № 7.1.2

Out ten four samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.3 Word starting with letter c

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Capsule	'kaeps əl	'kæp.sju:l	-	+	+	-	-	-
2	Chassis	'ʃæs.i	'tʃæs.i	+	-	+	-	+	+
3	Clerk	klɑ:k	klɜ:k	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Clique	/kli:k	klɪk	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Cardio	kɑ:.di.əʊ	kɑ:.diou	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Carnival	kɑ:.ni.v ə l	kɑ:r ni.v ə l	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Cavern	kæv ə r n	kæv ə n	+	+	-	+	+	+
8	Certificated	sə'tɪf.i.kətəd	sə'tɪf.i.kət ɪd	+	+	+	+	-	+
9	Charter	'tʃɑ:.tə r	'tʃɑ:r.tʃər	-	-	-	+	-	-
10	Cobra	'kəʊ.brə	kou brə	+	+	+	+	+	+

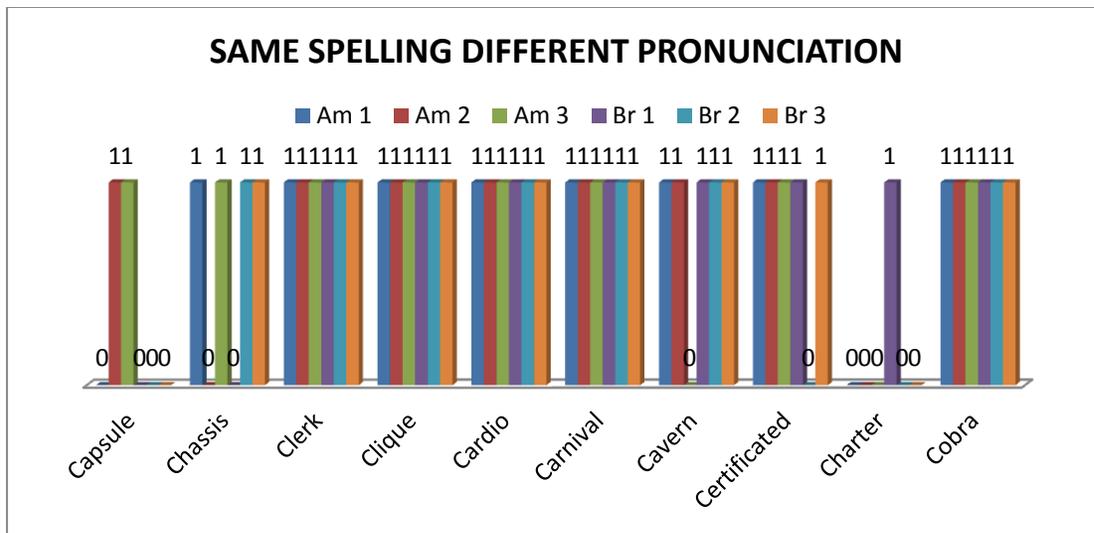


Diagram № 7.1.3

Out of ten five samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.4 Word starting with letter d

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Data	'deɪ.tə	'deɪ.tə	-	-	-	+	+	+
2	Derby	'dɑː.bi	'dɜː.bi	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Doctoral	dɒk.tə.r.əl	dɑːk.təl	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Distributed	dɪ'strɪb.juːt	dɪ'strɪb.jʊt	+	+	-	+	+	+
5	Distort	dɪ'stɔːt	dɪ'stɔːrt	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Departed	dɪ'pɑː.tɪd	dɪ'pɑːr.tɪd	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Dagger	dæg.ə	dæg.ə	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Dutiful	'djuː.tɪ.fəl	'duː.tɪ.fəl	-	-	-	+	+	+
9	Donkey	'dɒŋ.ki	'dɑːŋ.ki	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Dosage	dəʊ.sɪdʒ	'dɒs.sɪdʒ	+	+	+	+	+	+

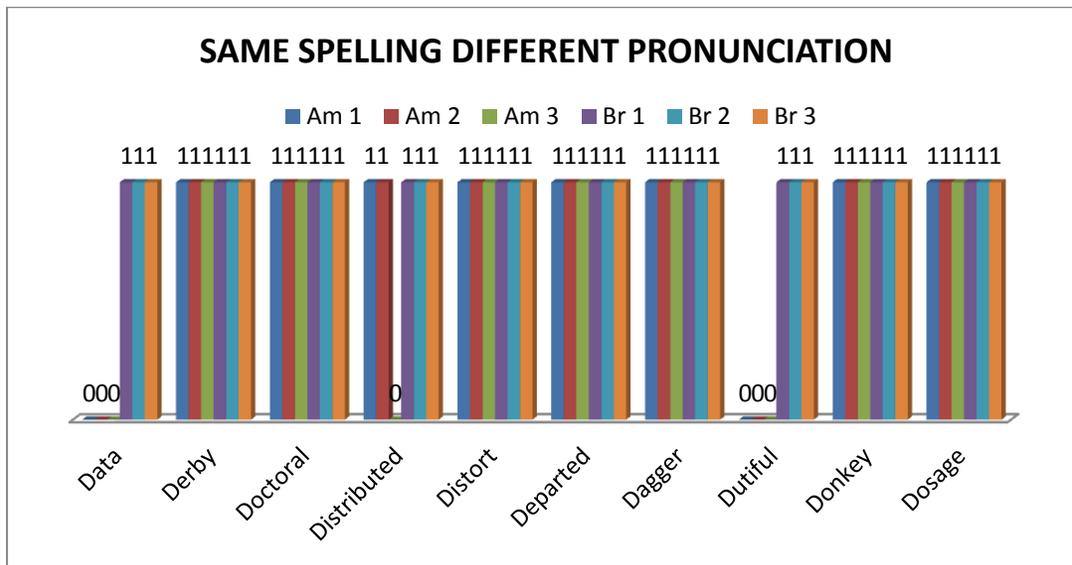


Diagram № 7.1.4

Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.5 Word starting with letter e

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Erase	i'reiz	i'reis	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Earthquake	'ɜ:θ.kweɪk	'ɜ:θ kweɪk	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Ecology	i'kɒl.ə.dʒi	i'kɑ:lə dʒi	-	+	+	+	+	+
4	Elderberry	'el.də.ber.i	'el.də.ber.i	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Embody	ɪm'bɒd.i	ɪm'ba:di	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	Enfold	ɪn'fəʊld	ɪn'foʊld	+	+	+	+	+	-
7	Enlarge	ɪn'la:dʒ	ɪn'la:rdʒ	+	+	+	-	-	-
8	Entrance	ɪn'trɑ:n t s	ɪn'træn ts	-	-	+	-	-	-
9	Elbow	'el.bəʊ	'el.boʊ	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Epicenter	ep.i.sen.tə	ep.i.sentər	+	+	+	+	+	+

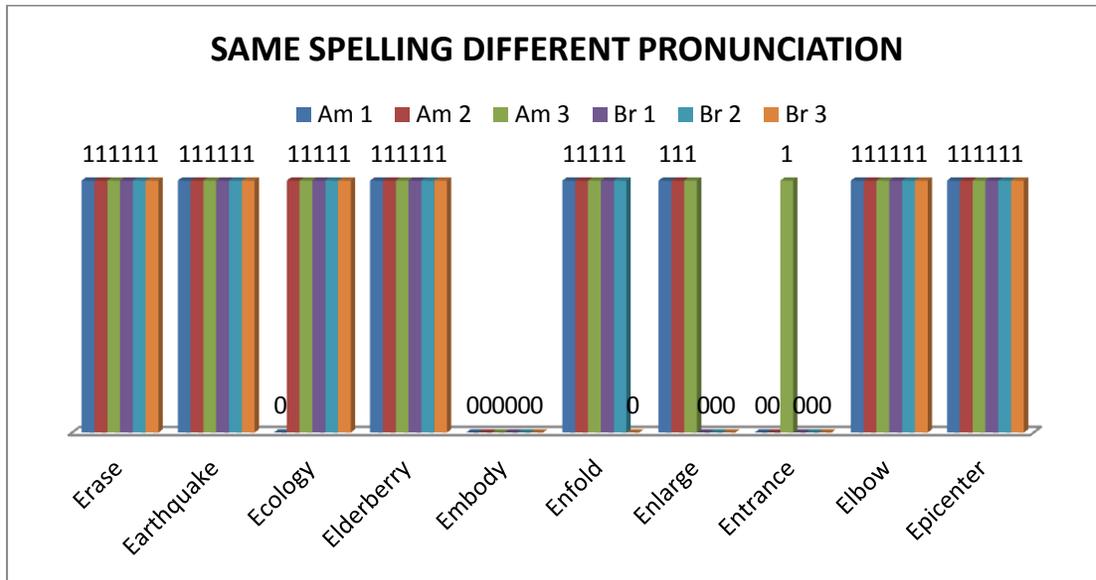


Diagram № 7.1.5

Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.6 Word starting with letter f

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Fracas	ˈfræk.ɑː	ˈfreɪ.kəs	+	-	+	+	+	+
2	Farming	ˈfɑː.mɪŋ	ˈfɑːr.mɪŋ	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Fearfully	ˈfɪə.f ə l.i	ˈfɪr f ə li	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Fiasco	ˈfi ˈæs.kəʊ	ˈfi ˈæs.kou	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Fiery	ˈfaɪ ə .ri	ˈfaɪ ə ri	-	+	+	+	+	+
6	Filter	ˈfɪl.tə	ˈfɪlt ə r	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Finder	ˈfaɪn.də	ˈfaɪndə r	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Firstly	ˈfɜːs t.li	ˈfɜːst li	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Flagstaff	ˈflæg.stɑːf	ˈflæg.stæf	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Flicker	ˈflɪk.ə	ˈflɪkə r	+	+	+	+	+	+

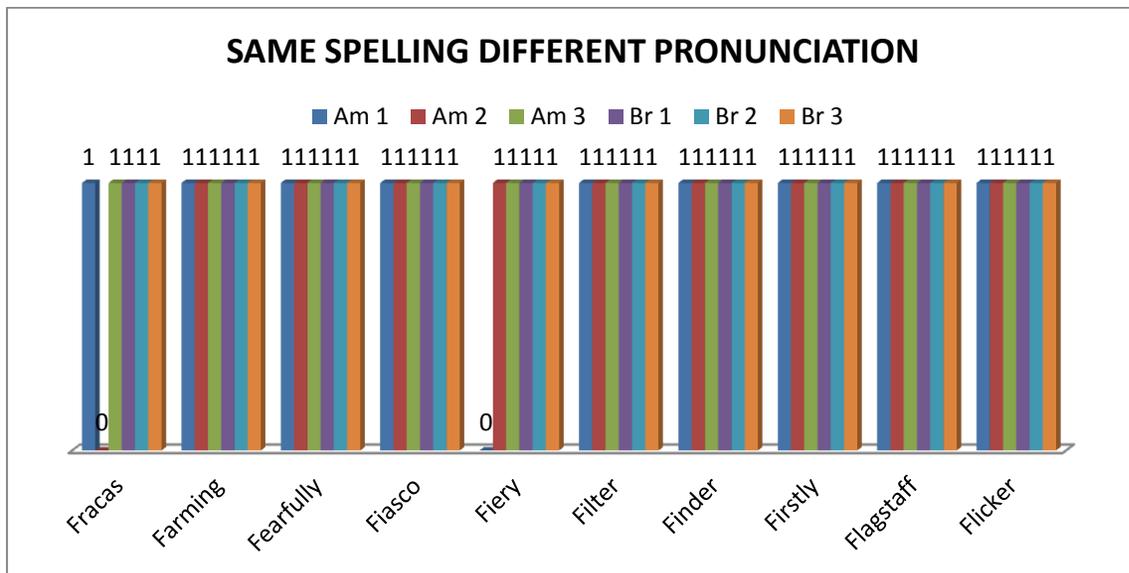


Diagram № 7.1.6

Out of ten eight samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.7 Word starting with letter g

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Geyser	'gi:.zə r	'gɑi.zə r	+	+	+	-	+	+
2	Gooseberry	'gʊz.b ə r.i	'gʊz.be r.i	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Goulash	'gu:.læʃ	'gu:.l ɑ:ʃ	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Gala	'gɑ:.lə	'geɪ lə	-	-	+	+	+	+
5	Gender	'dʒen.də r	'dʒen. də	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Globalization	'gləʊ.b ə l.aɪ'zeɪ.ʃ ə n	'gləʊ .b ə l.aɪ'zeɪ.ʃ ə n	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Goaltender	'gəʊl ,ten.də r /	'gəʊl ,ten.də r	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Grassland	'grɑ:s.lænd	' græs .lænd	+	+	+	+	+	-
9	Guilder	'gɪl.də r	'gɪl də r	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Gymnast	'dʒɪm.næst	'dʒɪmæst	+	+	+	-	-	-

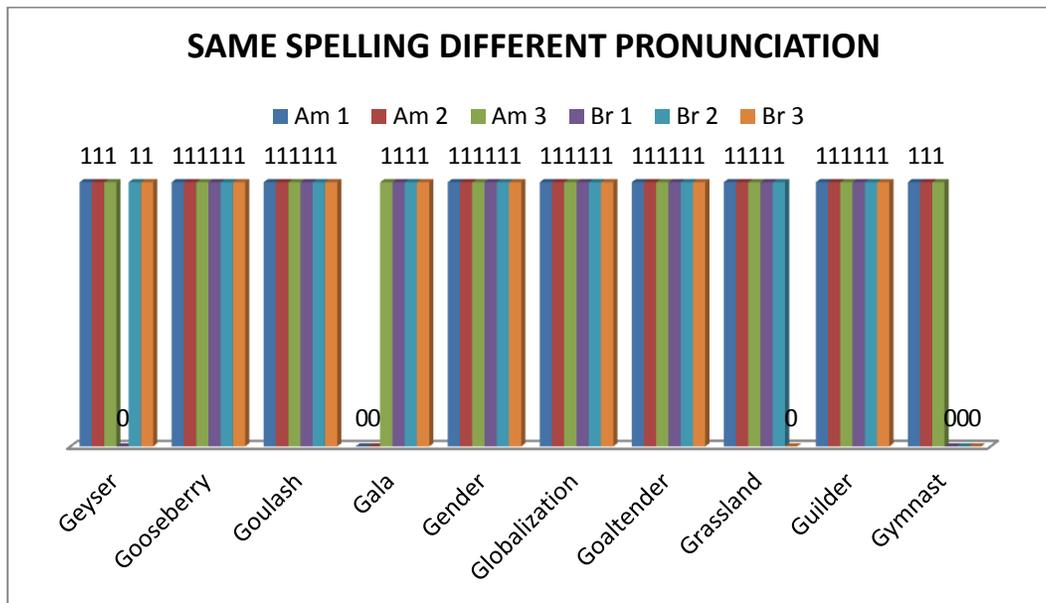


Diagram № 7.1.7

Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.8 Word starting with letter h

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Herb	hɜ:b	ˈhɜ:rb	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Hers	hɜ:z/	ˈhɜ:rz	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	High-ball	ˈhaɪ.bɔ:l	ˈhaɪ. -bɑ:l	-	-	-	+	+	+
4	Hobby	hɒb.i	ˈhɑ:bi	-	-	-	+	+	+
5	Holiness	ˈhəʊ.lɪ.nəs	ˈhoʊ .lɪ.nəs	+	+	+	-	-	-
6	Holocaust	hɒl.ə.kɔ:st	ˈhɑ:.lə.kɑ:st	-	-	-	+	+	+
7	Hone	həʊn	ˈhoʊn	+	+	+	+	-	-
8	Honky-tonk	hɒŋ.ki.tɒŋk	ˈhɑ:ŋ.ki.tɑ:ŋk	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Horrible	hɒr.i.bl	ˈhɔ:r.i.bəl	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Housemaster	haʊs ,mɑ:stə	ˈhaʊs ,mæs.tər	+	+	+	+	+	+

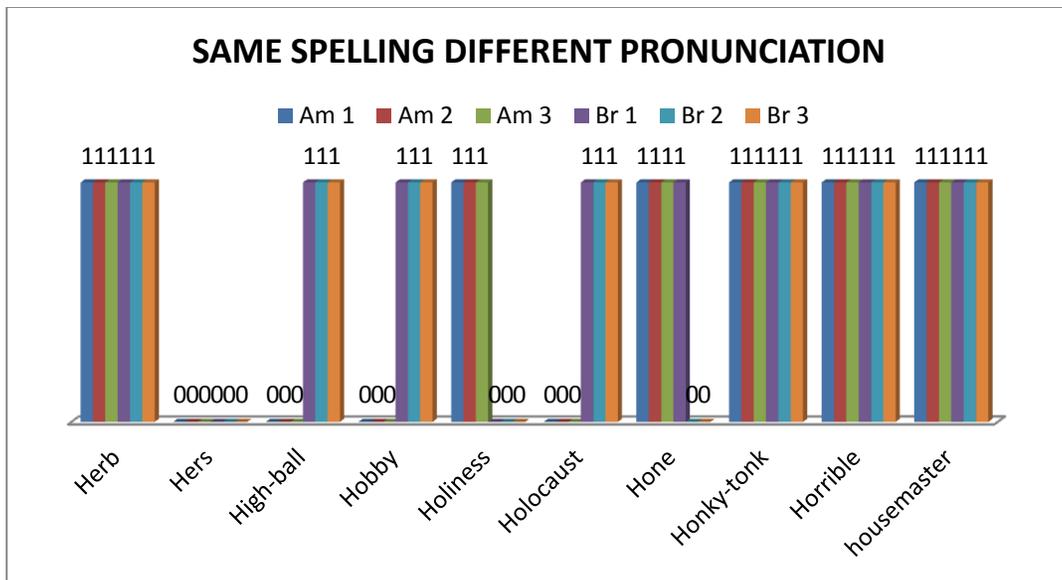


Diagram № 7.1.8

Out of ten four samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.9 Word starting with letter i

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	A m 1	A m 2	A m 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Inapplicable	ˈm.əˈplɪk.ə.bl	ˈm.æˈplɪkəbl	-	-	-	+	+	+
2	Incendiary	ˈmˈsen.diəri	ˈɪnsendieri	-	+	+	+	+	+
3	Incognito	ˈm.kɒɡˈniː.təʊ	ˈɪn.kɑːɡniː.tuʊ	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Induce	ˈmˈdjuːs	ˈmˈduːs	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Indoor	ˈmˈdɔː	ˈmˈdɔːr	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Inexhaustible	ˈm.ɪɡˈzɔː.stɪ.bl	ˈɪn.ɪɡzɑːstɪ.bl	-	-	-	+	+	+
7	Inspired	ˈmˈspaɪəd	ˈɪnˈspaɪrd	-	-	-	+	+	+
8	Independence	ˈɪndɪˈpen.dənts	ˈɪn.dɪpendnts	-	-	-	+	+	+
9	intermediate	ˈɪn.təˈmiː.di.ət	ˈɪn.təˈmiːdiət	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	intestate	ˈɪnˈtes.teɪt	ˈɪnˈtes.təɪt	+	+	+	+	+	+

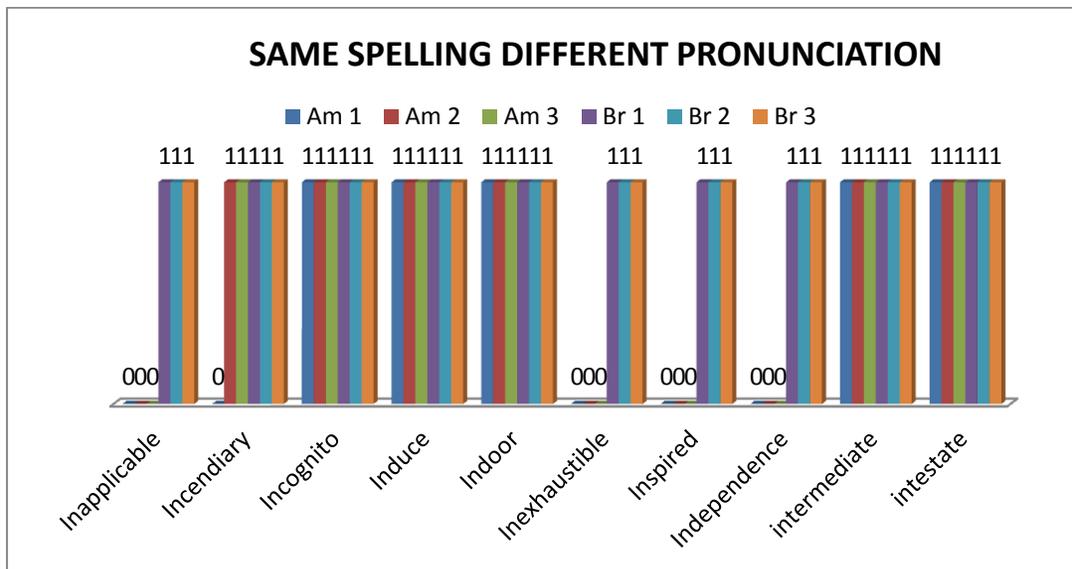


Diagram № 7.1.9

Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.10 Word starting with letter j

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	A m 1	A m 2	A m 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Jitterbug	'dʒɪ tə bʌg	'dʒɪtərbʌg	+	+	+	-	-	-
2	Joey	'dʒəʊ.i	'dʒoʊi	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Jogger	dʒɒg.ə	'dʒɑ:gəɾ	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Journey	'dʒɜ:.ni	'dʒɜ:ɾni	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Juggler	'dʒʌg.lə	'dʒʌg.ləɾ	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Juncture	'dʒʌŋk.tʃə	'dʒʌŋktʃəɾ	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Juvenile	'dʒu:vənail	'dʒu:vənəl	-	-	-	+	+	+
8	Juxtapose	'dʒʌk.stə'pəʊz	'dʒʌk.stəpəʊz	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Jumpsuit	'dʒʌmp.sju:t	'dʒʌmp.su:t	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Judiciary	'dʒu:'dɪʃəri	'dʒu:dɪʃ.əri	+	+	+	+	+	+

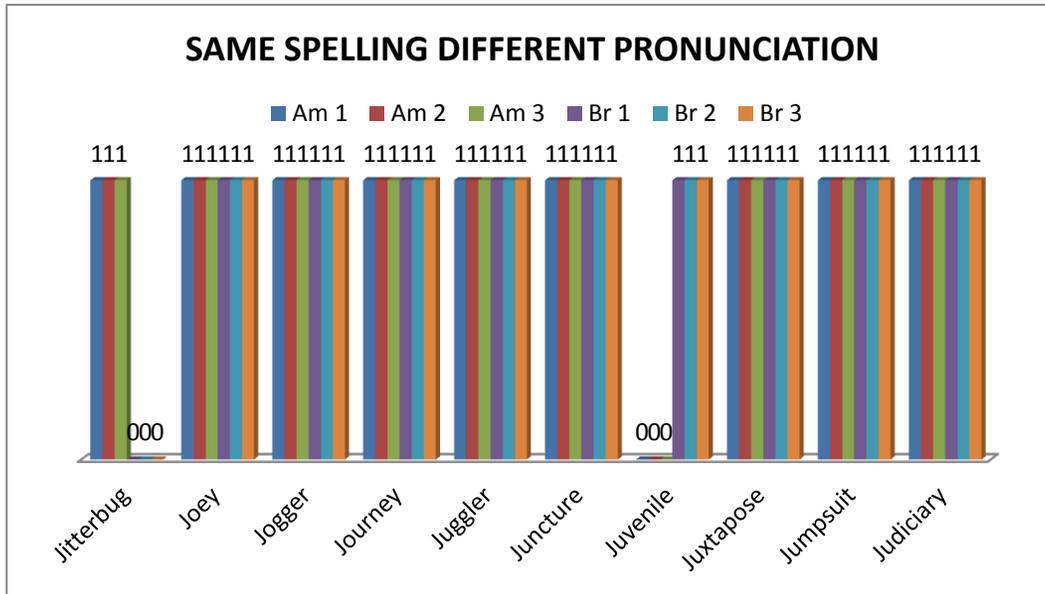


Diagram № 7.1.10

Out of ten eight samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.11 Word starting with letter k

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Kebab	ˈkiˈbæb	ˈkiˈbɑːb	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Kegger	ˈkegə	ˈkegər	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Keyboard	ˈkiːbɔːd	ˈkiːbɔːd	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Ki bosh	ˈkaɪbɒʃ	ˈkaɪbɑːʃ	-	-	-	+	+	+
5	Kiddo	ˈkɪdəʊ	ˈkɪdoʊ	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Killer	ˈkɪlə	ˈkɪlər	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Kingfisher	ˈkɪŋfɪʃə	ˈkɪŋfɪʃ.ər	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Knacker	ˈnækə	ˈnækər	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Knew	ˈnjuː	ˈnuː	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Krome	ˈkrəʊmə	ˈkroʊm	+	+	+	-	-	-

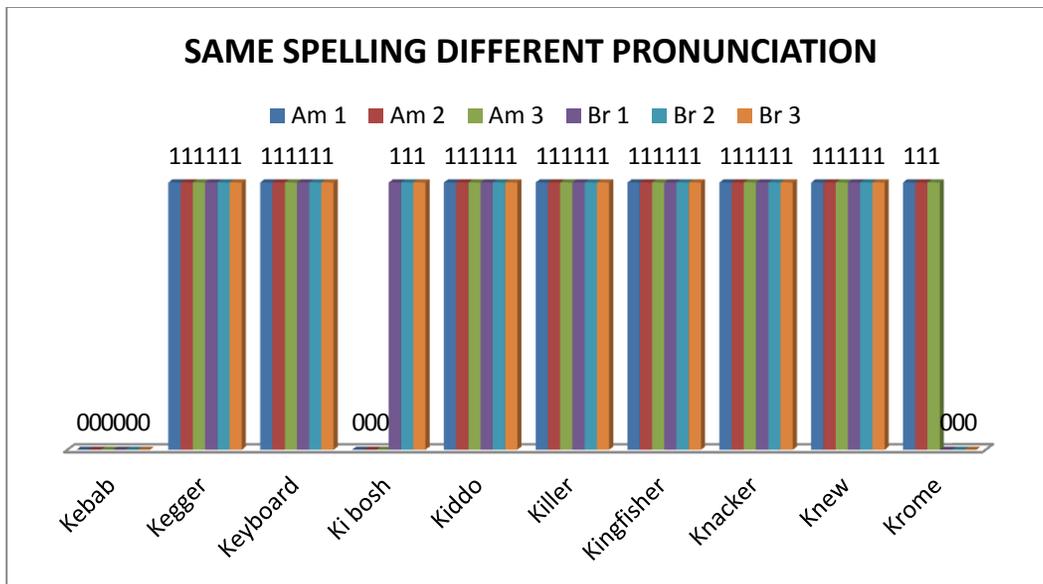


Diagram № 7.1.11

Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table №7.1.12 Word starting with letter l

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Leisure	ˈleɪ.ə	ˈliː.ʒər	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Lever	ˈliː.və	ˈlev.ər	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Lieutenant	ˈleɪˈtenənt	ˈluːtenənt	+	+	+	-	-	-
4	laboured	ˈleɪ.bəd	ˈleɪ.bərd	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Lastly	ˈlɑːstli	ˈlæstli	+	+	+	-	-	-
6	Latitude	ˈlæt.ɪ.tjuːd	ˈlætrɪ.tuːd	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Laudable	ˈləʊ.də.bl	ˈlɑːdə.bl	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	Land	ˈlænd	ˈlənd	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	Launch	ˈləʊntʃ	ˈlɑːntʃ	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	lighter	ˈlaɪ.tə	ˈlaɪ.tər	-	-	-	+	+	+

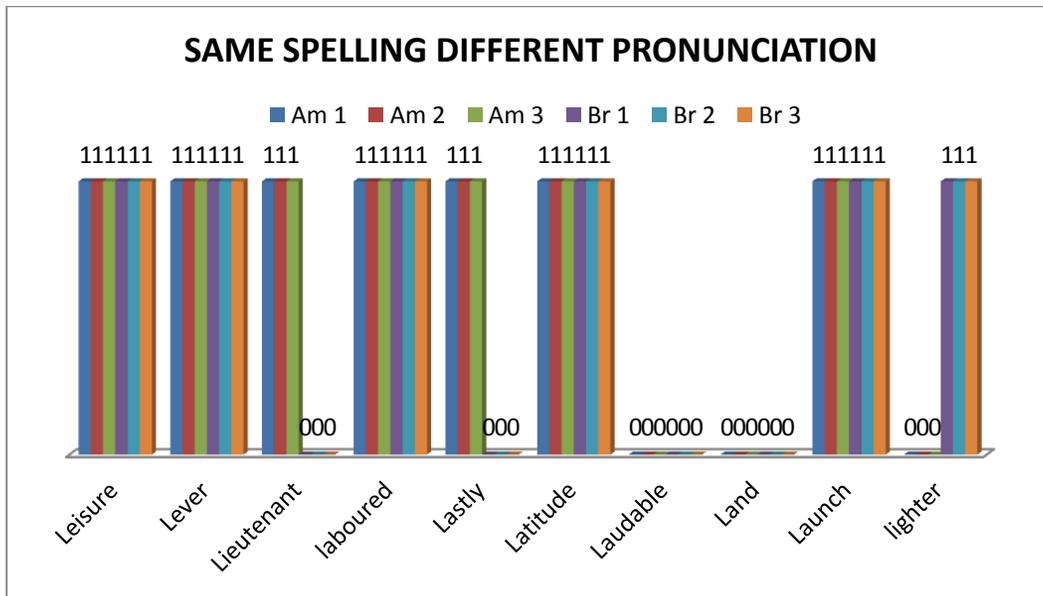


Diagram № 7.1.12

Out of ten five samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.13 Word starting with letter m

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Medicine	ˈmed.ɪsən	ˈmedɪsən	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Missile	ˈmɪs.aɪl	ˈmɪs.aɪəl	-	-	-	+	+	+
3	Malformed	ˈmæɪlˈfɔːmd	ˈmæɪlˈfɔːrmd	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Makeover	ˈmeɪk.əʊ.və	ˈmeɪkəʊvər	+	+	+	-	-	-
5	Maser	ˈmæʃ.ə	ˈmæʃ.ə	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	Materially	ˈməˈtɪə.ri.ə.li	ˈmætrɪəli	+	-	-	-	-	-
7	Matiner	ˈmæt.i.n ə	ˈmætinər	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Matrimony	ˈmæt.rɪ.mə.ni	ˈmoutrɪ.məni	-	+	+	+	+	+
9	Minimart	ˈmɪn.ɪm a:t	ˈmɪn.ɪmɑːrt	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Mobile	ˈməʊ.baɪl	ˈmoʊ.bəl	+	+	+	+	+	+

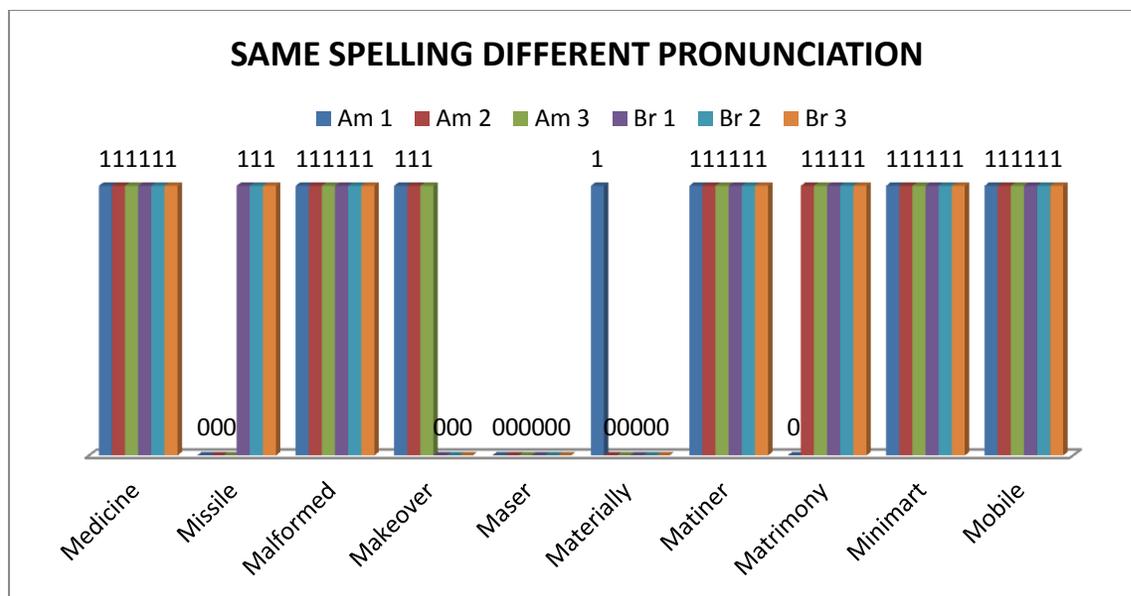


Diagram № 7.1.13

Out of ten five samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.14 Word starting with letter n

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Nephew	'nef.ju:	'nev ju:	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Nougat	'nu:.gɑ:	'nu:.gət	+	+	+	-	-	-
3	Nightshirt	'nait.ʃɜ:t	'nait ʃɜ:t/	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Nocturnal	'nɒk'tɜ:.nəl	'nɑ:k'tɜ:.rənəl	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Non existent	'nɒn.ɪg'zɪs.t ə nt	'nɑ:nɪgzɪstənt	-	-	-	+	+	+
6	North bound	'nɔ:θ.baʊnd	'nɔ:rθbaʊnd	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Noteworthy	'nəʊt,wɜ:..ði	'nəʊtwɜ:..ði	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Nourish	'nʌr.ɪʃ	'nɜ:rɪʃ	+	+	+	-	-	-
9	Nucleus	'nju:.kli.əs	'nu: kliəs	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	nightfall	'nait.fɔ:l	'naitfɑ:l	+	+	+	+	+	+

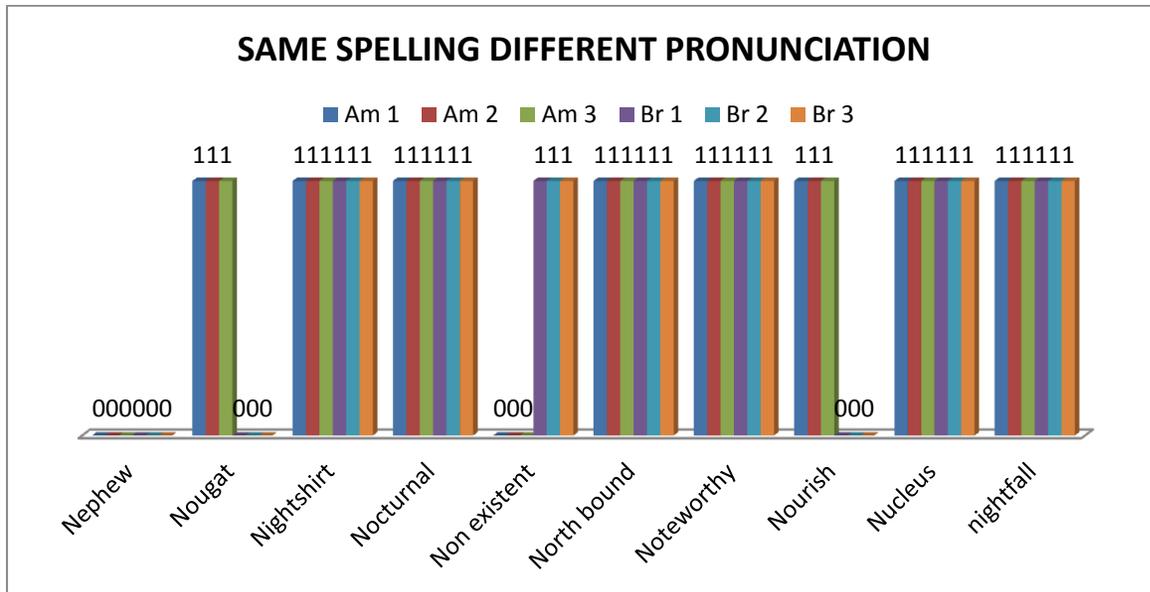


Diagram № 7.1.14

Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.15 Word starting with letter o

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Observer	‘əbˈzɜːvə	‘əb zɜːvər	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Obsolescence	‘ɒb.səˈlesənts	‘ɑːbsəles.nts	-	-	-	+	+	+
3	Occupant	‘ɒk.jʊ.pənt	‘ɑː.kjəpnt	-	-	-	+	+	+
4	Oceanfront	əʊ.ʃ ə n frʌnt	‘oʊ ʃ ə nfrʌnt	+	+	+	-	-	-
5	Oleander	‘əʊ.liˈændə	‘oʊliæn.dər	+	+	+	-	-	-
6	Opacity	‘əʊpæs.ə.ti	‘oʊpæsəti	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Ordinance	‘ɔːdɪnən t s	‘ɔːrdɪnəts	-	-	-	+	+	+
8	Outerwear	‘aʊ.tə weə	‘aʊ.tə wer	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Outdoors	‘aʊtdɔːz	‘aʊtdɔːrɪz	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	overhang	‘əʊvəˈhæŋ	‘oʊ.vərˈhæŋ	+	+	+	-	-	-

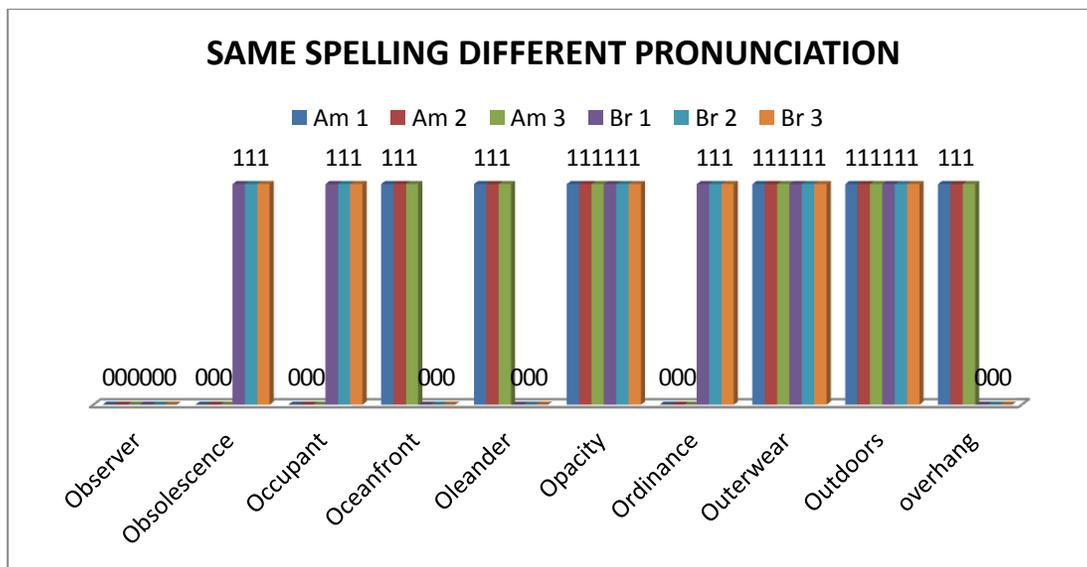


Diagram № 7.1.15

Out of ten three samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.16 Word starting with letter p

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Progress	ˈprəʊɡres	ˈprɑː ɡres	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Parking	ˈpɑː.kɪŋ	ˈpɑːr.kɪŋ	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Parse	ˈpɑːs	ˈpɑːrs	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Pegboard	ˈpeg bɔːd	ˈpegbɔːrd	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Performer	ˈpəˈfɔː.mə	ˈpəˈfɔːr.məɹ	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Pinhole	ˈpɪn.həʊl	ˈpɪnhool	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Pitfah	ˈpɪtfaː	ˈpɪtfaːh	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	Plasterboard	ˈplɑː.stə.bɔːd/	ˈplæs.tə.bɔːrd	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Plaza	ˈplɑː.zə	ˈplæ.zə	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Pocked	ˈpɒkt	ˈpakt	+	+	+	+	+	+

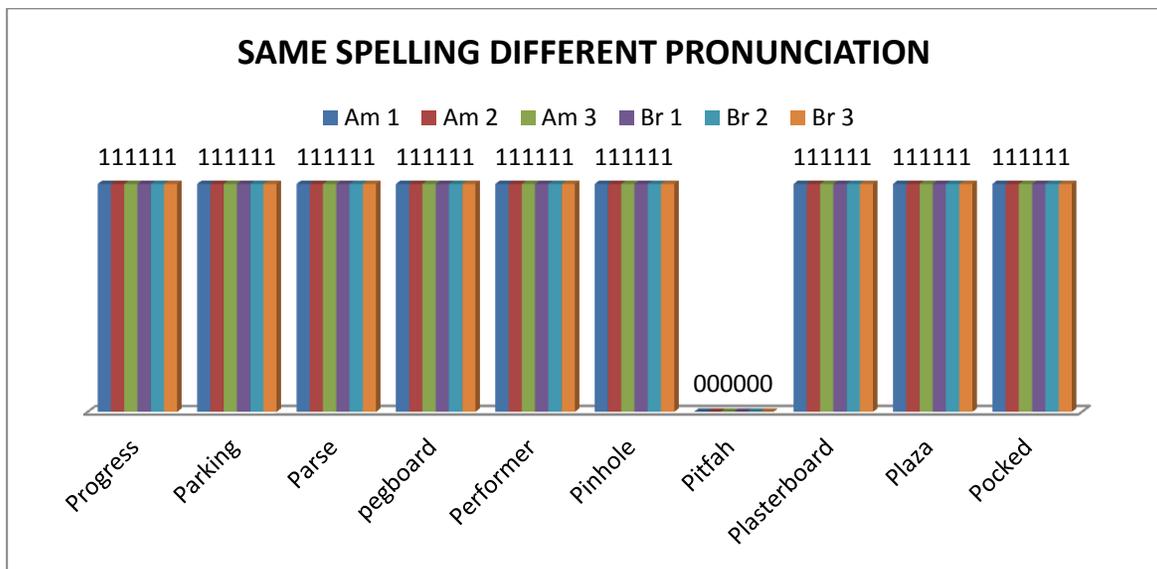


Diagram № 7.1.16

Out of ten nine samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.17 Word starting with letter q

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Qualify	'kwɒl.i.fai	'kwa:.lɪfaɪ	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Qualification	'kwɒl.i.fɪ'keɪʃn	'kwa:.lɪfɪ'keɪʃn	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Quandary	'kwɒn.dri	'kwa:.ndri	-	-	-	+	+	+
4	Quatrain	'kwɒt.reɪn	'kwa:.treɪn	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Quarterwaster	'kwɔ:.tə weɪ.stə	'kwɔ:.tə weɪ.stər	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Quicksilver	'kwɪksɪl.və	'kwɪksɪlvər	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Quiescent	'kwi'es.nt	'kwaɪ'es.nt	-	-	-	+	+	+
8	Quizmaster	'kwɪz'mɑ:.stə	'kwɪz'mæs.tər	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Quotient	'kwəʊʃnt	'kwouʃnt	+	+	+	-	-	-
10	Quotidian	'kwəʊtɪdiən	'kwoutɪdiən	+	+	+	-	-	-

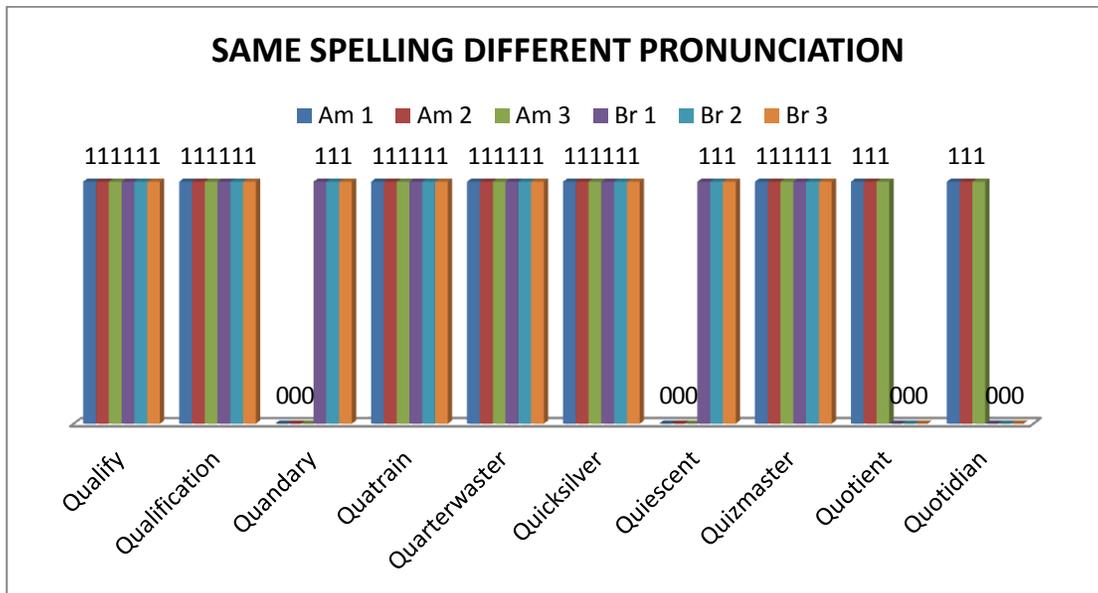


Diagram № 7.1.17

Out of ten nine samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.18 Word starting with letter r

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Route	ru:t	raot	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Racketeer	rækə'tiə	ræk.ə'tɪr	-	-	-	+	+	+
3	Radiology	ˌreɪ.dɪɒlədʒi	ˌreɪ.dɪɑː.lədʒi	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Rapper	'ræp.ə	'ræp.ər	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Rascal	'rɑː.sk ə l	ræs.kə l	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Repertory	'rep.ə.t r.i	rep.ə.tɔːri	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Reschedule	'ri: 'fed.ju:l	ri:skedʒ.u:l	+	+	+	-	-	-
8	Rancam	rænkæm	rænk ə m	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Runner	rʌn.ə	rʌn.ər	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Ryegrass	raɪ grɑ:s	raɪ græs	-	-	-	+	+	+

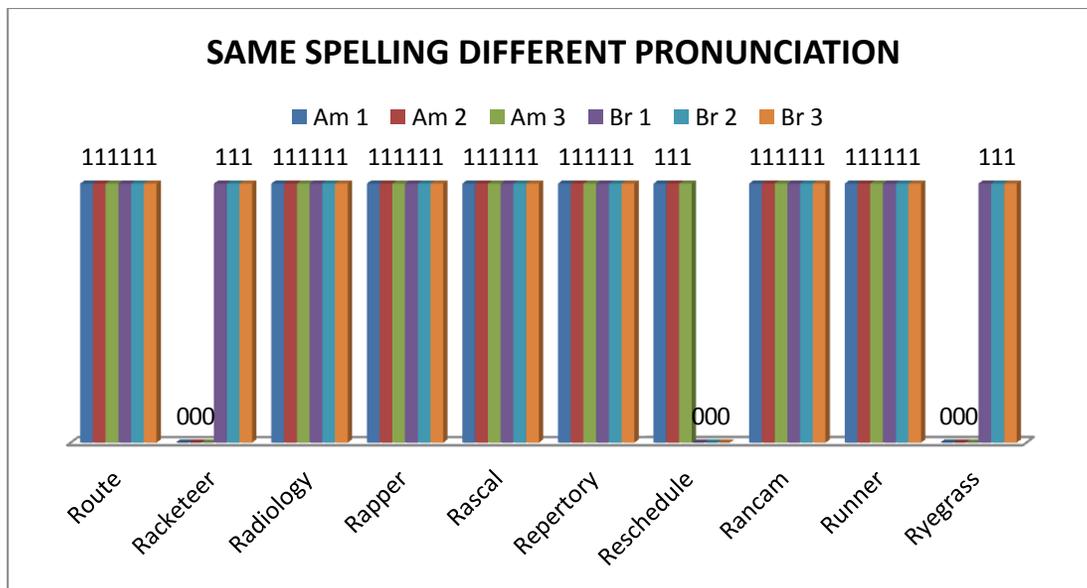


Diagram № 7.1.18

Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.19 Word starting with letter s

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Schedule	ˈʃed.ju:l	ˈsked ju:l	+	+	+	-	-	-
2	Sackcloth	ˈsæk.klɒθ	sæk.klɑ:θ	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Safeguard	ˈseɪf.gɑ:d	ˈseɪf.gɑ:rd	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Salutary	ˈsæl.jʊ.tri	ˈsæl.jʊ.ter.i	-	-	-	+	+	+
5	Scenario	ˈsɪˈnɑ:ri.əʊ	ˈsəˈner.i.ou	+	+	+	-	-	-
6	Sculptured	ˈskʌlp.tʃəd	ˈskʌlp tʃərd	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Seniority	ˈsi:niˈɔ:ri.ti	ˈsi:ˈnjɔ:rəti	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Sharpen	ˈʃɑ:p n	ˈʃɑ:r p n	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Shopper	ˈʃɒp.ə	ˈʃɑ:pər	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Shovelware	ˈʃʌv. ə l weə	ˈʃʌv. ə l wer	+	+	+	+	+	+

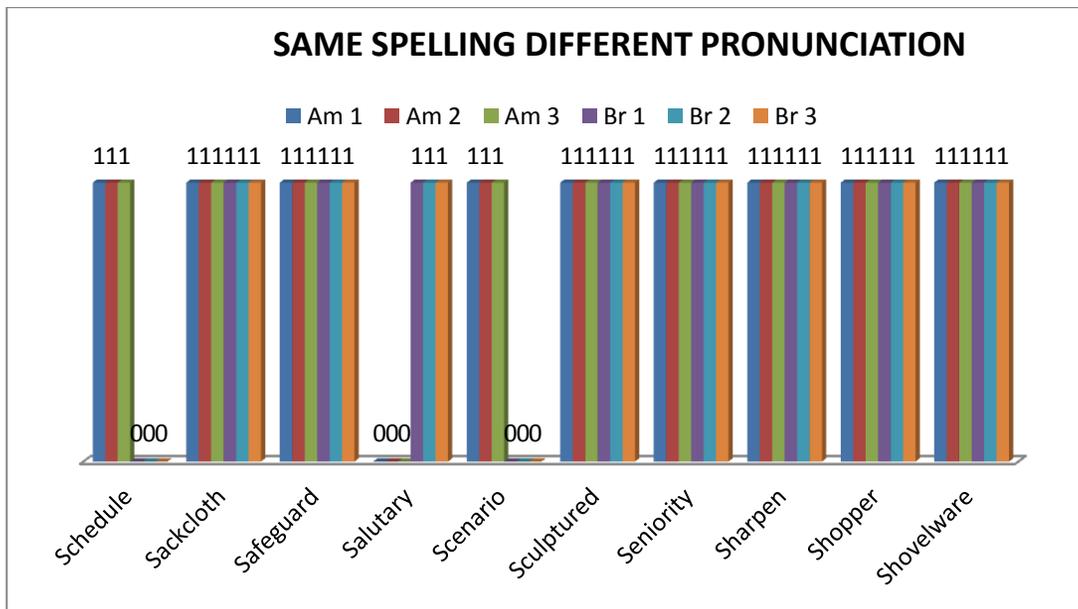


Diagram № 7.1.19

Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.20 Word starting with letter t

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Tissue	tɪʃ.u:	'tɪs.ju:	-	-	-	+	+	+
2	Tomato	tə'mɑ:.təʊ	tə'meɪ.təʊ	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Tensile	ten.səl	ten.sɪl	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Templaf	temp 'plɪəʊf	temp p'liɒf	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	Thermosetting	θɜ:.mə ʊset.ɪŋ	θɜ:.mouset ɪŋ	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Tirode	taɪ'reɪd	tɪ reɪd	-	-	-	+	+	+
7	Toaster	'təʊ.stə	'təʊ.stə	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Toff	tɑ:f	tɑ:f	-	-	-	+	+	+
9	Torchlight	'tɔ:ʃ.laɪt	tɔ:rtʃ.laɪt	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Transient	træn.zi.ənt	Træn.ʃənt	-	-	-	-	-	-

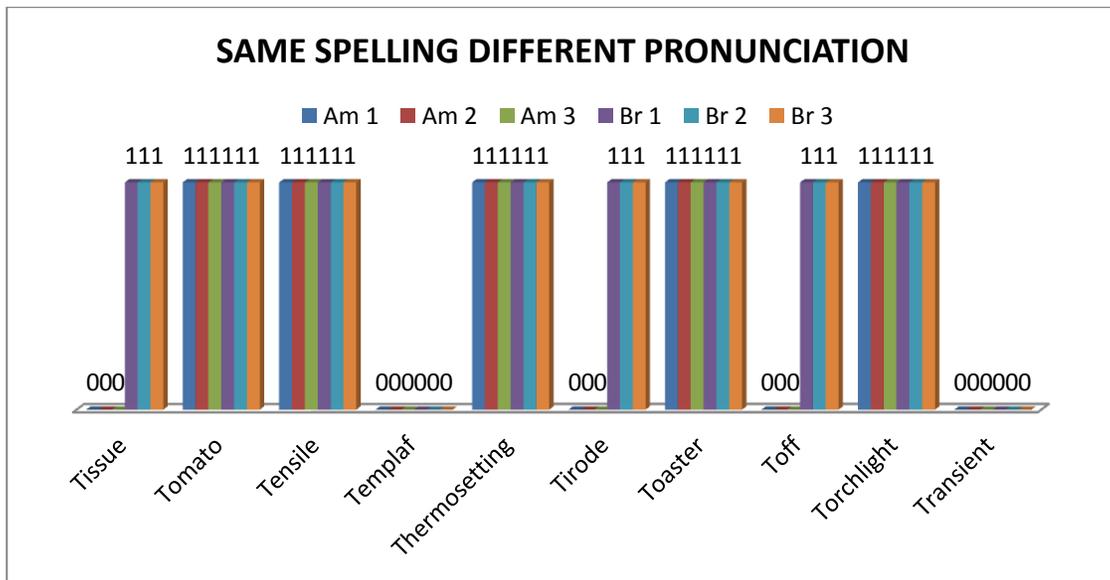


Diagram № 7.1.20

Out of ten five samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.21 Word starting with letter u

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Undue	ʌn'dju:	ʌn'du	-	-	-	+	+	+
2	Unexploded	ʌn.ɪk'splɔ:d	ʌn.ɪk'splɔ:ɪd	+	+	+	-	-	-
3	Unharméd	ʌn'hɑ:md	ʌn'hɑ:rmd	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Unproven	ʌn'pru:vɪn	ʌn prəʊ vɪn	-	-	-	+	+	+
5	Untoward	ʌn.tʊ'wɔ:d	ʌn.tə.wɔ:rd	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Unsuited	ʌn'sj u:tɪd	ʌn'su:tɪd	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Unremarkable	ʌn.rɪ'mɑ:kə.bl	ʌn.rɪ'mɑ:r.kə.bl	-	-	-	+	+	+
8	Unobserved	ʌnəb'zɜ:vəd	ʌnəb'zɜ:rvəd	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Usher	ʌʃ.ə	ʌʃ.ər	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Utilization	ju:tɪ.laɪ'zeɪʃ n	ju:tɪ.lɪ'zeɪʃən	+	+	+	+	+	+

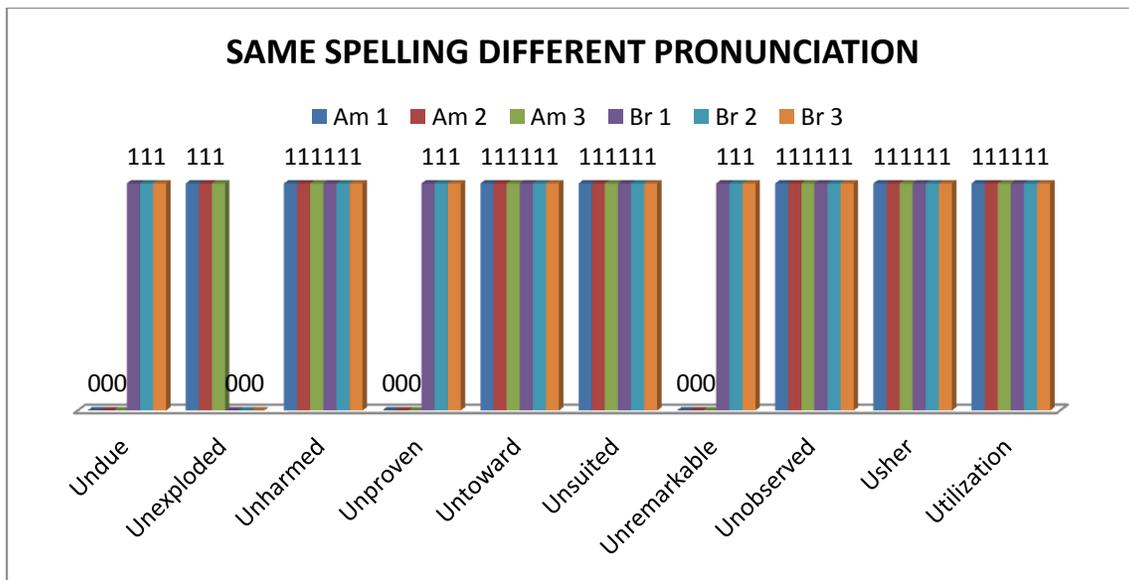


Diagram № 7.1.21

Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.22 Word starting with letter v

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Vase	vɑ:z	veɪs	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Vaccum	'væk.ju:m	'væk.jəm	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Valour	væl.ə	væl.ər	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Variant	veə.ri.ənt	ver.i.ənt	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Volunteer	vɒl.ən'tiə	vɑ:lən'tɪr	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Volcano	vɒl'keɪ.nəʊ	vɑ:l'keɪ.noʊ	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Vortex	vɔ:teks	vɔ:r.tɛks	-	-	-	+	+	+
8	Vulgar	vʌl.gə	vʌl.gər	-	-	-	+	+	+
9	Votive	vəʊ.tɪv	voʊ.tɪv	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	Voyer	vɑ:'jɜ:	vɑ:'jɜ:r	-	-	-	-	-	-

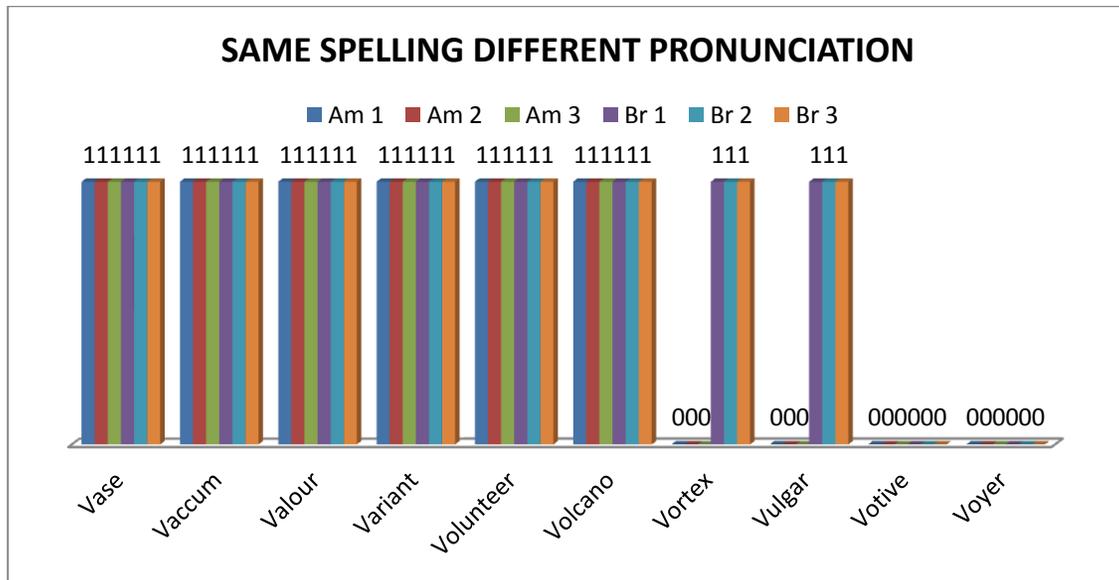


Diagram № 7.1.22

Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table №7.1. 23 Word starting with letter w

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Wrath	ˈrɒθ	ˈrɑ:θ	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Wager	ˈweɪ.dʒə	ˈweɪ.dʒər	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Waffle	ˈwɒf.l	ˈwɑ:.fl	-	-	-	+	+	+
4	Wakeboard	ˈweɪk/bɔ:d	ˈweɪkbɔ:rd	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Wheelbarrow	ˈwi:l,bær.əʊ	ˈwi:l,ber.oo	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Willow	ˈwɪl.əʊ,tri:	ˈwɪl.ootri:	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Winnow	ˈwɪn.əʊ	ˈwɪn.oo	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Worker	ˈwɜ:.kə	ˈwɜ:.kər	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	World	ˈwɜ:ld	ˈwɜ:rld	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Wrongfoot	ˈrɒŋˈfʊt	ˈrɑ:ŋˈfʊt	-	-	-	+	+	+

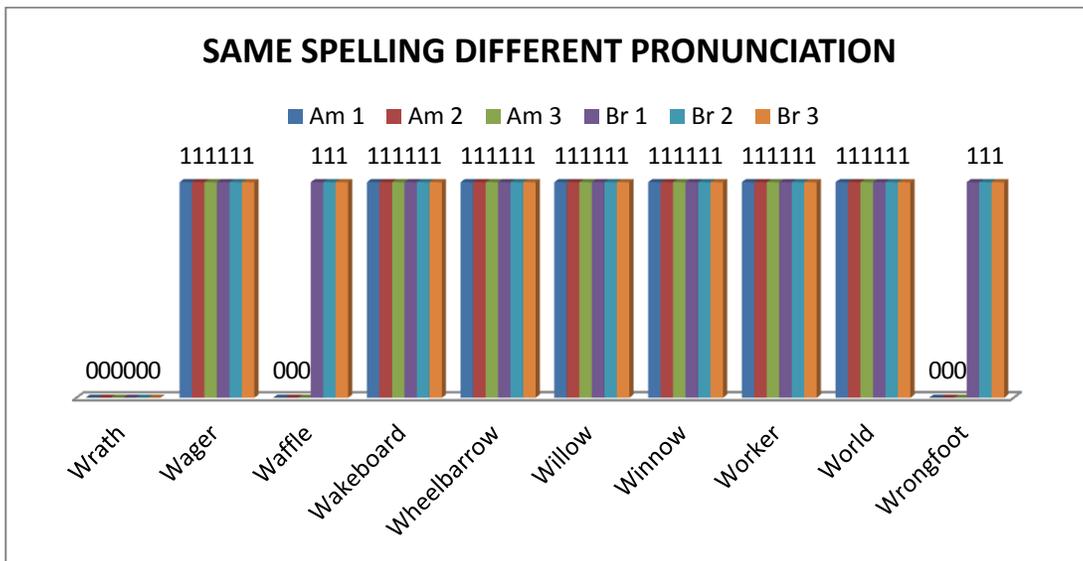


Diagram № 7.1.23

Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.24 Word starting with letter x

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	x-certificate	eksətɪfɪkət	eksərtɪf.ɪ.kət	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Xenon	zen.ɒn	zenɑ:n	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	Xenophobia	zenə'fəʊ.bi.ə	zenəfoʊb.bi.ə	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Xylophone	zai.lə.fəʊn	zai.lə foʊn	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Xaxis	'eks,æk.sɪs	'eks,æk.sɪz	-	-	-	+	+	+
6	Xenotransplant	zen.ɒtræn'splɑ:nt	zenɑ:træn'splænt	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	x-was	eks,wɒz	ekswɑ:z	+	+	+	-	-	-

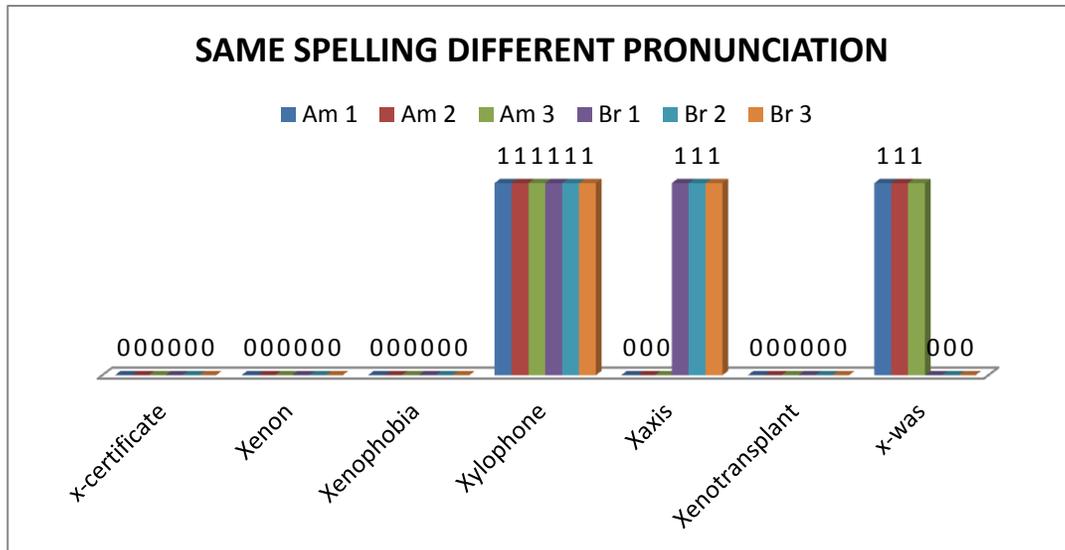


Diagram № 7.1.24

Out of seven one sample by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.25 Word starting with letter y

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am 1	Am 2	Am 3	Br 1	Br 2	Br 3
1	Yachting	'jɒt.ɪŋ	'jɑ:.dɪŋ	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Yaws	'jɔ:	'jɑ:z	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Yammer	'jæm.ə	'jæm.ə-r	+	+	+	+	+	+
4	Yellowish	'jel.əʊ.ɪʃ/	'jelouɪʃ	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Yogurt	'jɒg.ət	'joo.gət	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Yolk	'jɒk	'jook	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Yonder	'jɒn.də	'jɑ:n.də-r	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Yourself	'jɔ:'self	'jɔ:rsɛlf	+	+	+	-	-	-
9	Youtube	'ju:.tju:b	'ju:.tu:b	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Younger	'jʌŋə	'jʌŋ ə-r	+	+	+	+	+	+

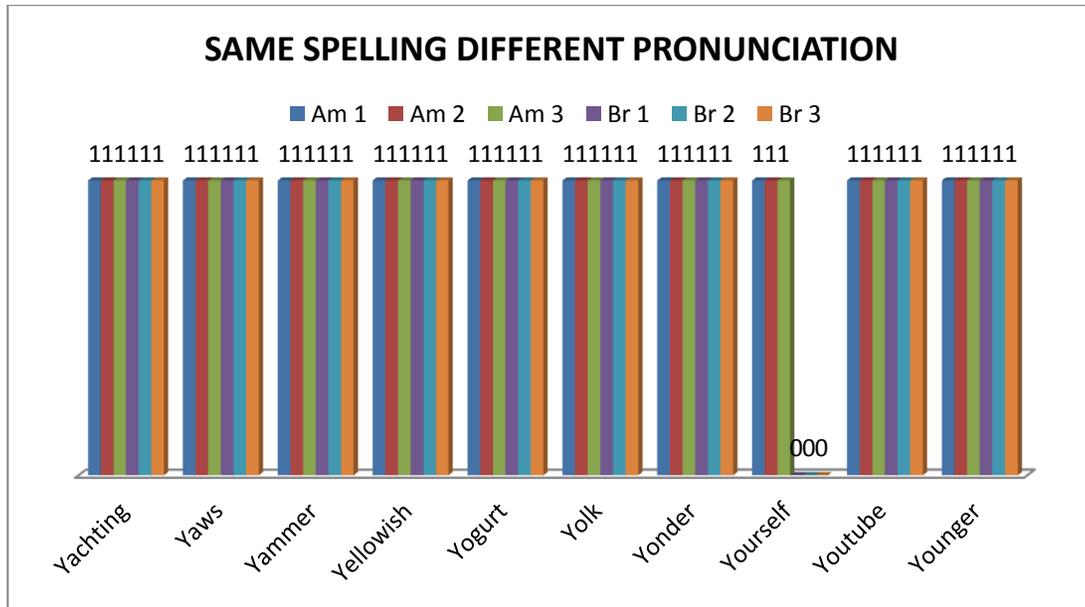


Diagram № 7.1.25

Out of ten nine samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Table № 7.1.26 Word starting with letter z

№	Word	Received Pronunciation	General American	Am			Br		
				1	2	3	1	2	3
1	Z	ˈzed	ˈzi:	+	+	+	+	+	+
2	Zebra	ˈzeb.rə	ˈzi:.brə	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	Zenith	ˈzen.iθ	ˈzi:n.iθ	-	-	-	+	+	+
4	Zero	ˈzɪə.rəʊ	ˈzɪr.oʊ	+	+	+	+	+	+
5	Zinger	ˈzɪŋə	ˈzɪŋər	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	Zodiac	ˈzəʊ.di.æk	ˈzoʊ.di.æk	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	Zombie	ˈzɒm.bi	ˈzɑ:m bi	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	Zydeco	ˈzai dek.əʊ	ˈzai dei.koʊ	+	+	+	+	+	+
9	Zoology	ˈzu:ˈɒl.ə.dʒi	ˈzoʊˈɑ:lədʒi	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	zapper	ˈzæp.ə	ˈzæp.ər	+	+	+	+	+	+

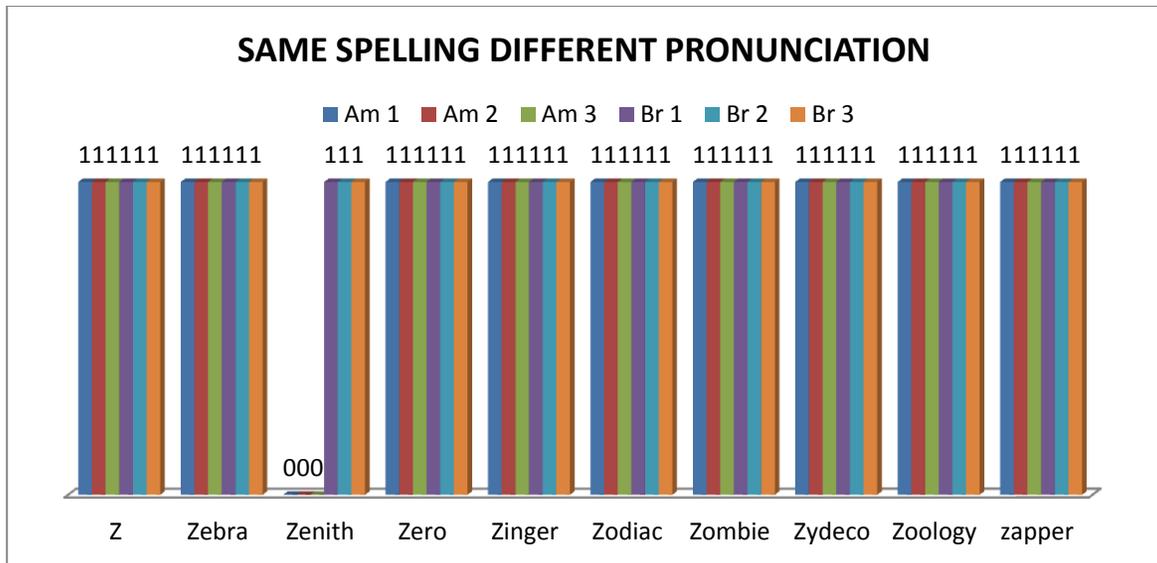


Diagram № 7.1.26

Out of ten nine samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Pronunciation differences noticed at the two pairs of native speakers.

Firstly, Americans pronounce the “r” sound while British native speakers do not- they pronounce a schwa instead.

Second difference is between the British accent and the American accent and that is the treatment of /r/. British English is non-rhotic, whereas the American accent is rhotic (r is pronounced when found in spelling).

British native speakers use the /ɑ:/ sound Americans use the “short a” /æ/ sound.

British native speakers pronounce the “t” sound Americans pronounce a “d” sound and finally Americans have a tendency to reduce words by omitting letters.

7.1.27 Same spelling different pronunciation –results

Diagram № 7.1.1 Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.2 Out ten four samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.3 Out of ten five samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.4 Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.5 Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.6 Out of ten eight samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.7 Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.8 Out of ten four samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.9 Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.10 Out of ten eight samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.11 Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.12 Out of ten five samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.13 Out of ten five samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.14 Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.15 Out of ten three samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.16 Out of ten nine samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.17 Out of ten nine samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.18 Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.19 Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.20 Out of ten five samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.21 Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.22 Out of ten six samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.23 Out of ten seven samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.24 Out of seven one sample by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.25 Out of ten nine samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Diagram № 7.1.26 Out of ten nine samples by British and American native speakers coincide

Based on the diagrams, it can be deduced that twenty cases strongly support the hypothesis (Diagrams 7.1.1,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,14,16,17,18,19,21,22,23,25,26), five partially support it (Diagrams 7.1.2,8,12,13) while only one (Diagram 7.1.24) does not support it. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Same spelling different pronunciation* can be confirmed as true.

7.2 Different spelling, same pronunciation,

In the second area of the phonological level, **Different spelling, same pronunciation**, refers to words which exist in both variants and they do have the same spelling but the pronunciation is the same. Samples are extracted from the material used in the theoretical part, i.e., *English around the world* by Yalop (ref), *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* by David Crystal (ref) and *Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. The first two sources for samples have already been discussed in the theoretical part and therefore, they have been taken for further research. As part for the Longman dictionary, words were again selected at random, that is to say, words were chosen from those listed with different spellings. Words were organized in tables in alphabetic order and then their frequency was checked in the two corpuses, BNC and COCA.

Table№ 7.2.1 Word starting with letter a

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	apologize	apologise	0,50/2,00	182.08/0.01
2	authorize	authorize	0,47/2,13	158.75/0.01
3	anesthetist	anaesthetist		3.39/0.30
4	analog	analogue	0,04/27,35	4.80/0.21
5	ax	axe	0,12/8,02	
6	ameba	amoeba		0.04
7	anemia	anaemia		7.69/0.13
8	anesthesia	anaesthesia		6.35/0.16
9	appall	appal		7.30/0.17
10	archeology	archaeology	0/707	0.08/13.15

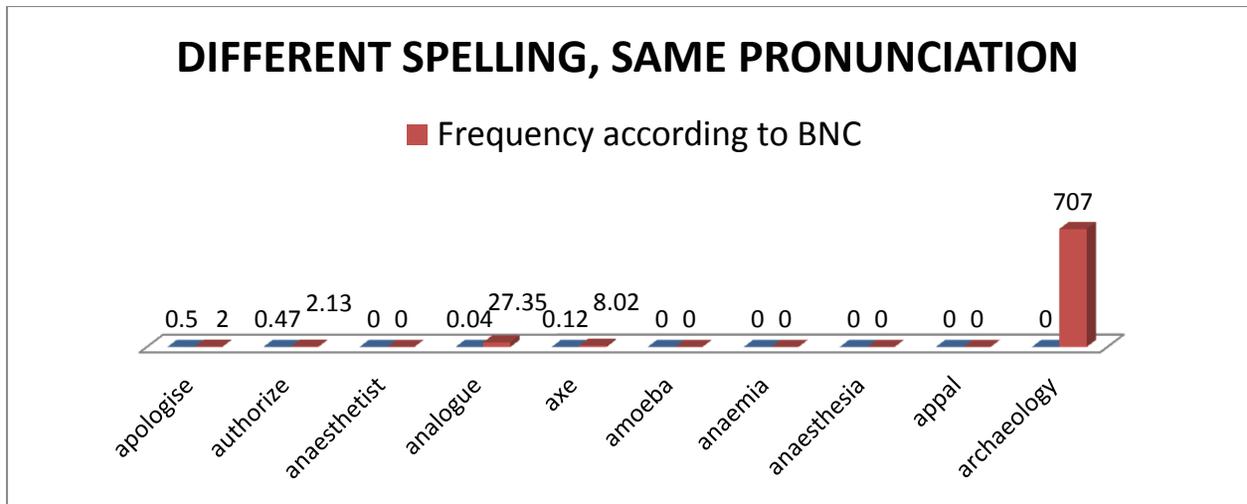


Diagram № 7.2.1a

Four British samples out of ten are more frequent than their American counterparts, six are not found.

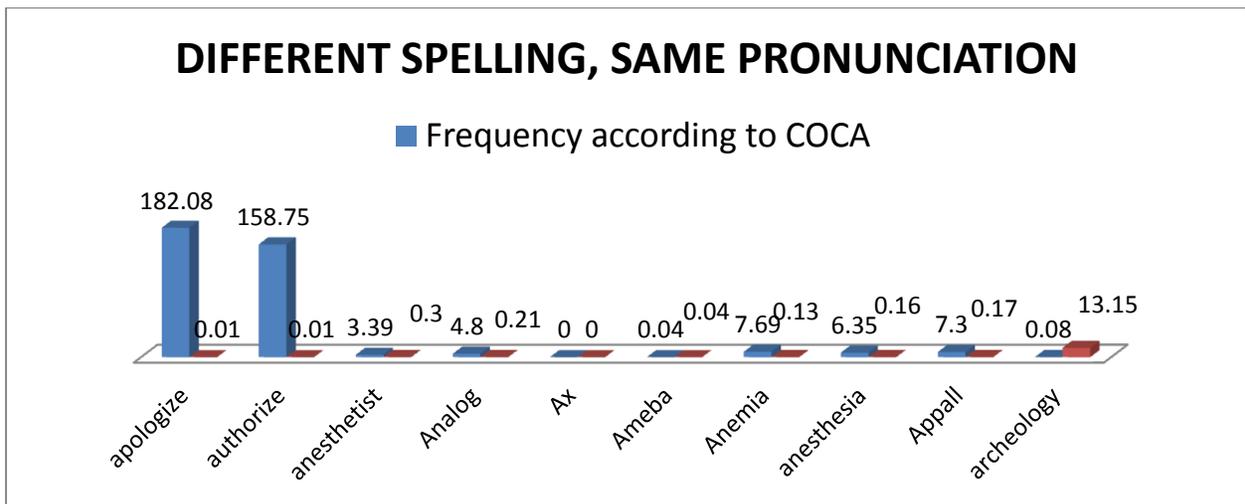


Diagram №7.2.1b

Eight American samples out of ten are more frequent than their British counterparts, one is not found and one British one is more frequent than its American counterpart.

Table№ 7.2.2 Word starting with letter b

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	behavior	behaviour	0,01/160,77	36.23/0.03
2	bail out	bale out	0,66/1,52	146.80/0.01
3	battleax	battleaxe		0.40
4	baloney	boloney		514.00/0.00
5	B.S	BSc		
6.	busses	Buses	0.01/142.60	0.02/44.99

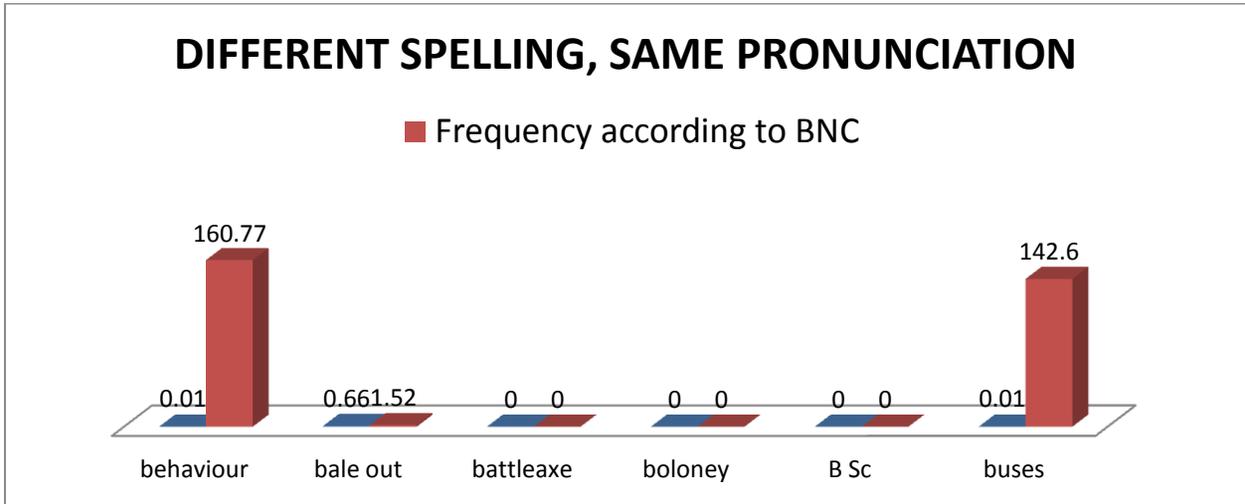


Diagram №7.2.2 a

Three British samples out of six are more frequent than the American ones, three are not found.

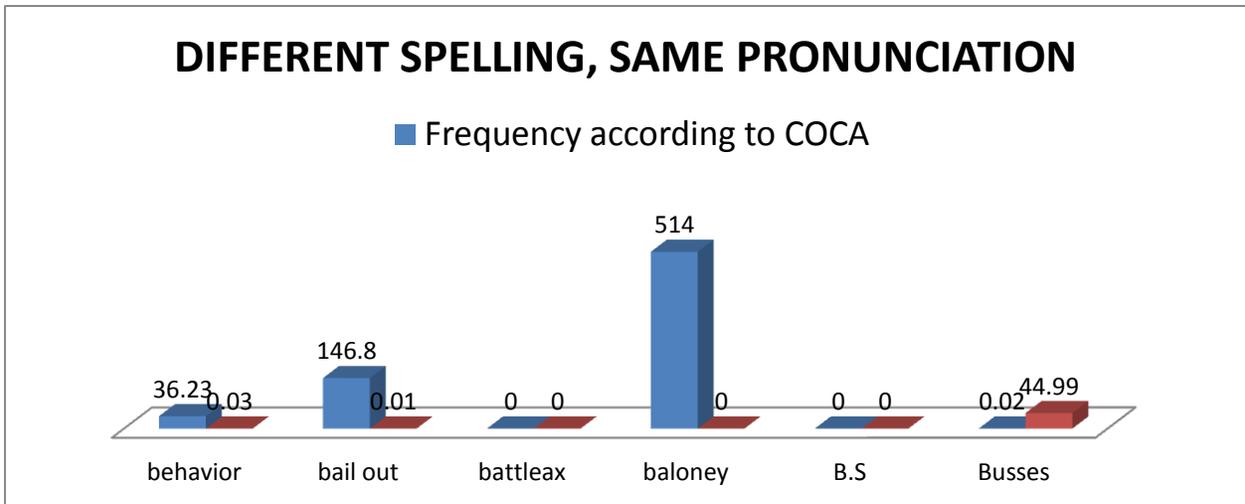


Diagram № 7.2.2 b

Three American samples out of six are more frequent than the British ones, two are not found, one British is more frequent.

Table № 7.2.3 Word starting with letter c

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	color	colour	0,01/99,42	88.45/0.01
2	center	centre	0,02/46,64	34.79/0.03
3	counseling	counselling		29.03/0.03
4	civilize	civilise	1.00/1.00	0.05
5	catalog	catalogue	0,01/133,83	1.84/0.54
6	ceasarian	Caesarean		
7	check	cheque	0,28/3,62	727.08/0.00
8	chili	chilli	5,05/0,20	67.71/0.01
9	cigaret	cigarette		0.01/176.26
10	citrus	Citrous		

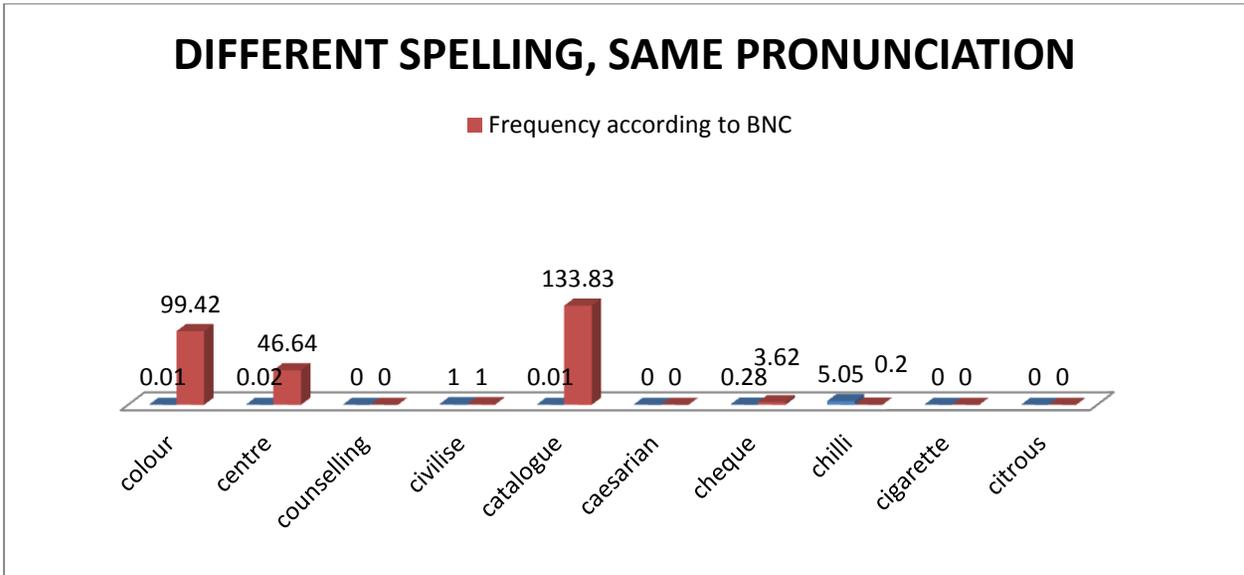


Diagram №7.2.3 a

Four British samples out of ten are more frequent than their American counterparts, four are not found, one is equal to its American counterpart and one American is more frequent.

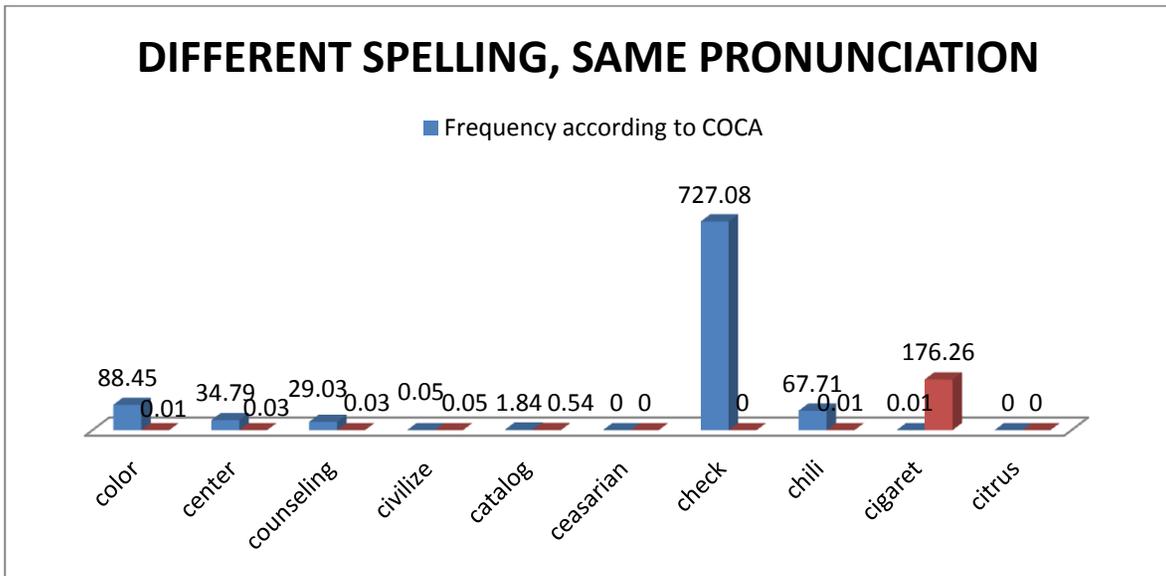


Diagram № 7.2.3b

Eight American samples out of ten are more frequent than the British, 1 is not found and 1 British is more frequent

Table № 7.2.4 Word starting with letter d

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	diarrhea	Diarhoea		1.570.00/0.00
2	dialog	Dialogue	0,03/34,83	0.06/17.67
3	defense	Defence	0,02/55,59	98.80/0.01
4	disk	Disc	1,49/0,67	1.47/0.68
5	draft	Draught	6,19/0,16	93.28/0.01
6	donut	Doughnut	0,01/105,00	0.06/17.19
7	draftsman	Draughtsman	0,69/1,44	7.88/0.13
8	drafty	Draughty	0,11/9,30	24.00/0.04

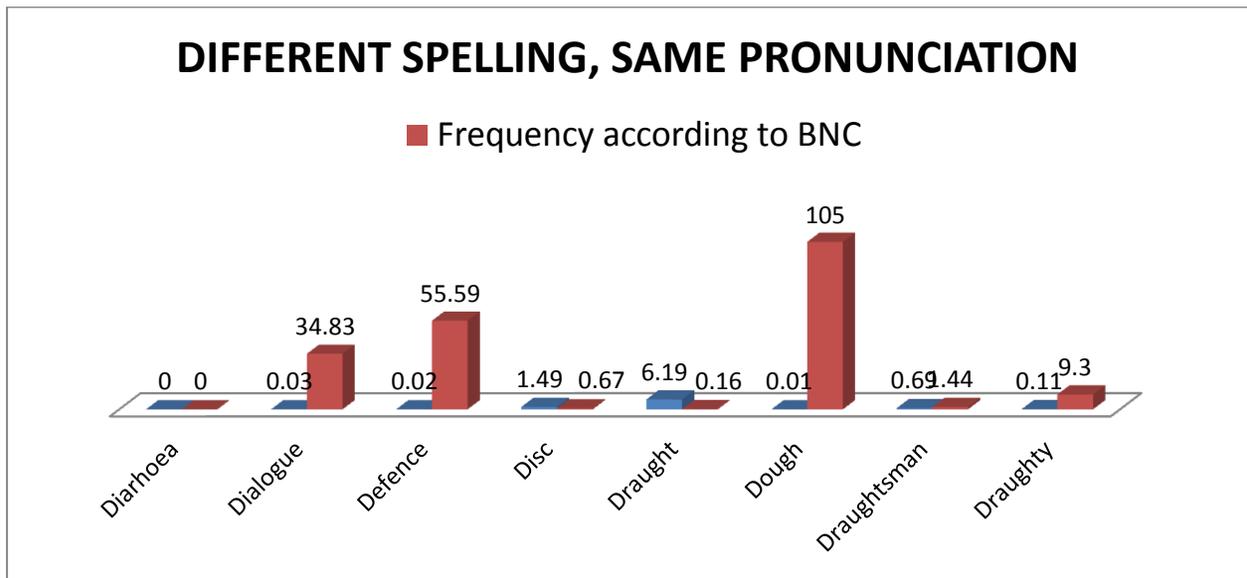


Diagram № 7.2.4 a

Five British samples out of eight are more frequent than the American ones, one is not found and two American are more frequent.

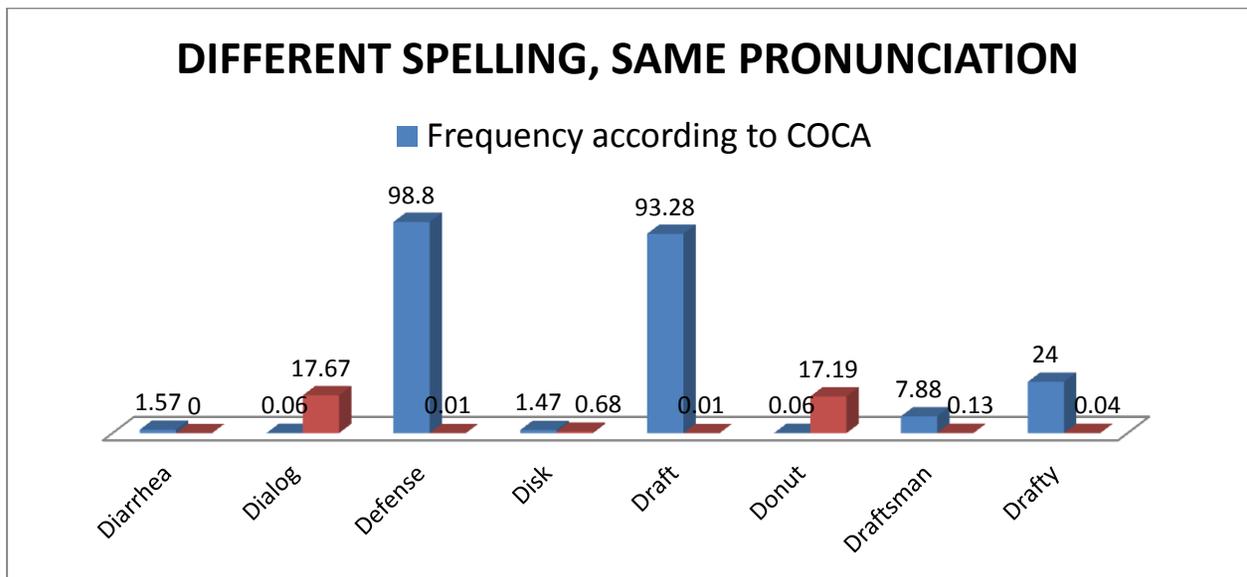


Diagram № 7.2.4 b

Six American samples out of eight are more frequent than their British counterparts, while two British ones are more frequent.

Table№ 7.2.5 Word starting with letter e

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	esthetic	aesthetic		0.06/16.96
2	estrogen	oestrogen	0,01/104,00	15.95/0.06
3	esophagus	oesophagus	0,01/79,00	23.86/0.04
4	encyclopedia	encyclopaedia	0,83/1,20	15.21/0.07
5	inquire	enquire	0,50/1,98	18.84/0.05
6	insure	ensure	0,03/30,26	0.10/10.07

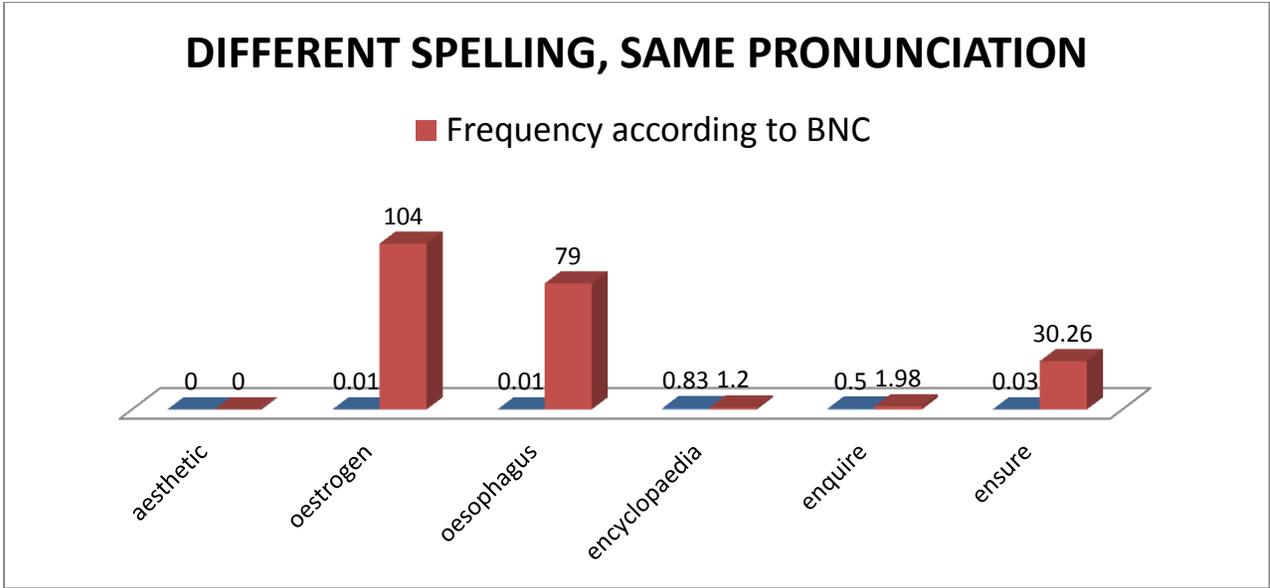


Diagram № 7.2.5 a

Five British samples out of six are more frequent than their American counterparts, one is not found

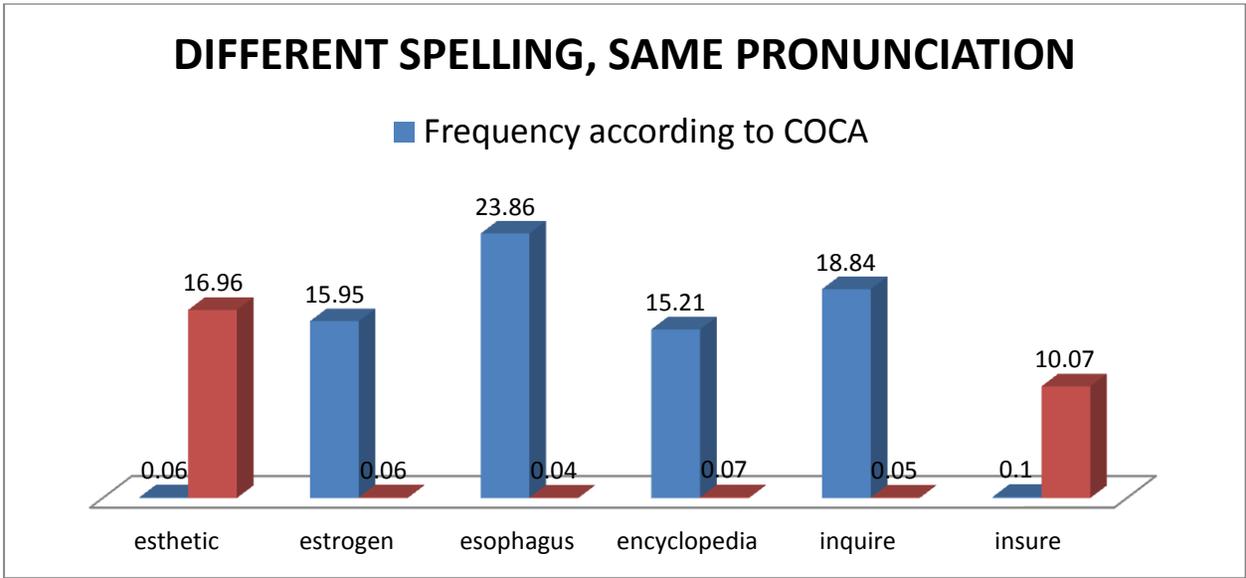


Diagram № 7.2.5 b

Four American samples out of six are more frequent than the British ones, and two British samples are more frequent.

Table № 7.2.6 Word starting with letter b

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	favor	favour	0,01/73,42	55.90/0.02
2	flavor	flavour	0,01/169,21	114.01/0.01
3	feces	faeces		42.33/0.02
4	fetus	foetus	1,70/0,59	32.14/0.03
5	flotation	Floataion??	44,33/0,02	24.67/0.04

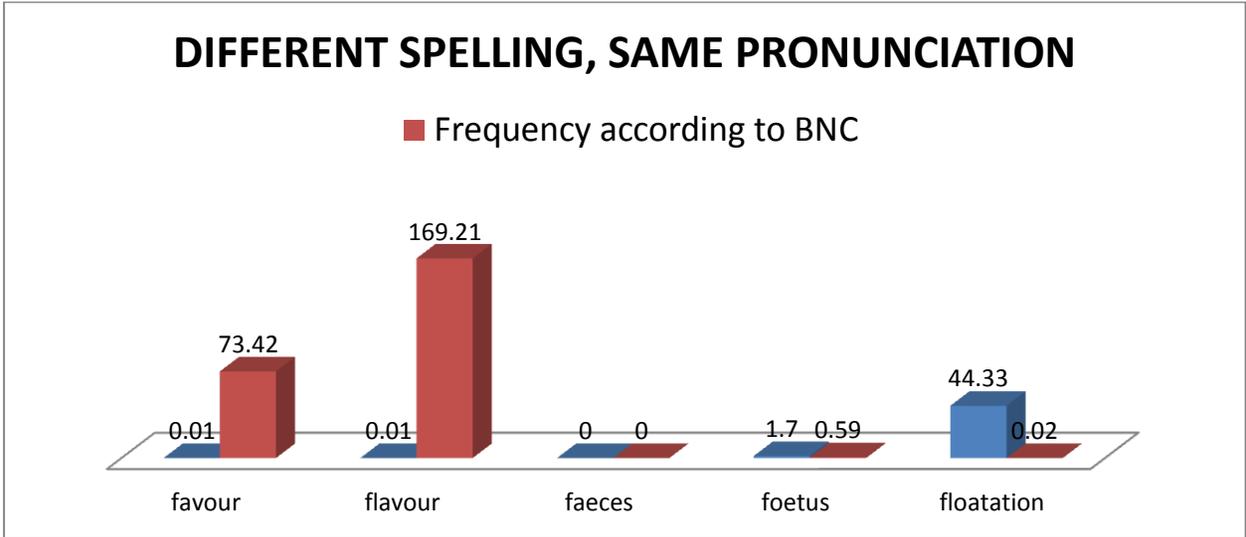


Diagram № 7.2.6 a

Two British samples out of five are more frequent than the American ones, one is not found, and one American one is more frequent.

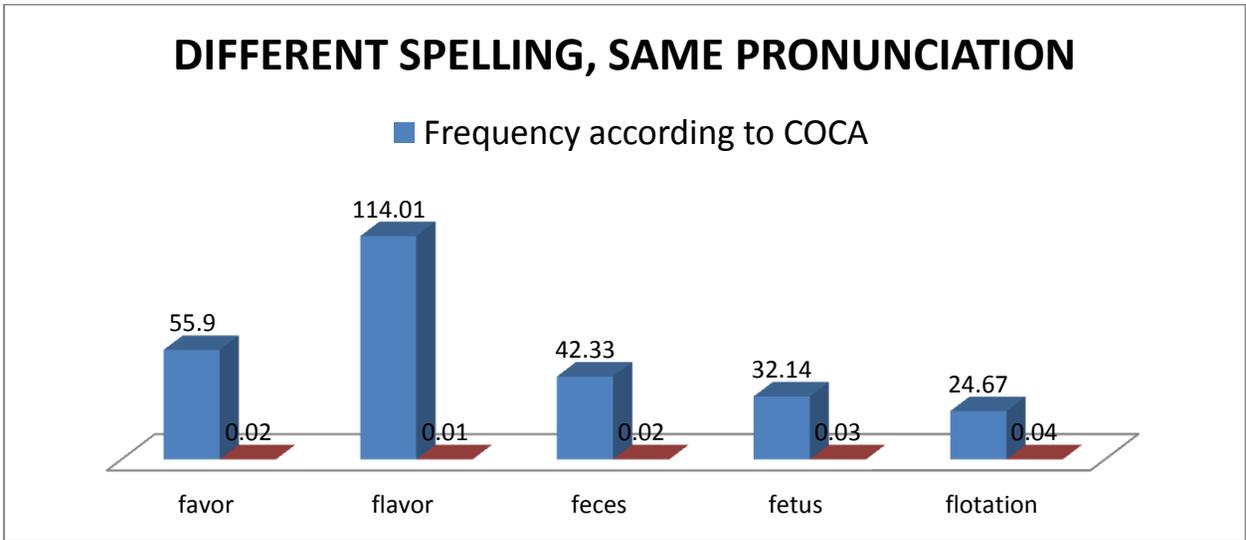


Diagram № 7.2.6 b

Five out of five American samples are more frequent.

Table № 7.2.7 Word starting with letter g

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	gynecology	gynaecology	0,01/73.00	14.08/.0.07
2	gray	grey	0,20/5,09	7.33/.0.14
3	jail	gaol	4,73/0,21	220.94/0.00
4	garrote	garotte		0.14
5	gage	gauge	0,09/11,29	0.19/5.37
6	gonorrhoea	gonorrhoea		1.00/1.00
7	gram	gramme	0,06/17,83	1.871/0.00

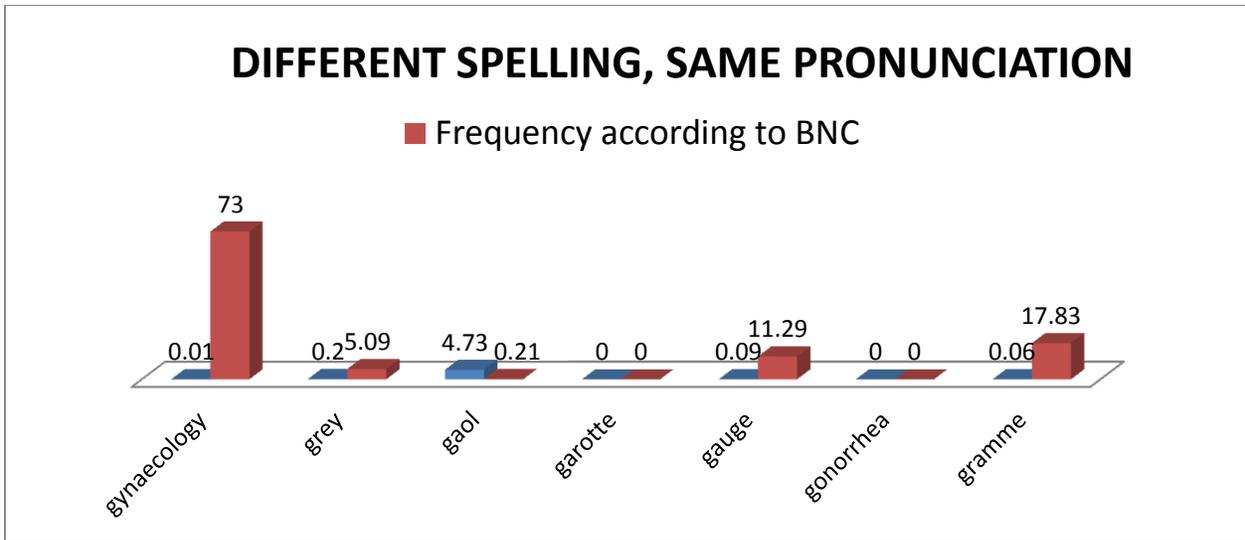


Diagram № 7.2.7 a

Four out of seven British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, two are not found, and one American sample is more frequent.

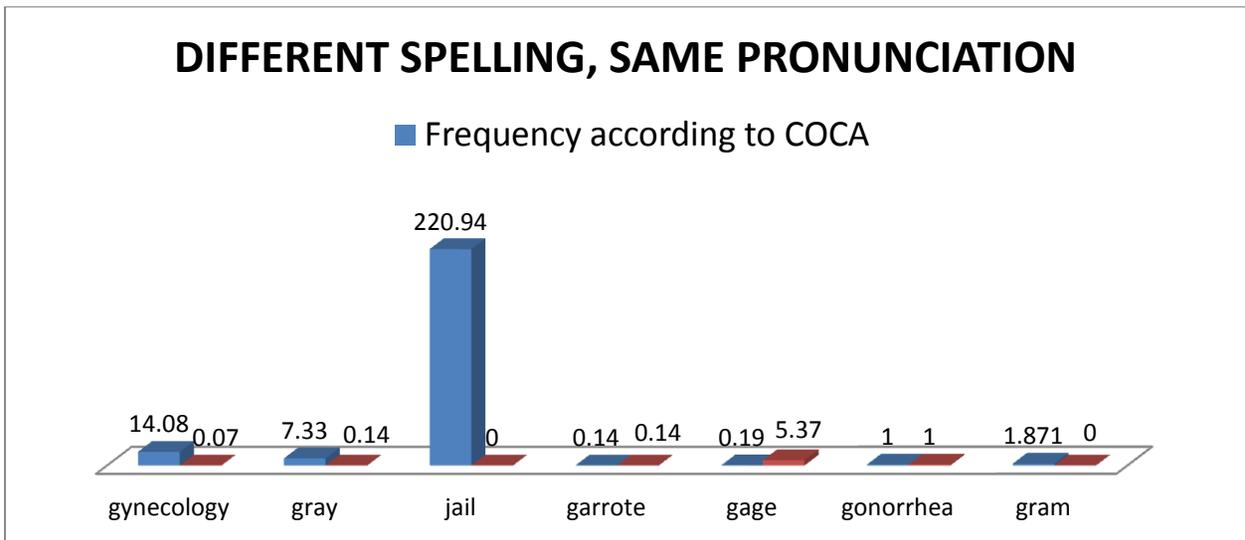


Diagram № 7.2.7b

Four out of seven American samples are more frequent than the British ones, two are equally frequent, and one British sample is more frequent.

Table № 7.2.8 Word starting with letter h

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	Harbor	Harbour	0,04/26,08	13.85/0.07
2	Honor	Honour	0,04/22,42	60.80/0.02
3	Humor	Humour	0,01/163,54	61.07/0.02
4	Hemorrhage	Haemorrhage		5.24/0.19
5	Hemo	<u>H</u> emo		
6	Homeopath	Homoeopath		
7	Hosteler	Hosteller		

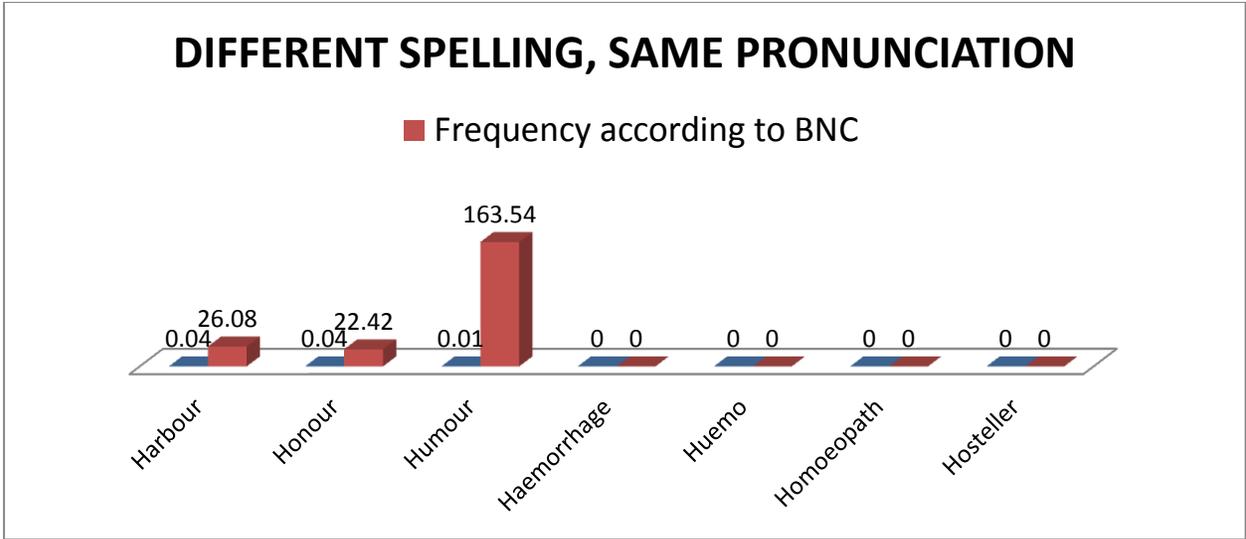


Diagram №7.2.8a

Three British samples out of seven are more frequent than the American ones, and four are not found.

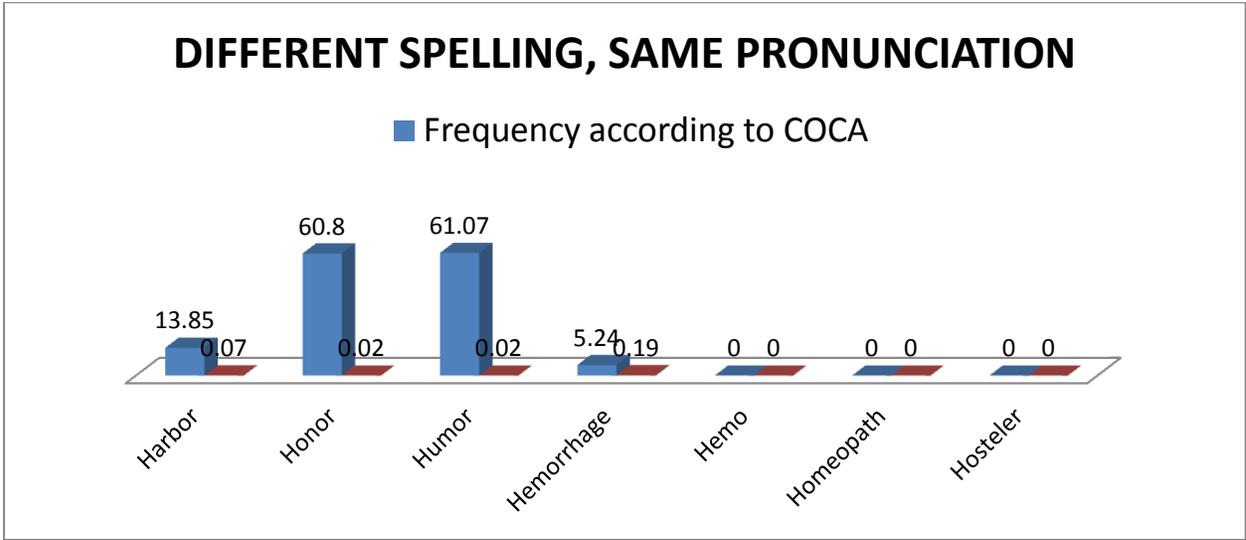


Diagram № 7.2.8 b

Four American samples out of seven are more frequent than their British counterparts, and three are not found.

Table.№ 7.2.9 Word starting with letter i

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	inflection	inflexion	2,85/0,35	75.17/0.01
2	instill	instill	0,16/6,10	0.01/88.75

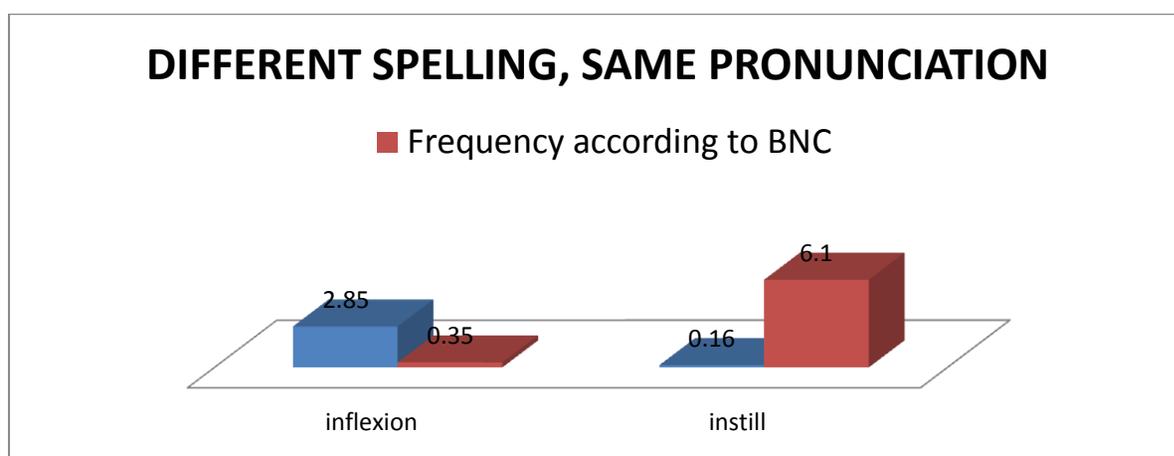


Diagram.№ 7.2.9 a

One out of two British samples is more frequent than the American one, and *vice versa*.

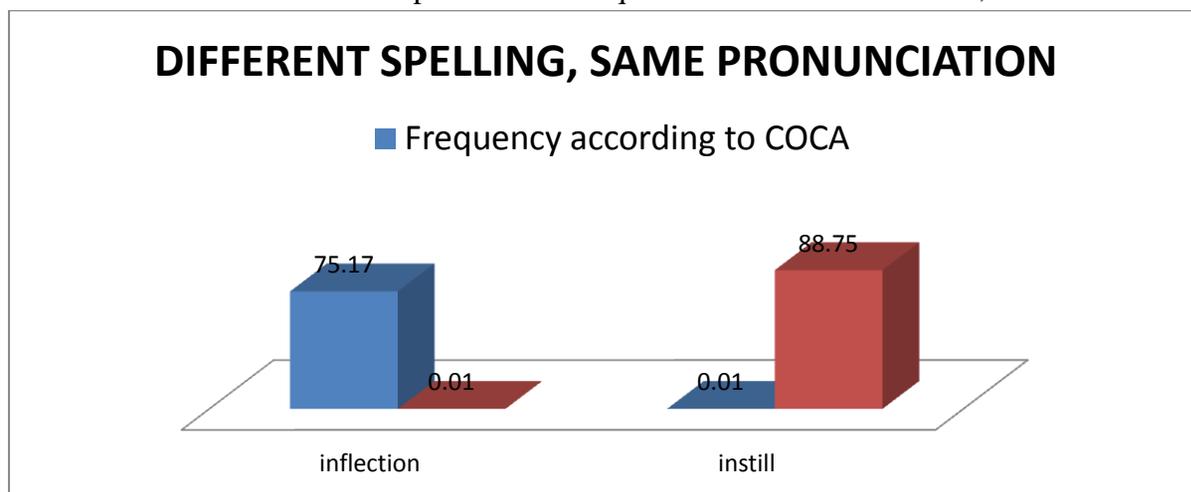
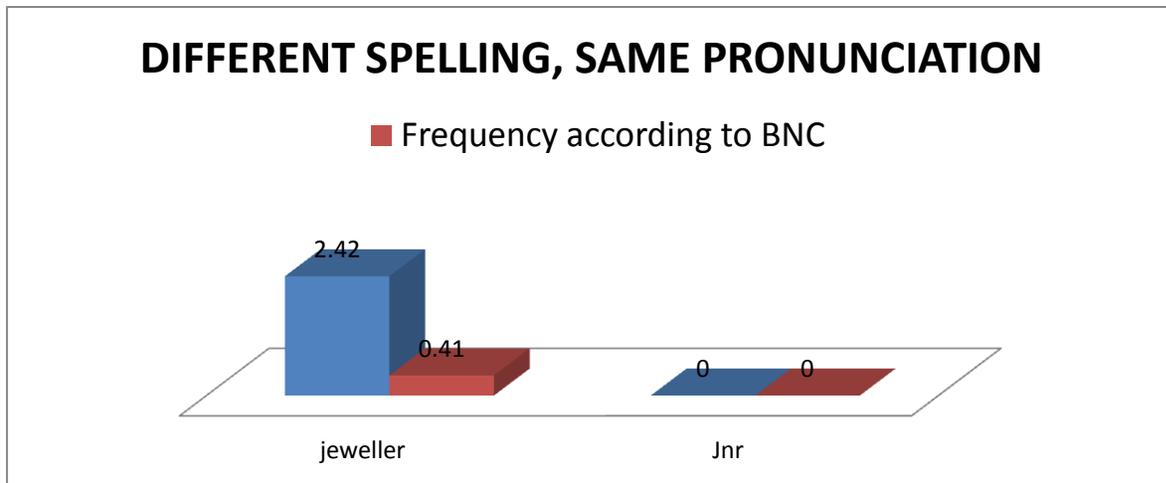


Diagram.№ 7.2.9b

One American sample out of two is more frequent than its British counterpart, and *vice versa*.

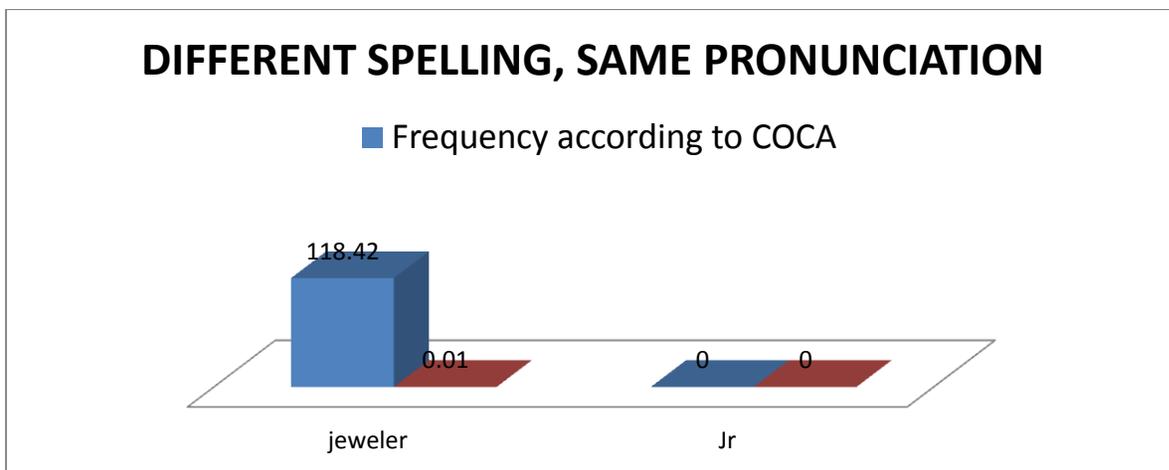
Table№ 7.2.10 Word starting with letter j

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	jeweler	jeweller	2,42/0,41	118.42/0.01
2	Jr	Jnr		



Diagram№ 7.2.10.a

One British sample out of two is more frequent than the American one, and one is not found.



Diagram№ 7.2.1

One American sample out of two is more frequent than its British counterpart, and one is not found.

Table № 7.2.11 Word starting with letter k

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	kilogram	kilogramme	3.09/0.32	

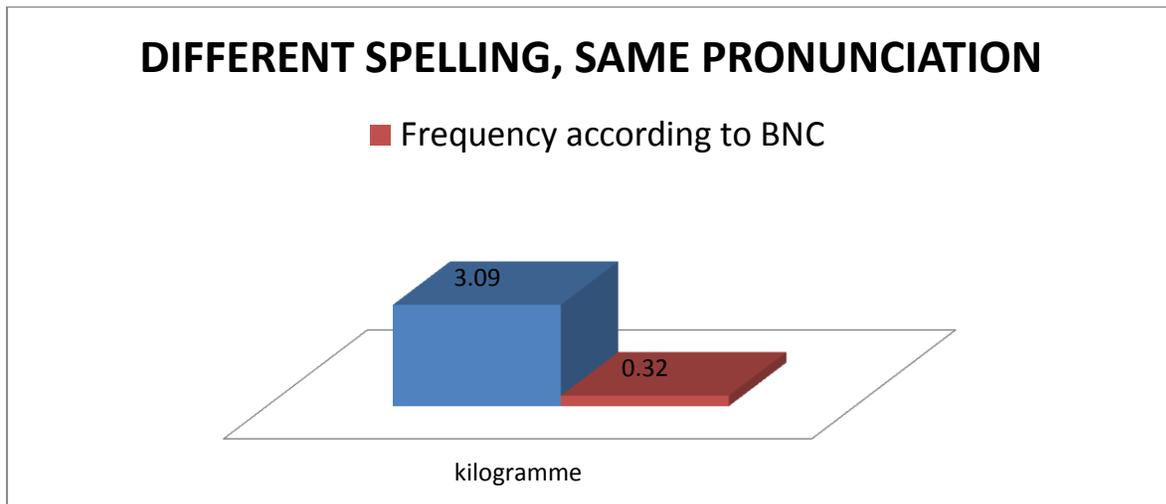


Diagram №7.2.11 a

One British sample out of one is more frequent than the American one.

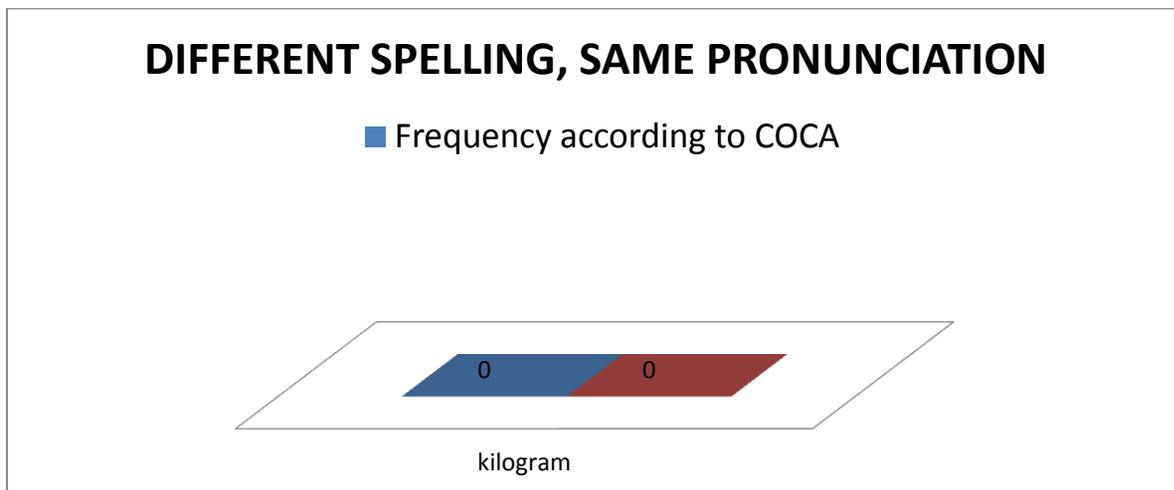


Diagram №7.2.11 b

One American sample is not found.

Table № 7.2.12 Word starting with letter l

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	labor	labour	160.72/0.01	22.54/0.04
2	liber	libre	2.17/0.46	0.37/2.73
3	liter	litre		22.97/.0.04
4	labeled	labelled	0.01/84.71	17.48/0.06
5	leukemia	leukaemia	20.00/0.05	25.69/0.04
6	largess	largesse	0.04	0.50/2.00
7	libel <u>u</u> s	libelous		
8	License (n.)	Licence (n.)	0.09/10.83	104.35/0.01
9	li <u>g</u> orice	liquorice	0.08/12.00	72.57/0.01

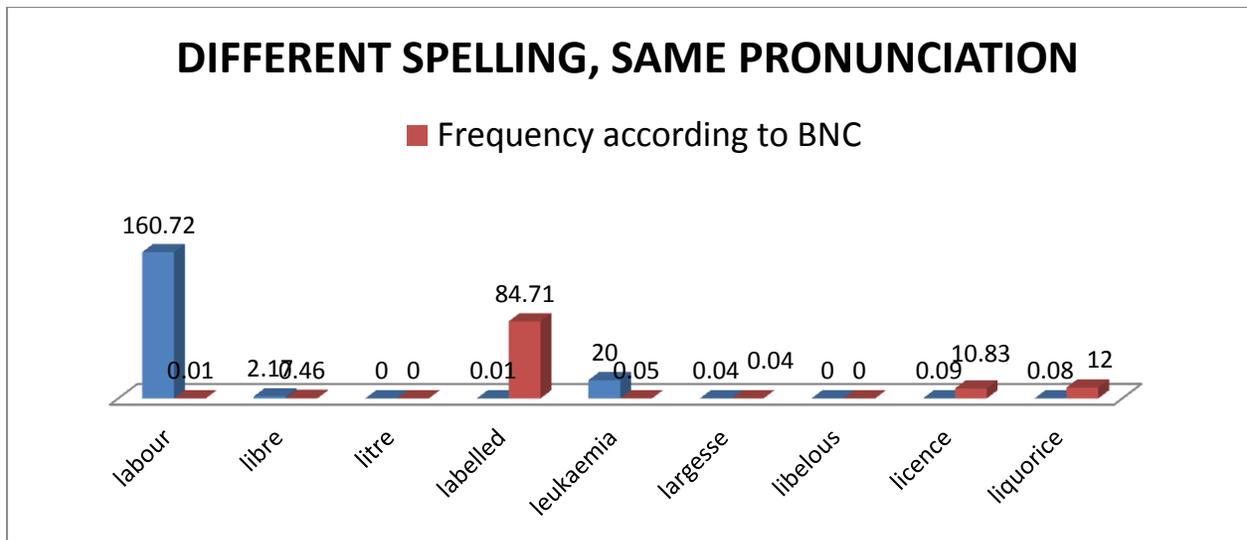


Diagram № 7.2.12 a

Three British samples out of nine are more frequent than the American ones, two are not found, three American counterparts are more frequent and one pair are equally frequent.

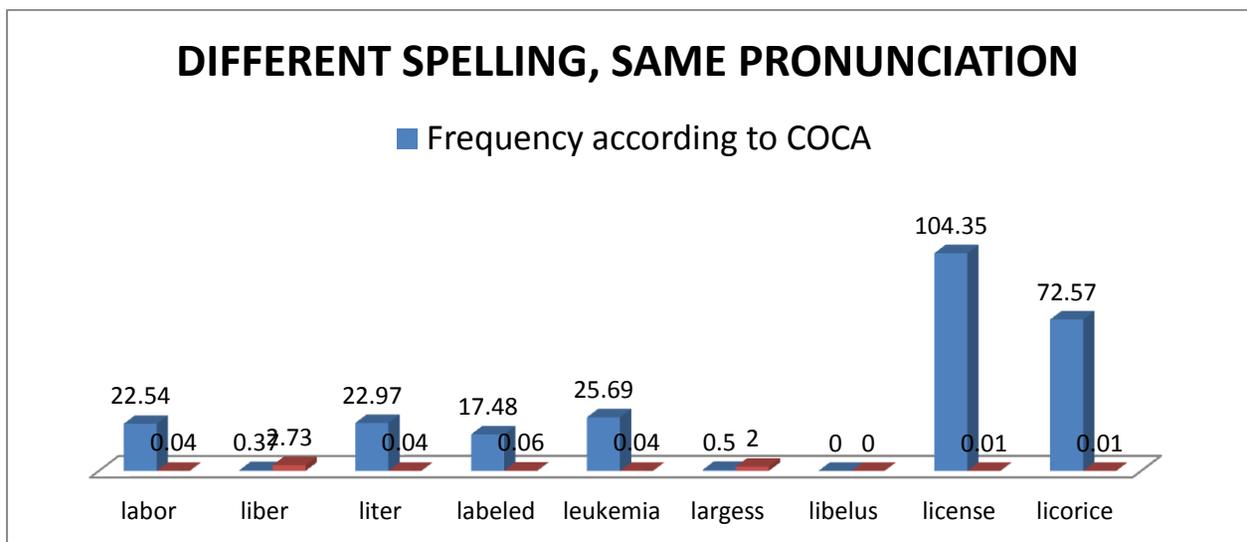


Diagram № 7.2.12 b

Six American samples out of nine are more frequent than their British counterparts, one is not found, and two British ones are more frequent.

Table№ 7.2.13 Word starting with letter m

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	maneuver	manoeuvre		57.50/0.02
2	marvelous	marvellous		25.84/0.04
3	medieval	mediaeval	12.98/0.08	99.27/0.01
4	mollusk	mollusc		0.05
5	mold	mould	0.14/7.35	13.84/0.07
6	molt	moult		23.71/0.04
7	mustache	moustache	0.01/77.86	3.72/0.27
8	M.S	MSc		

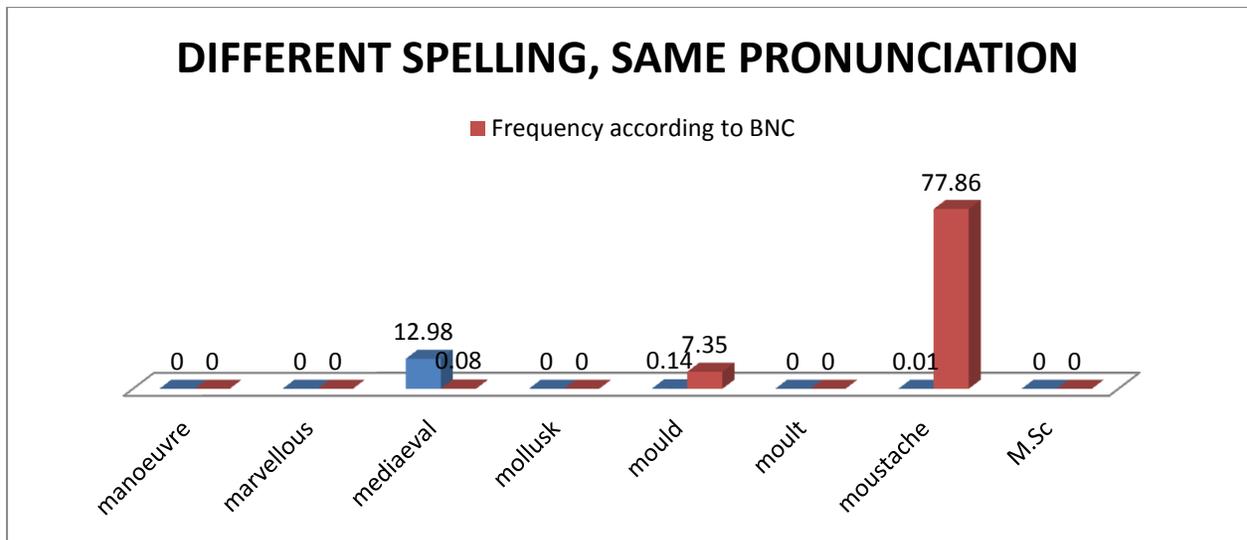


Diagram № 7.2.13a

Two British samples out of eight are more frequent than the American ones, five are not found, and one American counterpart is more frequent.

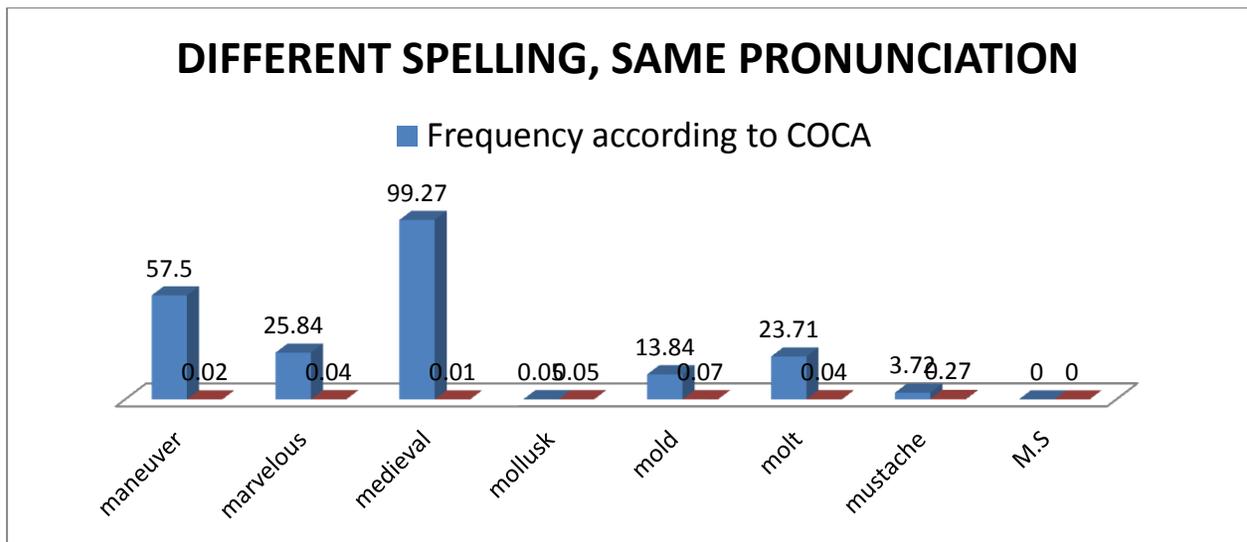


Diagram № 7.2.13b

Six out of eight American samples are more frequent than their British counterparts, one is not found, and one British sample is more frequent.

Table № 7.2.14 Word starting with letter n

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	neighbor	neighbour	0.01/155.64	59.87/0.02

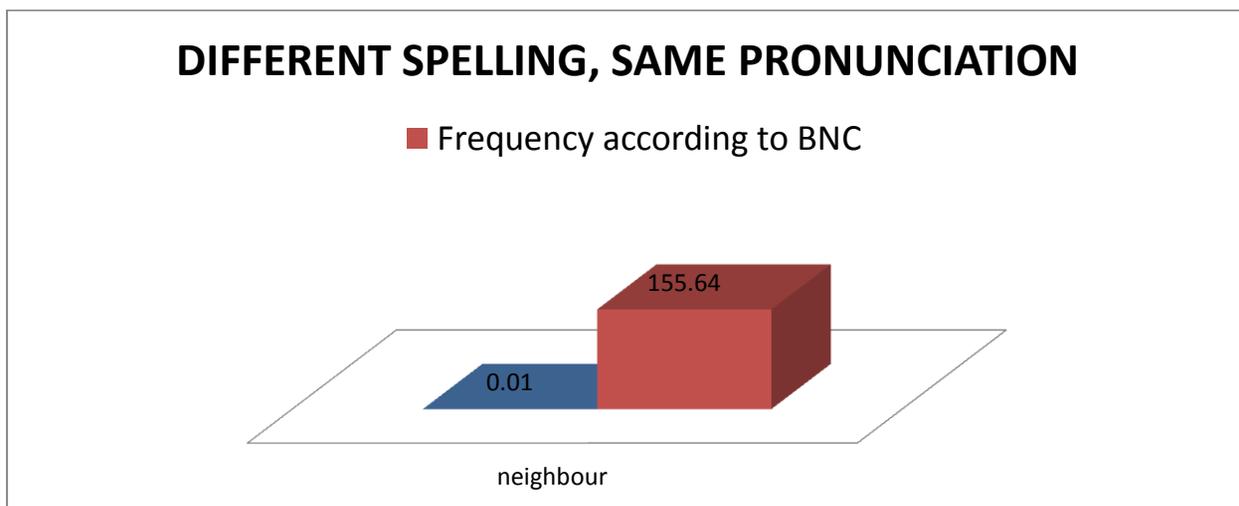


Diagram №7.2.14a

One British sample out of one is more frequent.

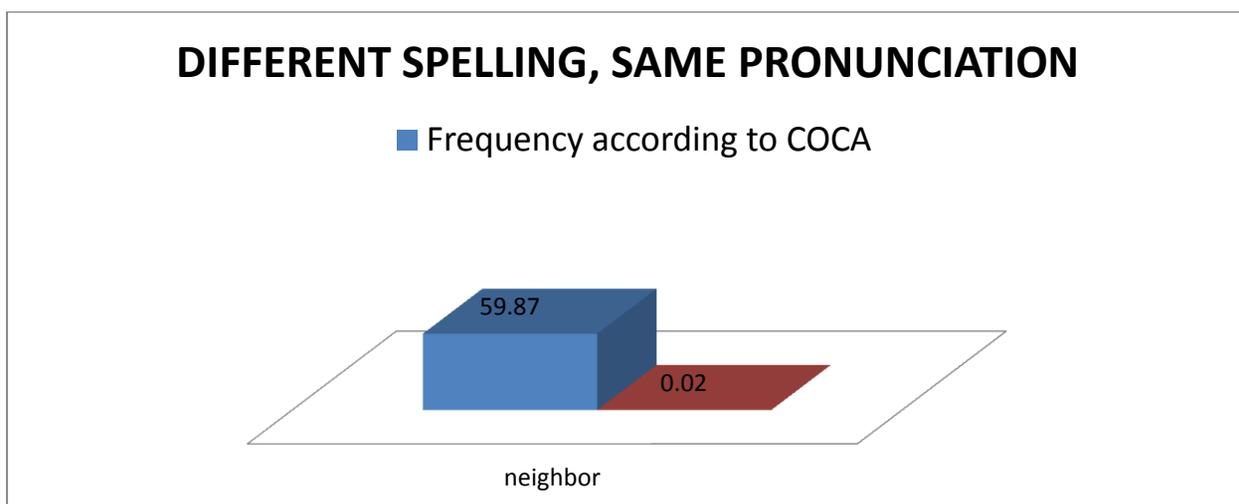


Diagram №7.2.14 b

One American sample out of one is more frequent.

Table № 7.2.15 Word starting with letter o

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	odor	odour		80.58/0.01
2	organize	organise	1.53/0.65	0.01/134.81
3	offense	offence	0.00/45.4	45.53/0.02
4	orthopedics	orthopaedics		1.98/0.50

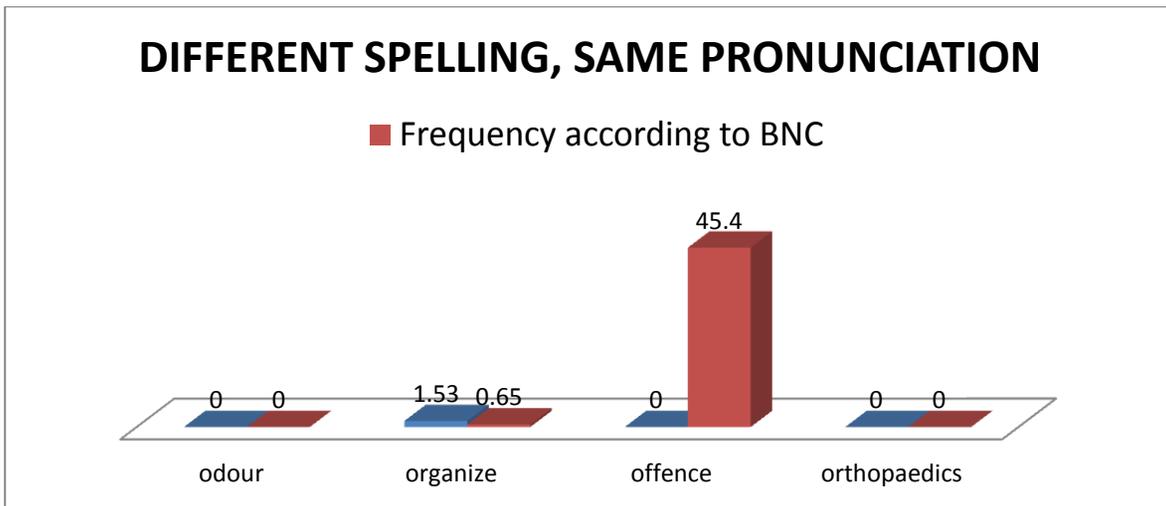


Diagram № 7.2.15a

One out of four British samples is more frequent than its American counterpart, two are not found, and one American sample is more frequent.

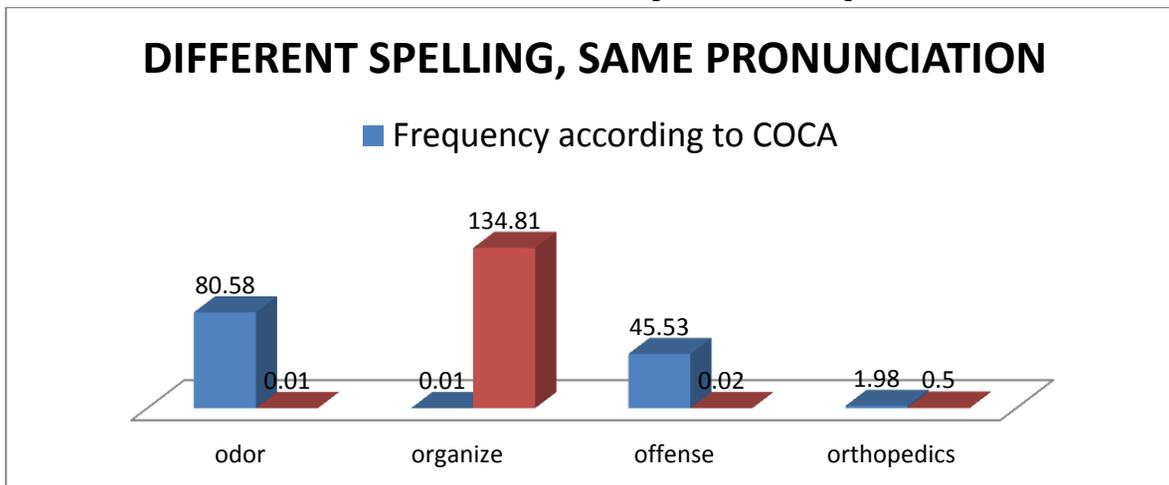


Diagram № 7.2.15

Three out of four American samples are more frequent the British ones, while one British one is more frequent.

Table № 7.2.16 Word starting with letter p

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	pediatrics	paediatrics	0.21	19.86/0.05
2	program	programme	0.20/5.05	99.52/0.01
3	pretense	pretence	0.02/52.13	23.77/0.04
4	plow	plough	0.02/60.50	11.35/0.09
5	panelist	panellist	0.18	
6	paralyze	paralyse	0.04	
7	peddler	pedlar	0.29/3.45	0.24
8	pract <u>i</u> ce	practise	0.08/13.14	0.00/376.98
9	premiss	premise	0.13/7.50	
10	pajamas	pyjamas	0.01	22.12/0.05

DIFFERENT SPELLING, SAME PRONUNCIATION

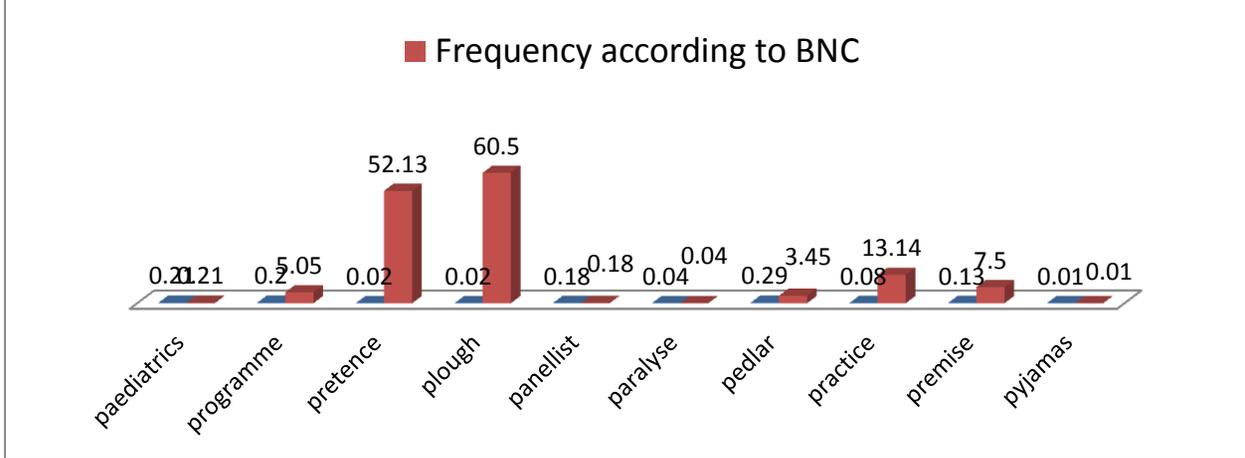


Diagram №7.2.16a

Seven out of ten British samples are more frequent than the American ones, and three pairs are equally frequent.

DIFFERENT SPELLING, SAME PRONUNCIATION

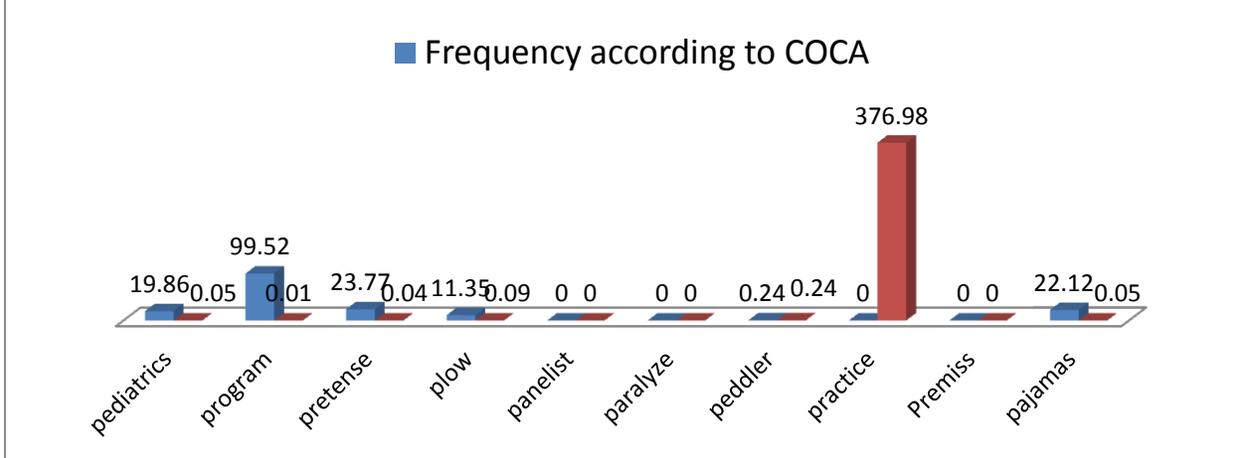


Diagram № 7.2.16b

Five American samples out of ten are more frequent than the British ones, three are not found, and one British sample is more frequent.

Table № 7.2.17 Word starting with letter r

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	rumor	rumour	0.01	50.51/0.02
2	recognize	recognise	1.73/0.58	0.01/106.95
3	renege	renege		

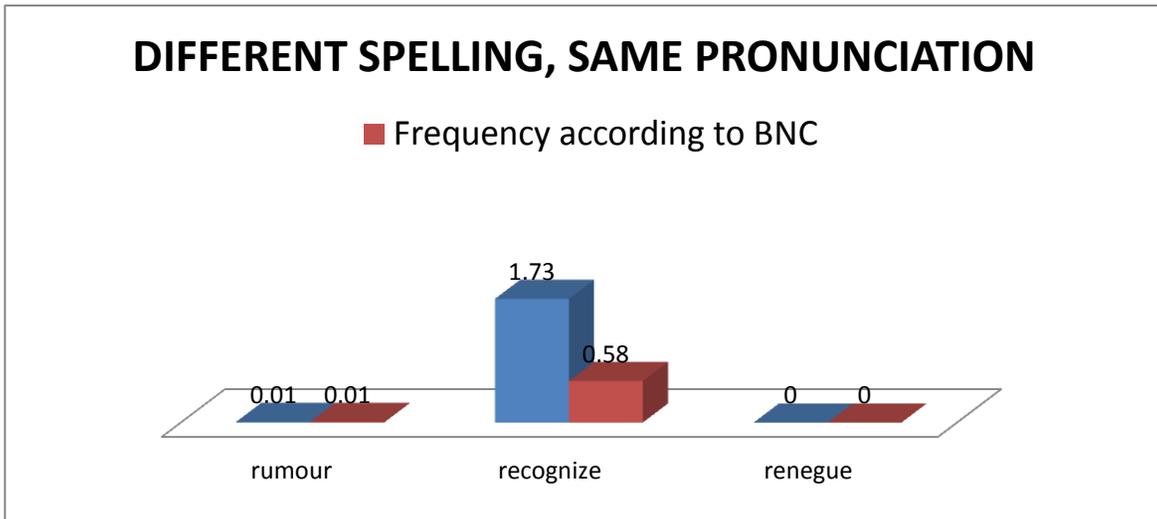


Diagram № 7.2.17a

One out of three British samples is more frequent than the American one, one is not found, and one pair are equally frequent.

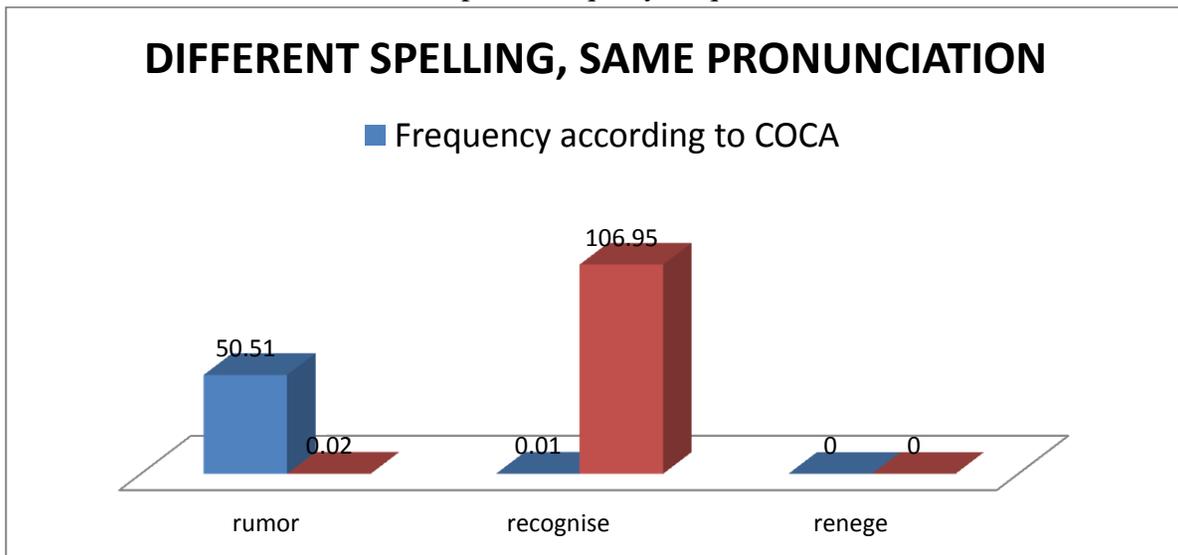


Diagram №7.2.17b

One out of three American samples is more frequent than the British one, one is not found, and one British counterpart is more frequent.

Table.№ 7.2.18 Word starting with letter s

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	scepter	sceptre		4.67/0.21
2	somber	sombre		29.10/0.03
3	specialise	specialize	1.90/0.53	0.01
4	skeptical	sceptical	0.02/57.62	89.95/0.01
5	sanitorium	sanatorium		0.15/6.86
6	scalawag	scallywag		
7	smolder	smoulder		19.29/0.05
8	story	storey	33.7/0.03	281.92/0.00
9	sulfur	sulphur	0.017/117.86	4.11/0.24

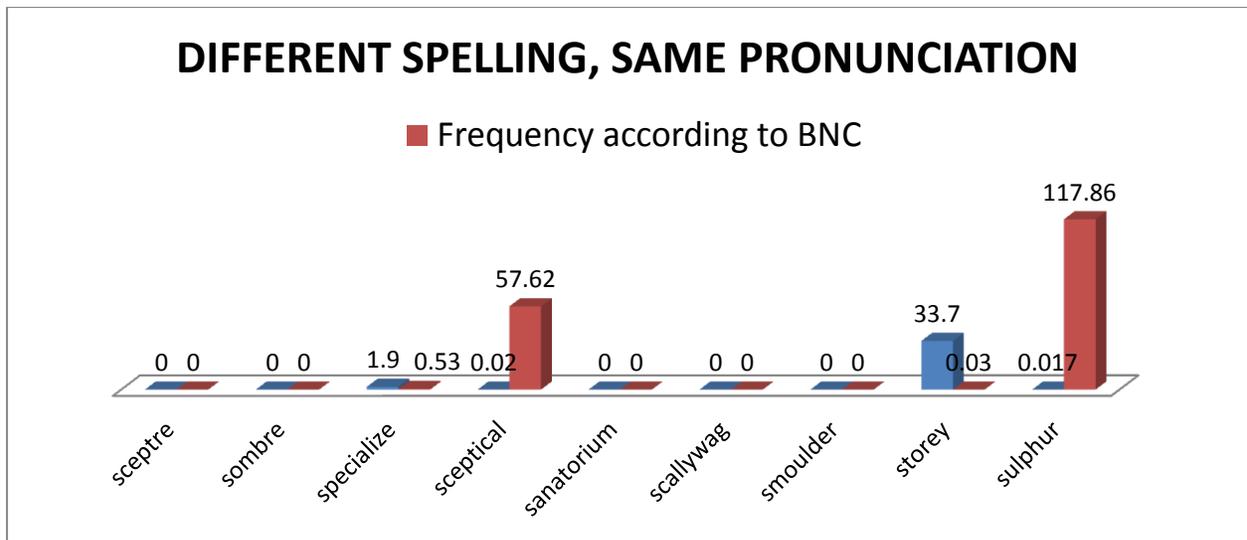


Diagram № 7.2.18a

Two British samples out of nine are more frequent than their American counterparts, five are not found, and two American samples are more frequent.

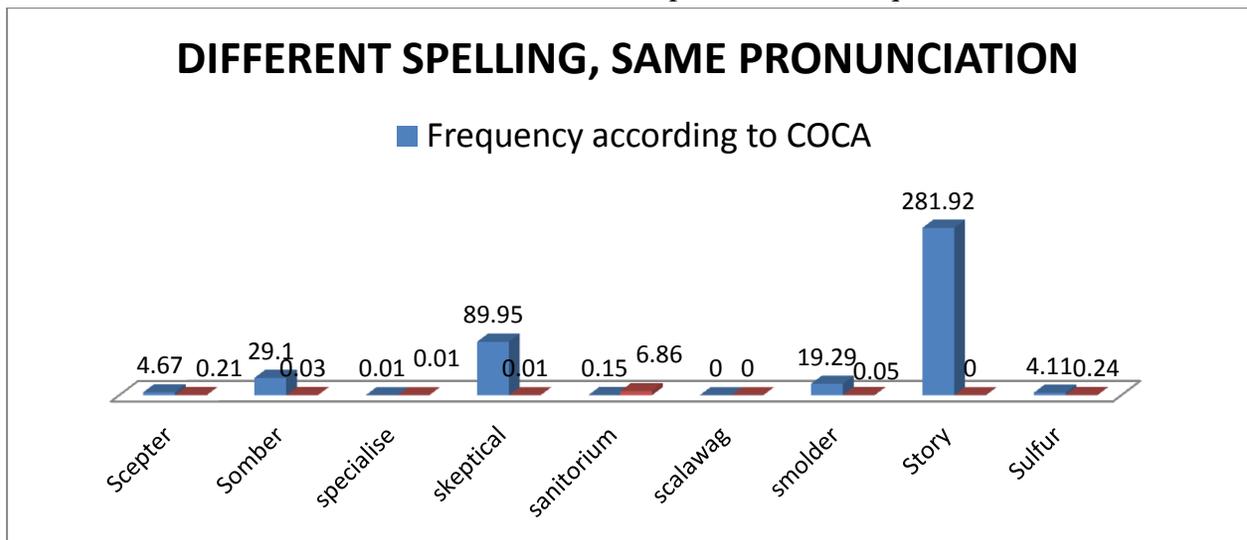


Diagram № 7.2.18b

Six American samples out of nine are more frequent than the British ones, one is not found, and two British samples are more frequent.

Table № 7.2.19 Word starting with letter t

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	theater	theatre	0.01/133.19	2.96/0.37
2	traveling	travelling	0.00/276.50	18.82/0.05
3	traveled	travelled	3.29/0.30	77.34/0.01
4	thruway	throughway	0.50	5.19/0.19
5	tidbit	titbit	0.04	115.50/0.01
6	tire	tyre	0.28/3.56	22.27/0.04

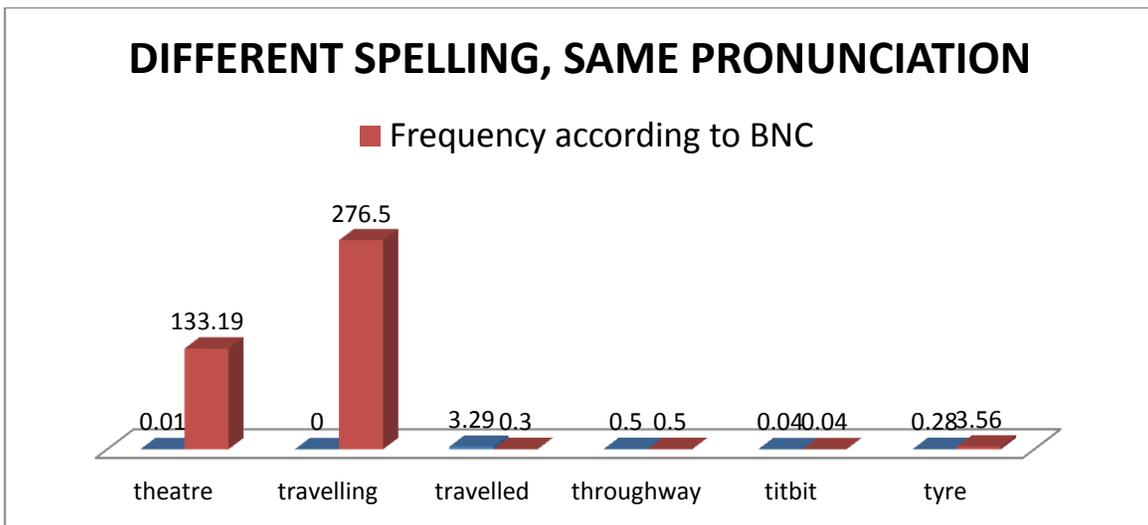


Diagram № 7.2.19a

Three out of six British samples are more frequent than the American ones, one American is more frequent, and the words in two pairs are equally frequent.

DIFFERENT SPELLING, SAME PRONUNCIATION

■ Frequency according to COCA

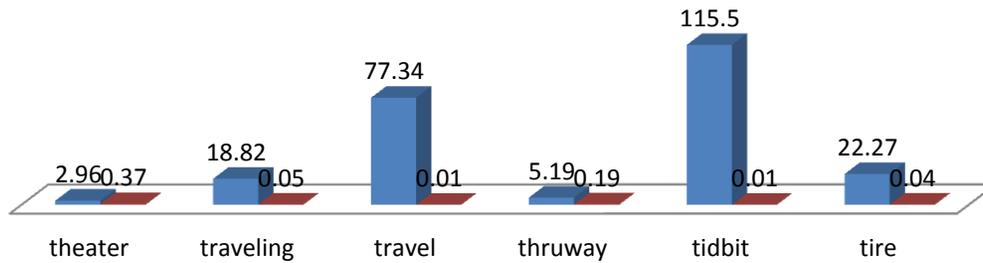


Diagram № 7.2.19b

All the American samples are more frequent.

Table № 7.2.20 Word starting with letter v

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	vapor	vapour		70.63/0.01
2	vise	vice		0.01/86.69

DIFFERENT SPELLING, SAME PRONUNCIATION

■ Frequency according to BNC

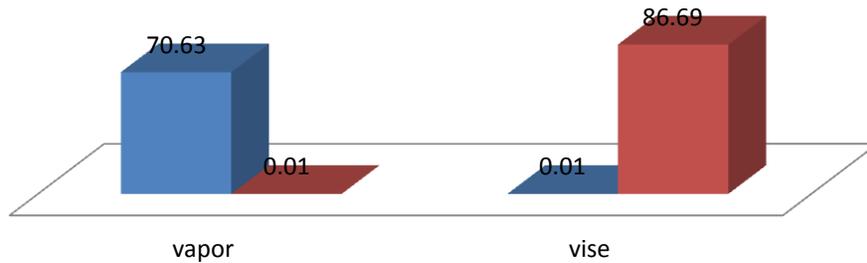


Diagram № 7.2.20a

Two British samples out of two are not found.

DIFFERENT SPELLING, SAME PRONUNCIATION

■ Frequency according to COCA



Diagram№ 7.2.20b

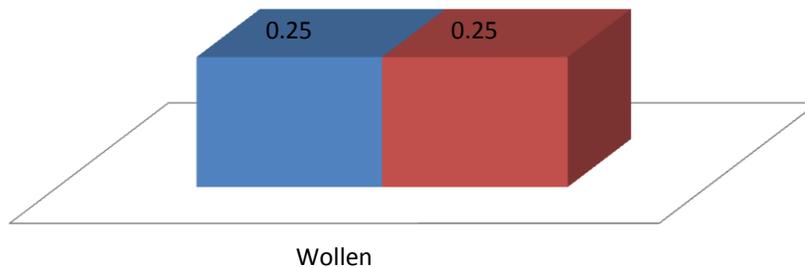
One American sample out of two is more frequent than the British one, and *vice versa*.

Table№ 7.2.21 Word starting with letter w

№	American English	British English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	woolen	wollen	0.25	36.56/0.03

DIFFERENT SPELLING, SAME PRONUNCIATION

■ Frequency according to BNC



Diagram№ 7.2.21a

The British sample is equally frequent to its American counterpart.

DIFFERENT SPELLING, SAME PRONUNCIATION

■ Frequency according to COCA

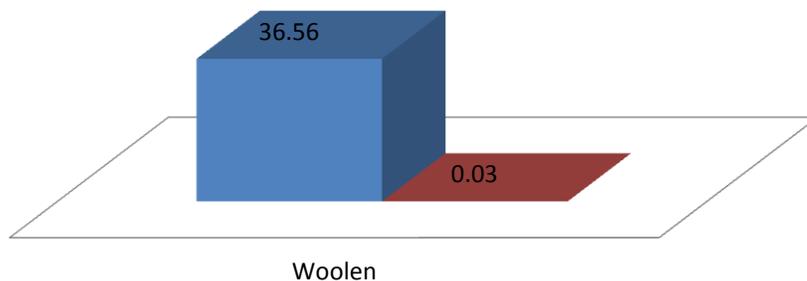


Diagram №7.2.21b

The American sample is more frequently used than its British counterpart.

7.2.22 Different spelling, same pronunciation-results

In this section, the same words were presented in twenty one tables and their frequency checked in two corpora, British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). To follow, the results were illustrated by means of creating a separate diagram for each table, providing the frequency of the samples both in British and in American English. The main findings are as follow.

Diagram 7.2.1.a.: out of ten, four British samples are more frequent than the American ones; six could not be found (BNC);

Diagram 7.2.1.b.: out of ten, eight American samples are more frequent than the British equivalents; one could not be found; and one British sample is more frequent than its American counterpart (COCA);

Diagram 7.2.2a: out of six, three British samples are more frequent than the American ones, and three could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.2b: out of six, three American samples are more frequent than their British counterparts, two could not be found, while one British sample is more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.3a.: out of ten, four British samples are more frequent than their American equivalents, four could not be found; one is equal to its American counterpart; and 1 American is more frequent. (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.3b: out of ten, eight American samples are more frequent than the British ones, one could not be found, and one British sample is more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.4.a: out of eight, five British samples are more frequent than the American equivalents, one could not be found, while two American samples are more frequent (BNC?)

Diagram 7.2.4.b: out of eight, six American samples are more frequent than their British counterparts, while two British ones are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.5a: out of six, five British samples are more frequent than the American ones, and one could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.5b.: out of six, four American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents, while two British samples are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.6.a: out of five, two British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, one could not be found, whereas one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.6.b: out of five, five American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.7 a: out of seven, four British samples are more frequent than the American ones, two could not be found and one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.7b: out of seven, four American samples are more frequent than their British counterparts, two are equally frequent, while one British sample is more frequent (COCA?)

Diagram 7.2.8 a : out of seven, three British samples are more frequent than the American ones, and four could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.8.b: out of seven, four American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents, and three could not be found (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.9 a: out of two, one British sample is more frequent than its American counterpart, and one American is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.9 b: out of two, one American sample is more frequent than the British one, whereas one British sample is more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.10.a: out of two, one British sample is more frequent than the American equivalent, and one could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.10.b: out of two, one American sample is more frequent than its British counterpart, and one could not be found (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.11a: out of one, the British sample is more frequent than its American equivalent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.11b: one American sample is not found (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.12 a: out of nine, three British samples are more frequent than the American ones, two could not be found, three American ones are more frequent, while the words in one pair are equally frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.12 b: out of nine, six American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents, one could not be found, and two British samples are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.13 a: out of eight, two British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, five could not be found, and one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.13.b: out of eight, six American samples are more frequent than the British, one is not found, one British is more frequent (COCA)

Diagrams 7.2.14.a: and 7.2.14.b: in the former, according to BNC, the one and only British sample is more frequent than its American counterpart, while the situation is reversed in the latter according to COCA

Diagram 7.2.15 a: out of four, one British sample is more frequent than the American one, two could not be found, and one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.15 b: out of four, three American samples are more frequent than the British equivalents, while one British sample is more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.16.a: out of ten, seven British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, whereas the words in the other three pairs are equally frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.16.b: out of ten, five American samples are more frequent than the British ones, three could not be found, and one British sample is more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.17.a: out of three, one British sample is more frequent than its American equivalent, one could not be found, and the words in one pair were equally frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.17.b: out of three, one American sample is more frequent than the British equivalent, one could not be found, while one British sample is more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.18.a: out of nine, two British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, five could not be found, whereas two American samples are more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.18.b: out of nine, six American samples are more frequent than the British ones, one could not be found, and two British samples are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.19.a: out of six, three British samples are more frequent than their American equivalents, one American is more frequent, and two pairs are equally frequent (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.19 b: out of six, six American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents. (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.20 a: neither of the two British samples could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 7.2.20 b: out of two, one American sample is more frequent than its British counterpart, while one British sample is more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 7.2.21 a: out of the one and only sample, the British sample is equally frequently used as its American counterpart and its opposite corpus in

Diagram 7.2.21 b: between the words in the only pair, the American sample is more frequent than its British equivalent.

As can be seen in the diagrams, thirteen cases can be found which strongly support the hypothesis set for this part of the study (Diagrams 7.2.1b, 7.2.3b, 7.2.4b, 7.2.5a/b, 7.2.6b, 7.2.11a, 7.2.12b, 7.2.13b, 7.2.14a/b, 7.2.15b, 7.2.18b, 7.2.19b); further fifteen partially support it (Diagrams 7.2.1a, 7.2.2a/b, 7.2.3a, 7.2.4a, 7.2.6a, 7.2.7a/b, 7.2.8a, 7.2.9a/b, 7.2.10a/b, 7.2.12a, 7.2.16a/b, 7.2.17a/b, 7.2.19a, 7.2.20b, 7.2.21a/b); five do not support it (Diagrams 7.2.11b, 7.2.13a, 7.2.15a, 7.2.18a, 7.2.20a) Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area *Different spelling same pronunciation* can be confirmed as partially true.

It has to be also emphasized that most of the diagrams which strongly supported the hypothesis were according to COCA. We have to take into consideration the fact that both corpora cover different time periods and that contributes for the obtained results.

The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

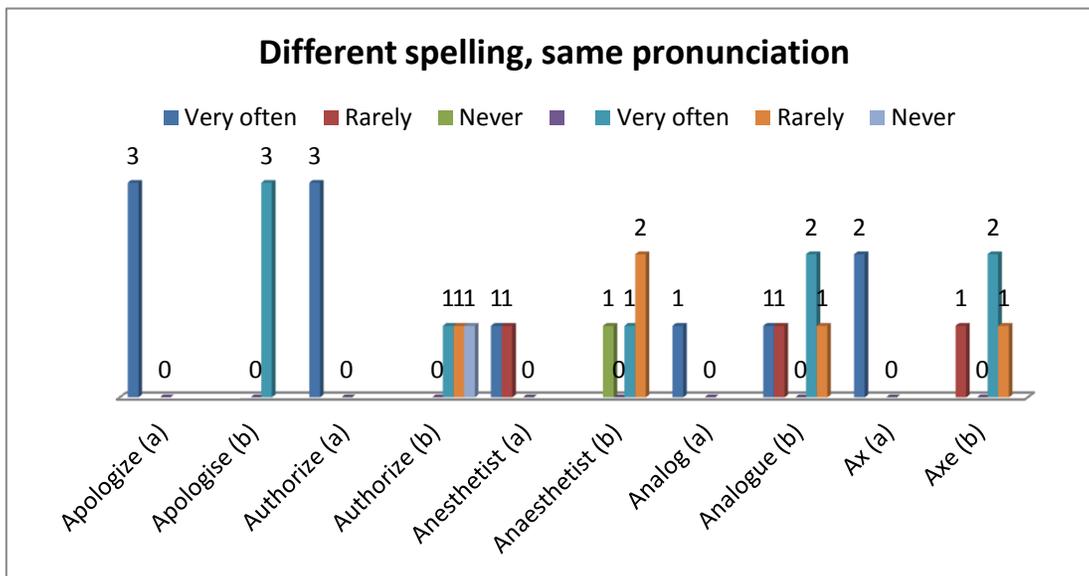


Diagram №7.2.22

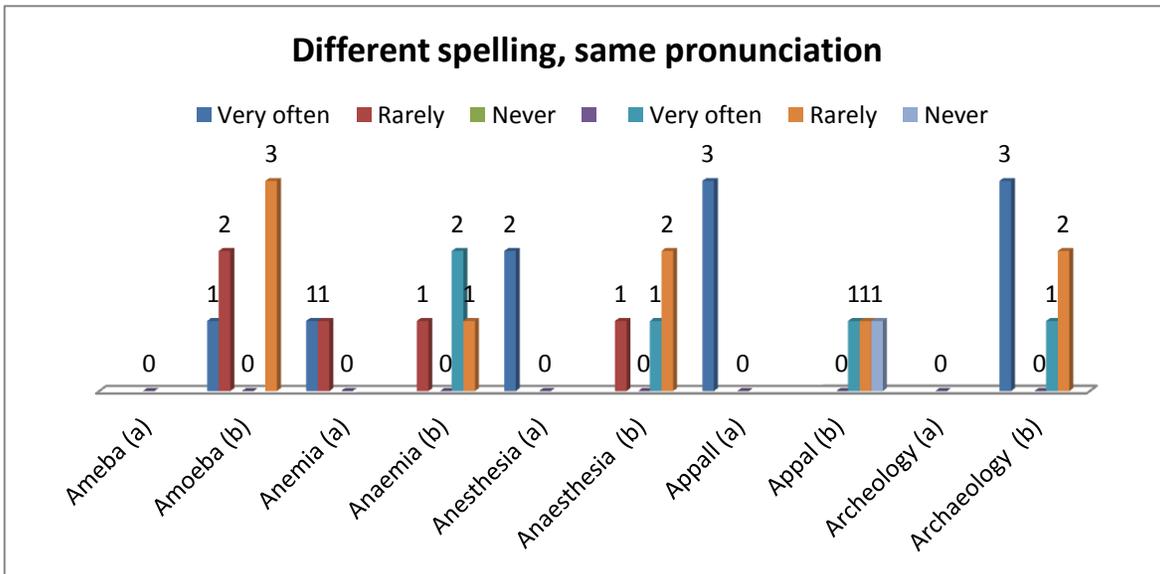


Diagram №7.2.23

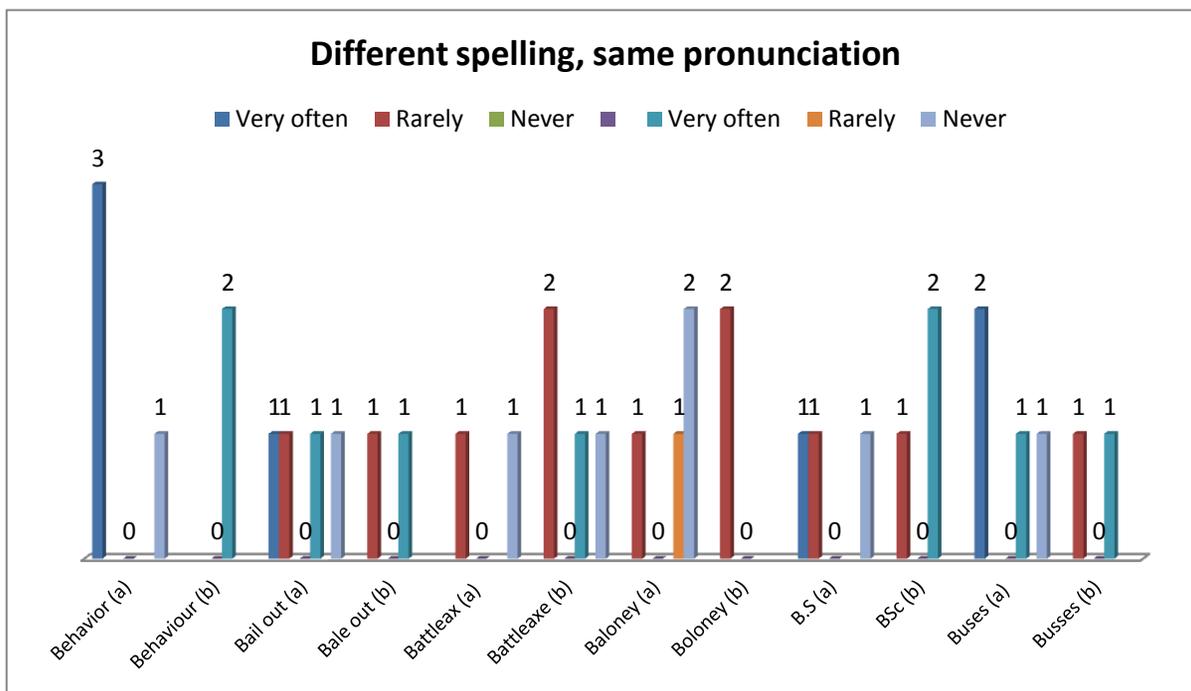


Diagram №7.2.24

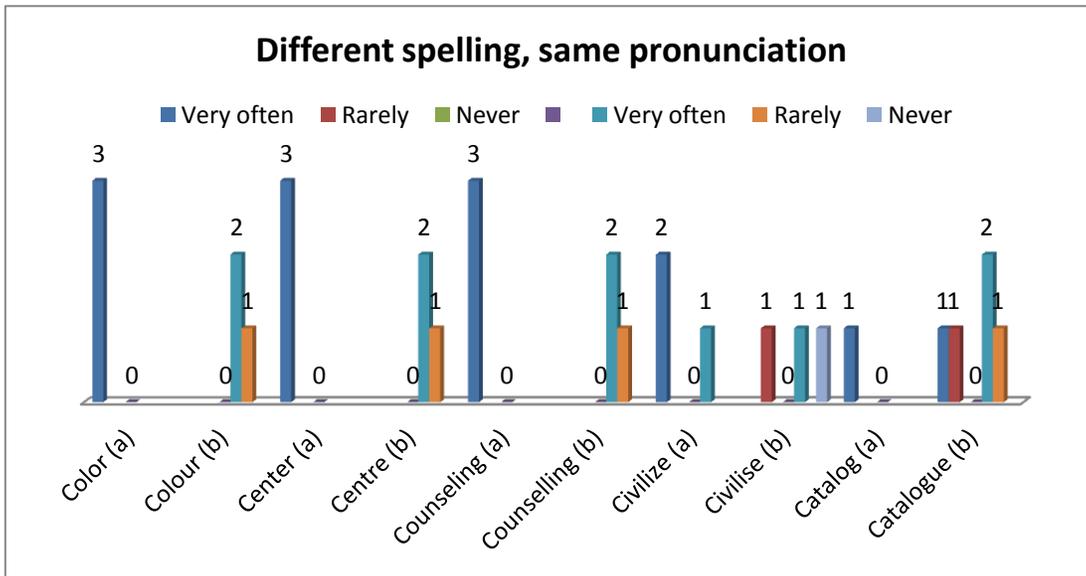


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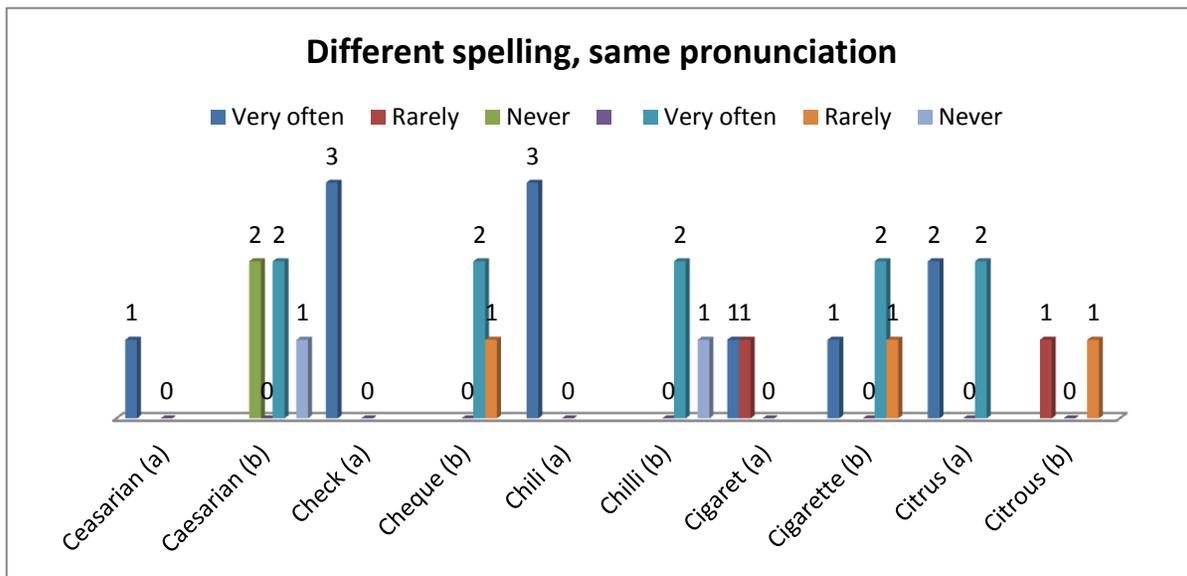


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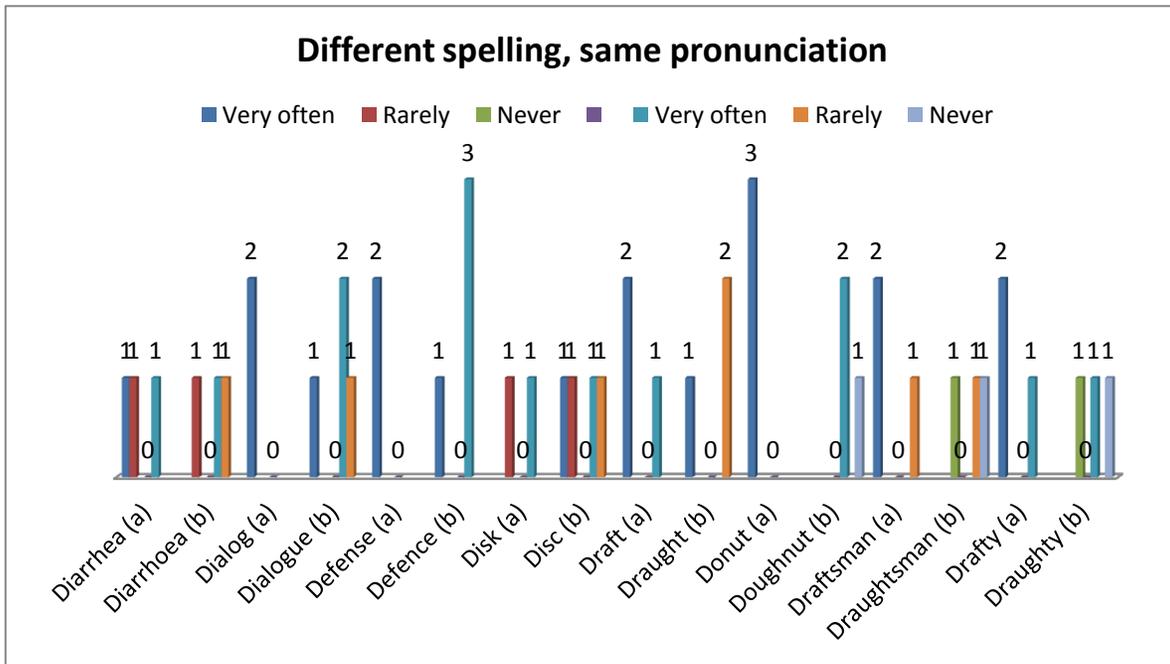


Diagram №7.2.27

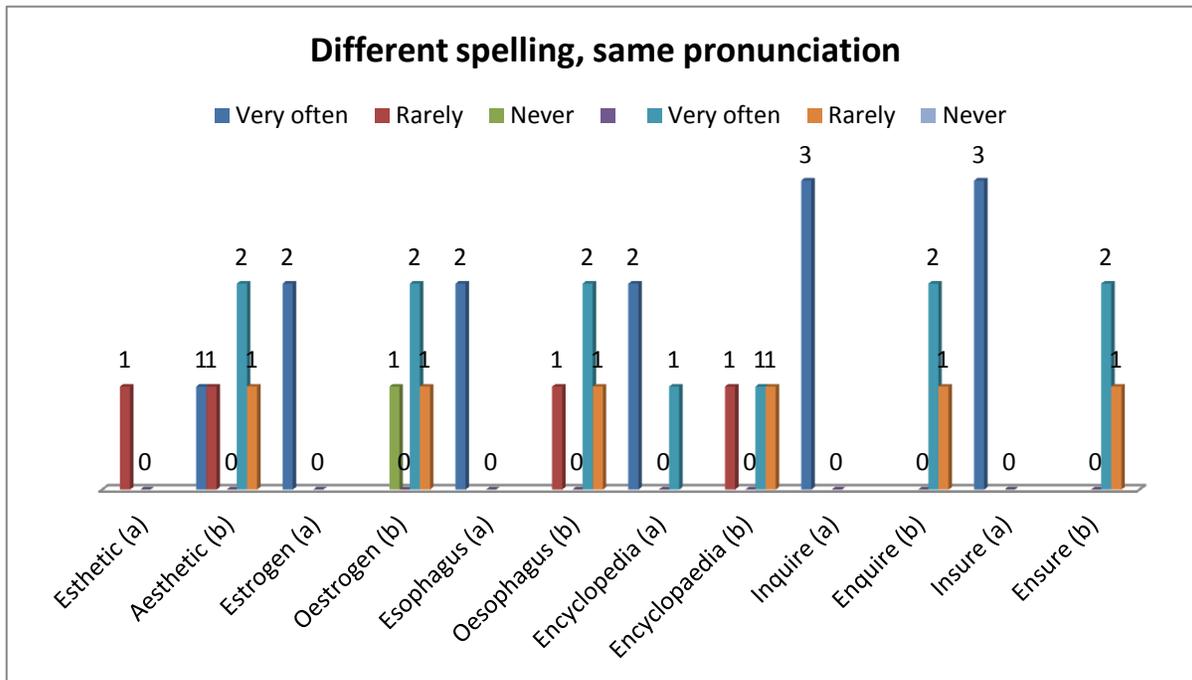


Diagram №7.2.28

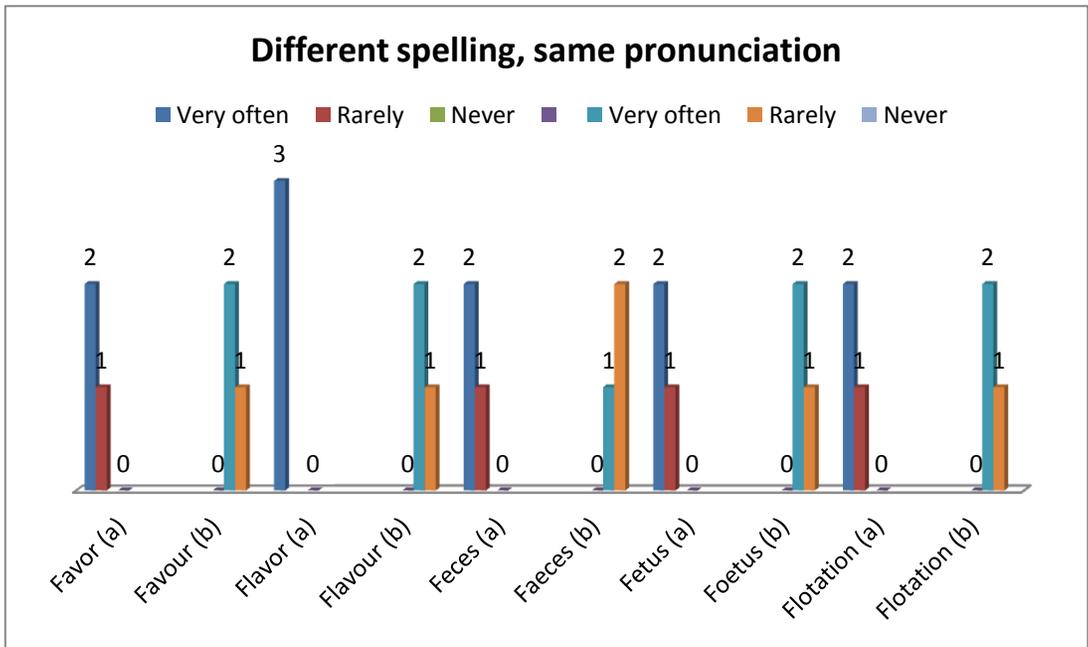


Diagram №7.2.29

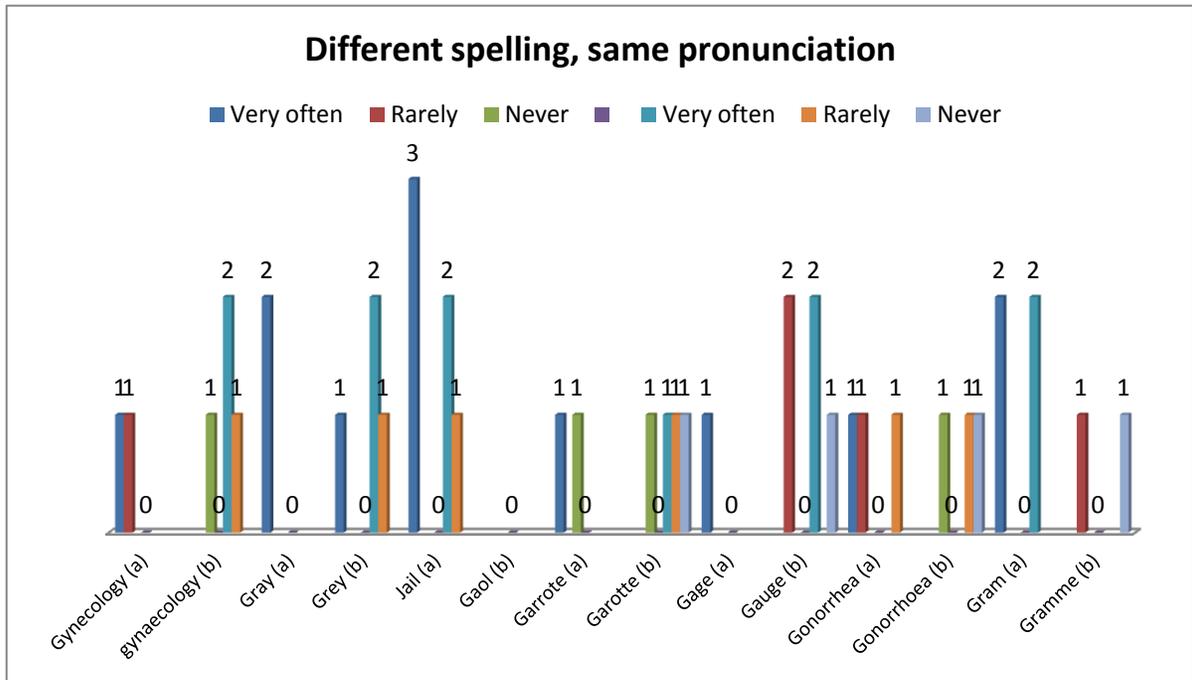


Diagram №7.2.30

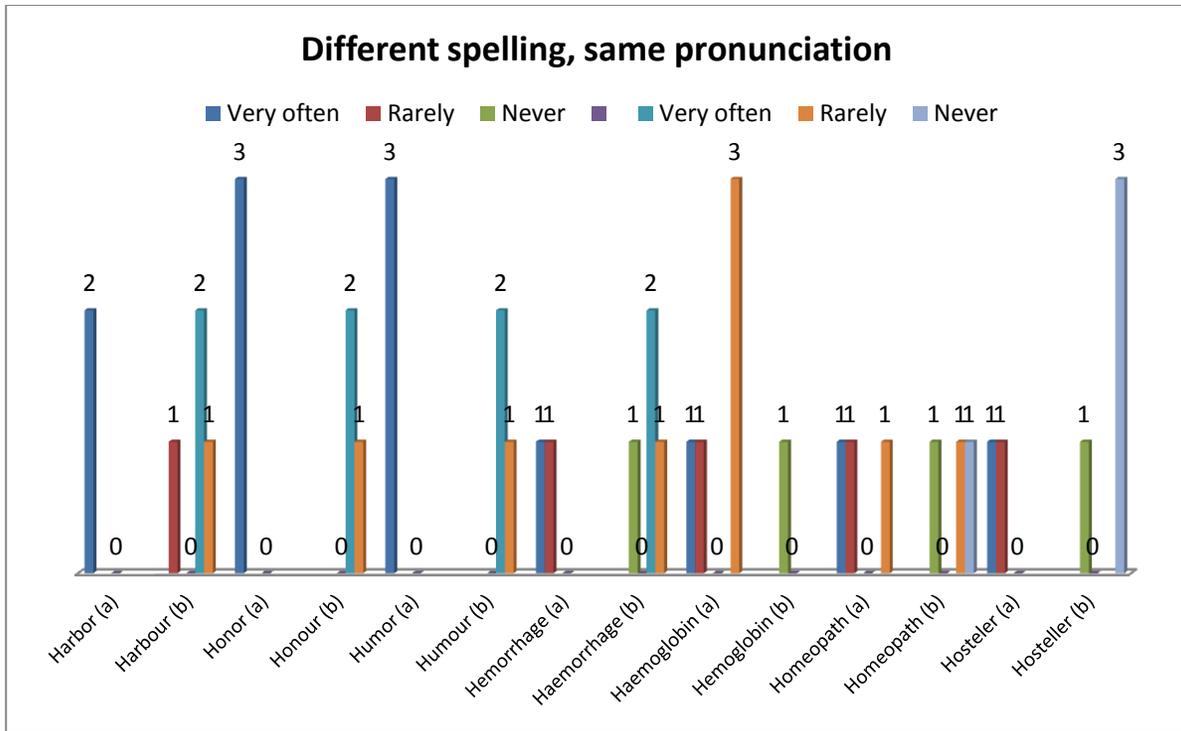


Diagram №7.2.31

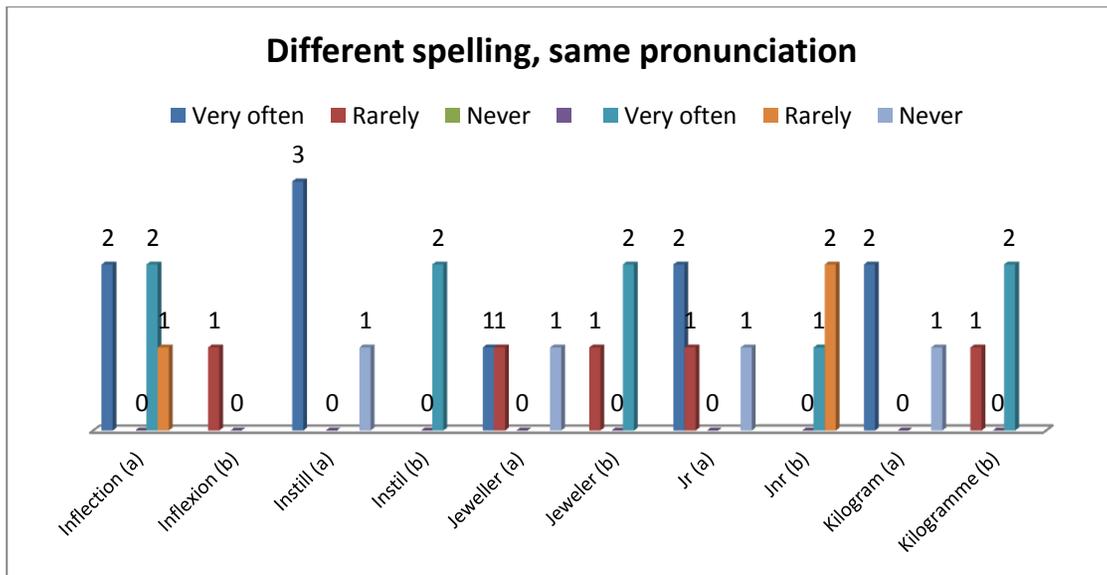


Diagram №7.2.32

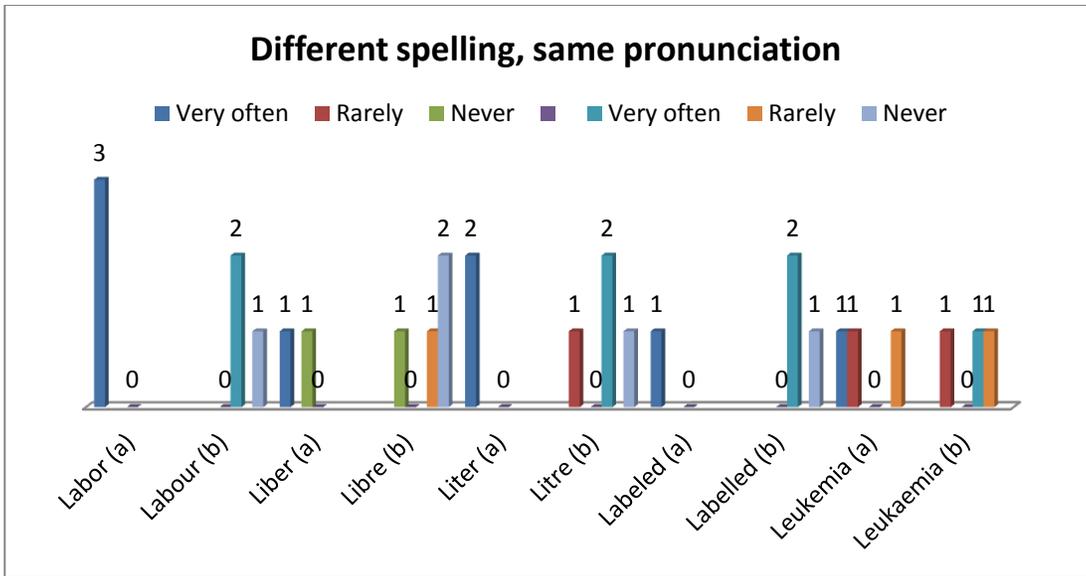


Diagram №7.2.33

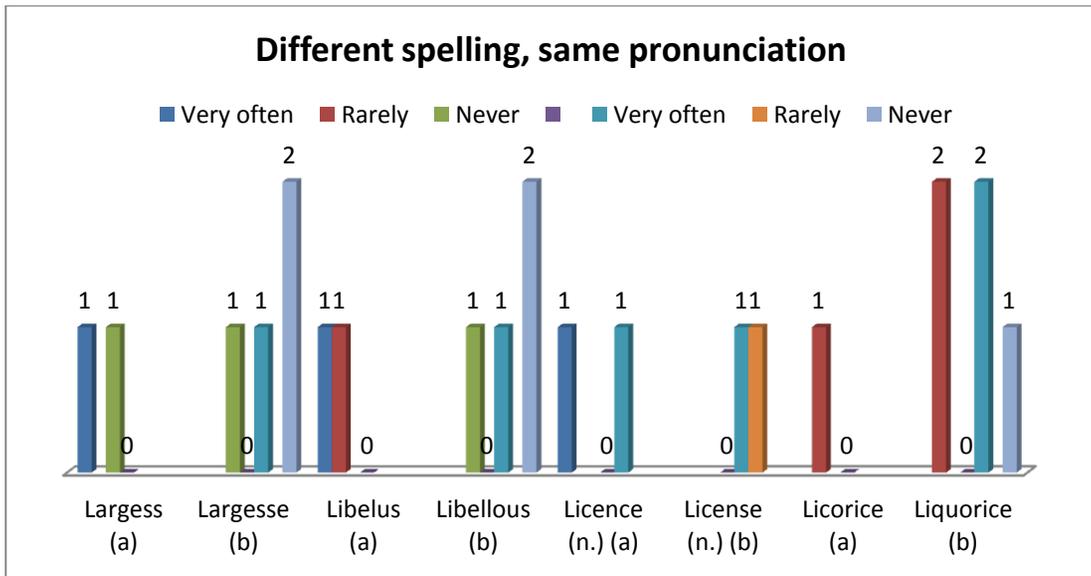


Diagram №7.2.34

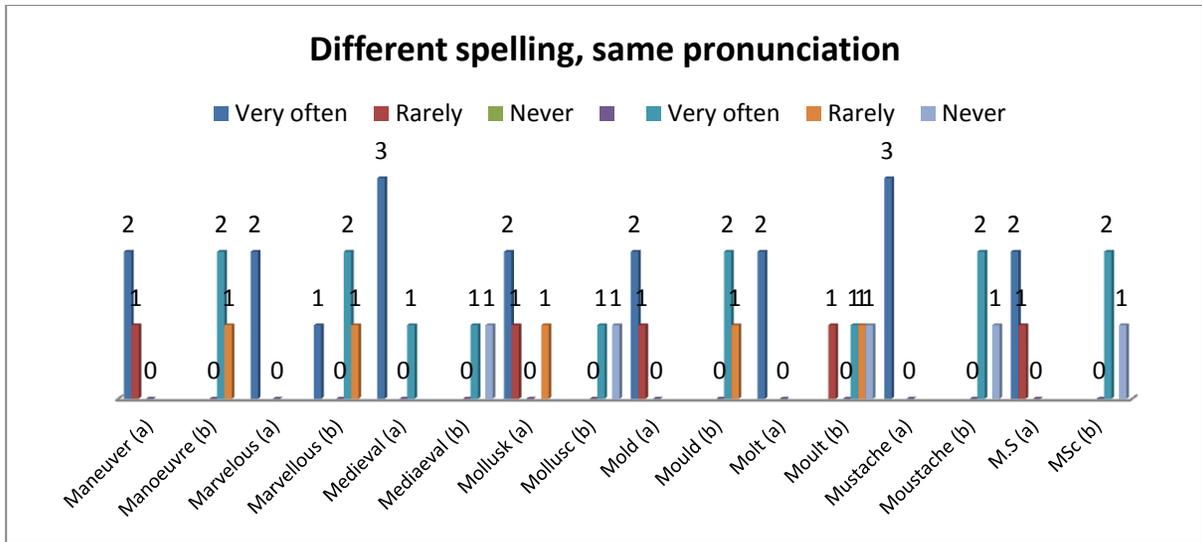


Diagram №7.2.35

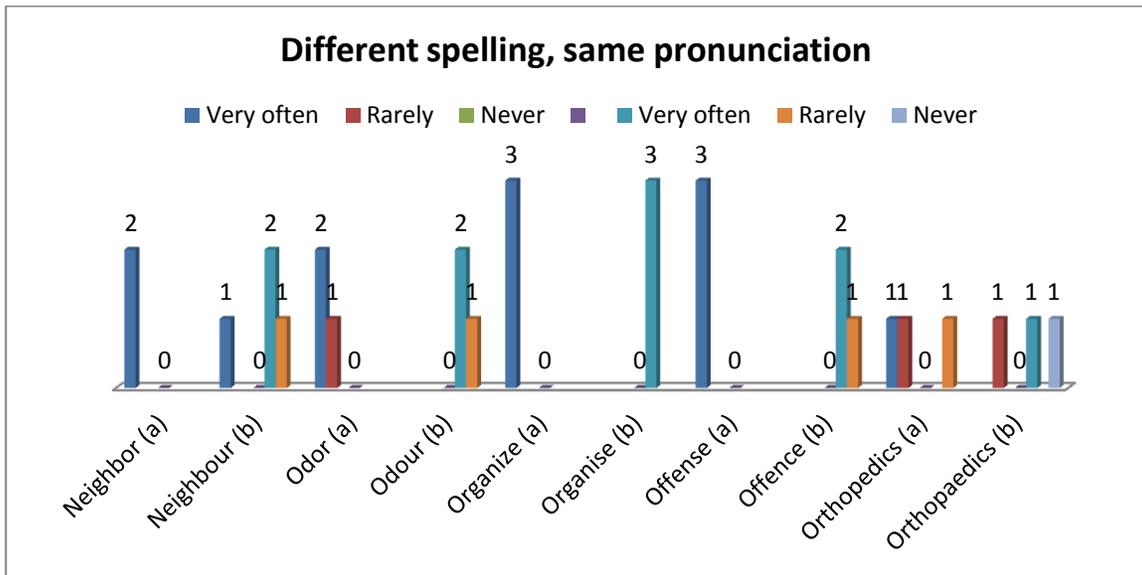


Diagram №7.2.36

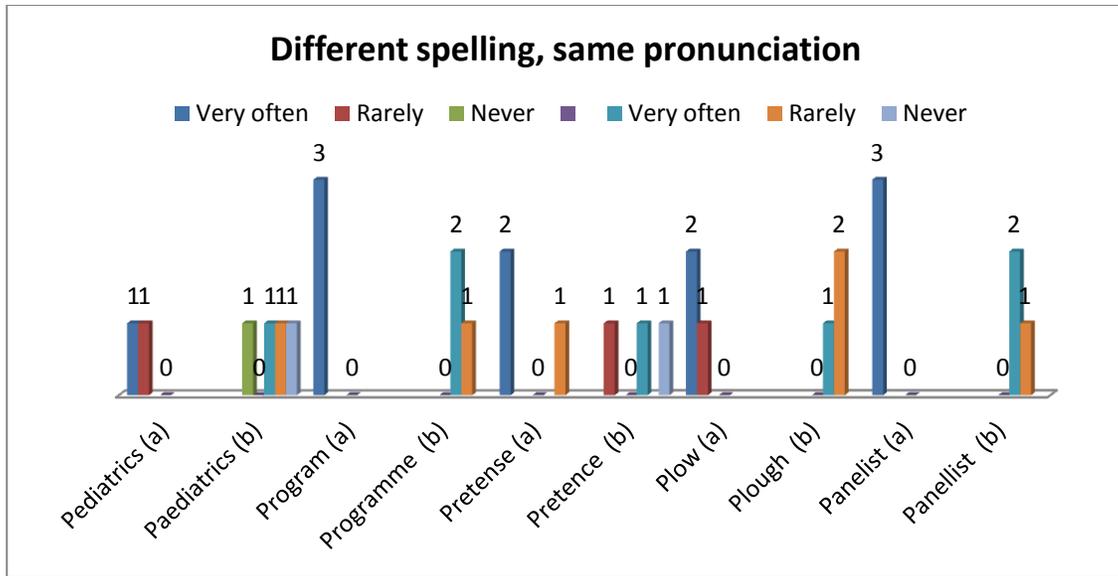


Diagram №7.2.37

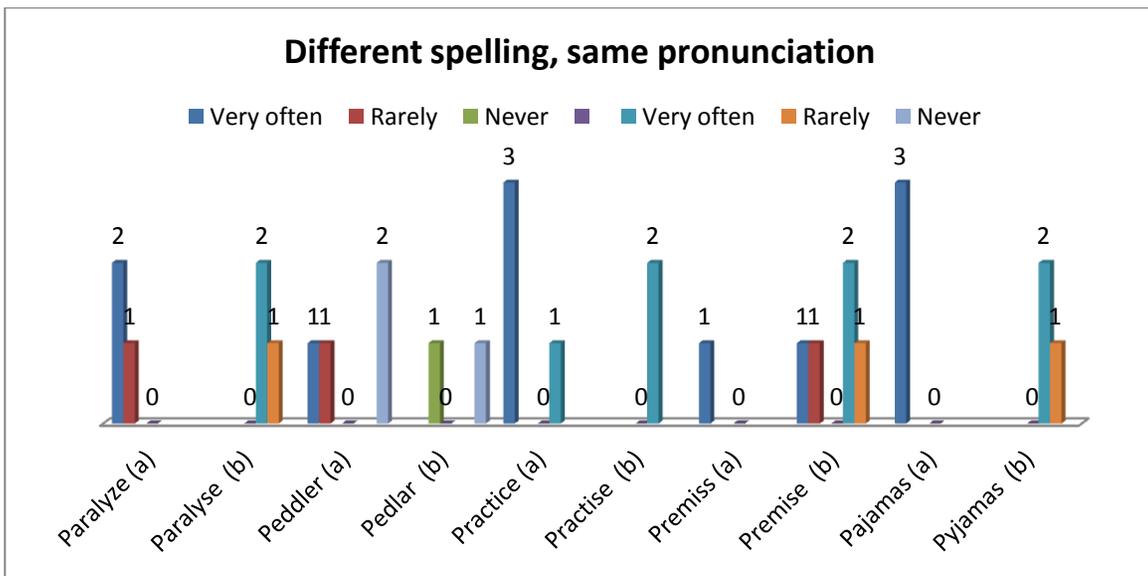


Diagram №7.2.38

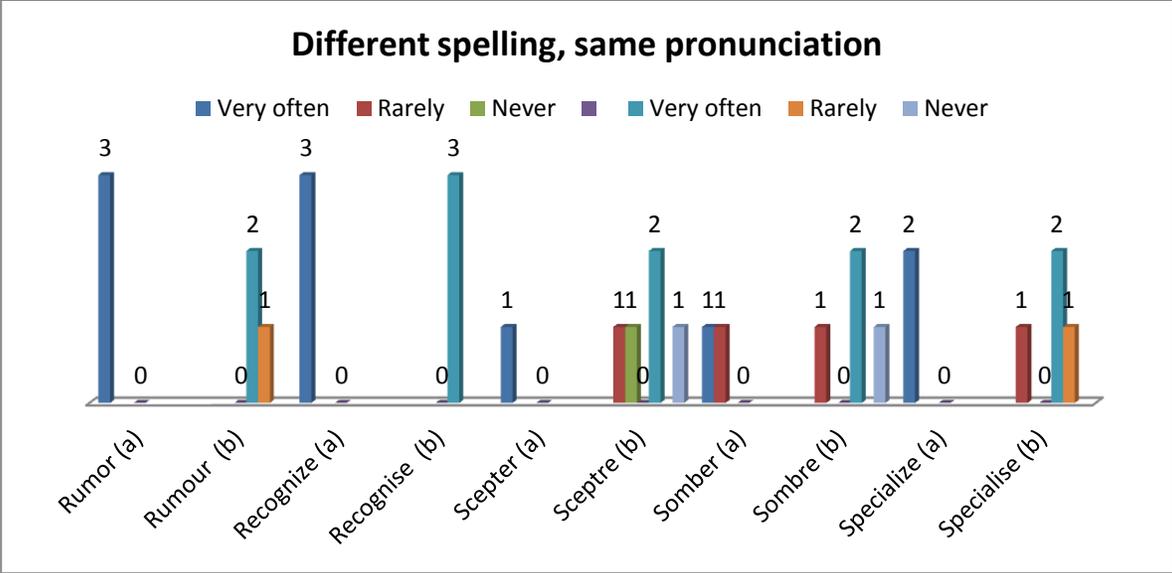


Diagram №7.2.39

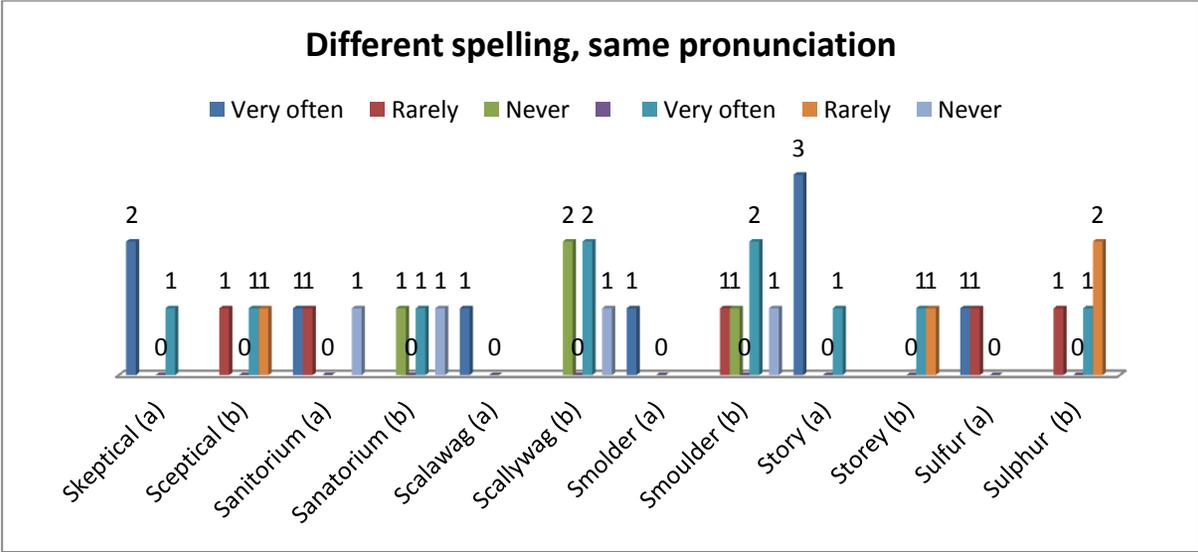


Diagram №7.2.40

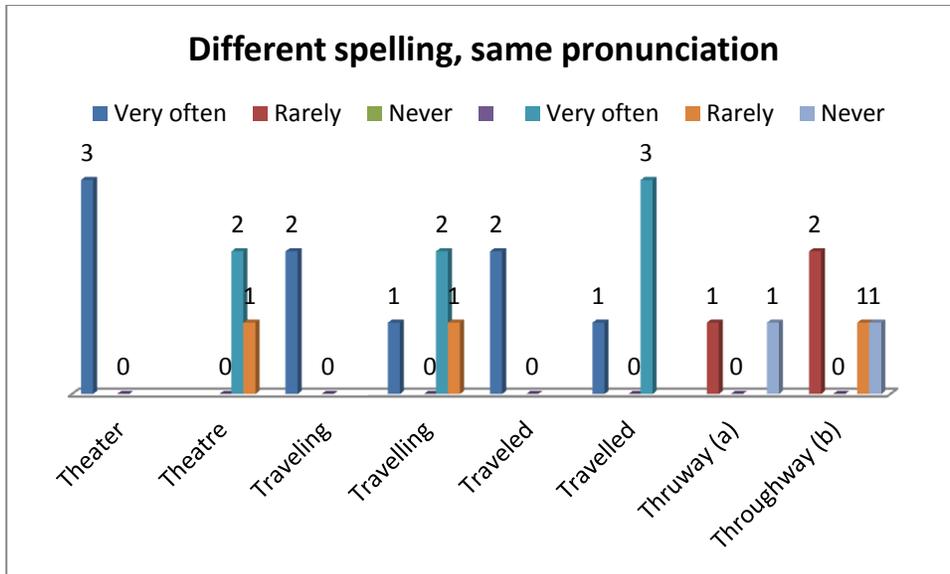


Diagram №7.2.41

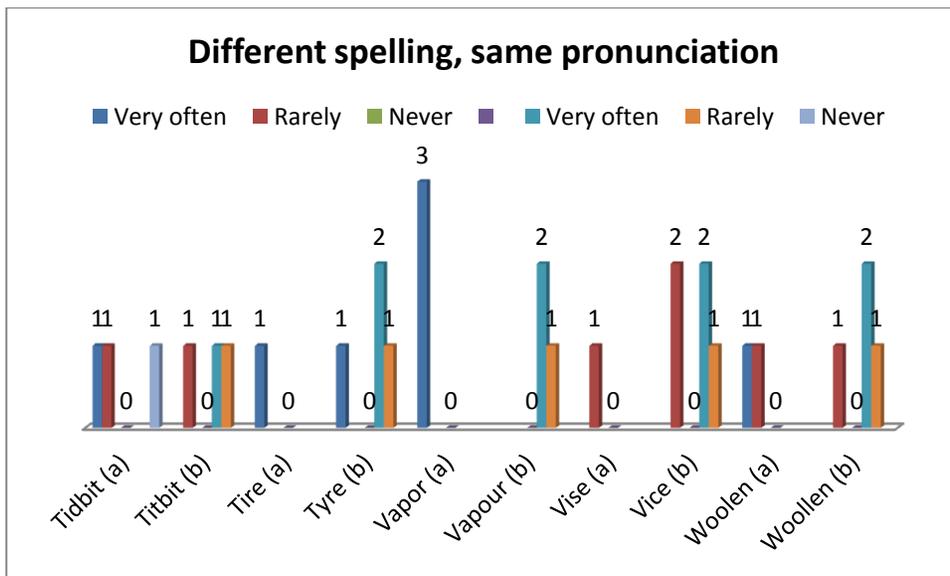


Diagram №7.2.42

7.2.43 Received results according to the questionnaires

Diagram № 7.2.22

According to the diagram in two cases out of five, all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , in only one case 2 native speakers have chosen that option.

British native speakers in one case all of them chose the option “very often” in two cases only two of them have chosen the option very often

Diagram № 7.2.23

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in two cases all of them have chosen the option “very often”, two of them have chosen the same option in one case .

British are represented on the right side and in one case two of them have chosen the option “very often”, but three of them in one case have chosen the option “rarely” and the same option two of them have chosen in two cases.

Diagram № 7.2.24

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in one case two of them have chosen the same option, only one of them has chosen “very often” in two cases but two of them have chosen “rarely” in two cases. From the other side two British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option “very often” one of them in five cases have made the same choice but two of them in one case have chosen the option “rarely” and only one of them in six cases the same option.

Diagram № 7.2.25

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in three cases and in one case two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often”.

Diagram № 7.2.26

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram № 7.2.27

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” and in five cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side three

British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” two of them in two cases have made the same choice, but two of them in one case and 1 of them in four cases have chosen the option “rarely”

Diagram № 7.2.28

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and in three cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram № 7.2.29

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in four cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram № 7.2.30

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in two cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram № 7.2.31

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in three cases and in one case two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often” but all of them in one case have chosen the option “rarely”.

Diagram № 7.2.32

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in three cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram № 7.2.33

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in one case two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in three cases have chosen the option “very often” but one of them in three cases has chosen the option “rarely”.

Diagram № 7.2.34

According to this diagram one of the American native speakers has chosen the option “very often” in three cases and in three cases one of them has chosen the option “never”. From the other side two British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” and one of them in four cases has chosen the same option but 2 of the British native speakers in two cases have chosen “never” as an option.

Diagram № 7.2.35

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and in six cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “very often” and only one of them has made the same option in four cases.

Diagram № 7.2.36

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and in two cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side all British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” and two of them made the same choice in three cases.

Diagram № 7.2.37

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and in two cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option “very often” and one of them has made the same choice in 3 cases.

Diagram № 7.2.38

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in three cases, in one case two of them have chosen the same option, and in three cases one of them has made the same choice. From the other side two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often” and only one of them in one case has made the same choice.

Diagram № 7.2.39

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and in two cases one of them have chosen the same option. From the other

side all British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” and two of them have made the same choice in four cases.

Diagram № 7.2.40

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case, in one case two of them have chosen the same option and in four cases only one of them has chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option “very often” and one of them has made the same choice in five cases.

Diagram № 7.2.41

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case, in two cases two of them have chosen the same option and only one of them has made the same choice in two cases. From the other side all British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” and two of them in two cases have chosen the same option.

Diagram № 7.2.42

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in four cases only one of them has chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often” and one of them in three cases has made the same option.

Consequently, the eleven cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support, ten strongly support and one case does not support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Different spelling same pronunciation* according to the obtained results in the questionnaires can be confirmed as true.

8. Lexical level

On the level of vocabulary, that is to say the lexical level, the hypothesis set in this doctoral thesis, i.e. *an Intra-lingual contrastive analysis of both the standards, American and British, will show differences (contrasts) within the following categories: Phonology, Vocabulary, Grammar and Pragmatics.*

is to be checked within the following areas:

- Different lexemes for the same terms
- Same lexemes for the same terms, partial differences in meaning
- Same lexemes with differences in style, connotation and frequency
- Euphemisms
- Politically correct expressions
- Language creativity – in reference to cultural reality

8.1 Different lexemes for same terms

The first area is concerned with **Different lexemes for same terms**. The samples were taken from the following sources: *American English* by Albert H. Marckwardt (ref), *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* by David Crystal.

Words are organized in nineteen tables in alphabetical order, but not all tables have the same number of words, which means that the numbers in tables vary according to the samples found.

The frequency of the words is checked in two ways. Firstly, the samples chosen are checked against the two corpora BNC and COCA.

Table № 8.1.1

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	cotton wool	absorbent cotton	101/0.01	6.83/0.15
2	Airplane	aeroplane	0.15/6.62	76.33/0.01
3	Antenna	aerial	0.11/9.21	0.57/1.74
4	Autumn	fall	0.36/2.81	0.08/12.13

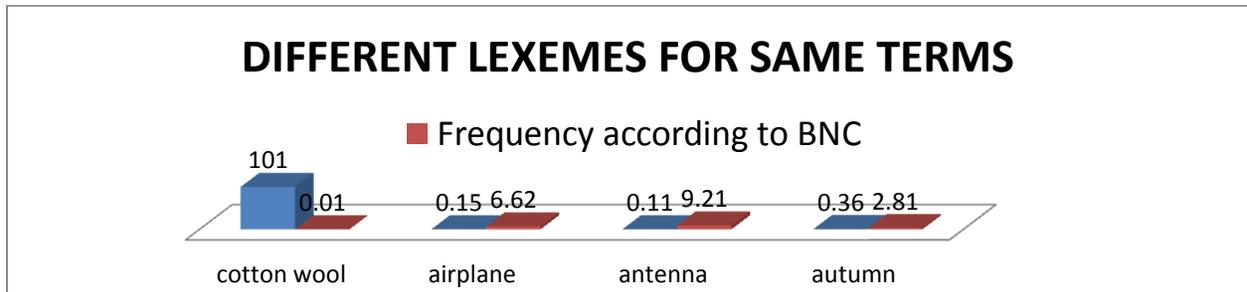


Diagram №8 1.1a

One British sample (in blue) out of four is more frequent than its American counterpart (in red), while three American ones are more frequent.

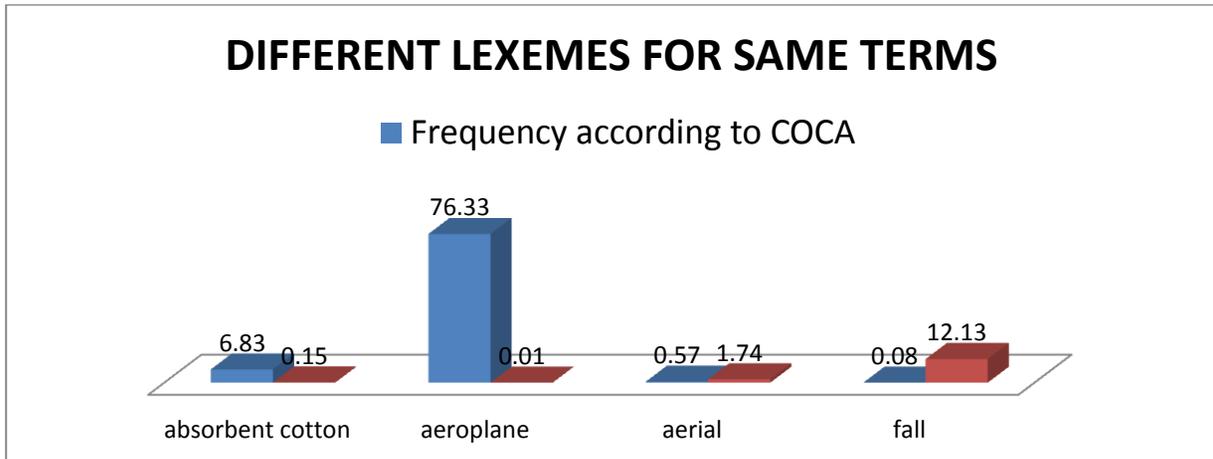


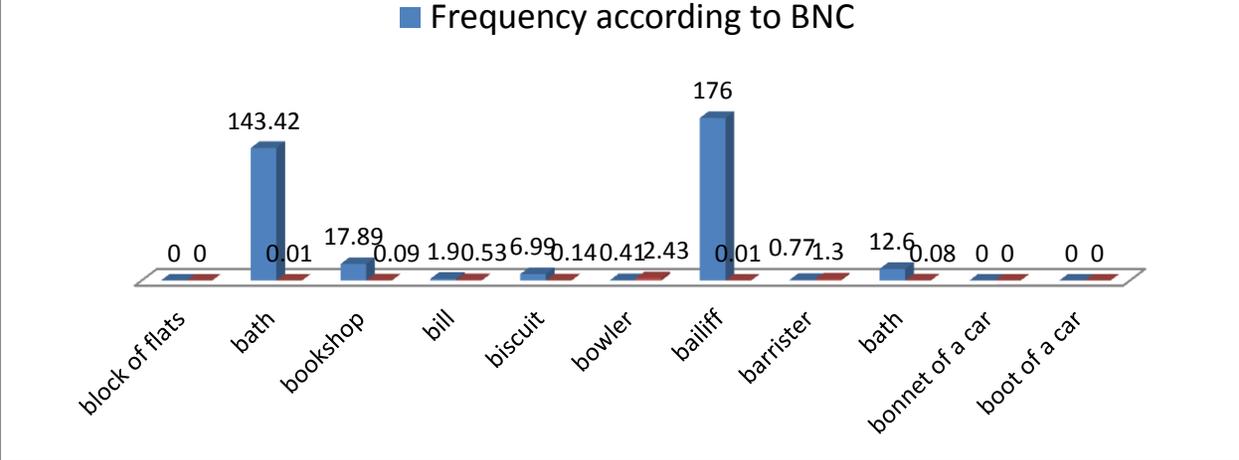
Diagram № 8.1.1b

Two American samples (in red) out of four are more frequent than the British ones (in blue), while two British ones are more frequent than their American counterparts.

Table № 8.1.2

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	block of flats	apartment house		
2	Bath(tub)	Bathtub	143.42/0.01	4.11/0.24
3	Bookshop	Bookstore	17.89/0.09	0.10/9.58
4	Bill	Check	1.90/0.53	2.51/0.40
5	Biscuit	cookie	6.99/0.14	0.19/5.32
6	Bowler	Derby	0.41/2.43	0.22/4.64
7	Bailiff	repo-man	176.00/0.01	
8	Barrister	attorney	0.77/1.30	0.00/209.08
9	Bath	Tub	12.60/0.08	1.73/0.58
10	Bonnet (of a car)	Hood		
11	boot (of a car)	Trunk		

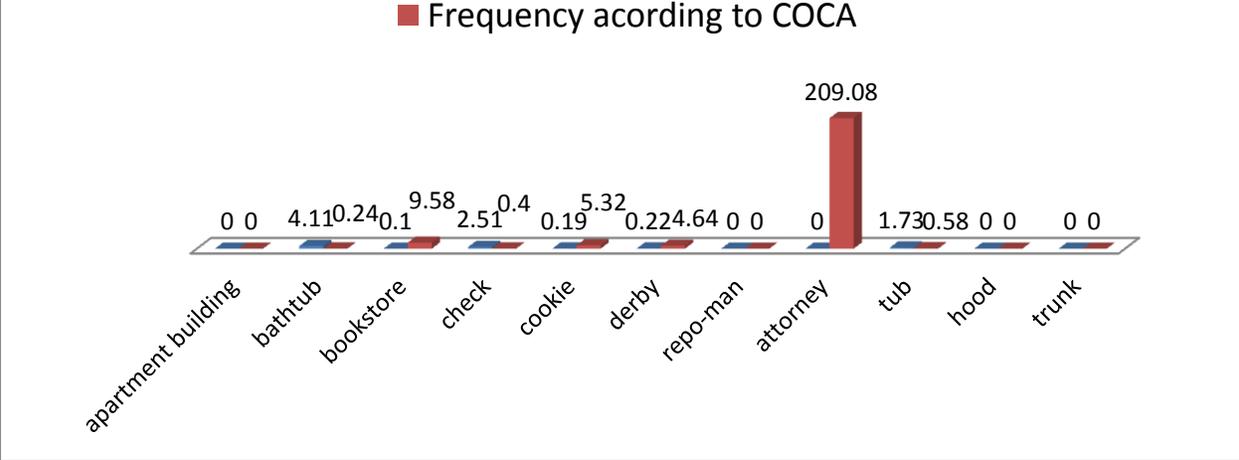
DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS



Diagram№ 8.1.2a

Seven out of eleven British samples(blue colour) are more frequent than their American counterparts, three are not found, and one American sample(red colour) is more frequent.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS



Diagram№ 8.1.2b

Five American samples (in red) out of eleven are more frequent than the British ones (in blue), four are not found, while two British counterparts are more frequent.

Table№ 8.1.3

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	current account	checking account		0.65/1.53
2	chips	French fries		
3	crisps	chips	2.20/5.07	0.02/49.43
4	car	auto	107.52/0.01	10.62/00.9
5	chest of drawers	bureau	0.43/2.30	
6	coffin	casket	10.57/0.09	2.19/0.46
7	credit account	charge account	3.33/0.30	0.41/2.44
8	pin	peg	1.88/0.53	3.60/0.28
9.	cot	camp bed		
10	county seat	county town	0.03	3.58/0.28
11	crime	felony	100.22/0.01	15.17/0.07
12	curtains	drapes	15.62/0.06	3.36/0.30

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR SAME THE TERMS

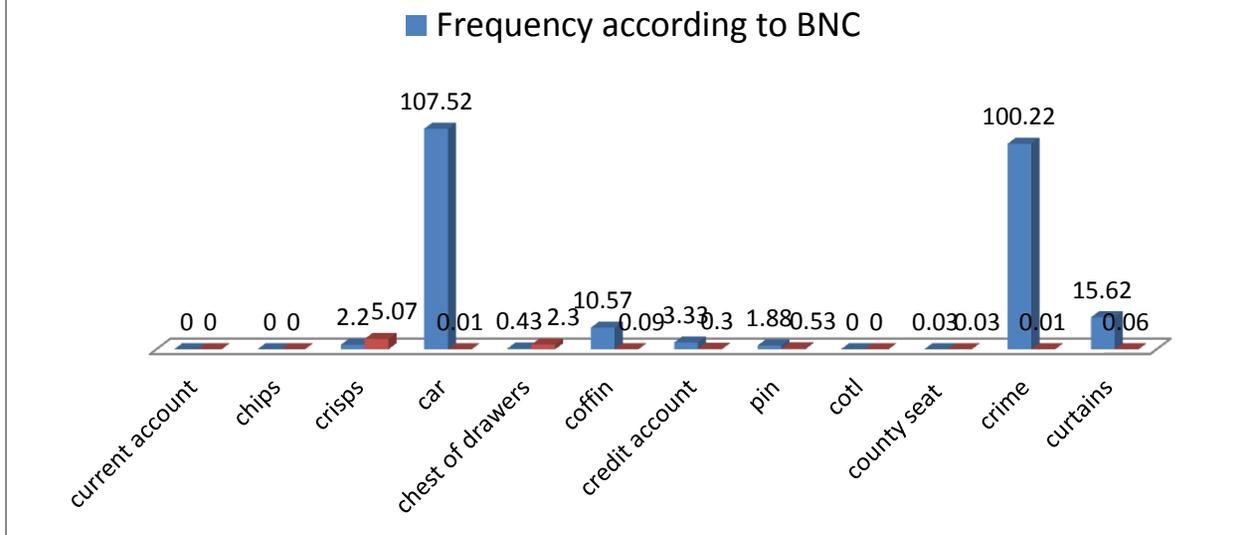


Diagram № 8.1.3 a

Six out of twelve British samples (in blue) are more frequent than their American counterparts (in red), three are not found, and three American samples are more frequent.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

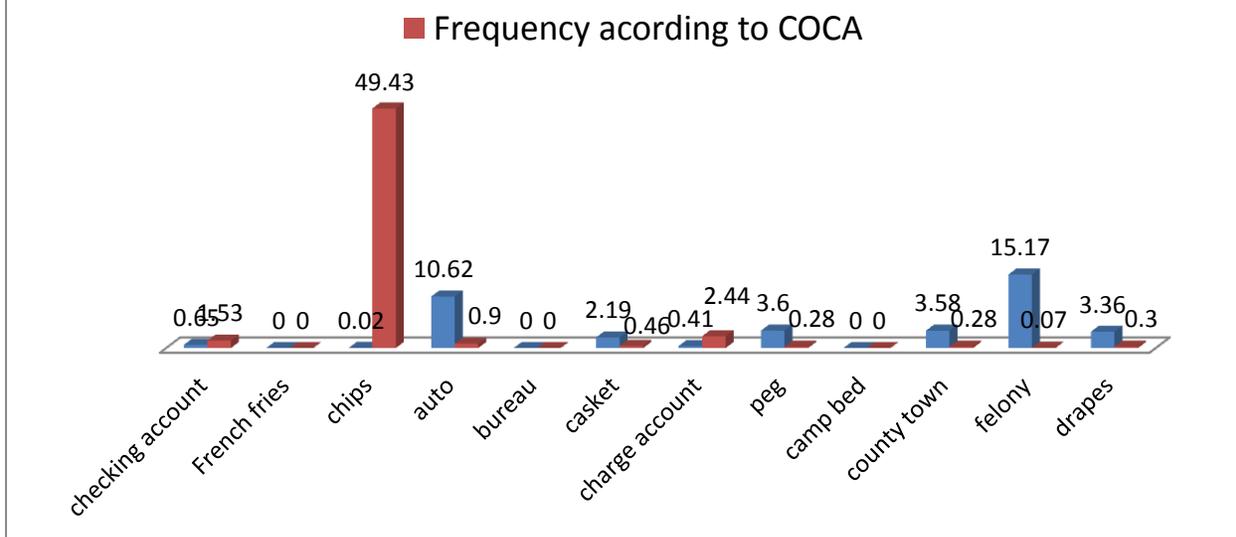


Diagram № 8.1.3 b

Three out of twelve American samples (in red) are more frequent than the British (in blue), three are not found, and six British samples are more frequent.

Table№ 8.1.4

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	dustbin	ash can	302.00/0.00	2.55/0.39
2	station	depot	14.43/0.07	11.92/0.08
3	diversion	detour	2.70/0.37	2.32/0.43
4	dialling tone	dial tone	2.00/0.50	
5	dual carriage way	divided highway		
6	driving licence	driver's license		
7	draft	conscription	15.27/0.07	31.28/0.03

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

■ Frequency according to BNC

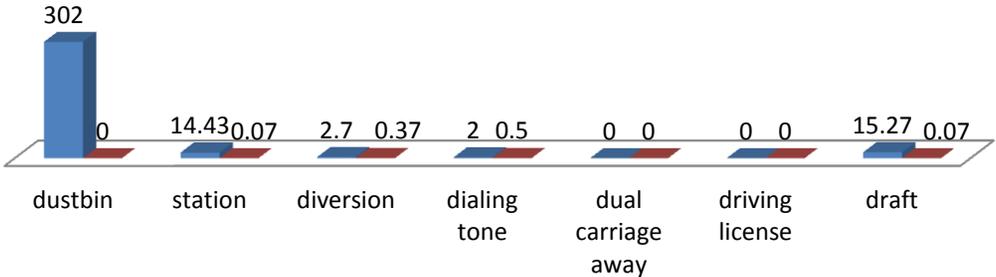


Diagram № 8.1.4 a

Five British samples (in blue) out of seven are more frequent than their American counterparts (in red) and two are not found.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

■ Frequency according to COCA

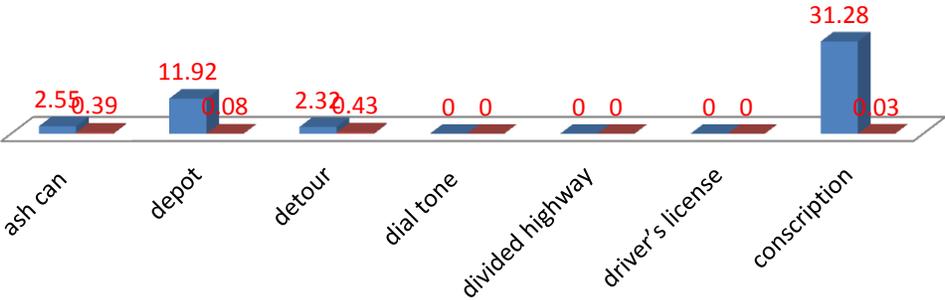


Diagram № 8.1.4 b

Four out of seven American samples (in red) are more frequent than the British ones (in blue) and three are not found.

Table№ 8.1.5

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	estate car	station wagon	1.71/0.58	
2	eiderdown	comforter	1.85/0.54	0.06/15.75
3	engine driver	engineer		
4	extractor fan	exhaust fail		
5	emergency cord	communication cord	0.50	5.00

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

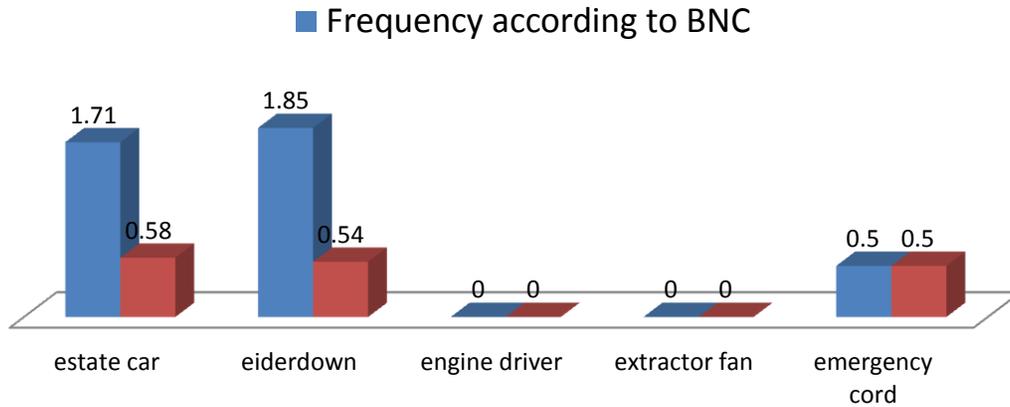


Diagram № 8.1.5 a

Two British samples (in blue) out of five are more frequent than their American counterparts (in red), two are not found, and one British sample is equally frequent to its American counterpart.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

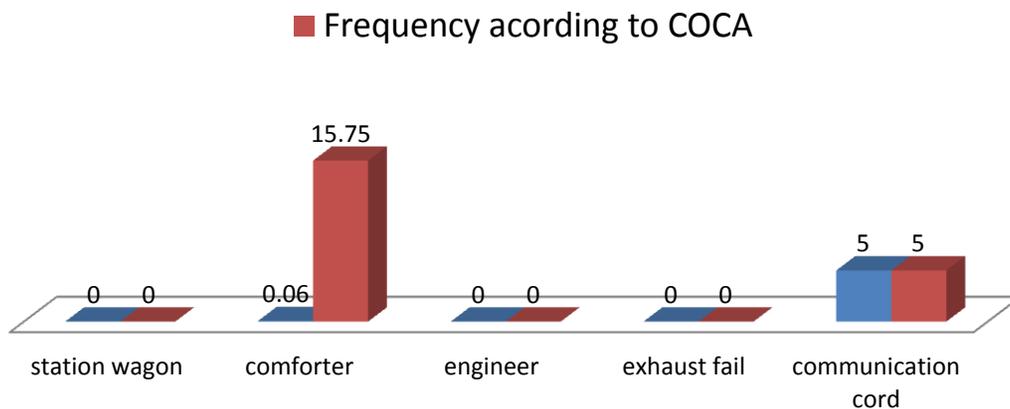


Diagram № 8.1.5 b

Two American samples (in red) out of five are more frequent than the British ones (in blue) and three are not found.

Table № 8.1.6

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	flypast	flyover	2.83/0.35	
2	flyover	overpass	20.00/0.05	0.38/2.63
3	flat	apartment	6.61/0.15	0.76/1.32
4	furnishing store	furniture store	0.13	0.01
5	flex	electric cord		
6	fire brigade	fire department	27.83/0.04	0.04/28.18
7	French windows	French doors	5.33/0.19	0.19/5.19
8	fool	dummy	4.27/0.23	5.76/0.17

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

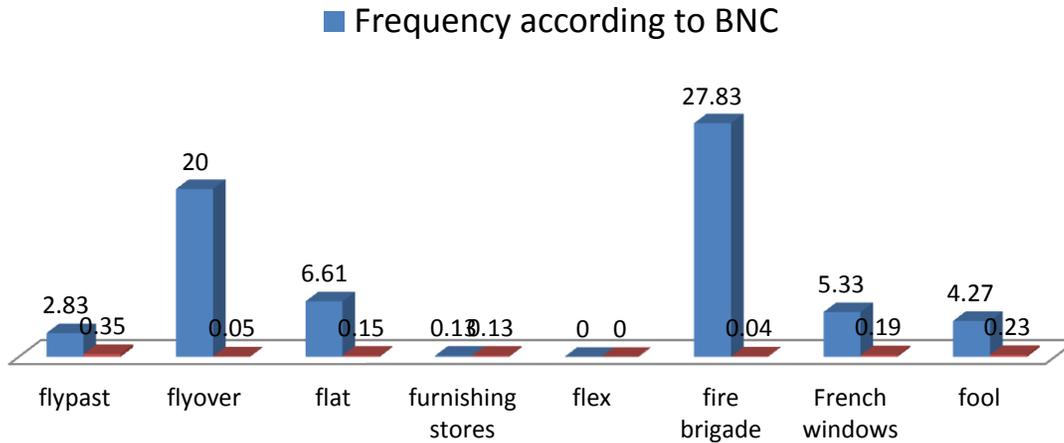


Diagram № 8.1.6 a

Six out of eight British samples (in blue) are more frequent than their American counterparts (in red), one is not found, and one is as frequent as its American counterpart.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

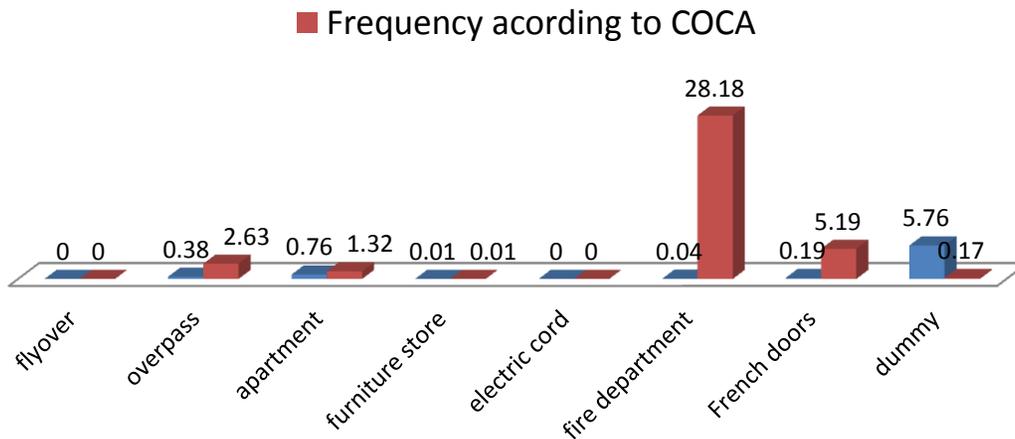


Diagram № 8.1.6 b

Four out of eight American samples (red colour) are more frequent than the British ones (blue colour), two are not found, while one British sample is more frequent, and one American sample is as frequent as its counterpart.

Table № 8.1.7

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	gramophone records	phonograph records	7.67/0.13	0.18
2	government	administration	9.28/0.11	2.91/0.34
3	guard's van	caboose		
4	guard	conductor	9.13/0.11	
5	ground floor	first floor	1.23/0.21	0.84/1.20
6	gear stick	stick shift		

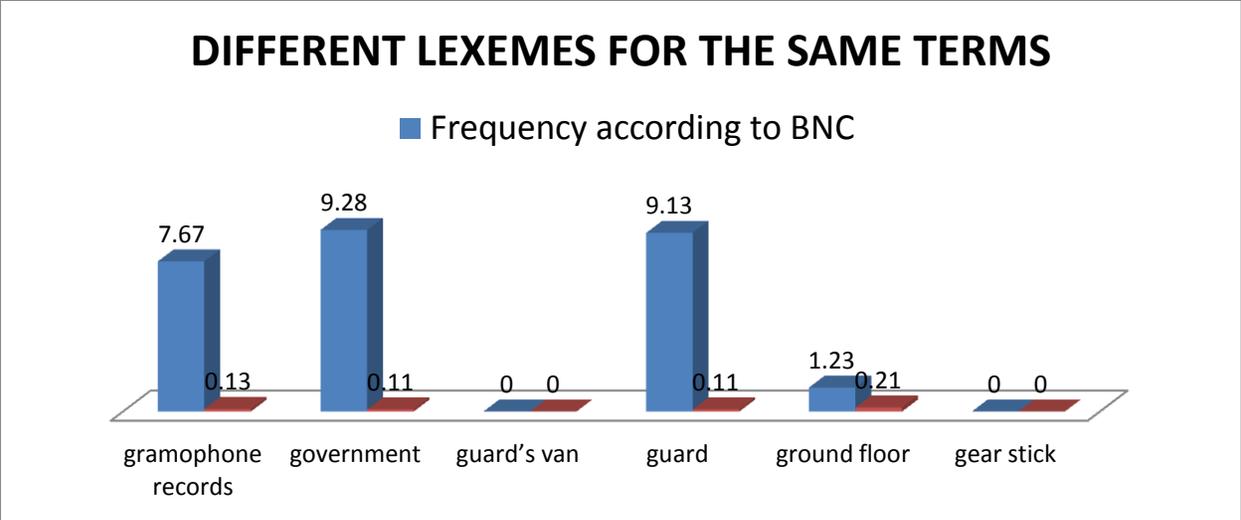


Diagram № 8.1.7 a

Four British samples (in blue) out of 6 are more frequent than the American ones (in red), while two are not found

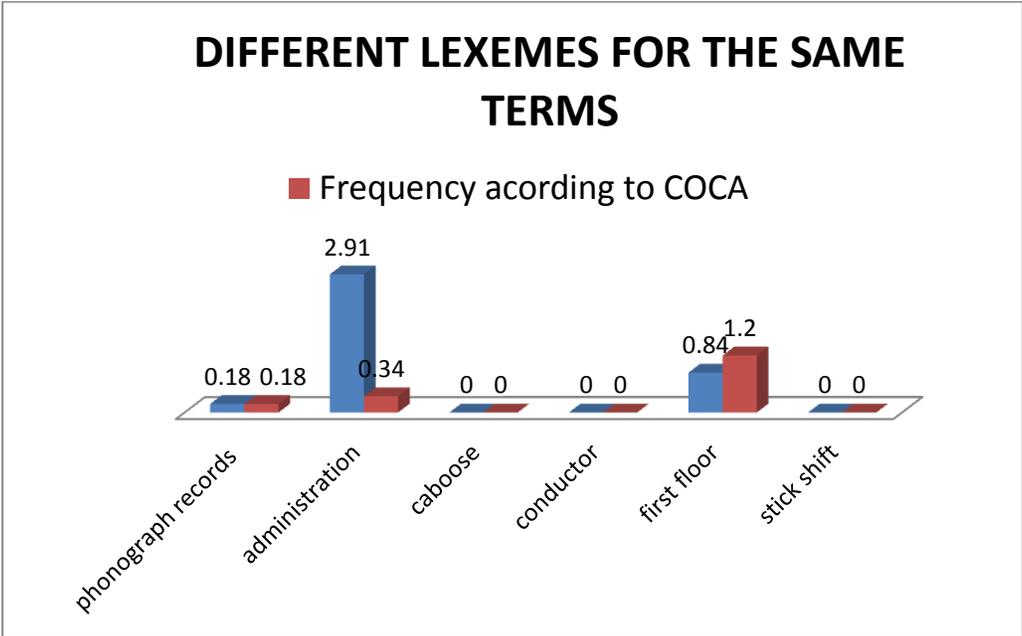
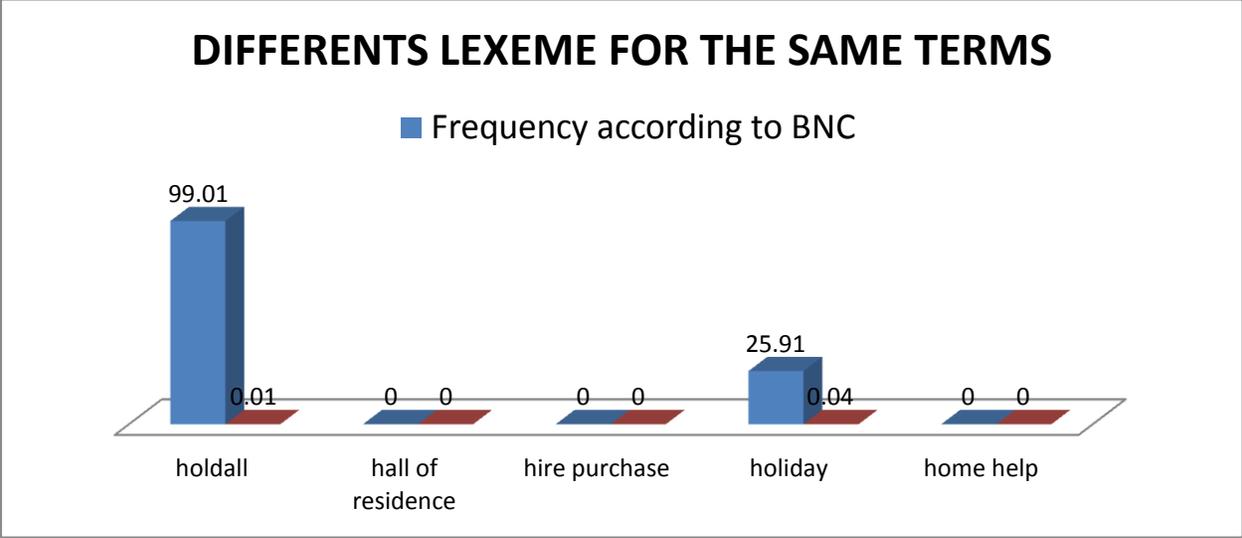


Diagram № 8.1.7 b

One American sample (in red) out of six is more frequent than its British counterpart (in blue), three are not found, one British sample is more frequent, and one is equally frequent for both.

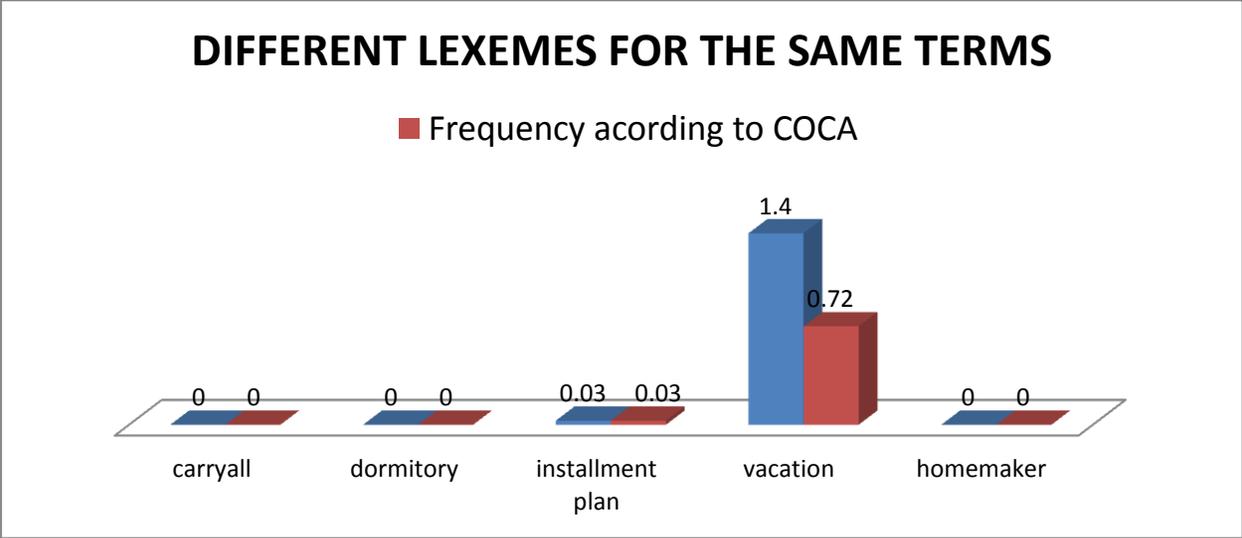
Table№ 8.1.8

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	holdall	carryall	99.01/0.01	
2	hall of residence	dormitory		
3	hire purchase	instalment plan		0.03
4	holiday	vacation	25.91/0.04	1.40/0.72
5	home help	homemaker		



Diagram№ 8.1.8 a

Two out of five British samples (in blue) are more frequent than the respective American ones (in red), while three are not found.

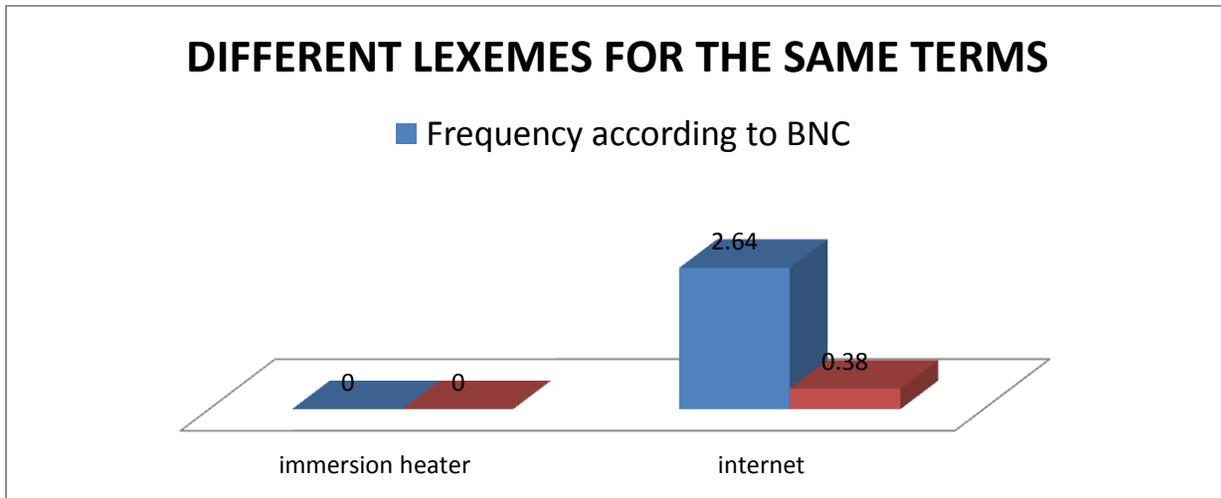


Diagram№ 8.1.8 b

One out of five American samples (in red) is more frequent than their British counterparts (in blue), three are not found, and one British and one American sample are equally frequent.

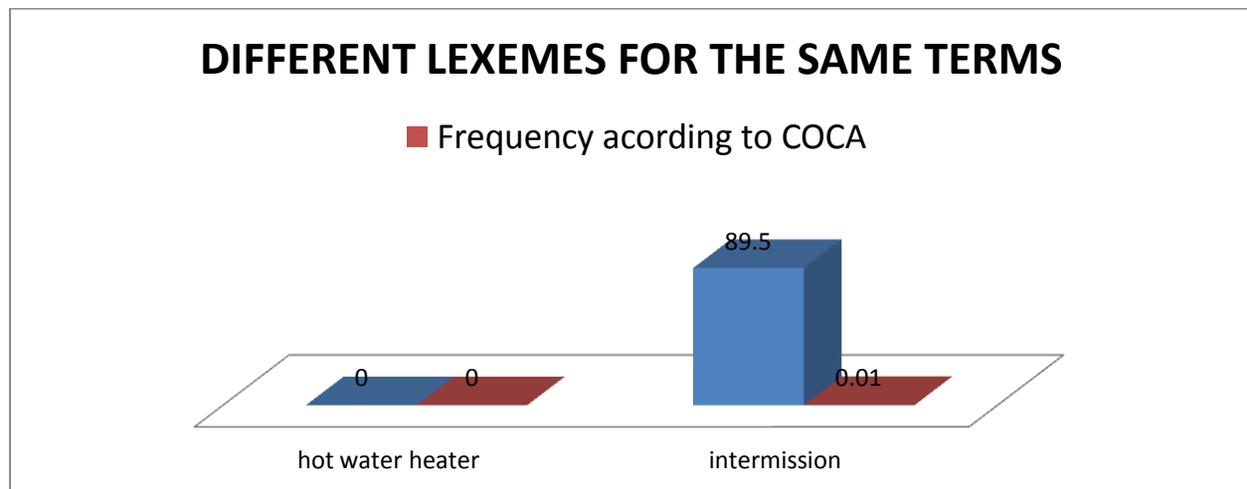
Table№ 8.1.9

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	immersion heater	hot water heater		
2	Internet interval	intermission	2.64/0.38	89.50/0.01



Diagram№ 8.1.9 a

One British sample (in blue) out of two is more frequent than its American counterpart (in red) and one is not found.

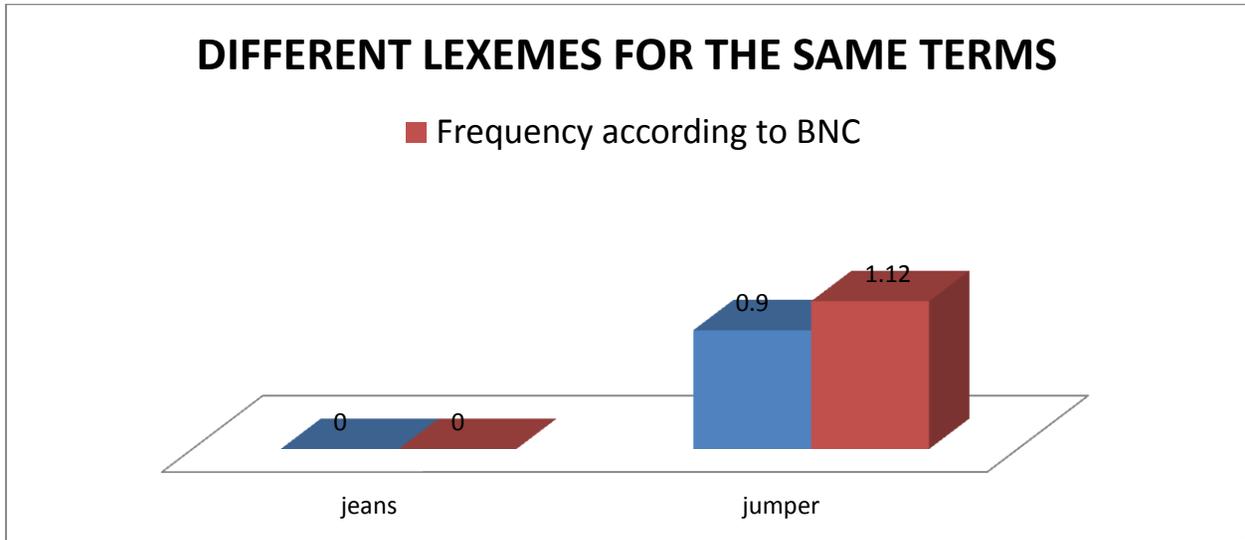


Diagram№ 8.1.9 b

One American sample (in red) out of two is more frequent than the British one (in blue), and one is not found.

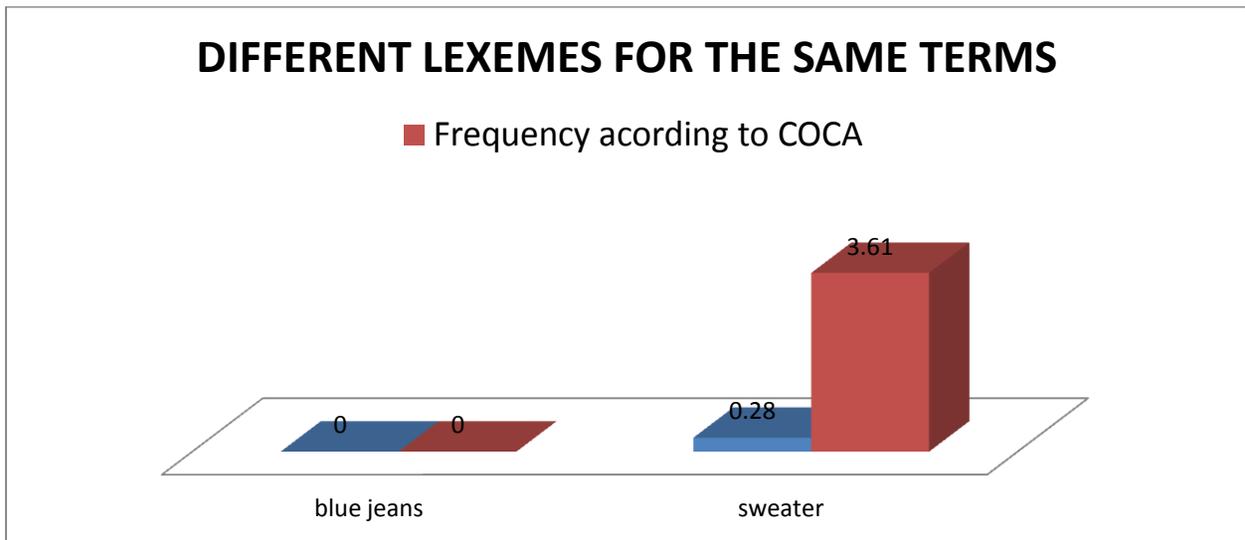
Table№ 8.1.10

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	jeans	blue jeans		
2	jumper	sweater	0.90/1.12	0.28/3.61



Diagram№ 8.1.10a

One American sample (in red) out of two is more frequent than its British equivalent (in blue), while one is not found.



Diagram№ 8.1.10b

One American sample (in red) out of two is more frequent than the British one (in blue), and one is not found

Table№ 8.1.11

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	ketchup	catsup	83.00/0.01	18.84/0.05
2	knave	jack	0.01/113.94	0.00/318.04

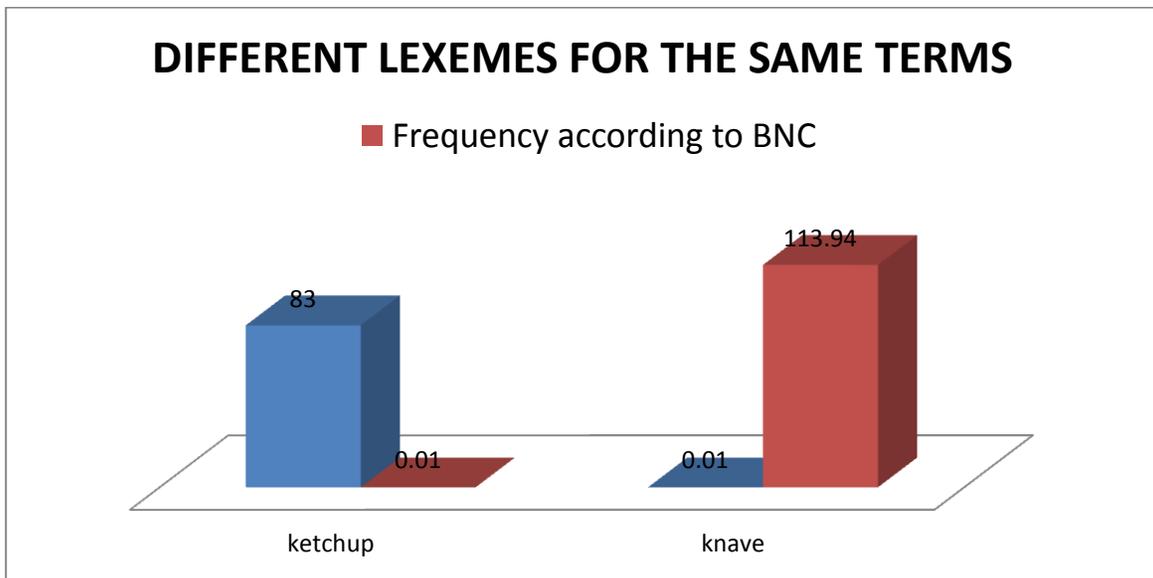
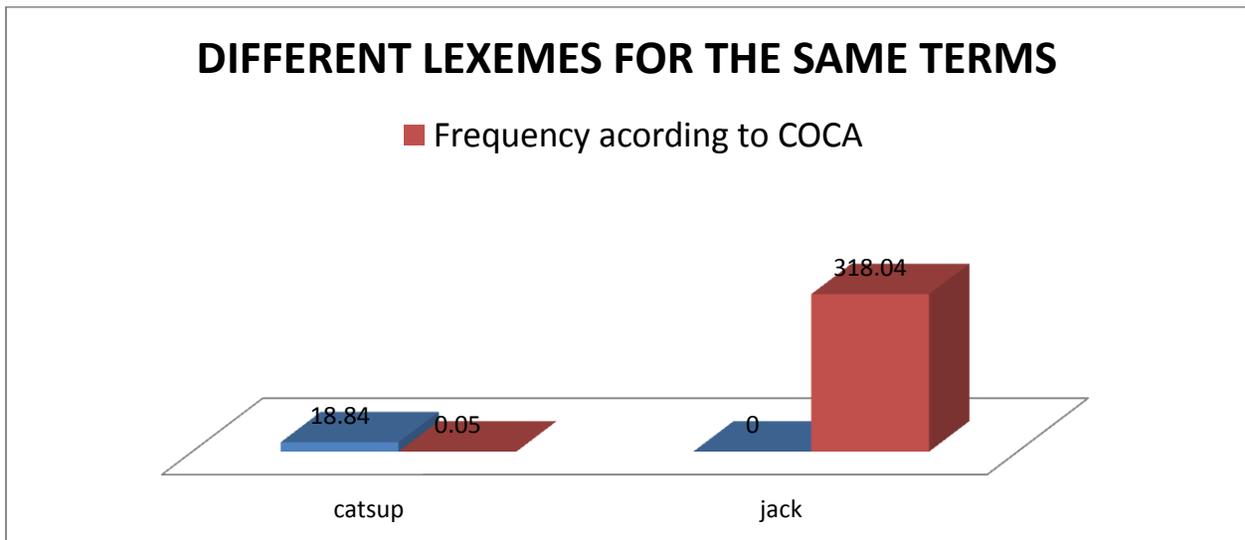


Diagram №8.1.11 a

One out of two British samples (in blue) is more frequent than the American one (in red), whereas one American sample is more frequent.



Diagram№ 8.1.11 b

One American sample (in red) out of two is more frequent than its British counterpart (in blue), whereas one British sample is more frequent.

Table № 8.1.12

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	Lift	elevator	21.66/0.05	2.17/0.46
2	Liftboy	elevator boy		0.44
3.	Luggage	baggage	1.38/0.73	1.02/0.98
4.	Lavatory	bathroom		
5.	lollipop man	crossing guard		
6.	level crossing	grade crossing		
7.	Lead	leash	83.48/0.01	47.45/0.02
8.	lemonade	lemon soda		
9.	lucky dip	grab bag	7.50/0.13	0.01
10.	Line	track	3.92/0.26	3.51/0.29
11	licence plate	number plate		103/0.01

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

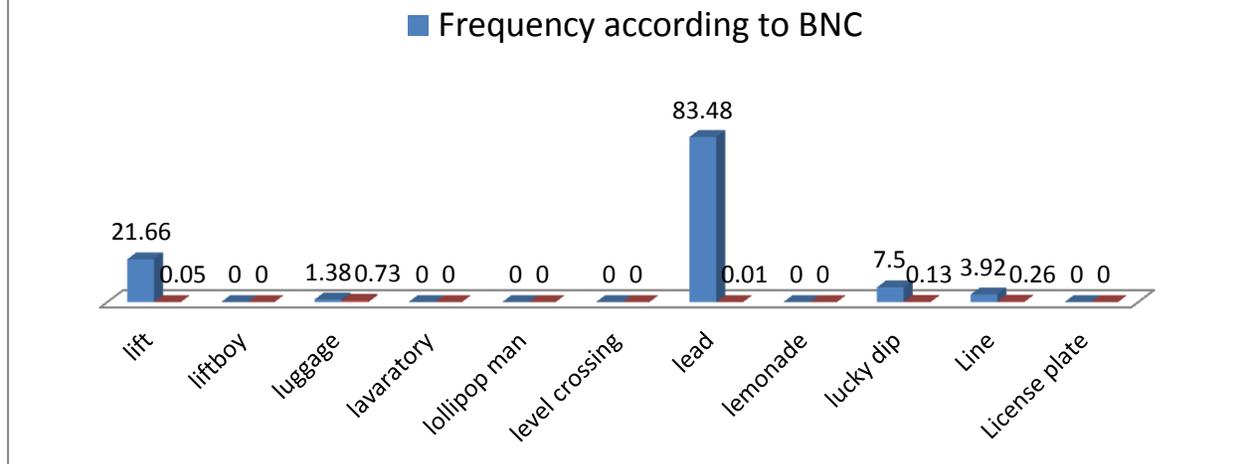


Diagram № 8.1.12a

Five British samples (in blue) out of eleven are more frequent than the American ones (in red), five are not found, and one American sample is more frequent.

DIFFERENT LEXEME FOR SAME TERMS

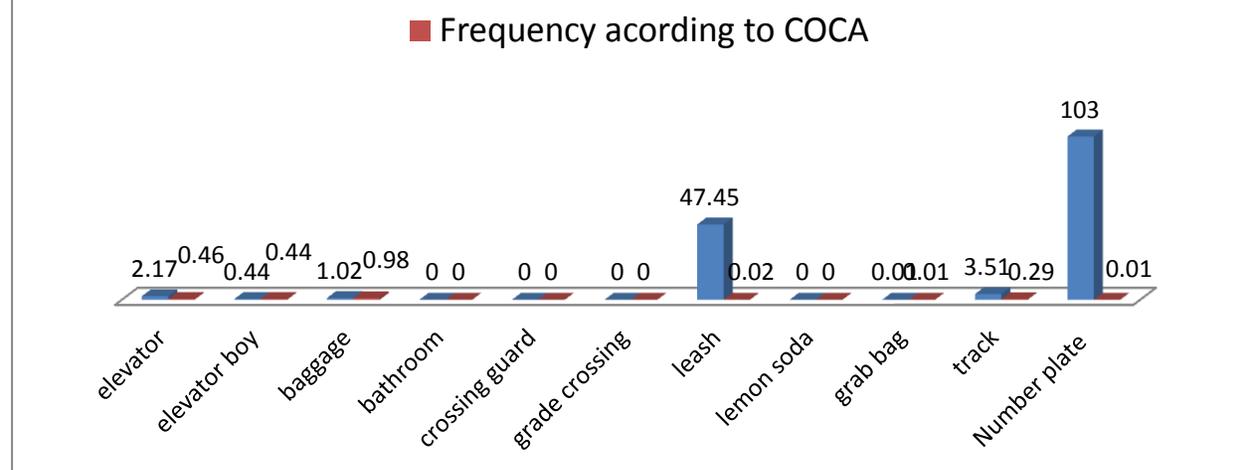


Diagram № 8.1.12b

Six American samples (in red) out of eleven are more frequent than their British counterparts (in blue), four are not found, and one British sample and its American counterpart are equally frequent.

Table.№ 8.1.13

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	maize	corn	0.27/3.74	0.07/13.47
2	motorway	expressway	35.34/0.03	0.18/5.62
3.	mince meat	ground meat	4.50/0.22	0.12/8.50
4.	marrow	squash	0.05/20.90	0.06/17.13
5.	motorcar	automobile	0.11/9.16	0.02/53.99
6.	main road	interstate		250.67
7.	mobile phone	cellular phone	4.22/0.24	0.69/1.46

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

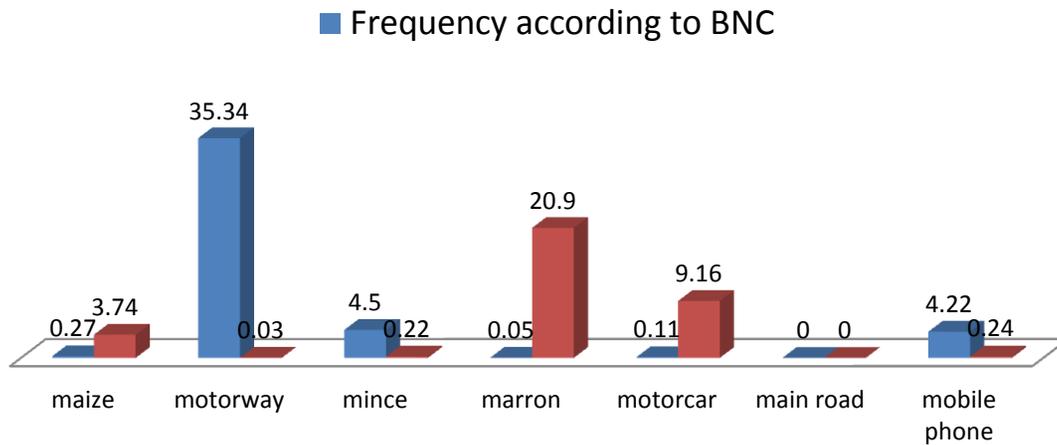


Diagram № 8.1.13a

Three out of seven British samples (in blue) are more frequent than the American equivalents (in red), one is not found, while three American samples are more frequent.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

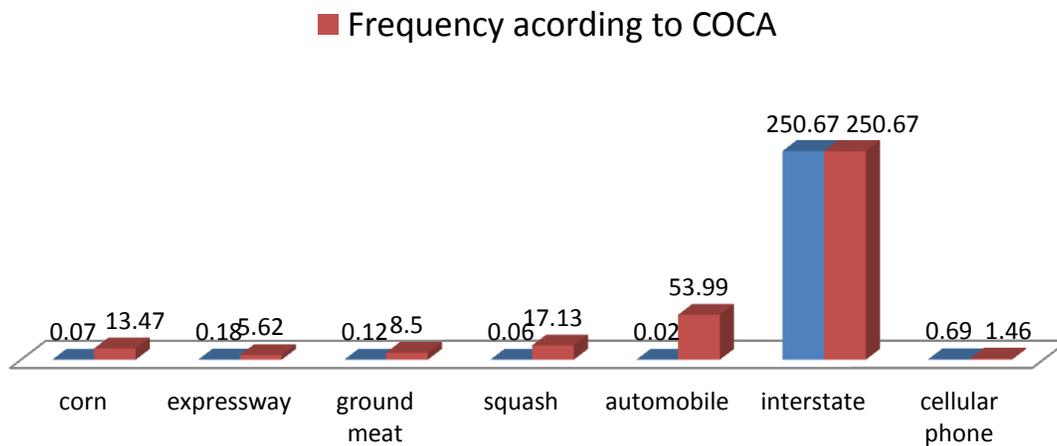
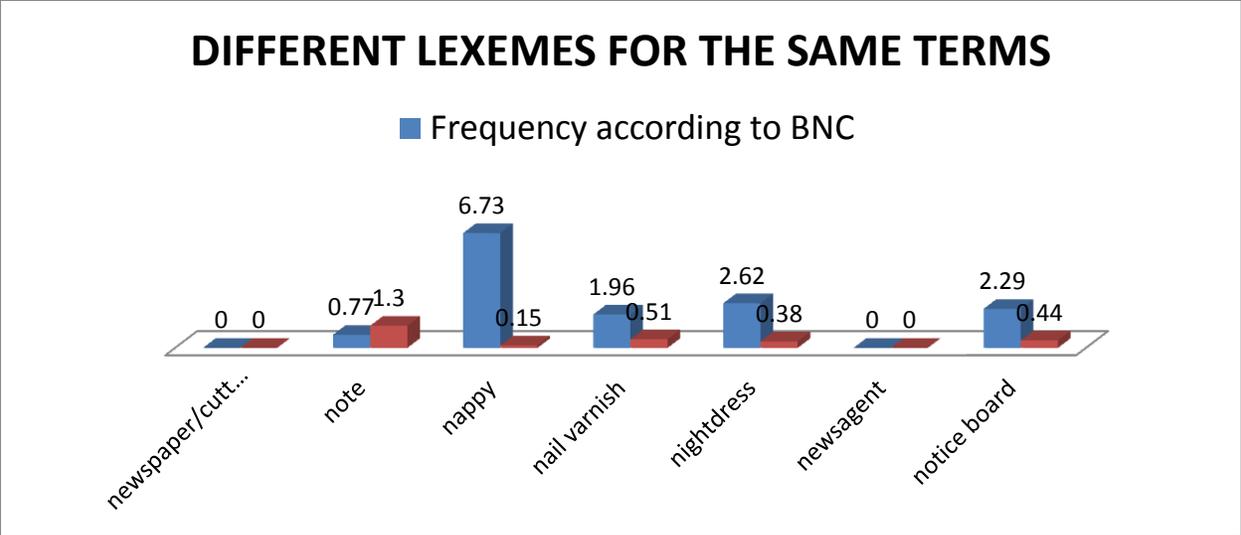


Diagram № 8.1.13b

Six American samples (in red) out of seven are more frequent than the British ones (in blue), whereas one British sample is as frequently used as its American counterpart.

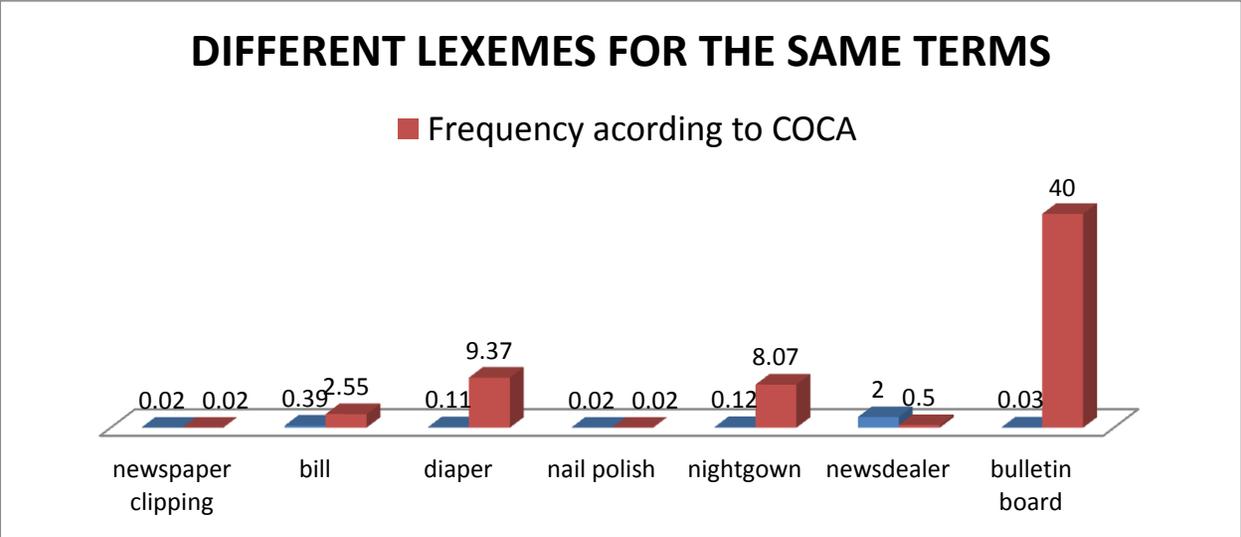
Table№ 8.1.14

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	Newspaper cutting	newspaper clipping		0.02
2	note	bill	0.77/1.30	0.39/2.55
3.	nappy	diaper	6.73/0.15	0.11/9.37
4.	nail varnish	nail polish	1.96/0.51	0.02
5.	nightdress	Nightgown	2.62/0.38	0.12/8.07
6.	newsagent	newsdealer		2.00/0.50
7.	notice board	bulletin board	2.29/0.44	0.03/40.00



Diagram№ 8.1.14 a

Four British samples (in blue) out of seven are more frequent than the American ones (in red), two are not found, and one American sample is more frequent.



Diagram№ 8.1.14 b

Four out of seven American samples (in red) are more frequent than their British equivalents (in blue), one British sample is more frequent, and two are as frequent as their American counterparts.

Table.№ 8.1.15

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	pharmacy	drugstore	9.06/0.11	1.50/0.66
2	post	mail	2.78/0.36	2.33/0.43
3.	pocket money	allowance		
4.	pram	baby carriage		
5.	phone in	call in	0.33/3.04	0.57/1.73
6.	primary school	elementary school	15.48/0.06	0.11/9.00
7.	petrol	gasoline	35.23/0.03	0.04/23.87
8.	post mortem	autopsy		
9.	postcode	zip code		11.50/0.09

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

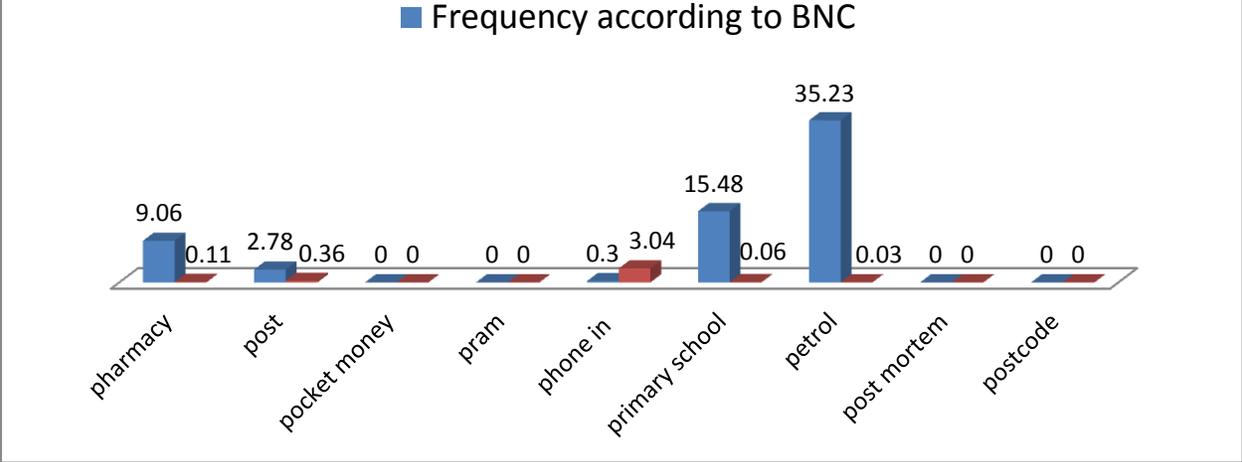


Diagram № 8.1.15 a

Four British samples (in blue) out of nine are more frequent than their American equivalents (in red), four are not found, while one American sample is more frequent.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

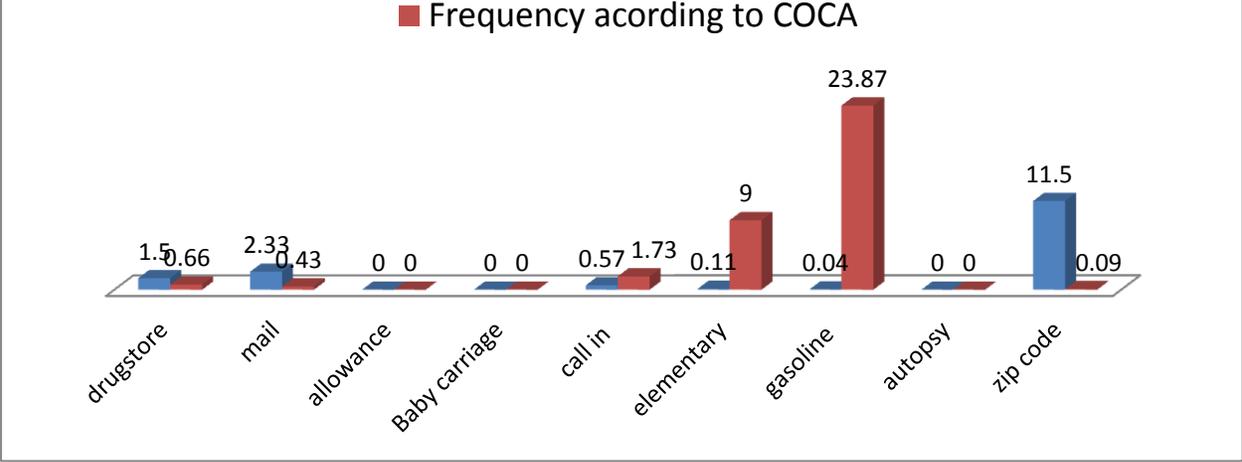


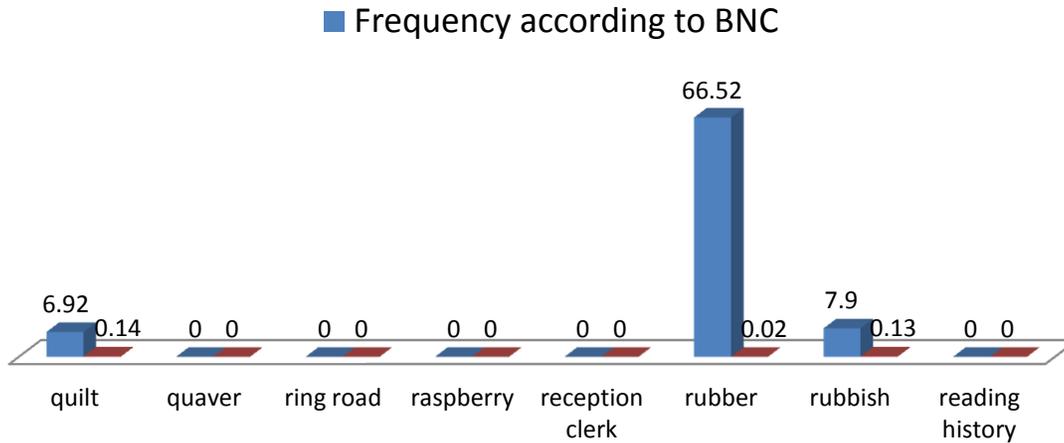
Diagram № 8.1.15 b

Three out of nine American samples (in red) are more frequent than the British ones (in blue), three are not found, whereas three British samples are more frequent.

Table № 8.1.16

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA	to
1	quilt	comforter	6.92/0.14	4.82/0.21	
2	quaver	eighth note			
3.	ring road	beltway		66.00/0.02	
4.	raspberry	bronx cheer			
5.	reception clerk	desk clerk			
6.	rubber	eraser	66.52/0.02	16.94/0.06	
7.	rubbish	garbage	7.90/0.13	0.10/9.63	
8	reading history	majoring in history		0.44	

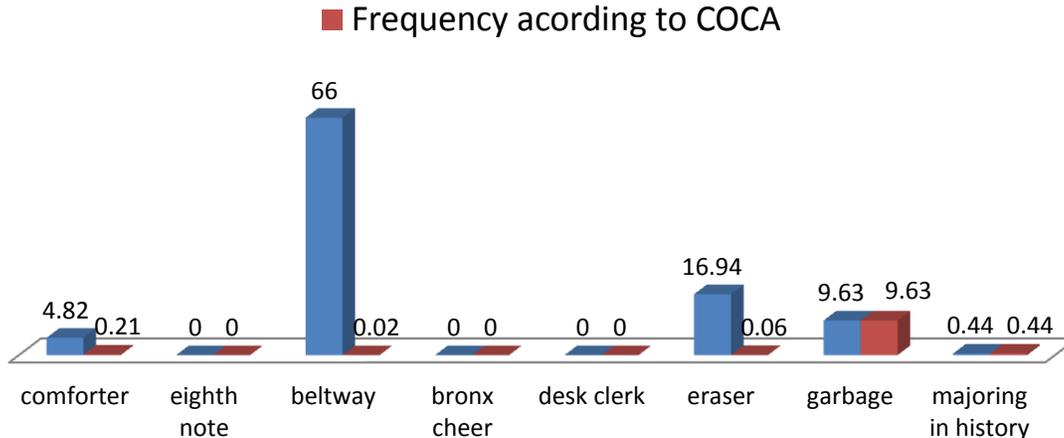
DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS



Diagram№ 8.1.16a

Six British samples (in blue) out of eight are more frequent than the American equivalents (in red), three are not found, while three American samples are more frequent.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

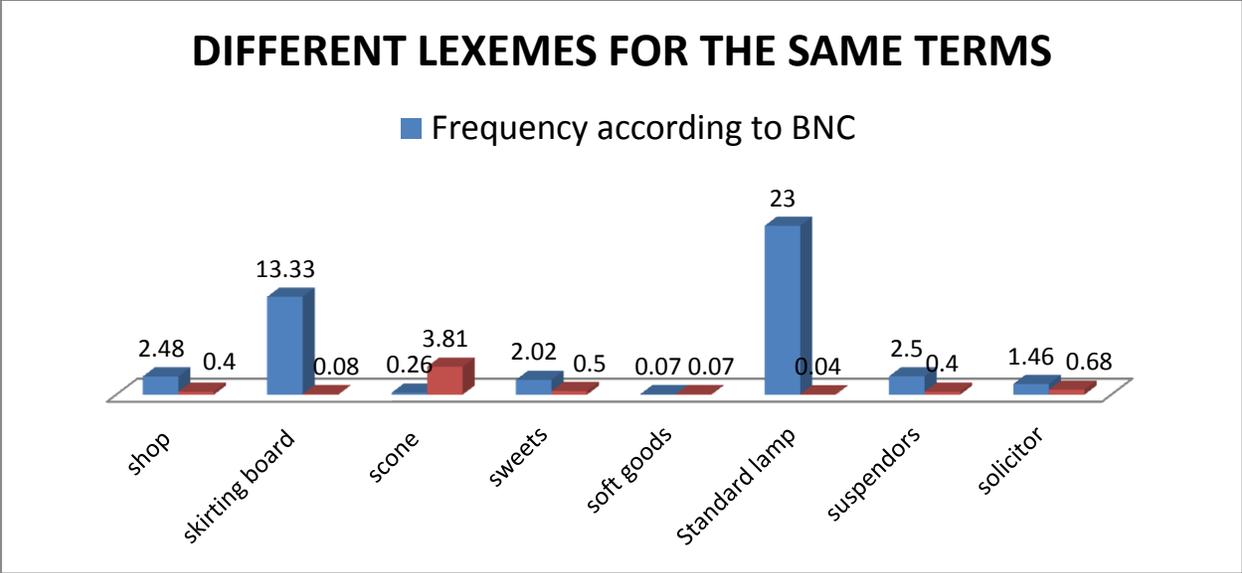


Diagram№ 8.1.16b

Three out of eight American samples (in red) are more frequent than the British ones (in blue), three are not found, whereas two American and two British samples are equally frequent.

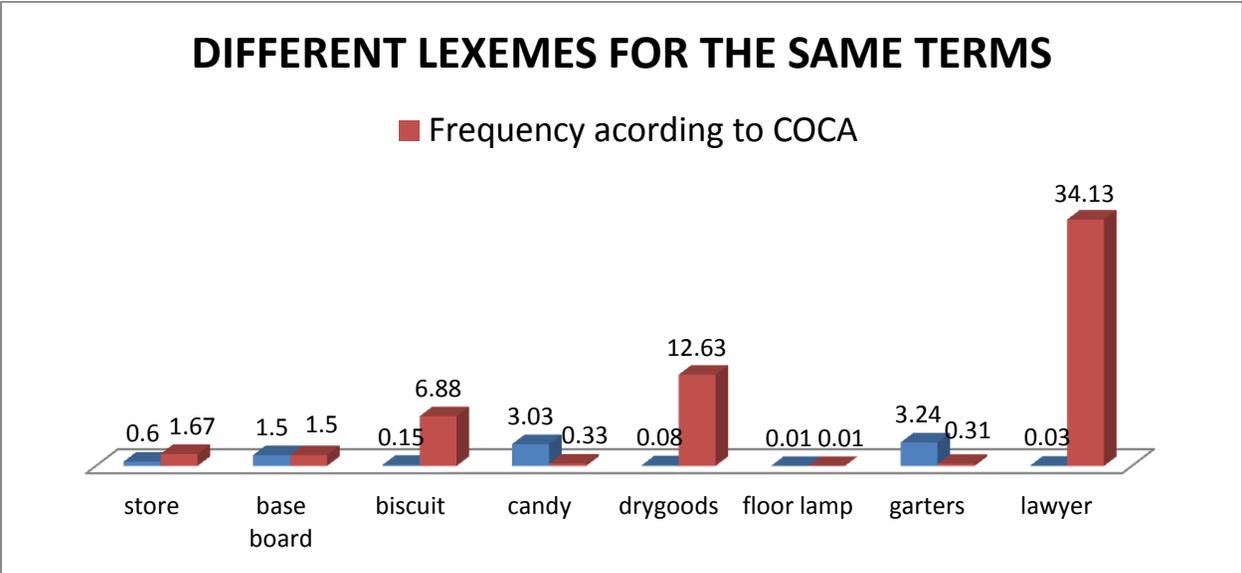
Table № 8.1.17

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	shop	store	2.48/0.40	0.60/1.67
2	skirting board	base board	13.33/0.08	1,50
3.	scone	biscuit	0.26/3.81	0.15/6.88
4.	sweets	candy	2.02/0.50	3.03/0.33
5.	soft goods	drygoods	0.07	0.08/12.63
6.	standard lamp	floor lamp	23.00/0.04	0.01
7.	suspenders	garters	2.50/0.40	3.24/0.31
8	solicitor	lawyer	1.46/0.68	0.03/34.13



Diagram№ 8.1.17a

Six British samples (in blue) out of eight are more frequent than their American counterparts (in red), while two American samples are more frequent.



Diagram№ 8.1.17b

Four out of eight American samples (in red) are more frequent than their British equivalents (in blue), two British samples are more frequent, whereas two are equally frequent.

Table № 8.1.18

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA	to
1	tailback	back up	0.12	0.37/2.74	
2	tin	can	0.01/118.91	0/227.18	
3.	tea towel	dish towel	61.00/0.02	0.32/3.11	
4.	tipper lorry	dump truck	2.00/0.50		
5.	tap	faucet	201.70/0.00	6.40/0.16	
6.	torch	flashlight	13.47/0.07	0.70/1.43	
7.	term	semester	349.23/0.00	8.12/0.12	
8	timber	lumber	35.75/0.03	1.62/0.62	
9	tramp	bum	0.90/0.11	0.30/3.29	

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

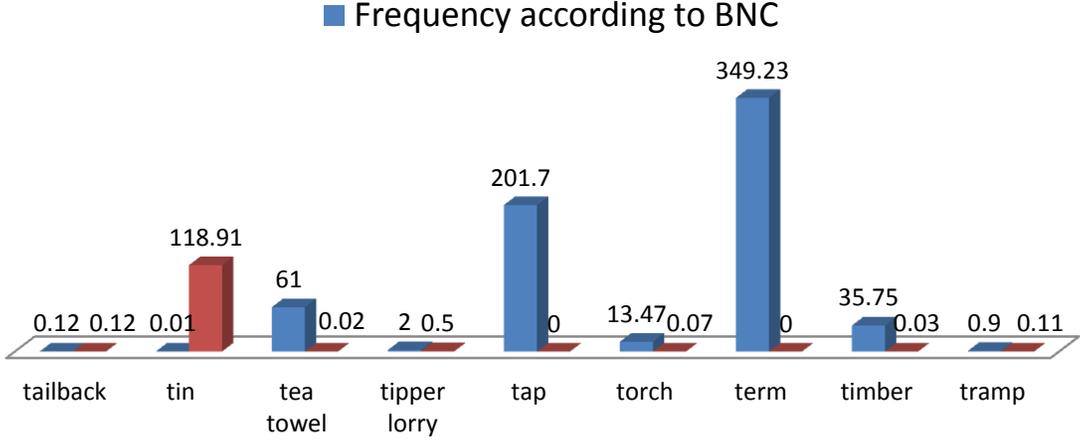


Diagram № 8.1.18a

Six British samples (in blue) out of nine are more frequent than the American (in red), two American ones are more frequent, while one British sample is as equally used as its counterpart.

DIFFERENT LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS

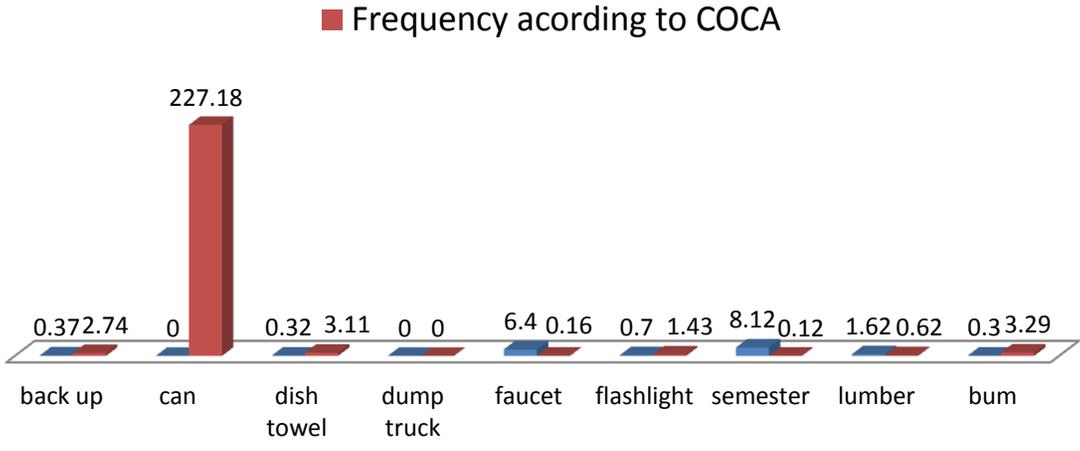


Diagram № 8.1.18b

Five American samples (in red) out of nine are more frequent than the British ones (in blue), one is not found, and three British samples are more frequent.

Table № 8.1.19

№	British English	American English	Frequency according to BNC	Frequency according to COCA
1	wallet	billfold		
2	wagon	carriage	0.31/0.21	1.81/0.55
3.	wardrobe	closet	4.28/0.23	0.29/3.45
4.	whom	who	0.06/15.90	0.04/27.36

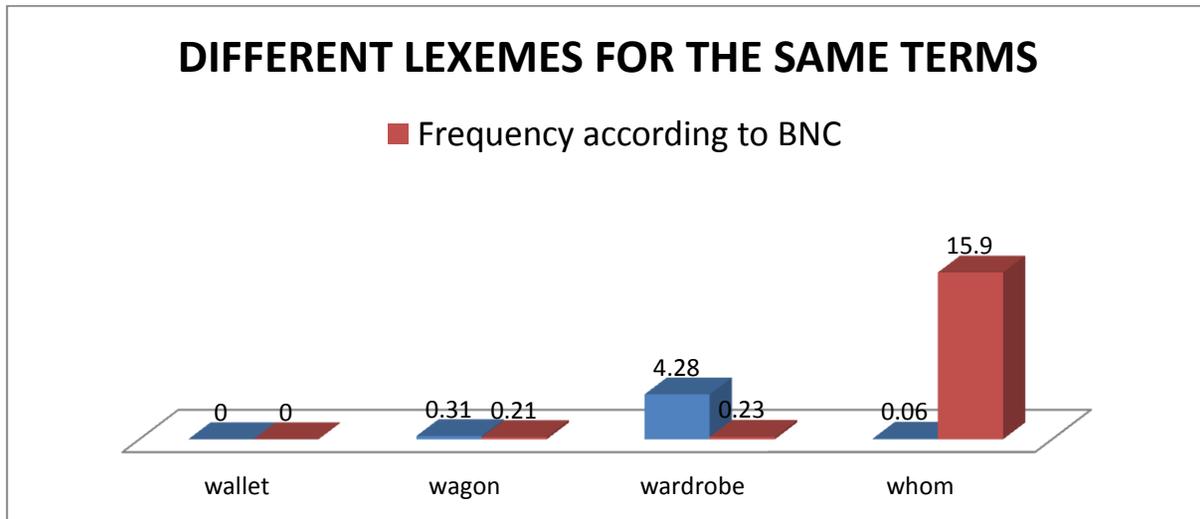


Diagram №8.1.19a

Three British samples (in blue) out of four are more frequent than their American equivalents (in red), one is not found, whereas one American sample is more frequent.

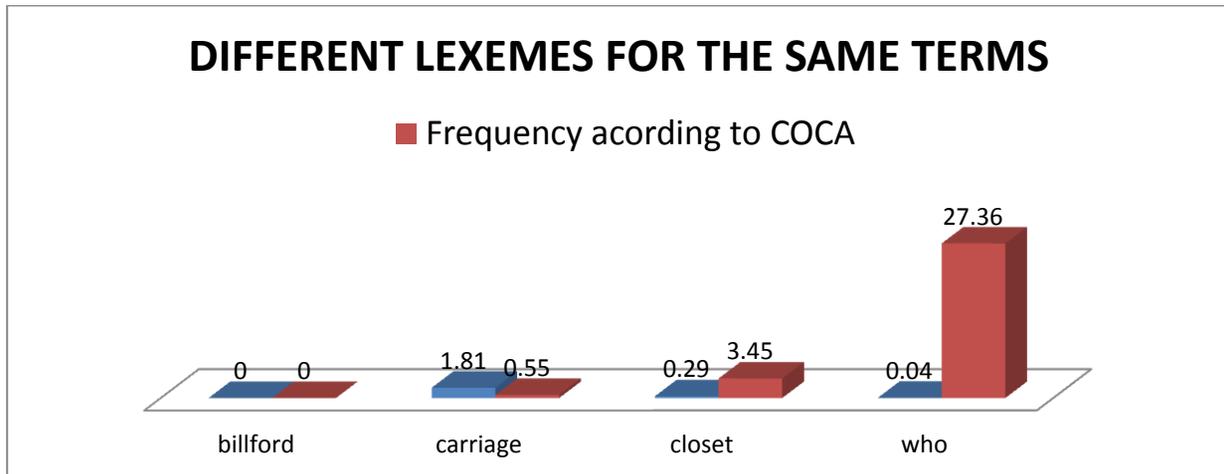


Diagram № 8.1.19b

Two American samples (in red) out of four are more frequent than their British counterparts (in blue), one is not found, and one British sample is more frequent.

8.1.20 Different lexemes for the same terms -results

The findings from this part of the research are as follows:

Diagram 8.1.a: out of four, one British sample is more frequent than the American one, while three American samples are more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.b: out of four, two American samples are more frequent than the British equivalents, whereas two British samples are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.2a: out of eleven, seven British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, three of them could not be found, and only one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.2.b: out of eleven, five American samples are more frequent than the British ones, four could not be found, and two British samples are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.3a: out of twelve, six British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, three could not be found, while three American samples are more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.3b: out of twelve, three American samples are more frequent than the British ones, three could not be found, and six British samples are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.4a: out of seven, five British samples are more frequent than their American equivalents, two could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.4b: out of seven, four American samples are more frequent than the British ones, and three are not found (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.5a: out of five, two British samples are more frequent than their American equivalents, two could not be found, and one British sample is equal in frequency to its American counterpart (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.5b: out of five, two American samples are more frequent than the British, three are not found (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.6a: out of eight, six British samples are more frequent than their American equivalents, one could not be found, and one British sample is as frequent as its American counterpart (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.6b: out of eight, four American samples are more frequent than the British ones, two are not found, whereas one British sample is more frequent, and one American and one British sample are equally frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.7a: out of six, four British samples are more frequent than the American ones, and two are not found (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.7 b: out of six, one American sample is more frequent than the British, three could not be found, one British sample is more frequent, and another British one is equally frequently used as its American counterpart (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.8a: out of five, two British samples are more frequent than the American ones, while three could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.8b: out of five, one American sample is more frequent than its British equivalent, three could not be found, while one British sample and its American counterpart are equally frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.9a: out of two, one British sample is more frequent than the American equivalent, and one could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.9b: out of two, one American sample is more frequent than its British counterpart, and one could not be found (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.10.a: out of two, one American sample is more frequent than the British one, and one could not be found (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.10.b: out of two, one American sample is more frequent than the British equivalent, and one could not be found (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.11a: out of two, one British sample is more frequent than its American counterpart, and one American sample is more frequent than the British equivalent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.11b: out of two, one American sample is more frequent than the British one, and one British sample is more frequent than American one (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.12a: out of eleven, five British samples are more frequent than the American ones, five could not be found, and one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.12b: out of eleven, six American samples are more frequent than their British counterparts, four could not be found, while one British and its American counterpart are equally frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.13a: out of seven, three British samples are more frequent than the American equivalents, one could not be found, and three American samples are more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.13b: out of seven, six American samples are more frequent than their British

counterparts, while one British sample and its American equivalent are equally frequently used (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.14a: out of seven, four British samples are more frequent than the American ones, two could not be found, and one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.14b: out of seven, four American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents, one British sample is more frequent, and two British samples are used as often as their American counterparts (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.15a: out of nine, four British samples are more frequent than the American ones, four could not be found, and one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.15b: out of nine, three American samples are more frequent than the British equivalents, three could not be found, and three British samples are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.16a: out of eight, six British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, three could not be found, while three American samples are more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.16b: out of eight, three American samples are more frequent than the American ones, three could not be found, whereas two American samples and their British counterparts are equally frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.17a: out of eight, six British samples are more frequently used than the American ones, and two American samples are more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.17b: out of eight, four American samples are more frequent than the British equivalents, two British ones are more frequent, and two British samples are as frequent as their counterparts (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.18a: out of nine, six British samples are more frequent than the American ones, two American samples are more frequent, and another British one is as frequently used as its counterpart (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.18.b: out of nine, five American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents, one could not be found, and three British samples are more frequent (COCA)

Diagram 8.1.19a: out of four, two British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, one could not be found, and one American sample is more frequent (BNC)

Diagram 8.1.19.b: out of four, two American samples are more frequent than the British ones, one could not be found, and one British sample is more frequent (COCA)

As can be seen in the diagrams, eighteen cases can be found which fully support the hypothesis set for this part of the study (Diagrams 8.1.1b, 8.1.2a, 8.1.2b, 8.1.4a, 8.1.4b, 8.1.6a, 8.1.9a, 8.1.9b, 8.1.10a, 8.1.10b, 8.1.11a/b, 8.1.13b, 8.1.14a, 8.1.18a, 8.1.17a, 8.1.18a/b); further eight strongly support it (Diagrams 1.1, 3.1, 6.2, 7.1, 14.2, 17.2, 19. and, 19.2); ten partially support it (Diagrams 3.2, 5.1, 5.2, 7.2, 12.1, 12.2, 3.1, 15.1, 15.2 and 16.2); and finally, only two (Diagrams 8.1 and 8.2) do not support it. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area *Different lexemes for the same terms* can be confirmed as true.

The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

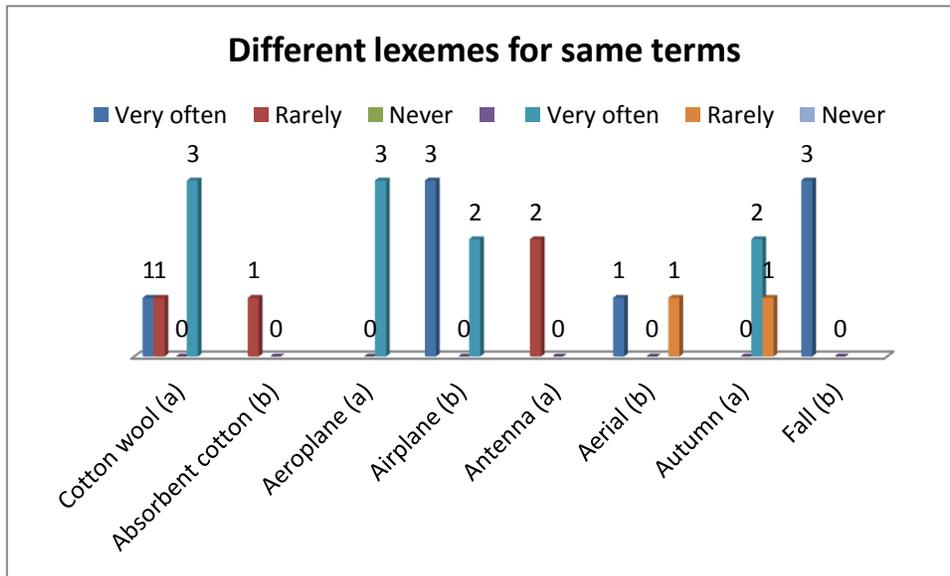
Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the words comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

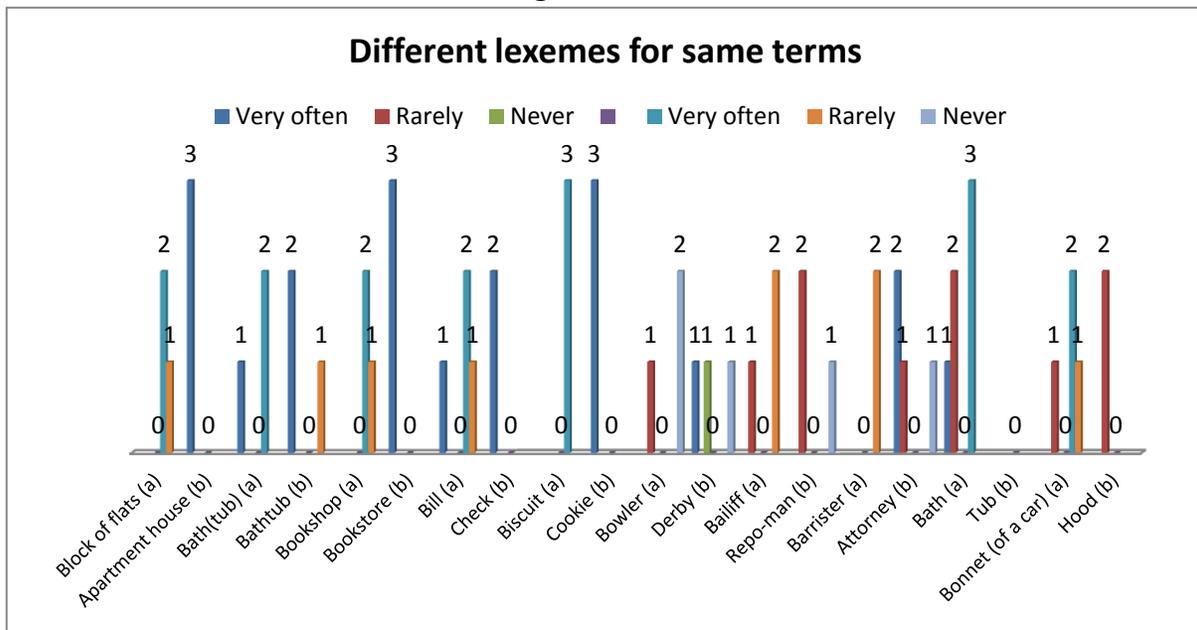
The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

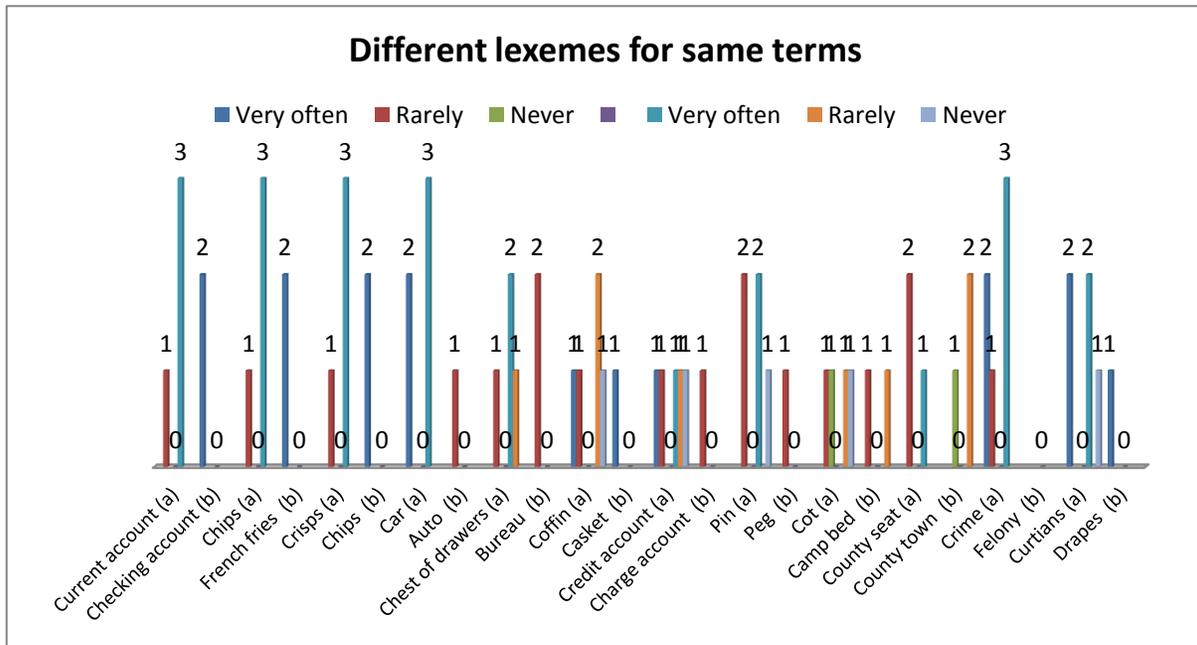
Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the words comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.



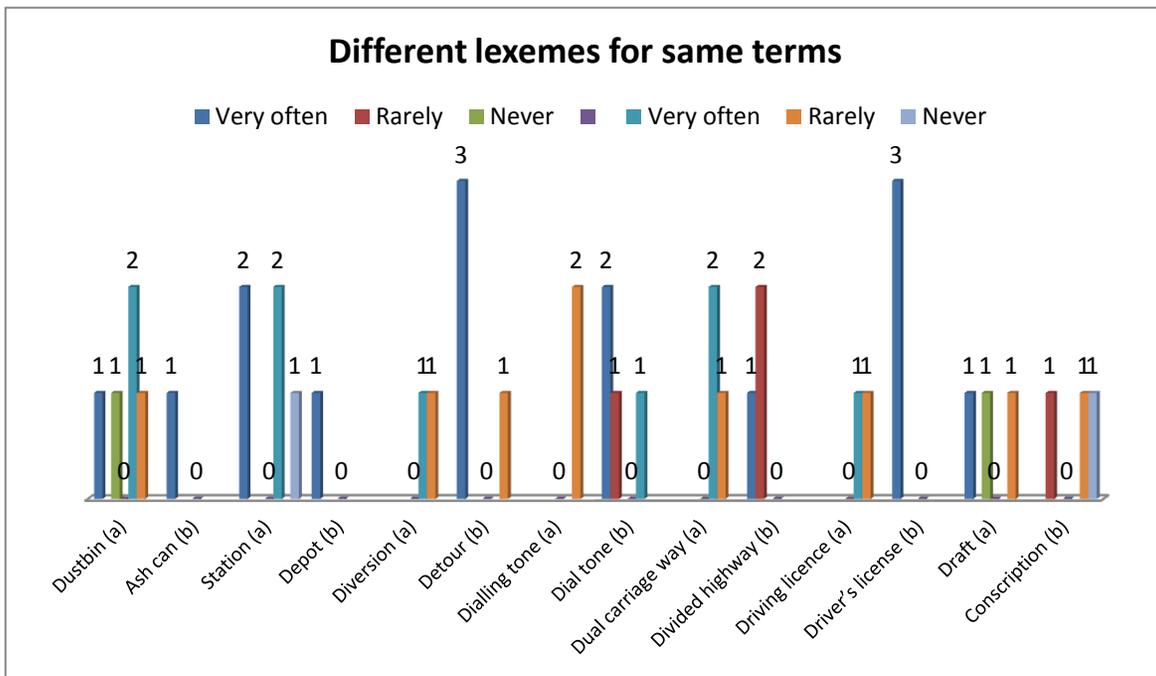
Diagram№ 8.1.21



Diagram№ 8.1.22



Diagram№ 8.1.23



Diagram№ 8.1.24

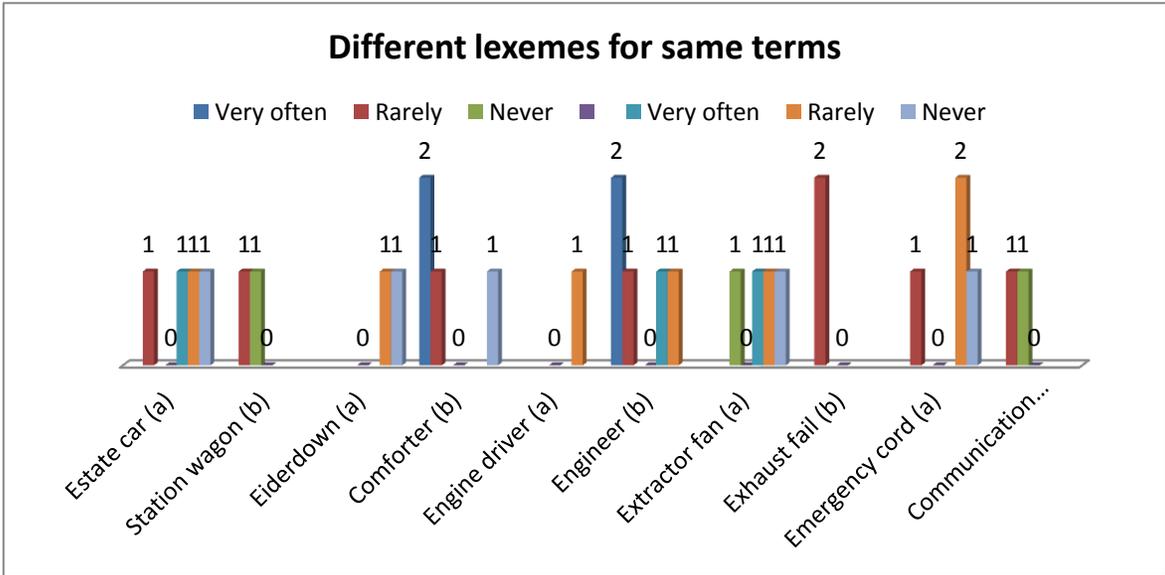


Diagram № 8.1.25

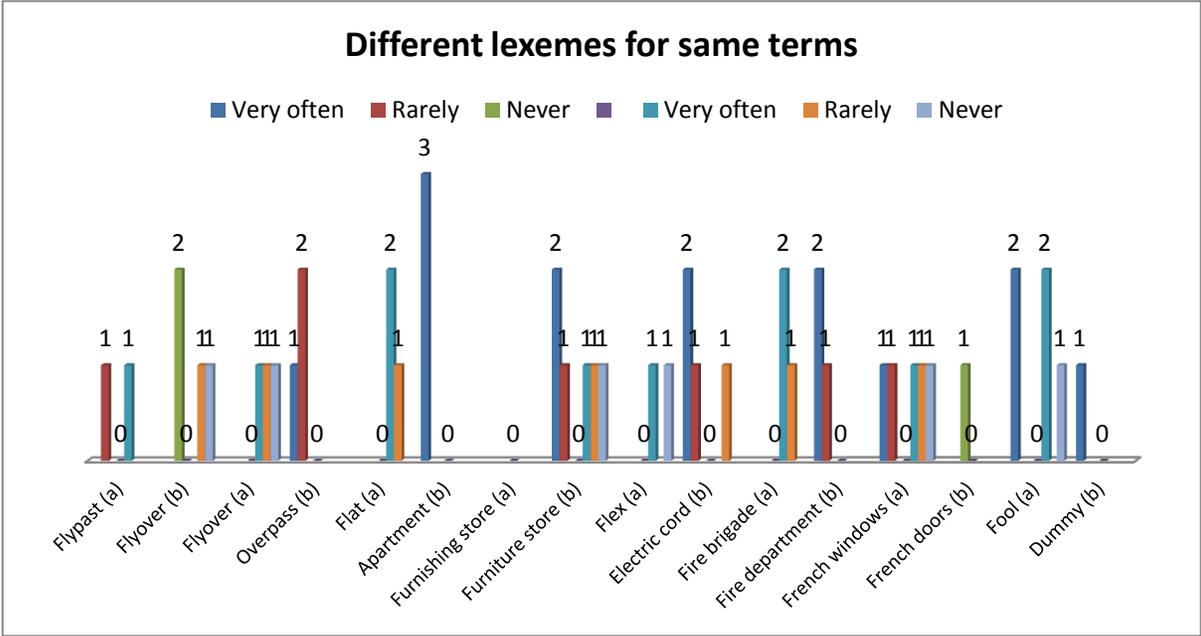


Diagram № 8.1.26

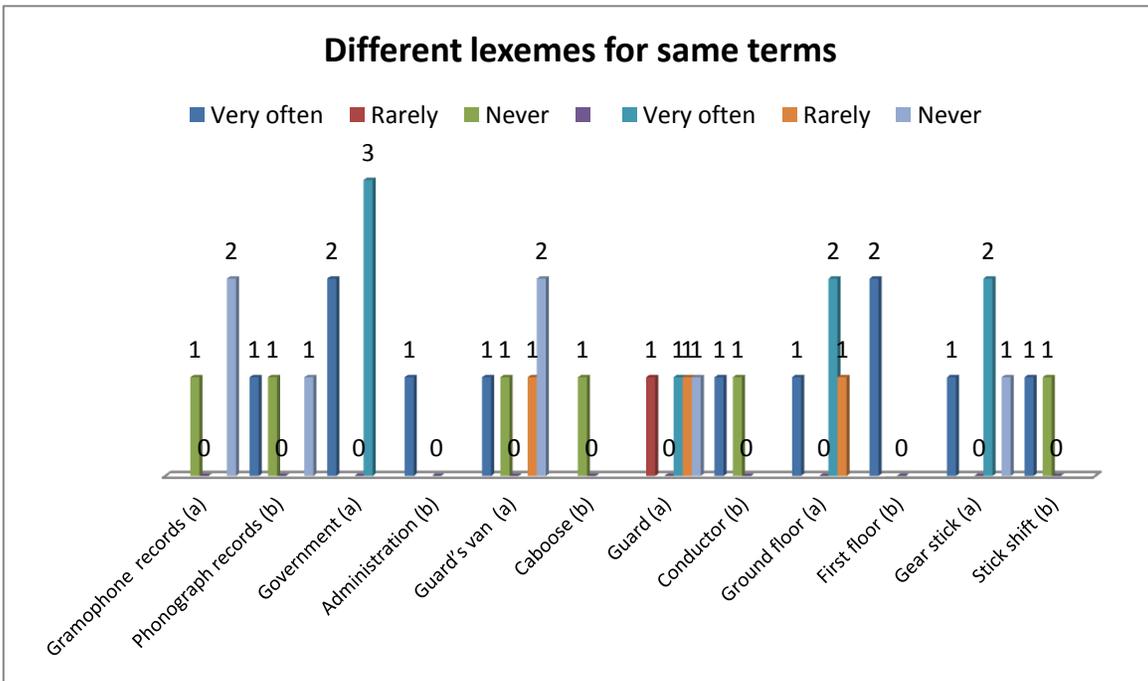


Diagram № 8.1.27

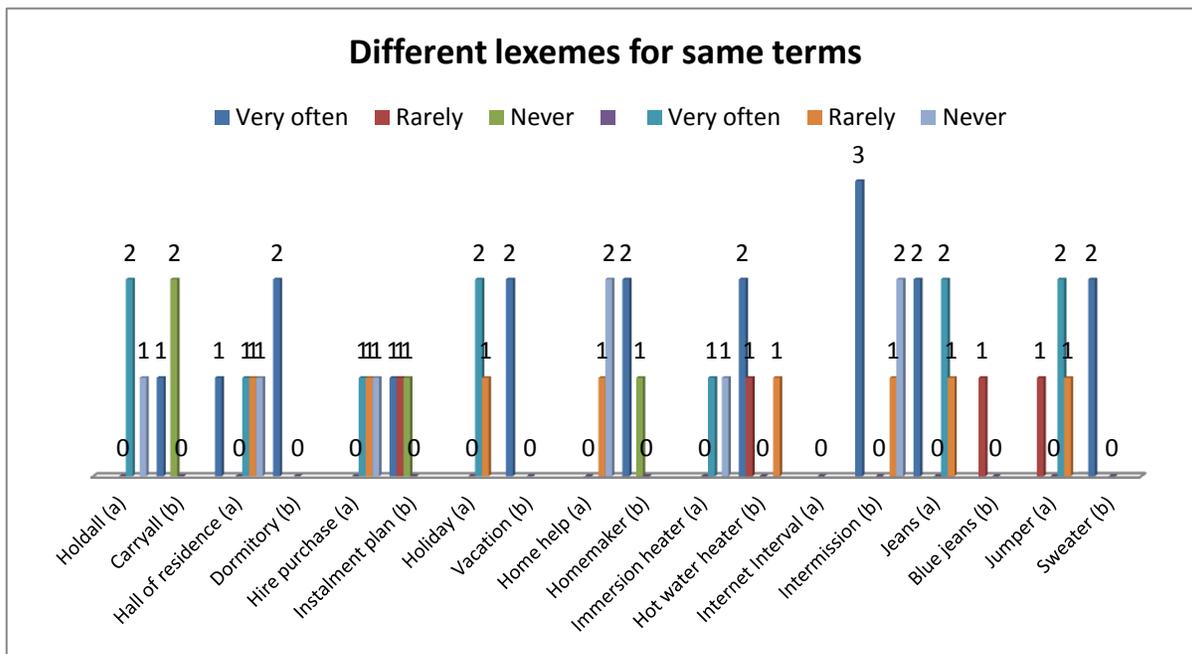
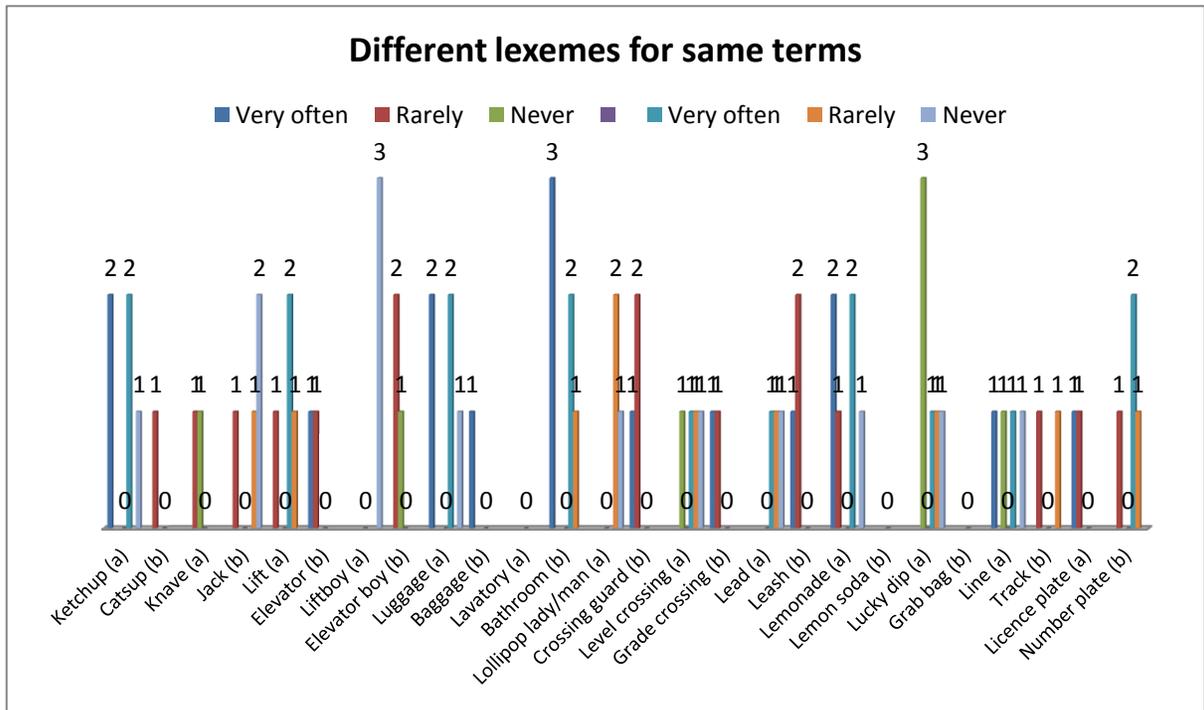
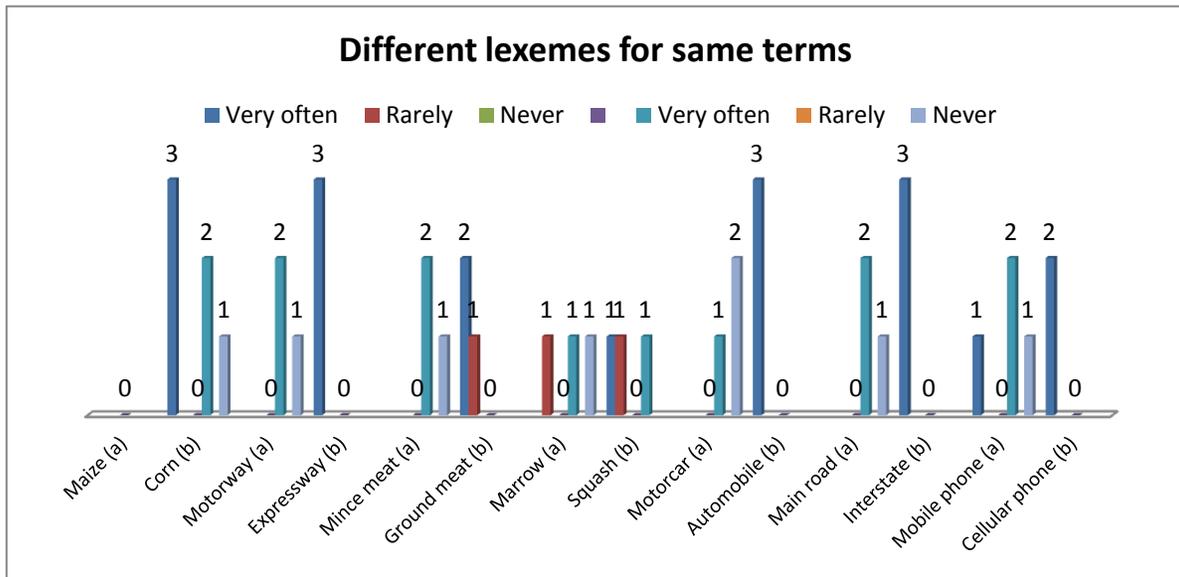


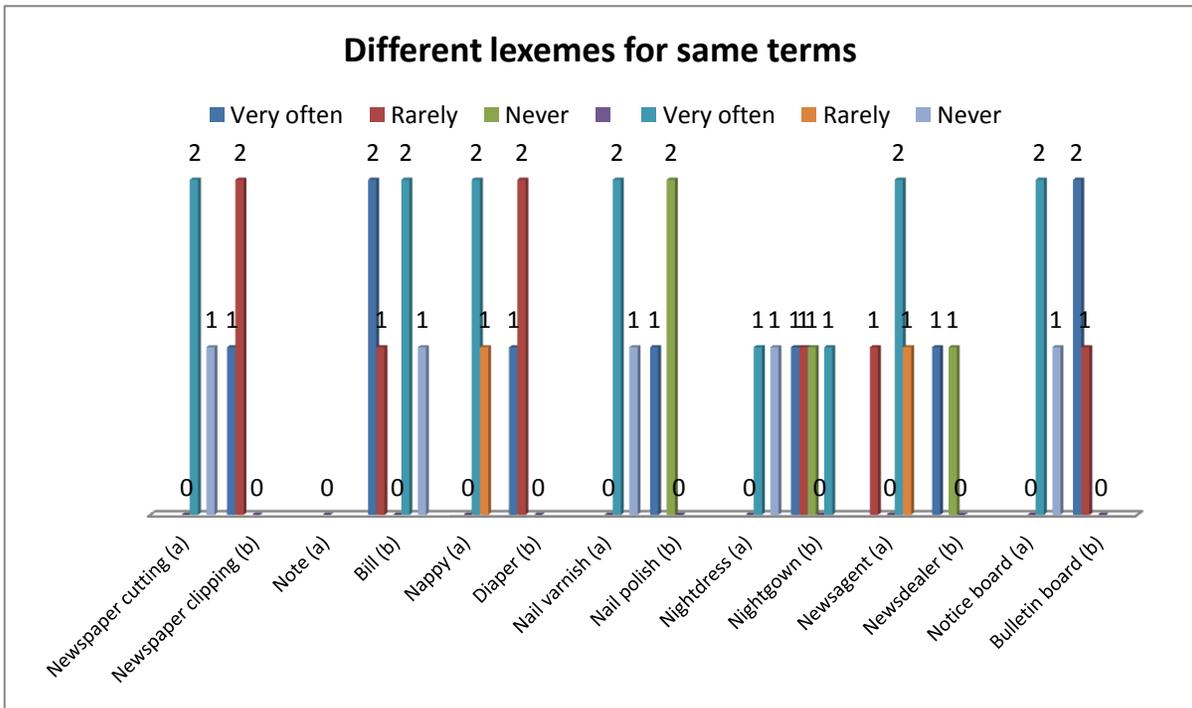
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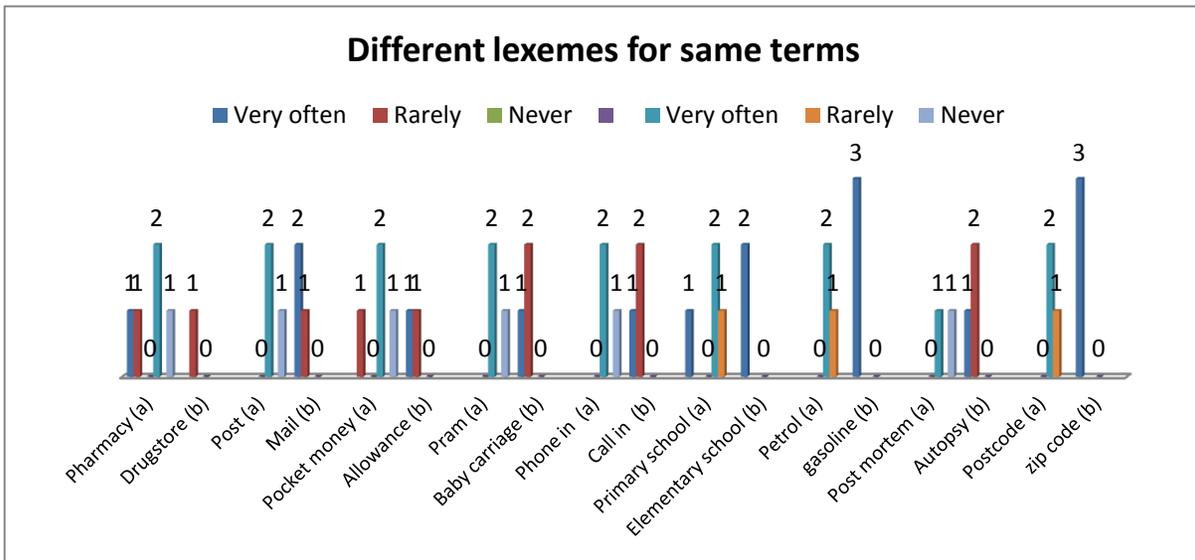
Diagram№ 8.1.29



Diagram№ 8.1.30



Diagram№ 8.1.31



Diagram№ 8.1.32

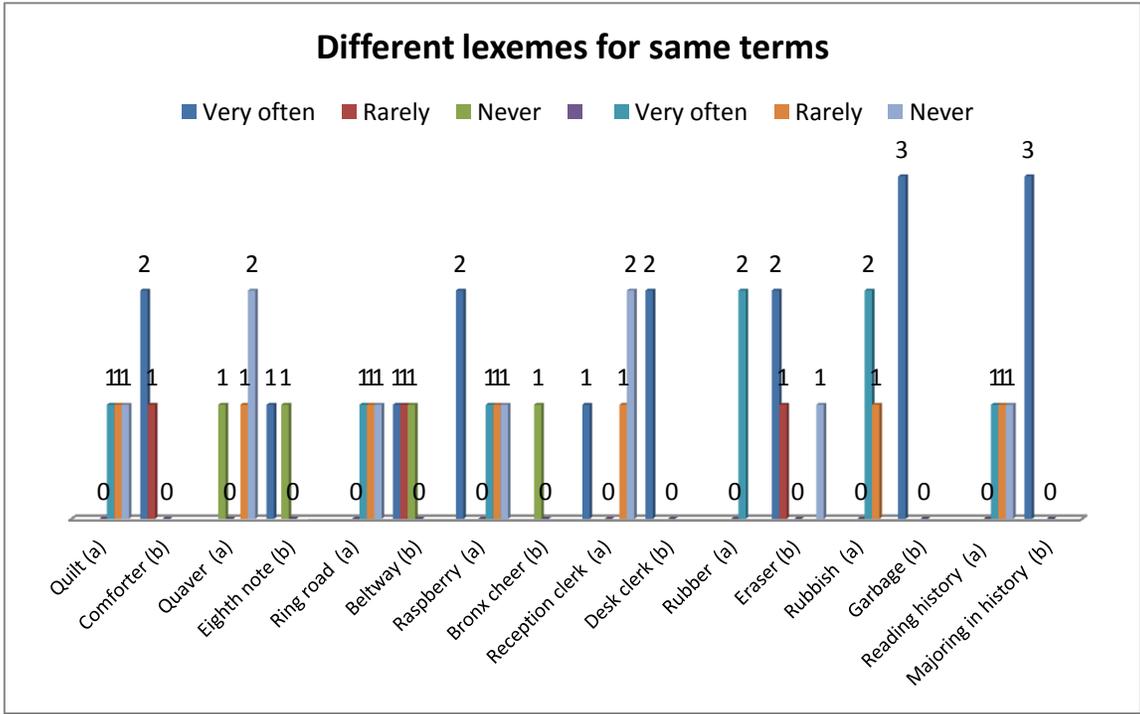


Diagram № 8.1.33

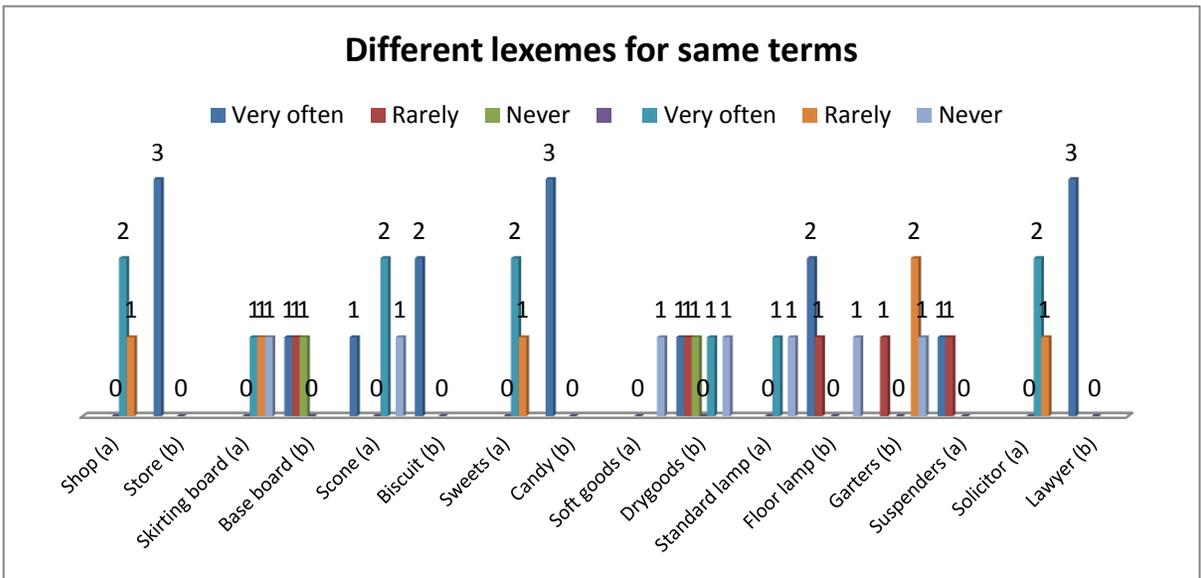
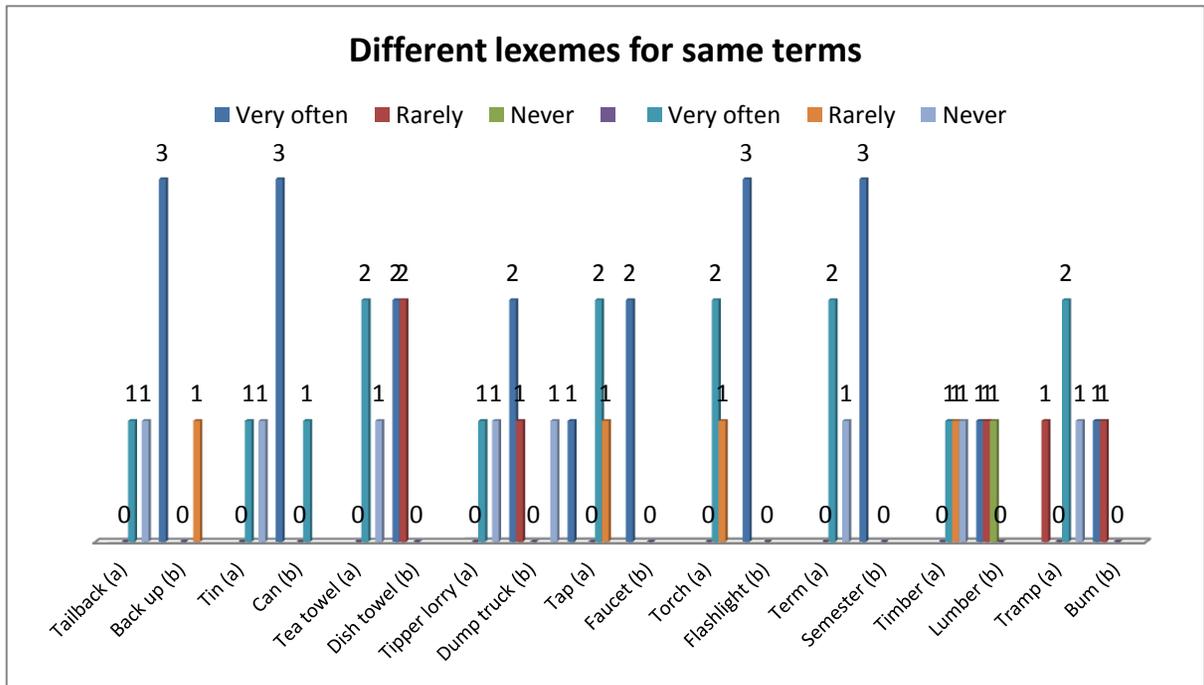
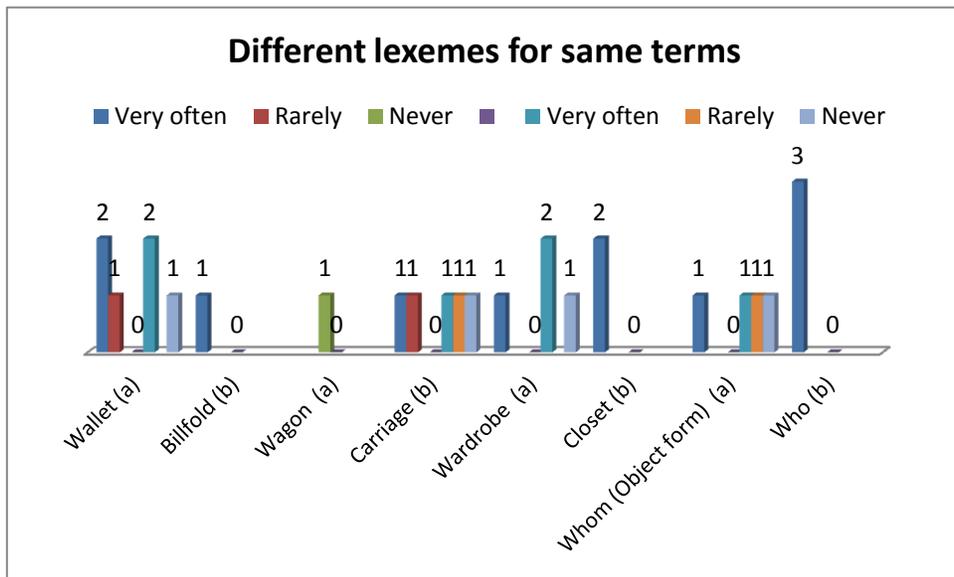


Diagram № 8.1.34



Diagram№ 8.1.35



Diagram№ 8.1.36

8.1.37 Received results according to the questionnaires

Diagram№ 8.1.21

According to the diagram in two cases out of ten, all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , in two cases two native speakers have chosen that option.

Three British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option “very often” in two cases only two of them have chosen the option very often.

Diagram№ 8.1.22

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in three cases all of them have chosen the option “very often”, two of them have chosen the same option in three cases as well . British are represented on the right side and all of them have chosen the “very often” option in two cases, two of them have made the same choice in five cases.

Diagram№ 8.1.23

According to the diagram in two cases out of ten, all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , in six cases.

Three British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “very often” in three cases only two of them have chosen the option “very often”.

Diagram№ 8.1.24

According to the diagram in two cases all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , in two cases two native speakers have chosen that option.

Two British native speakers in three cases have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram№ 8.1.25

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in two cases two of them have chosen the option “very often”, but one of them has chosen the option “rarely” in five cases .

British are represented on the right side and one of them has chosen the “very often” option in five cases, but two of them have made the “rarely” choice in one case and one of them has made the same choice in three cases.

Diagram№ 8.1.26

According to the diagram in one case all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , in four cases two native speakers have chosen that option.

Two British native speakers in three cases have chosen the option “very often” but one of them in four cases has chosen “rarely” as an option.

Diagram№ 8.1.27

According to the diagram in two cases two American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , in six cases one native speaker has chosen that option.

Three British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often”, two of them in two cases have chosen the same option, but two of them in two cases have chosen “never” as an option.

Diagram№ 8.1.28

According to the diagram in one case all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , in three cases two native speakers have chosen that option but two of them have chosen the option “rarely” in 3 cases and one of them has chosen the same option in eight cases.

Two British native speakers in six cases have chosen the option “very often” and one of them in three cases has chosen the same option but all of them in one case have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram№ 8.1.29

According to the diagram in four cases all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , in two cases two native speakers have chosen that option.

Two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “very often” but one of them in six cases has chosen the option “never”.

Diagram№ 8.1.30

According to the diagram in two cases two American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , but two of them have chosen the option “rarely” in two cases and two of them has chosen the option “never” in one case and one of them in two cases has chosen the same option.

Two British native speakers in six cases have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram№ 8.1.31

According to the diagram in two cases all American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” , two of them in two cases have

chosen the same option, but two of them have chosen the option "rarely" in two cases and one of them has chosen the same option in five cases. Two British native speakers in eight cases have chosen the option "very often".

Diagram№ 8.1.32

According to the diagram in two cases all American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option "very often", two of them in four cases have chosen the same option. Two British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option "very often" and only one in four cases has chosen the same option but one of them has chosen the option "rarely in seven cases.

Diagram№ 8.1.33

According to the diagram in three cases all American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option "very often", two of them in two cases have chosen the same option.

Two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option "very often" and only one in three cases has chosen the same option.

Diagram№ 8.1.34

According to the diagram in four cases all American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option "very often", two of them in three cases have chosen the same option.

Two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option "very often" and only one in four cases has chosen the same option.

Diagram№ 8.1.35

According to the diagram in one case all American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option "very often", two of them in two cases have chosen the same option. And one of them has made the same choice in three cases.

Two British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option "very often" and only one in two cases has chosen the same option.

Consequently, three cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support, five case strongly support and six cases partially support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Different lexemes for the same terms* according to the obtained results in the questionnaires can be confirmed as true.

8.2. Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences in meaning

For the next area at this level , **Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences in meaning**, the sources for samples to be taken from are *American English* by Albert H.Marckwardt in 1958, and *Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*.

The total number of words analyzed is 105. Words that were taken from the first book above have already been discussed in the theoretical part while the words from the second were selected randomly from words that are listed with more than one meaning. They are organized in tables where their meanings in British and American English are given. The frequency of these words is checked in the same ways as already mentioned in the previous section, namely, by using the two corpora, BNC and COCA.

Table№ 8.2.1

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
1	anorak	a parka (slang) a socially awkward person obsessively interested in something	hooded, rainproof outerwear that lacks a full-length zipper in the front (UK: cagoule)	190	75
2.	apartment	suite of rooms set aside for a particular person (rare),	usu. rented housing unit in a larger building	1221	1938
3	Bakery	a place where bread and cakes are made	a place where bread and cakes are sold	276	91
4	Bar	Where drinks or food are ordered and paid for in a pub	A place where alcoholic drinks are served	7476	443
5	Bird	a young woman	an animal with feathers that flies	3823	386
6	Bog	the bathroom	wet muddy soft ground	341	7
7	Braces	suspenders, an article of clothing used to hold trousers up	supports on the teeth used to straighten them	178	62
8	Biscuit/bisquit	a cookie	a type of bread that is flaky and buttery	552	6
9	Beaker	drinking vessel without a handle, or one (with or without handles) made of unbreakable plastic for the use of children	flat-bottomed vessel, with a lip, used as a laboratory container.	129	6
10	Bee	a four-winged insect which collects nectar and pollen, produces wax and honey, and lives in large communities	a meeting for communal work or amusement	507	26
11	Bill	invoice; request for payment	a piece of paper money	13244	463
12	boiler (n.)	an old fowl best cooked by boiling	device (usu. oil or gas-fired) for heating water for central heating or hot water	664	5
13	Boss	the person you report to at work	cool, totally awesome	3087	15
14	brilliant	excellent, of the highest quality (rarely sarcastic)	very bright (of a light or a brain)	3332	222

15	bureau	a type of writing table	a public office or government agency	1415	303
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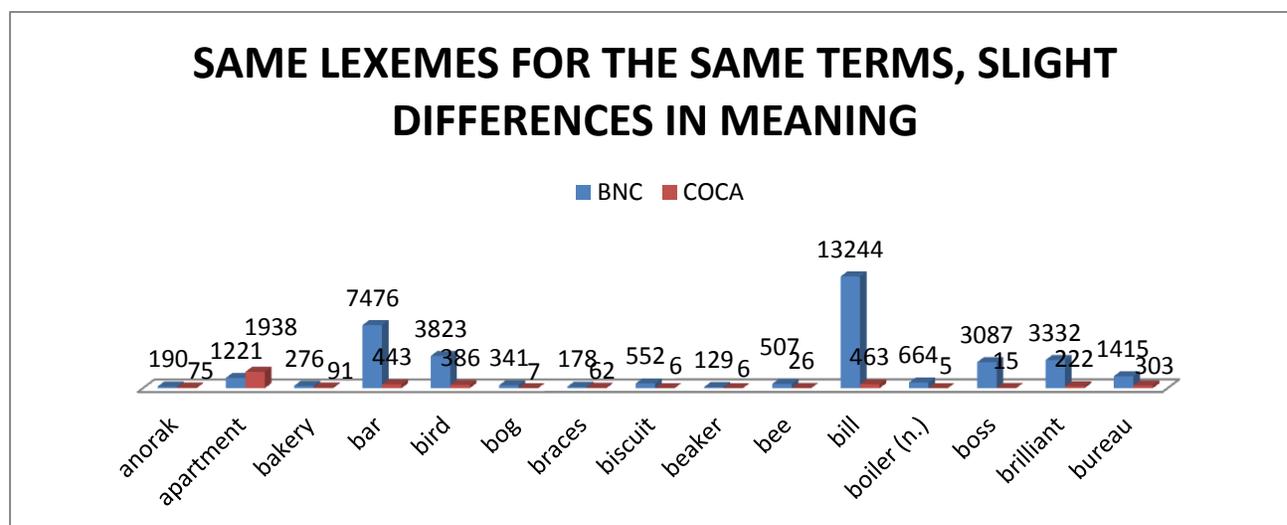


Diagram № 8.2.1

Fourteen samples out of fifteen are more frequent in BNC than in COCA

Table № 8.2.2

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
16	checkers	a game for two people, each with twelve circular pieces which they move on a board with black and white squares	A game for two players using round pieces	22	37
17	cookie	A chocolate chip cookie	A small flat sweet dry cake	79	149
18	cheerio	goodbye (old-fashioned)	Exclamation	220	7
19	caravan	towed recreational vehicle containing accommodation	a type of minivan sold in the United States	950	14
20	chips	potatoes cut into thin/thick pieces cooked in hot oil	thin flat crisp pieces of food made from crushed maize	1789	153
21	cookery	The art or skill of cooking	Recipe	473	4
22	corn	the seeds of plants, such as wheat , maize , oats and barley that can be used to produce flour	the seeds of the maize plant, or the plant itself	1162	123
23	college	part of the name of some state secondary schools educational institution between school and university	an independent institution of higher education (as a small university or a division of a university) granting bachelor's degrees	10094	3563
24	Coach	a bus taking passengers outside the local area a person who teaches or trains, for example, athletes	a person who teaches or trains athletes	3317	1303

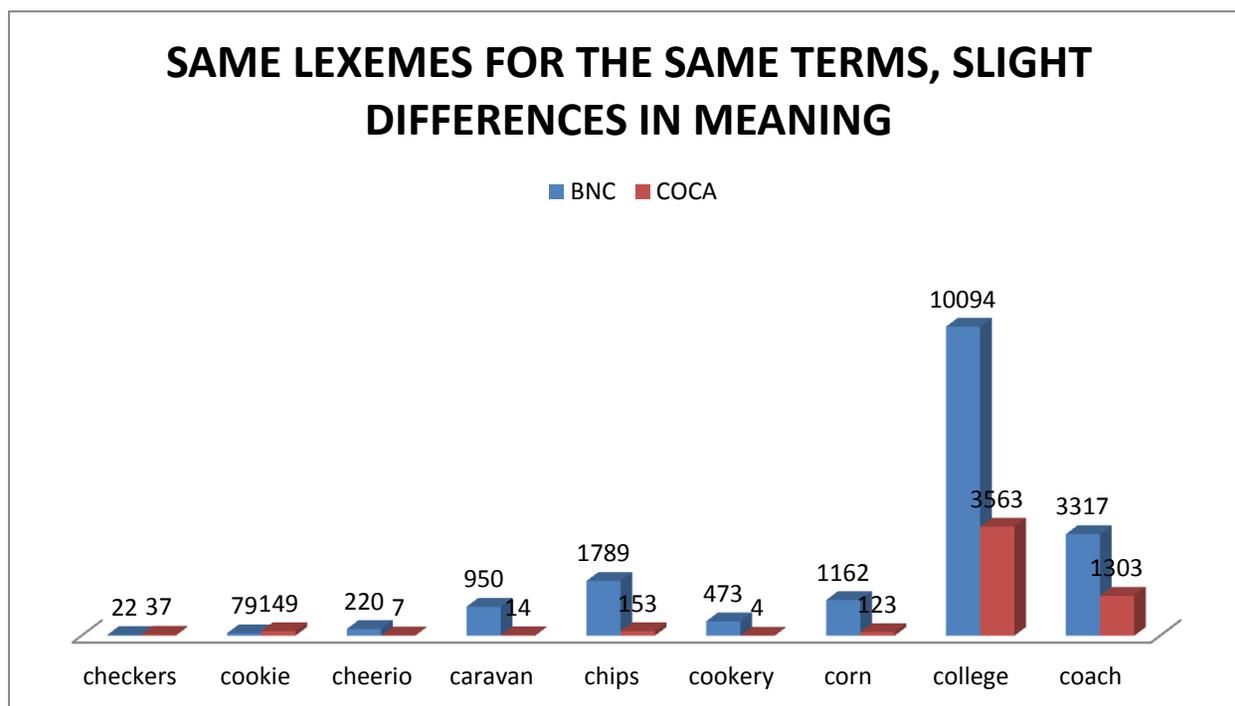


Diagram № 8.2.2

Seven samples out of nine are more frequent in BNC than in COCA

Table № 8.2.3

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
25	can (n.)	small metal container mainly for drinks	can (v.): to fire someone from a job	229823	149
26	campsite (n.)	area or park for people to camp in (US: <i>campground</i>)	spot for a particular person or group to camp, often within a campground	104	4
27	carnival	the festive days just preceding Lent	a travelling circus or fair	331	23
28	carriage	railway coach (q.v.) designed for the conveyance of passengers the conveying of goods or the price paid for it	baby transport vehicle featuring the infant lying down facing the pusher	1888	175
29	check	examine for a particular purpose a pattern of coloured squares, a warning given in chess	leave items in the care of someone else (e.g. at a cloakroom; hence <i>checkroom</i>)	6989	133
30	chemist	pharmacist, pharmacy	student or researcher of chemistry	688	55
31	city	a large town, in particular a town created a city by charter and containing a cathedral	a usually large or important municipality governed under a charter granted by the state	22393	200715
32	clerk	administrative worker	store or shop worker	1885	6355

33	collect	to win a bet (from the idea of picking up the winnings)	to gather together, to pick up	2738	10524
34	cooker	an appliance for cooking food	a person who cooks	522	903
35	course	the entire degree programme a student takes at university	an individual subject a student takes at university	48664	163865
36	cracker	small parcel that makes an explosive report when pulled from both ends, traditionally pulled at Christmas, attractive woman (slang), anything good ("the new product is a cracker") (slang)	a person who commits illegal acts by exploiting security flaws in a computer system	169	1086
37	cricket	a bat-and-ball sport contested by two teams	an insect, similar in appearance to grasshoppers	3178	1444

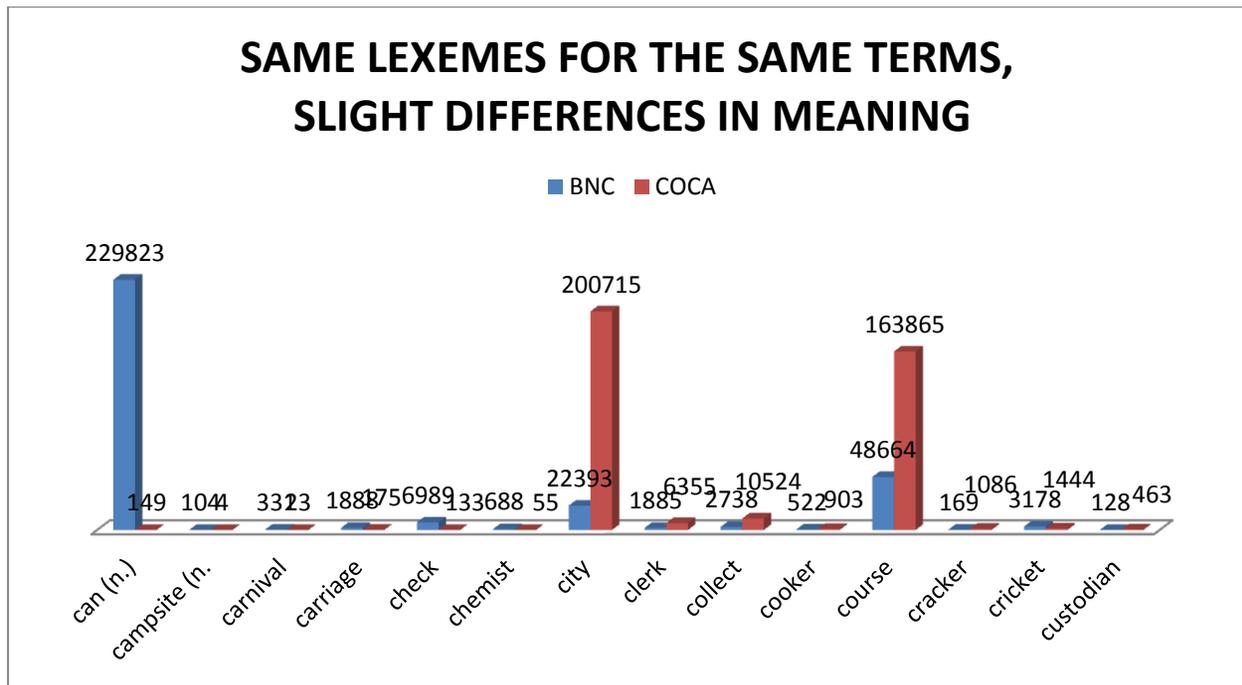


Diagram № 8.2.3

Eleven out of fourteen samples are more frequent in BNC than in COCA.

Table № 8.2.4

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
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39	draughts	a game for two people, each with twelve circular pieces which they move on a board with black and white squares	A game for two players using round pieces	151	61
40	doctor	WRITTEN ABBREVIATION Dr a person with a medical degree (= university qualification) whose job is to treat people who are ill or hurt	(WRITTEN ABBREVIATION Dr) a person who has the highest degree (= qualification) from a college or university	10066	45952
41	dinner	sometimes, in Britain, the meal eaten in the middle of the day	the main meal of the day, usually the meal you eat in the evening	5858	39942
42	drawing room	a comfortable room in a large house used for relaxing or for entertaining guests	Sitting room	263	594
43	dummy	a pacifier, a small piece of rubber that babies suck on	a model or replica of a human being	431	1442
44	deck	the floor or level of a ship or other types of vehicles	a wooden, raised platform adjoining a house, us. enclosed by a railing	1388	11991
45	diary	personal calendar *(US: <i>appointment book</i> ,	personal journal	1919	5041
46	dirt	substance(s) rendering something unclean incriminating evidence ("we've got the dirt on him now")	earth, soil	954	13863
47	dormitory	<u>a town where commuters live, usually</u>	building with many small private rooms, as for housing the students of a college	151	972
48	dresser	a type of cupboard or sideboard esp. for kitchen utensils	a chest of drawers, usu. with a looking glass (mirror) (UK: <i>dressing-table</i>)	273	2348

SAME LEXEMES FOR SAME THE TERMS, SLIGHT DIFFERENCES IN MEANING

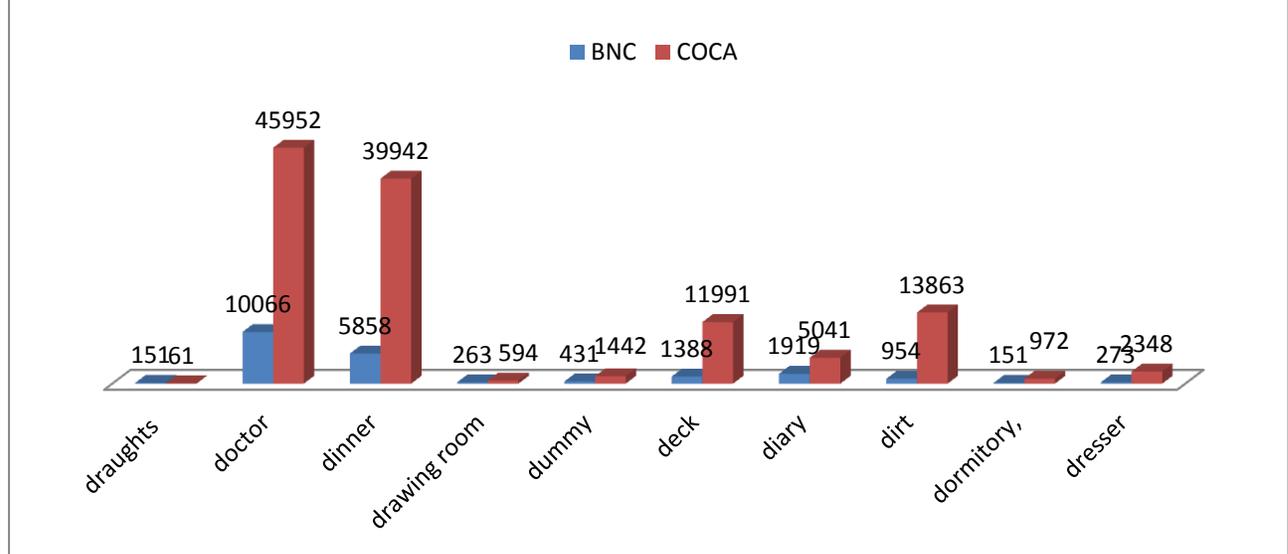


Diagram № 8.2.4

Eight samples out of ten are more frequent in COCA than in BNC

Table № 8.2.5

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
49	elevator	flap on the back of an aeroplane used to control pitch moving belt to transport grain, hay bales, etc.	platform or cage moved vertically in a shaft to transport people and goods to various floors in a building	190	6974
50	engineer	a person who mends and operates machinery	one who operates an engine, esp. a locomotive (UK: <i>engine driver</i>)	2199	9956
51	estate	any defined area of real property, as in housing estate/council estate; a car for up to 5 people, with a large hold for things at the back	grounds of a large piece of real property which features a mansion and beautiful landscaping, property left by a deceased person	5273	21718
52	flat	(n.) self-contained housing unit	(n.) a flat tyre/tire, an apartment that occupies the entire floor of a small building (upstate New York and San Francisco); used also in phrases such as <i>railroad flat</i>	8069	22537
53	flannel	a washcloth or a small towel	a type of material made of wool or cotton that is often used to make warm shirts	194	1261

			or pyjamas		
54	football	soccer	the American football game	6536	29324
55	fall	to become pregnant. (as in 'I fell pregnant');	Autumn	10713	67561
56	filth	<i>the filth</i>) the police (derogatory slang)	dirt, disgusting substance, obscene material	254	774
57	fix (v.)	to make firm, fasten, or attach *(the original sense, no longer very common in US) to set or arrange (as a date) *("A time has been fixed")	to repair (orig. US) to sterilise (an animal) to manipulate usually underhandedly ("To fix a fight by paying a boxer to take a dive.")	1392	14901
58	faculty	division of a university, dealing with a specific group of disciplines (e.g. faculty of arts)	academic staff of a school, college or university	1236	22059

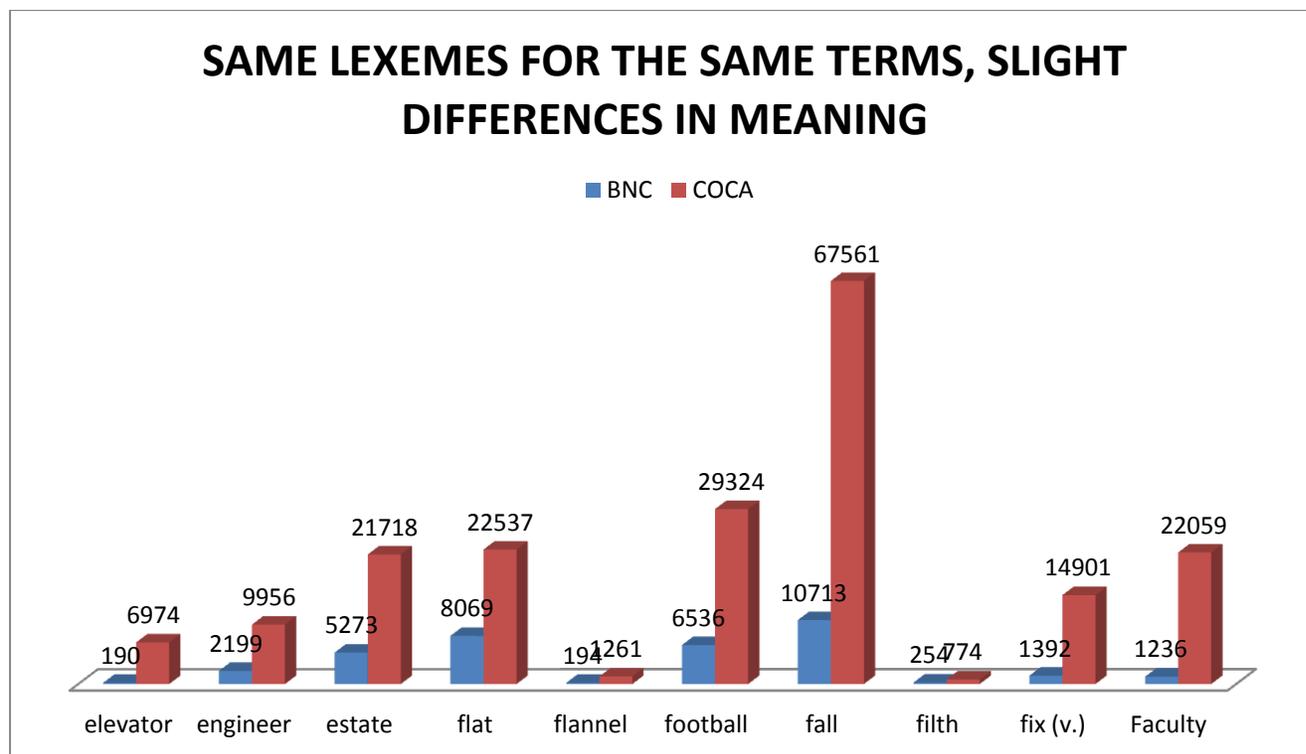


Diagram № 8.2.5

All ten samples are more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.2.6

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
59	goods	items to be transported (as by railway) ("a goods train") (US & UK also: <i>freight</i>)	useful objects or services; products; merchandising; personal property incriminating evidence	9928	17012
60	government	the cabinet or executive branch (US: the <i>administration</i>) <u>the political party supporting the cabinet in parliament</u>	the collective agency through which government is exercised (UK: the <i>state</i>) all such individual agencies (UK: the <i>public sector</i>)	59998	201064
61	grade (education)	a level of [music] examination	level or year of a student in elementary, middle, or high school	2255	24817
62	grass	an informant	green ground cover	3947	18363
63	grammar school	a type of secondary school, normally a selective state funded school	elementary school (less common today)	567	330
64	howdy	<u>Warm welcome</u>	Informal hello	6	430
65	haul	to pull something heavy slowly and with difficulty	To try to hit someone very hard	589	3872
66	hooker	a rugby player (the name of a specific position on a rugby team)	a prostitute, a woman who sells sex	389	1436
67	hamper	small basket with a lid that is used for picnicking	a large basket with a lid used for laundry	184	882
68	half	half a pint of beer, cider or lager	fifty percent/0.5 times.	29116	108986
69	hire	to rent moveable property	<u>a person who is recruited</u>	1664	9941
70	hockey	hockey played with a ball on grass (<i>field hockey</i>)	hockey played on ice with a puck (<i>ice hockey</i>)	593	6858
71	holiday	<i>Bank holiday</i> (often pl.) time taken off from work, school, etc., including the period between school terms	see <i>Federal holidays in the United States (the Holidays)</i> the days comprising Christmas and New Year's Day (and Hanukkah), and often also Thanksgiving (used esp. in the phrase "happy Holidays")	7437	16448

SAME LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS, SLIGHT DIFFERENCES IN MEANING

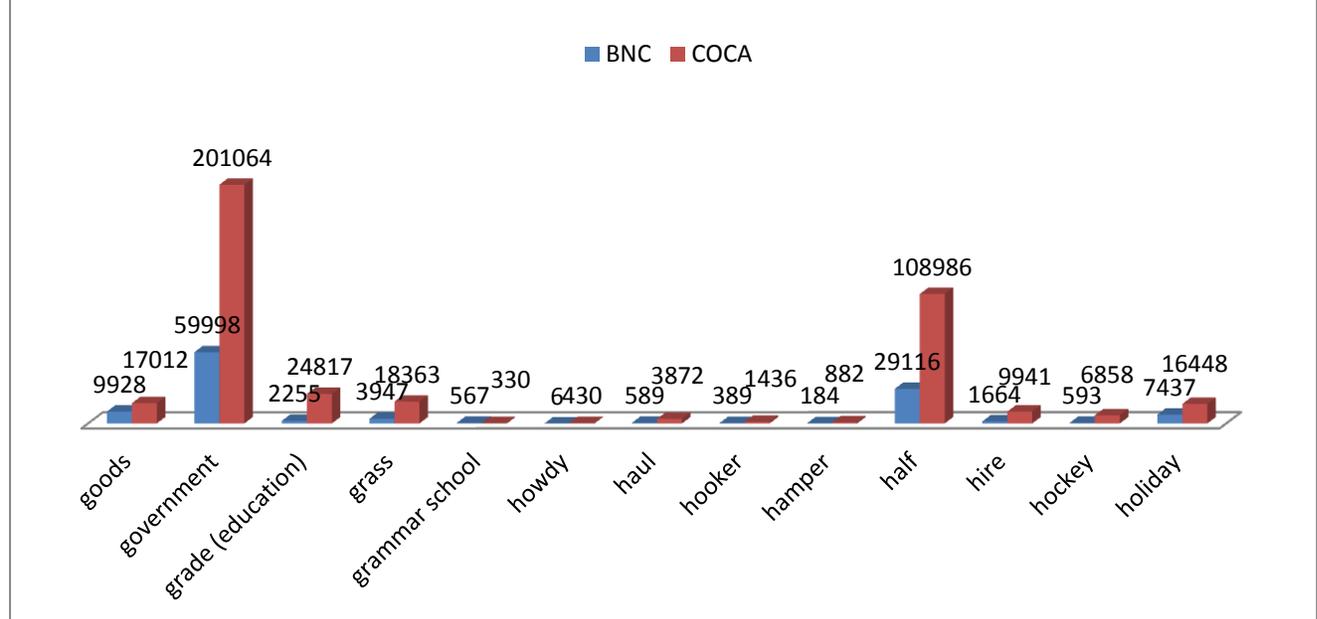


Diagram № 8.2.6

Eleven samples out of thirteen are more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.2.7

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
72	jack	to stop doing something (a very rare meaning for this verb)	Informal to waste someone's time	5474	42936
73	jumper	a sweater	a person about to jump, often associated with a person about to commit suicide by jumping off something far off the ground	506	1331
74	janitor	an officer in a Masonic Chapter (specialist language)	a person employed to oversee the cleaning and security of a building	228	977
75	jelly	a fruit flavoured dessert set with gelatine	fruit preserve with fruit pieces	486	2751
76	joint	piece of meat for carving, (slang) hand-rolled cigarette containing cannabis	(slang) hand-rolled cigarette containing only cannabis (slang) prison ("in the joint")	6822	19145
77	jug	any container with a handle and a mouth or spout for liquid	large container with a narrow mouth and handle for liquids	517	1277
78	loan	to lend something valuable to someone	To lend something especially money	3725	13290

79	lumber	to move slowly and awkwardly	wood that has been prepared for building	63	3153
80	lift	(n) an elevator	(v) to pick up or raise	4116	15101
81	leader	newspaper editorial main violin in an orchestra (US: <i>concertmaster</i>) see also Leader of the Opposition	a pipe for carrying water ("rain water leader")	8806	43494
82	lemonade	clear, carbonated, lemon-flavoured drink similar to Sprite and 7 Up	non-carbonated drink made by mixing lemon juice, sugar, and water (UK: <i>traditional lemonade</i>)	212	1363
83	liquor	the broth resulting from the prolonged cooking of meat or vegetables. Green liquor is traditionally served with pie and mash in the East End of London	(<i>hard liquor</i>) strongly alcoholic beverage	417	4313
84	lounge	a room for relaxation and entertainment in a house (<i>lounge bar</i>) part of a pub	a bar	1360	4102

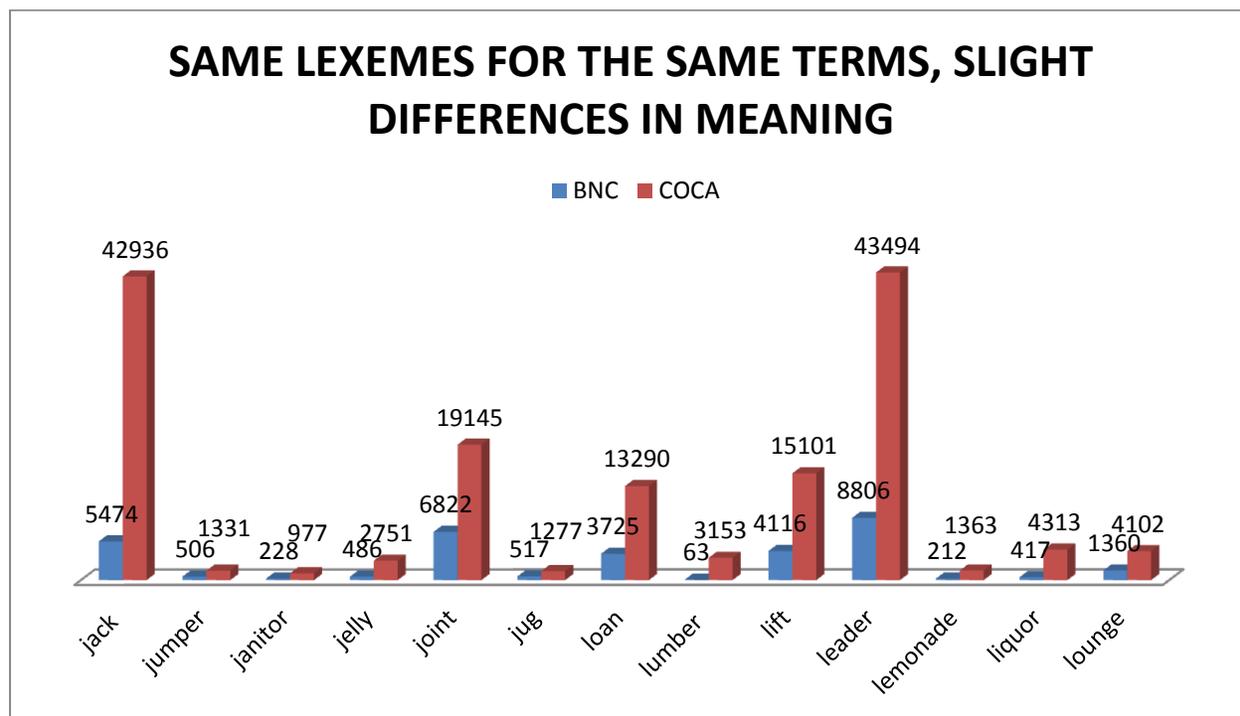


Diagram № 8.2.7

All samples are more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.2.8

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
85	mail	The letters and packages that are delivered	System of collecting and delivering letters and packages	3294	154111
86	pie	Meat or vegetables baked inside a pastry or potato covering	Fruit baked inside a pastry covering	1079	8916
87	politician	a member of a government or law-making organization	Someone who is skilled at dealing with people	1034	6088
88	public house	pub (formal use)	council housing	264	81
89	professor	a teacher of the highest rank in a department of a British university	teacher of high rank in an American university or college	4887	46386
90	Parlo(u)r	a shop which provides a stated type of personal service	sells a stated product	8	3086
91	pants	underpants, underwear	trousers, long pants	536	13798
92	rubber	an eraser	a condom	1530	11
93	student	Young person at school	Generally accepted at all levels	7510	79689
94	stomach	organ in the body where food is digested	the soft front part of your body just below the chest	2851	14736
95	soap opera	a series of television or radio programmes about the lives and problems of a particular group of characters.	The series continues over a long period and is broadcast (several times) every week	118	1075
96	saloon	a car with seats for four or five people, [two or] four doors, and a separate section at the back for bags, boxes and cases	a public bar, especially in the past in the western United States	537	1246
97	supper	a small meal eaten in the late evening for some people, dinner (evening meal)	a main meal eaten in the evening	1390	4650
98	shag	sexual intercourse (a slang word)	a type of carpet with long yarn pieces	102	488

SAME LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS, SLIGHT DIFFERENCES IN MEANING

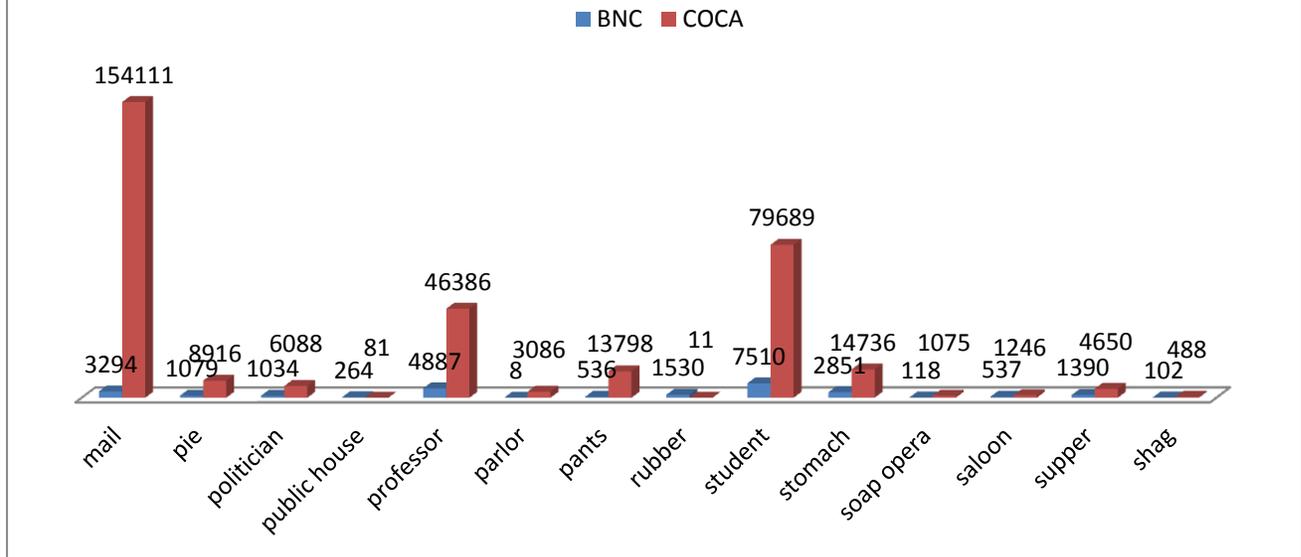


Diagram № 8.2.8

Twelve out of fourteen samples are more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.2.9

№	Term	Meaning 1 (British)	Meaning 2 (American)	BNC	COCA
99	trendy	Someone who tries hard to be fashionable –used to show disapproval	modern and influenced by the most recent fashions or ideas	232	1747
100	tariff	A list of fixed prices charged by a hotel or a restaurant	a charge or list of charges either for services or on goods entering a country	657	1011
101	tavern	Old use for <i>pub</i> where you can stay over night	a place where alcohol is sold and drunk	367	2212
102	Trainer(s)	tennis shoes or running shoes	person who trains people or animals, such as a gym trainer	1035	4816
103	trolley	a cart with wheels	a vehicle that runs on tracks and is powered by an electric cable	676	1016
104	university	collection of colleges at which people study for a degree	An educational institution at the highest level	16204	146052
105	vest	an undershirt	a close-fitting sweater with no sleeves or collar that is usually worn over another shirt	14	2696

SAME LEXEMES FOR THE SAME TERMS, SLIGHT DIFFERENCES IN MEANING

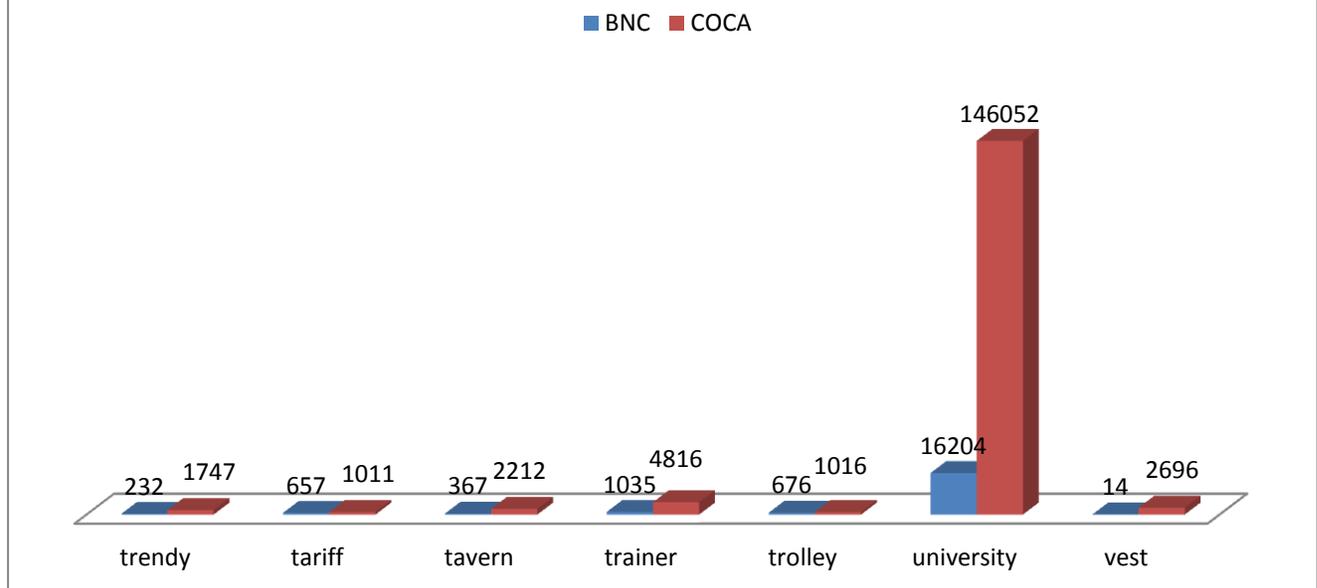


Diagram № 8.2.9

Seven samples out of nine are more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

8.2.10 Same lexemes for same terms slight differences in meaning-results

The frequency-based results are the following:

Diagram 8.2.1: fourteen samples out of fifteen are more frequent in BNC [than in COCA]

Diagram 8.2.2: seven samples out of nine are more frequent in BNC [than in COCA]

Diagram 8.2.3: eleven samples out of fourteen are more frequent in BNC [than in COCA]

Diagram 8.2.4: eight samples out of ten are more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.2.5: all ten samples are more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.2.6: eleven samples out of thirteen are more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.2.7: all thirteen samples are more frequent in COCA, [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.2.8: twelve samples out of fourteen are more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.2.9: seven samples out of nine are more frequent in COCA [than in BNC].

As can be seen from the diagrams, eighteen cases can be found which fully support the checking of the hypothesis within this area (Diagrams 8.2.1, 8.2.2, 8.2.5, 8.2.7, 8.2.8 and 8.2.9) further three strongly support it (Diagrams 8.2.3, 8.2.4 and 8.2.6). Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis *Same lexemes for the same terms with slight differences in meaning* can be confirmed as true.

The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the words comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

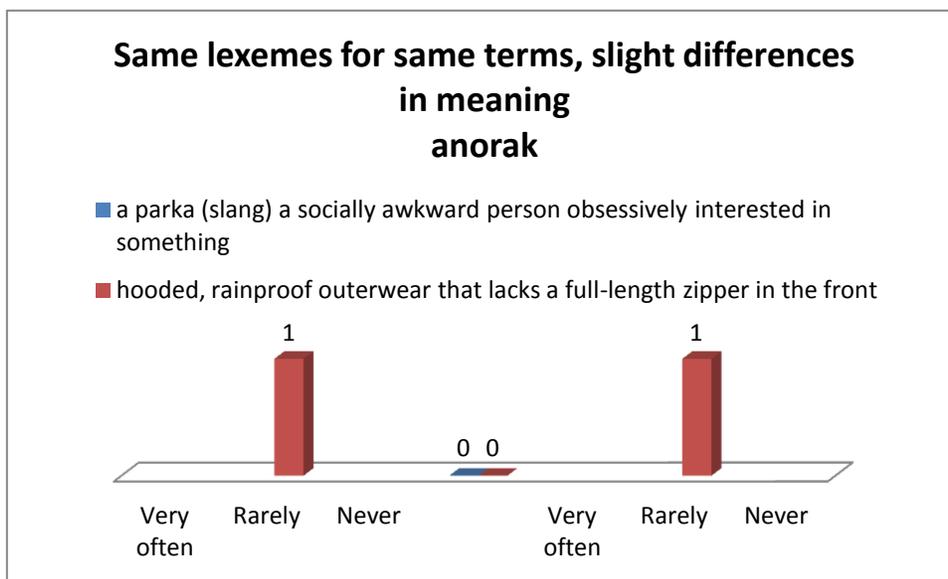
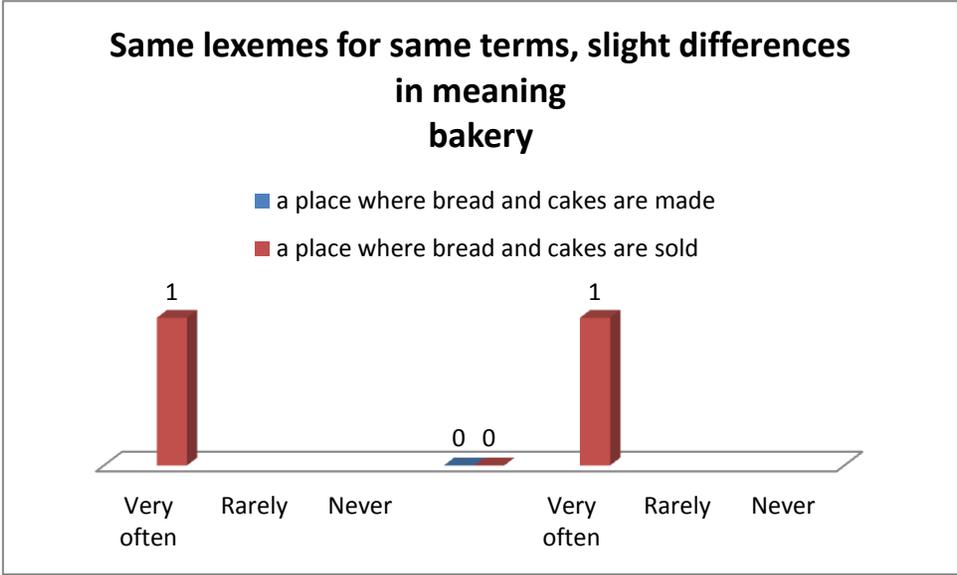
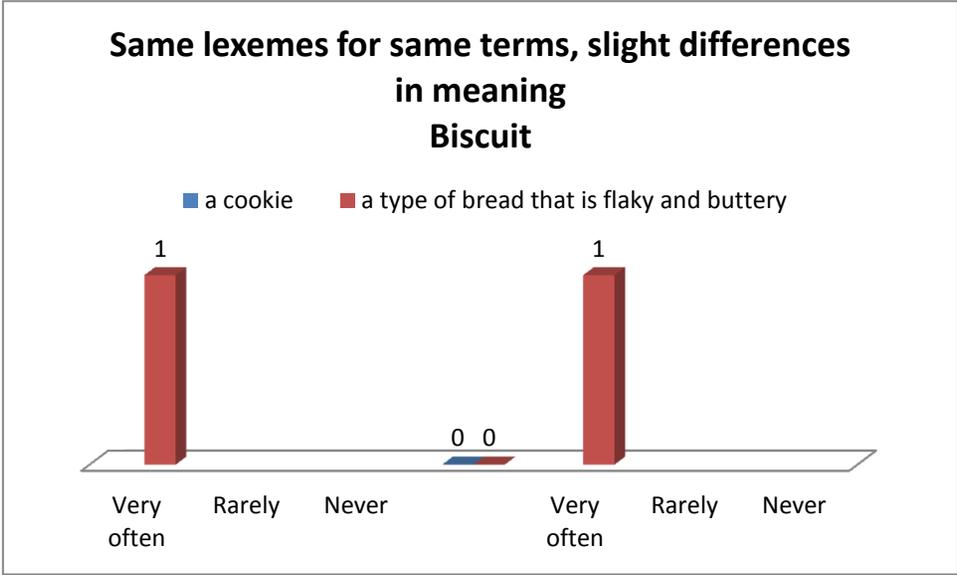


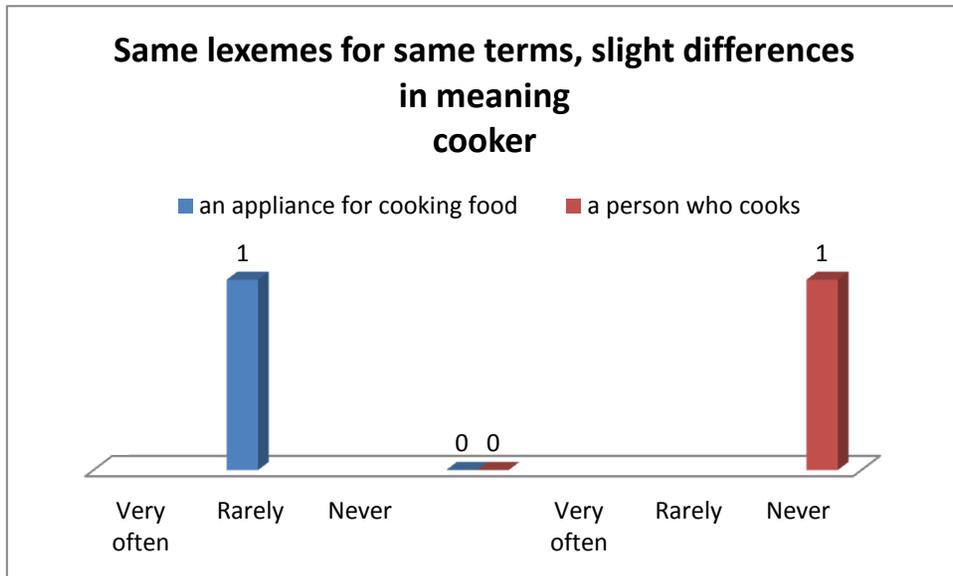
Diagram № 8.2.10



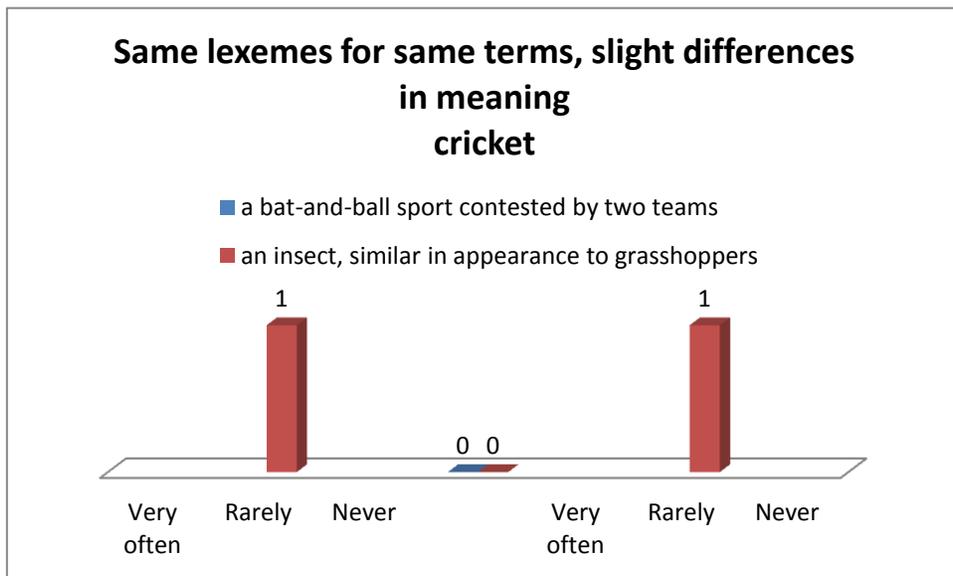
Diagram№ 8.2.11



Diagram№ 8.2.12



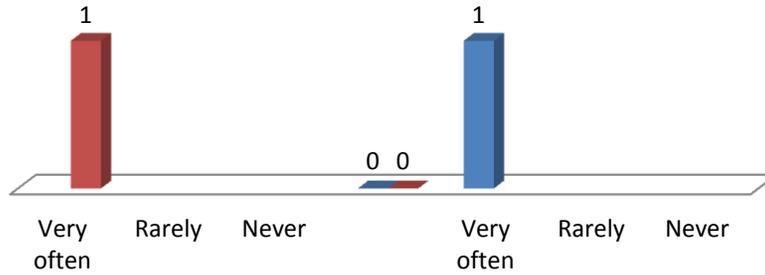
Diagram№ 8.2.13



Diagram№ 8.2.14

**Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences
in meaning
dinner**

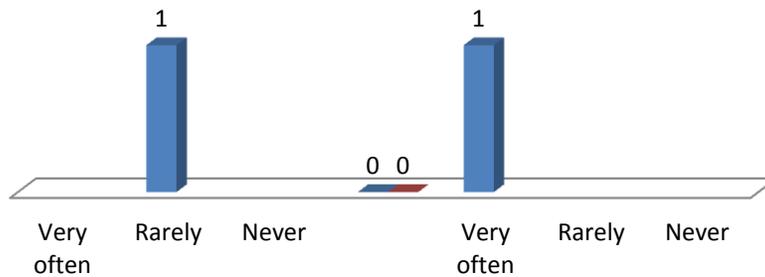
- sometimes, the meal eaten in the middle of the day, but us. in the evening
- the main meal of the day, usually the meal you eat in the evening



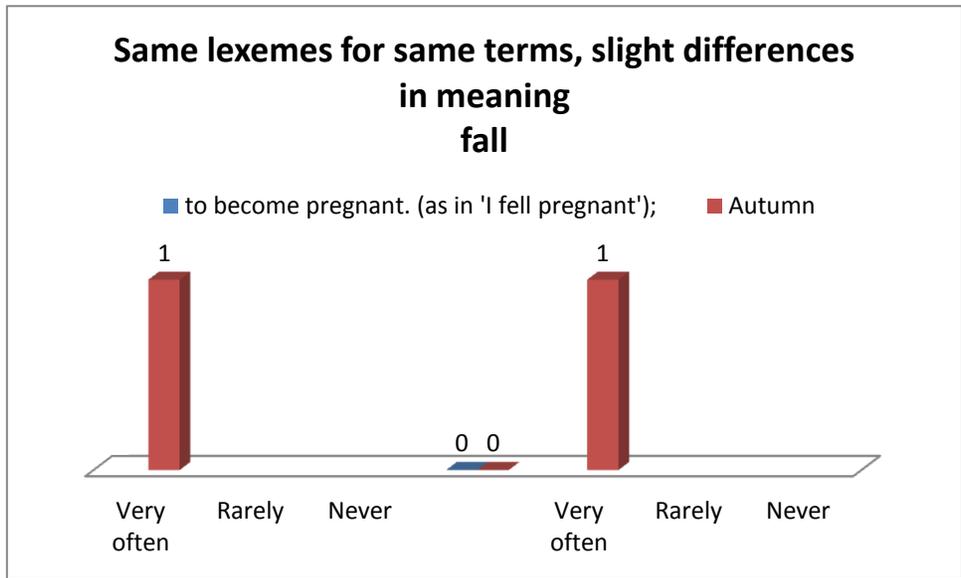
Diagram№ 8.2.15

**Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences
in meaning
engineer**

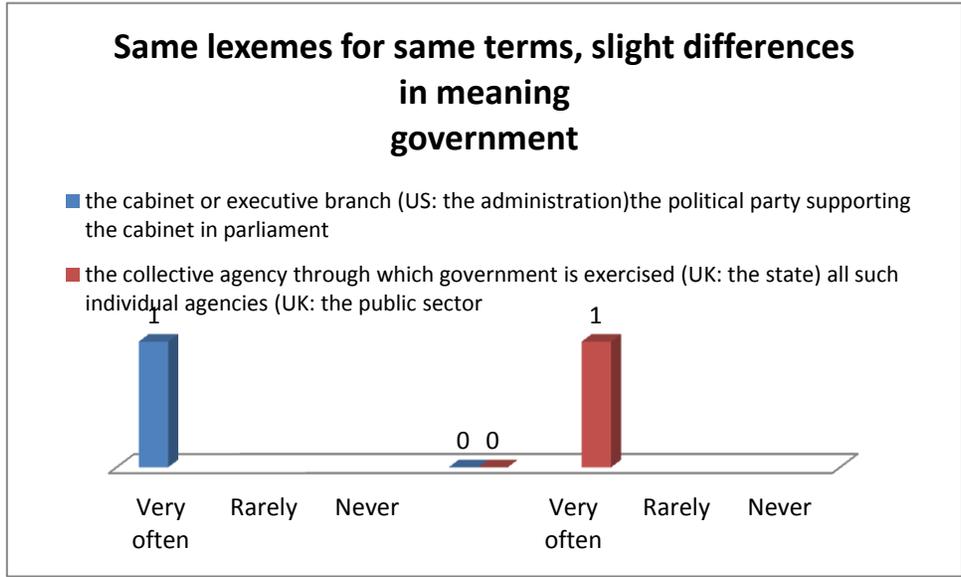
- a person who mends and operates machinery
- one who operates an engine, esp. a locomotive (UK: engine driver)



Diagram№ 8.2.16



Diagram№ 8.2.17



Diagram№ 8.2.18

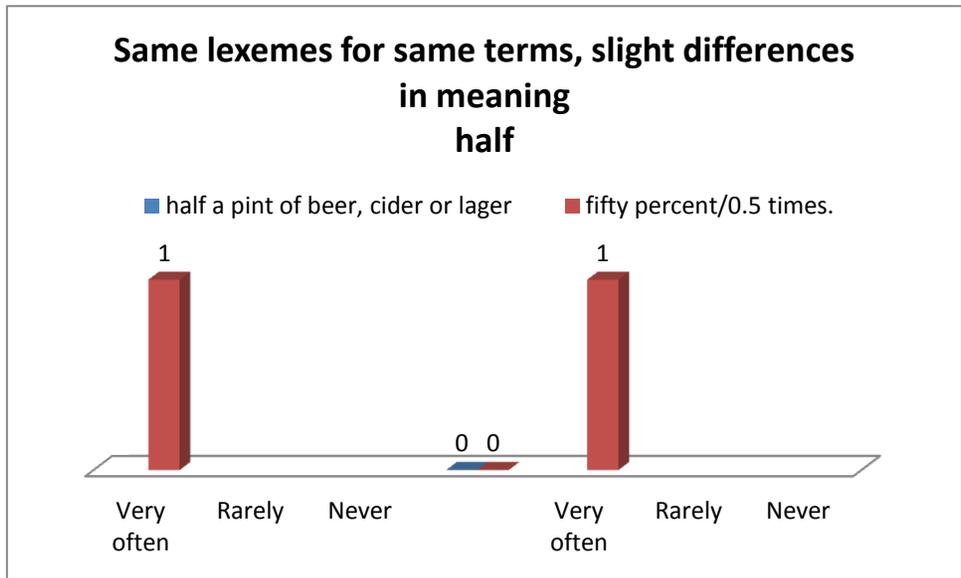


Diagram № 8.2.19

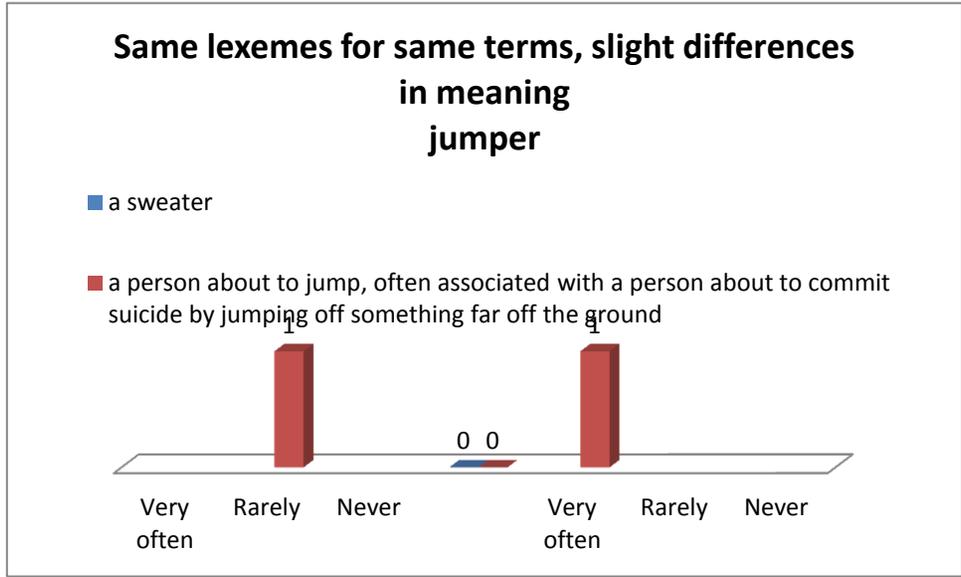
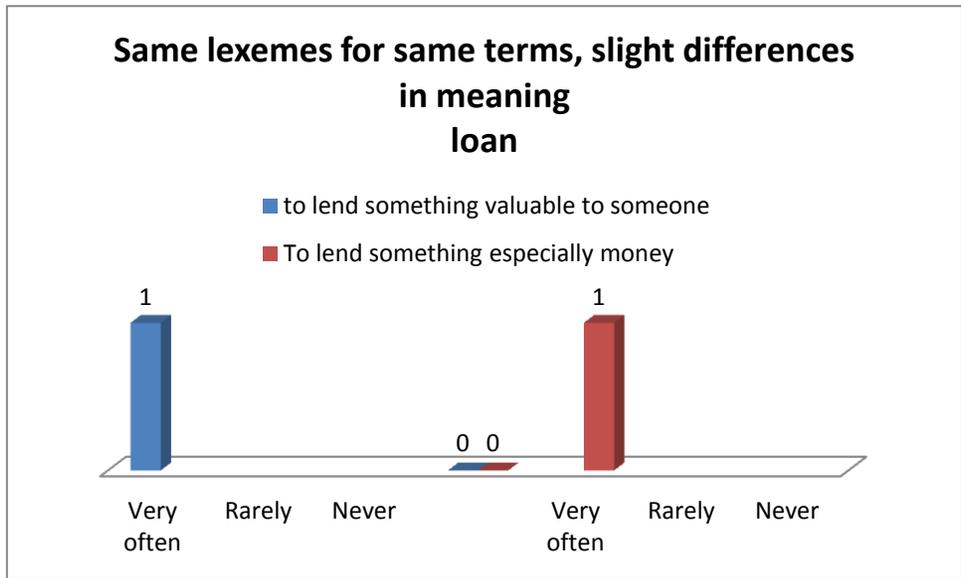
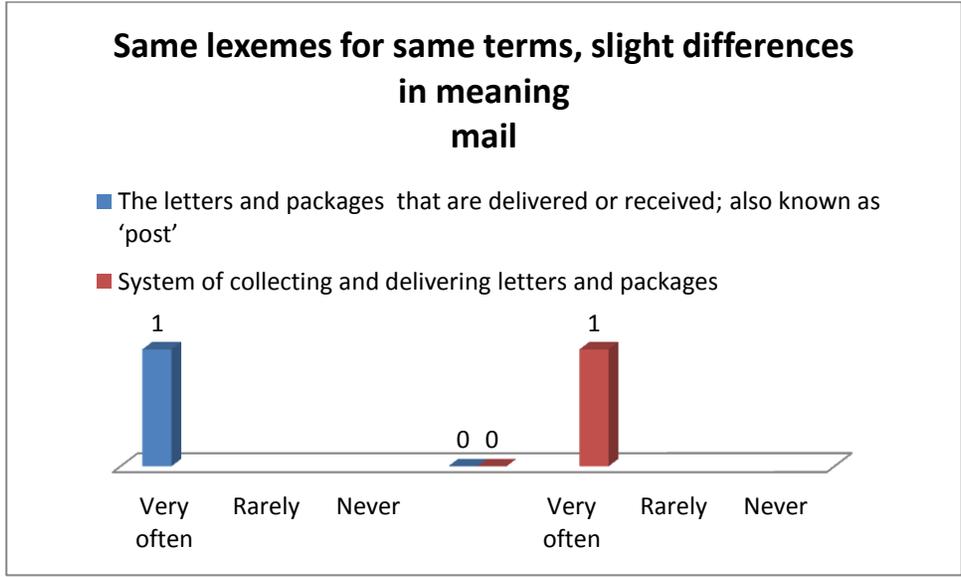


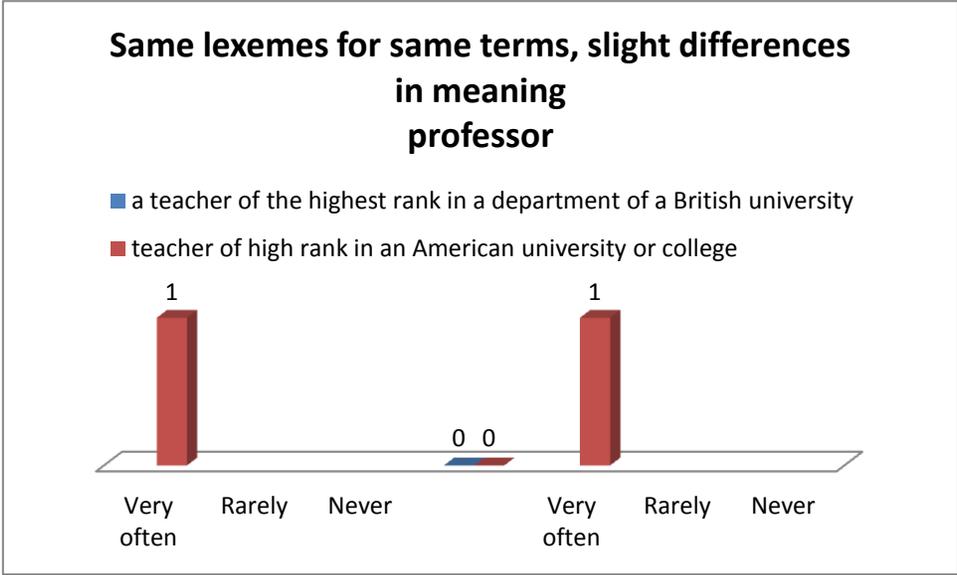
Diagram № 8.2.20



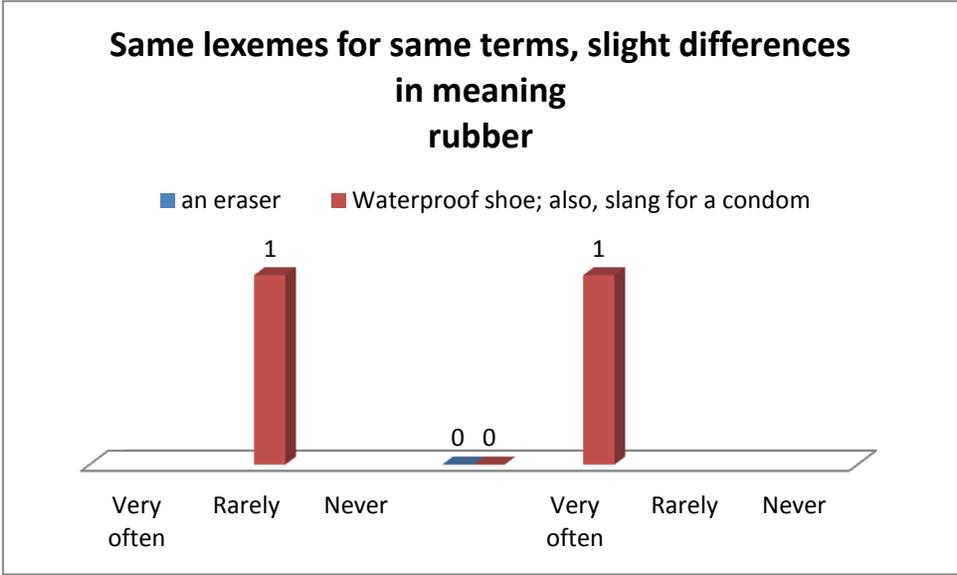
Diagram№ 8.2.21



Diagram№ 8.2.22



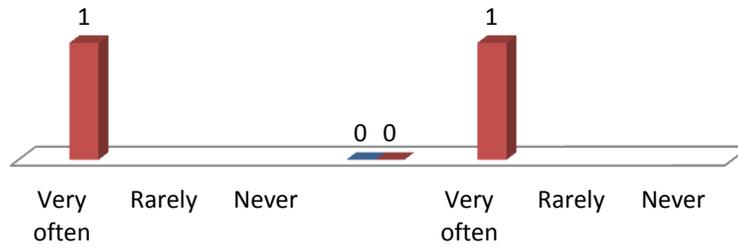
Diagram№ 8.2.23



Diagram№ 8.2.24

**Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences
in meaning
supper**

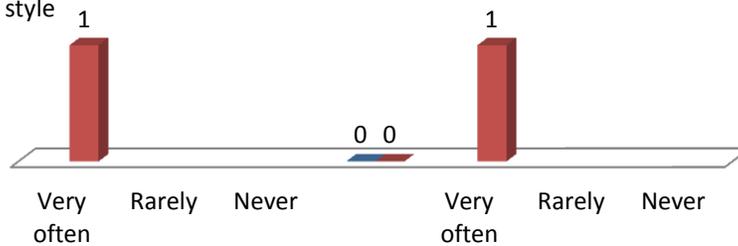
- a small meal eaten in the late evening for some people, dinner (evening meal)
- a main meal eaten in the evening



Diagram№ 8.2.25

**Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences
in meaning
trendy**

- modern and influenced by the most recent fashions or ideas
- influenced by or expressing the most recent fashions or ideas, modern in style



Diagram№ 8.2.26

**Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences
in meaning
tavern**



Diagram № 8.2.27

**Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences
in meaning
university**

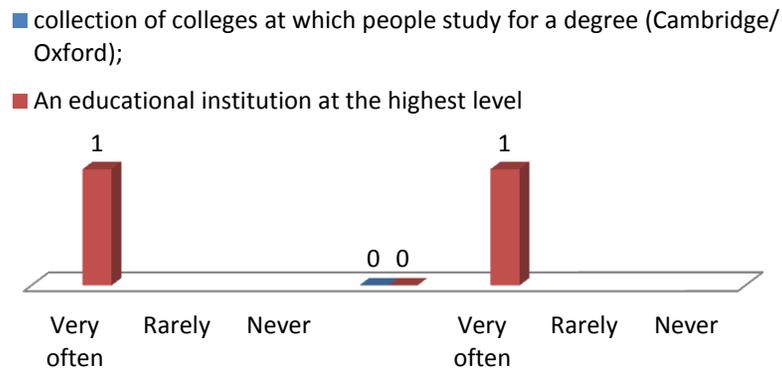
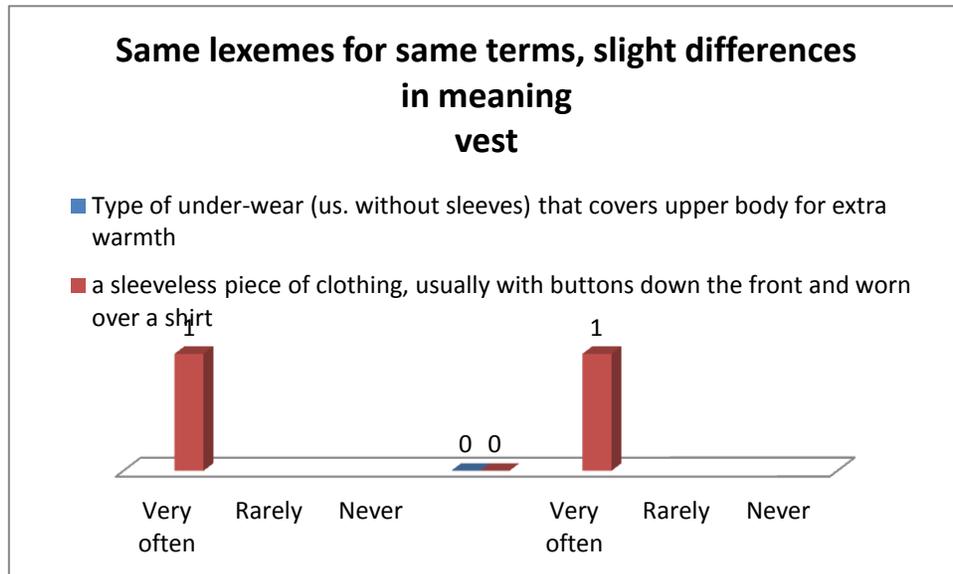


Diagram № 8.2.28



Diagram№ 8.2.29

8.2.30 Received results according to the questionnaires

Diagram№ 8.2.10

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.11

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.12

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.13

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the British meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “never” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.14

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.15

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the British meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.16

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the British meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the British meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.17

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.18

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the British meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.19

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.20

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.21

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the British meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.22

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the British meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.23

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.24

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “rarely” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.25

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.26

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.27

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “never” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.28

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Diagram№ 8.2.29

According to the diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning. The British native speaker has chosen the option “very often” for the American meaning.

Consequently, three cases strongly support twelve cases partially support and two cases do not support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Same lexemes for the same terms with slight differences* in meaning can be confirmed as true.

8.3 Same lexemes, differences in style, connotation and frequency

Same lexemes with differences in style, connotation and frequency, which were found and confirmed in the theoretical part, are given in tables and their frequency checked in both BNC and COCA. The results for the hypothesis checked in this category are given at the end of this analysis of this section.

Table № 8.3.

№	Terms or expressions		BNC	COCA
	British	American		
1	hire a car	rent a car	5.33/0.19	/0.03
2	hire-purchase	instalment plan		
3	Petrol	Gasoline	35.23/0.05	0.04/23.87
4	Saloon	Sedan	11.90/0.08	0.47/2.13
5	estate car	station wagon	1.71/0.58	/0.00
6	Boot	Trunk	1.98/0.51	0.89/1.12
7	silencer	Muffler	2.93/0.34	0.55/1.83
8	fortnight	two weeks		
9	goods train	freight train	0.57/1.76	/0.01

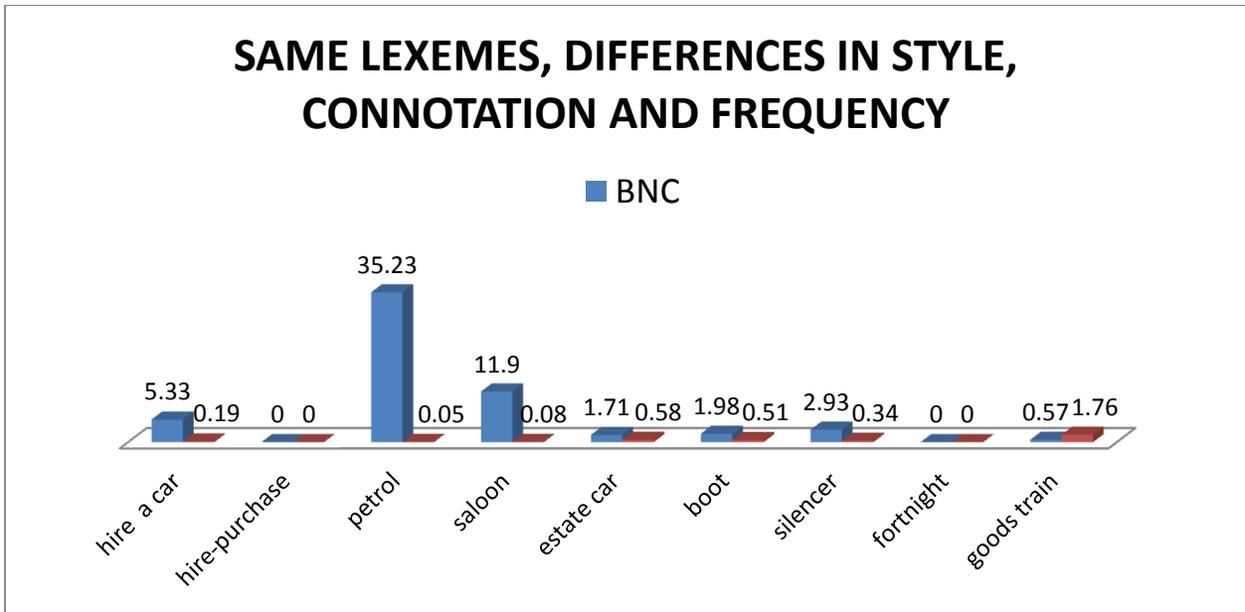


Diagram № 8.3.1a

Six out of nine British samples are more frequent than the American ones, two are not found, while one American sample is more frequent.

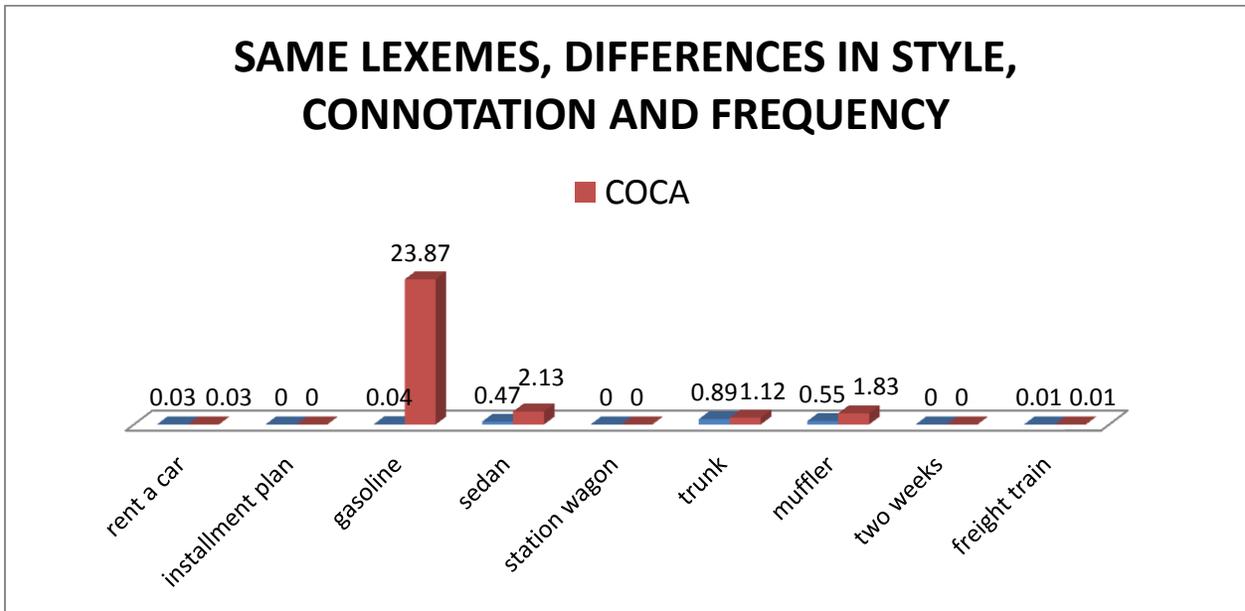
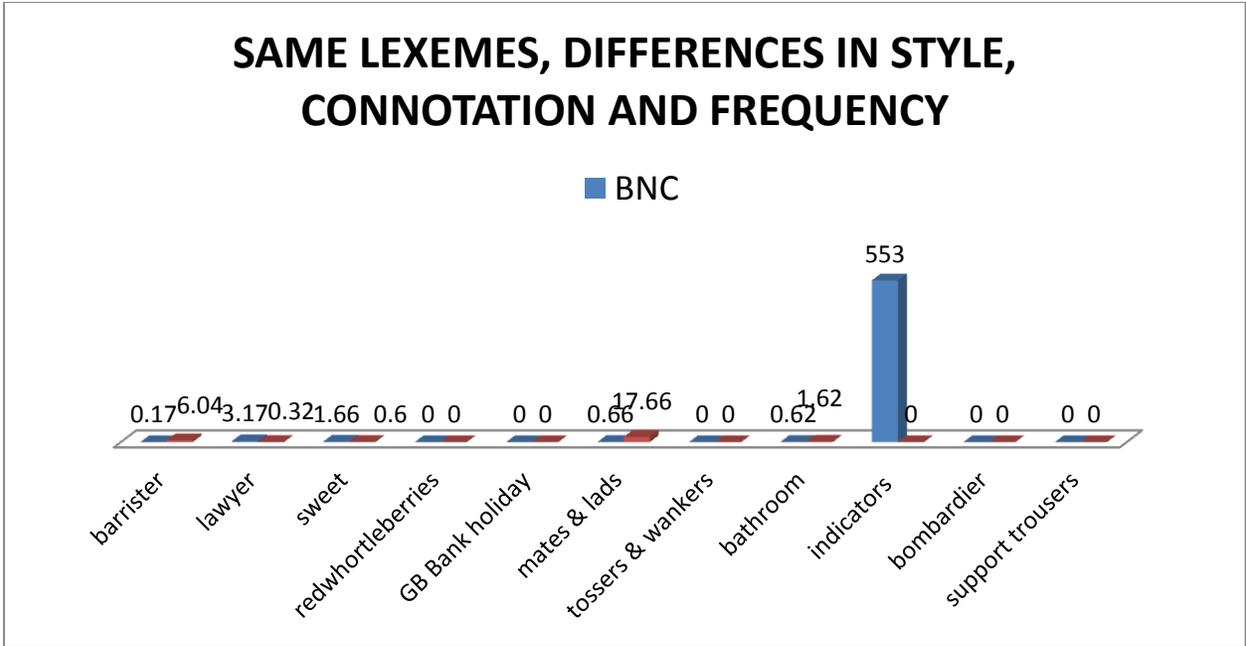


Diagram № 8.3.1b

Four American samples out of nine are more frequent than their British equivalents, three are not found, whereas two British samples are of equal frequency with their American counterparts.

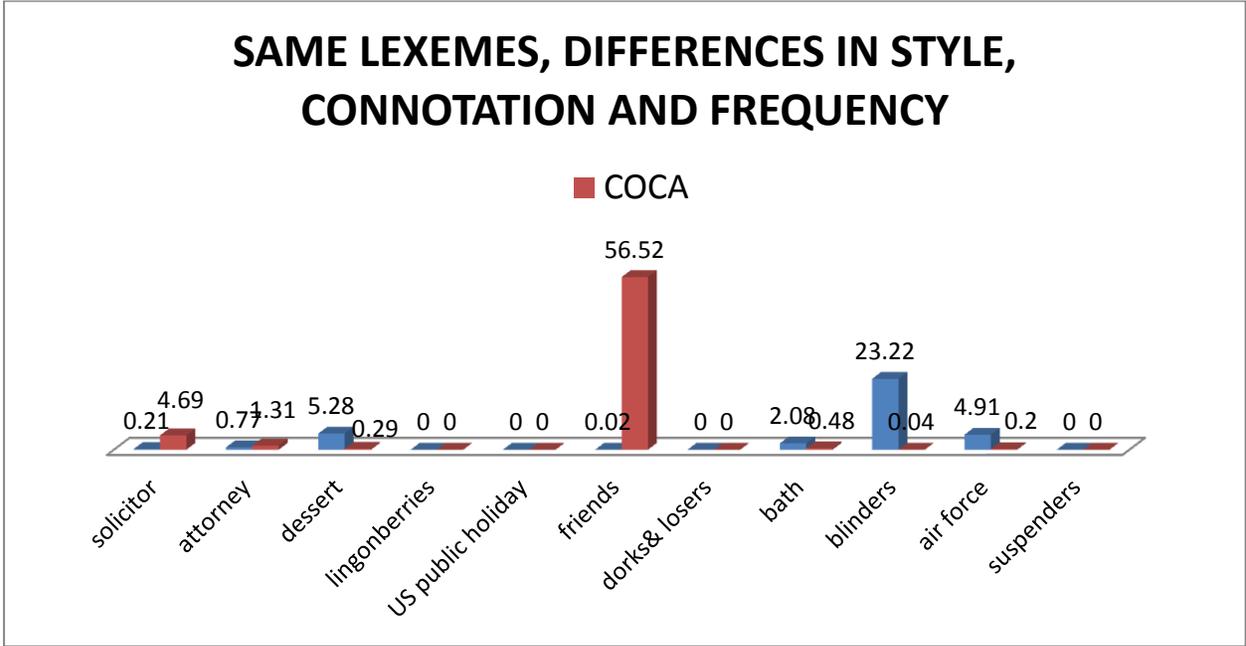
Table № 8.3.2

№	Terms or expressions		BNC	COCA
	British	American		
10	barrister	solicitor	0.17/6.04	0.21/4.69
11	Lawyer	attorney	3.17/0.32	0.77/1.31
12	Sweet	dessert	1.66/0.60	5.28/0.29
13	red whortleberries	lingonberries		
14	bank holiday	public holiday		
15	mates & lads	friends & (young) men	0.66/17.66	0.02/56.52
16	tossers & wankers	dorks& losers		
17	bathroom	bath	0.62/1.62	2.08/0.48
18	indicators	blinkers	553/0.00	23.22/0.04
19	bombardier	air force		4.91/0.20
20	braces (to support trousers)	suspenders		



Diagram№ 8.3.2a

Three out of eleven British samples (in blue) are more frequent than the American ones (in red), five are not found, and three American sample is more frequent.

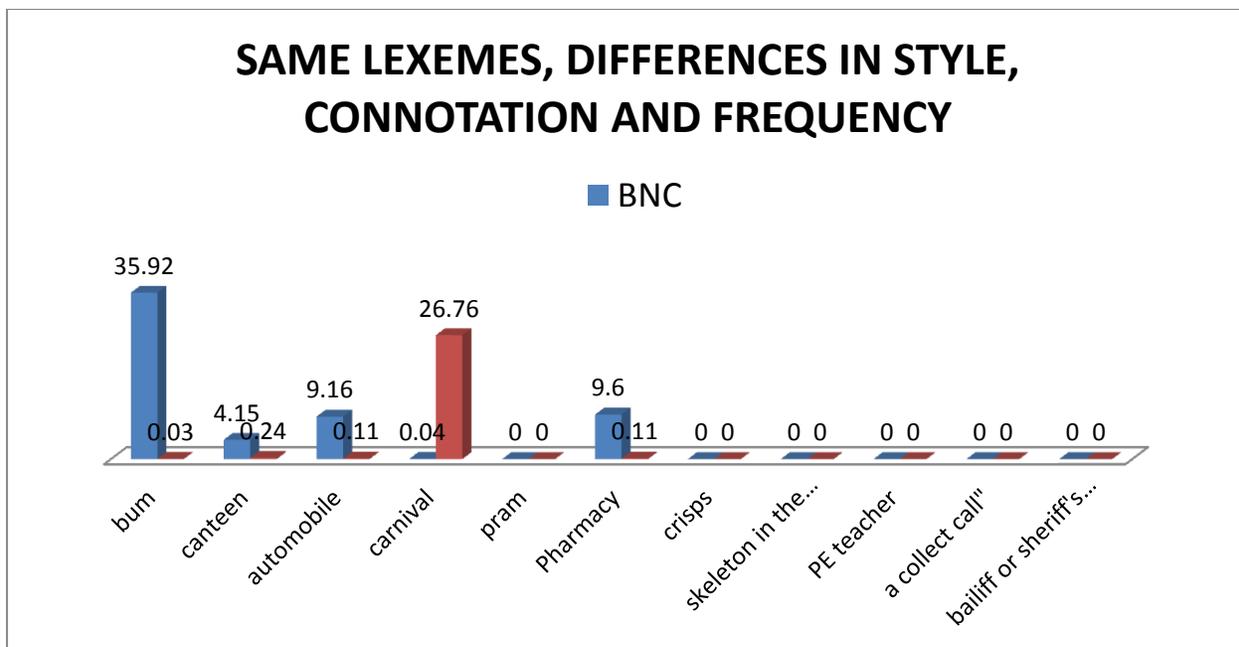


Diagram№ 8.3.2b

Three American samples out of eleven are more frequent than their British equivalents, three are not found, while five British samples are more frequent.

Table № 8.3.3

№	Terms or expressions		BNC	COCA
	British	American		
21	bum	hobo	35.92/0.03	28.78/0.03
22	canteen	cafeteria	4.15/0.24	0.23/4.38
23	automobile	motorcar	9.16/0.11	53.99/0.02
24	carnival	fair	0.04/26.76	0.08/12.35
25	Pram	baby carriage		0.01/
26	Pharmacy	drugstore	9.6/0.11	1.50/0.66
27	crisps	French fries		
28	skeleton in the cupboard	skeleton in the closet		
29	PE teacher	sports teacher		67.00/0.01
30	a reverse charge call	A collect call		
31	bailiff (Certificated enforcement agents used by local authorities)	peace officer providing court security		



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Diagram № 8.3.3a

Four out of eleven British samples are more frequent than the American ones, six are not found, and one American sample is more frequent.

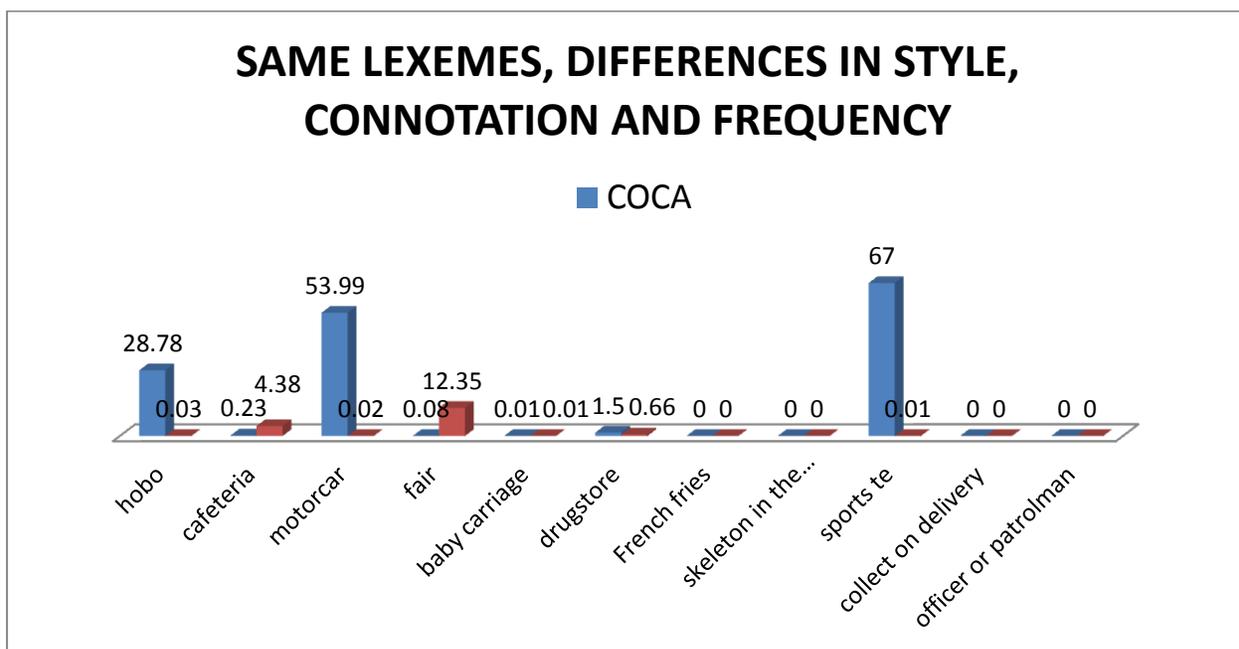


Diagram № 8.3.3b

Two American samples out of eleven are more frequent than their British equivalents, four are not found, while five British samples are more frequent.

Table №8.3.4

№	Terms or expressions		BNC	COCA
	British	American		
32	road works	a (road) construction area/zone		0.11/
33	cooker	cook stove		5.31/0.19
34	biscuit	baked cake		
35	maize	corn	0.27/3.74	0.07/13.47
36	detective inspector	drill instructor	111.00/0.01	0.40/2.49
37	restaurant car	dining car	0.12/3.38	
38	semi-detached house	duplex house		
39	bedsit	studio apartment		
40	engine driver	engineer		
41	fancy something	like something	0.01/68.09	0.01/127.53
42	refuse to testify against oneself	plead the Fifth (Amendment)		

SAME LEXEMES, DIFFERENCES IN STYLE, CONNOTATION AND FREQUENCY

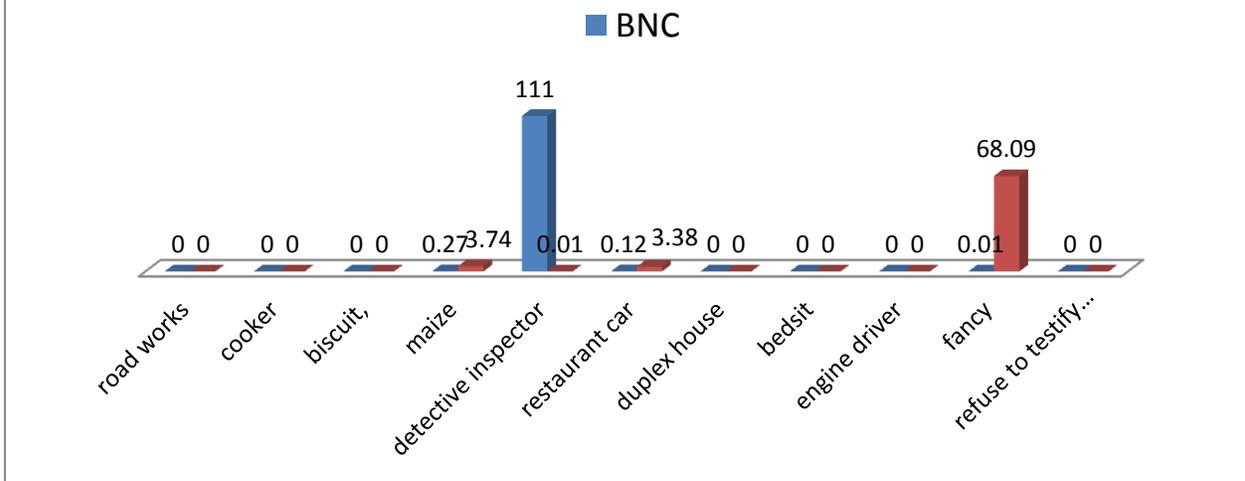


Diagram № 8.3.4a

One British sample out of eleven is more frequent than the American ones, seven are not found, while three American samples are more frequent.

SAME LEXEMES, DIFFERENCES IN STYLE, CONNOTATION AND FREQUENCY

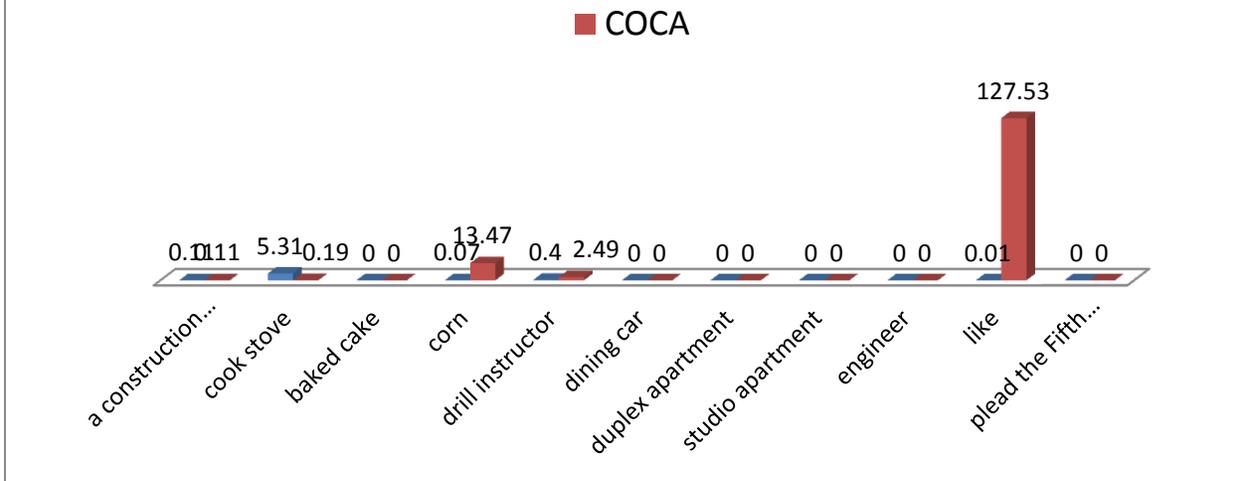


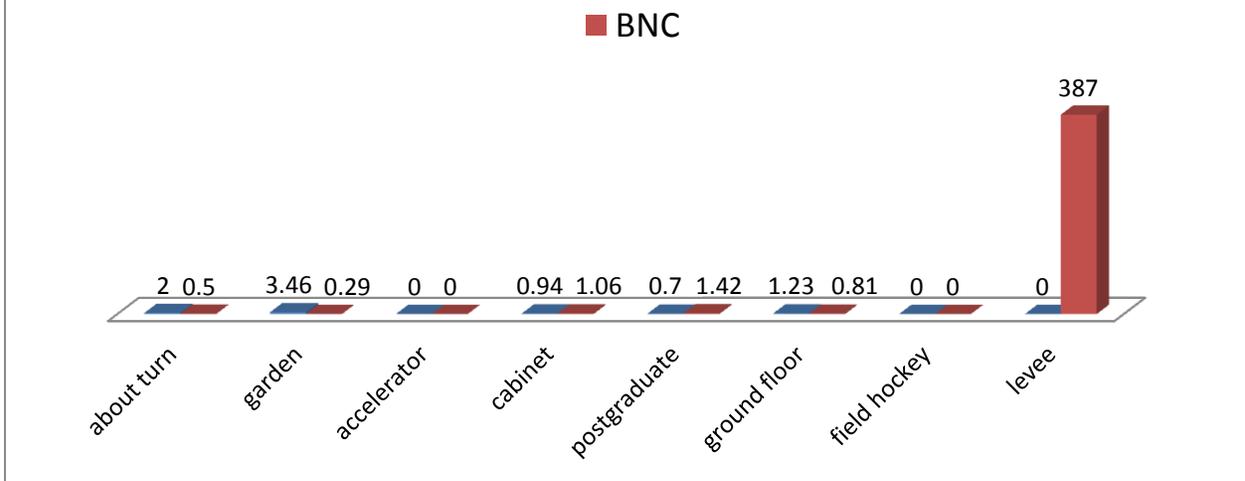
Diagram № 8.3.4b

Three out of eleven American samples are more frequent than the British ones, six are not found, one British sample is more frequent, and one British sample is as frequent as its American counterpart.

Table№ 8.3.5

№	Terms or expressions		BNC	COCA
	British	American		
43	about turn	U turn	2.00/0.50	0.50/
44	Garden	yard	3.46/0.29	2.08/0.48
45	accelerator	gas pedal		
46	Cabinet	Administration	0.94/1.06	0.15/6.55
47	postgraduate	Graduate	0.70/1.42	0.03/37.22
48	ground floor	first floor	1.23/0.81	0.84/1.20
49	field hockey	ice hockey		0.92/1.09
50	levee	assemble	0.00/387.00	0.09/11.41

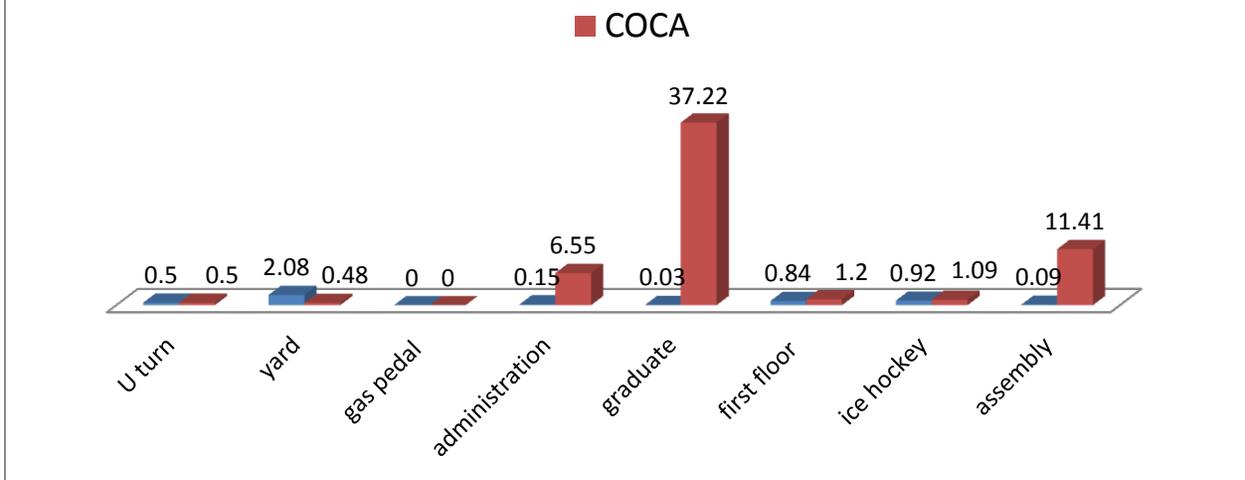
SAME LEXEMES, DIFFERENCES IN STYLE, CONNOTATION AND FREQUENCY



Diagram№ 8.3.5a

Three British samples out of eight are more frequent than the American ones, two are not found, and three American samples are more frequent.

SAME LEXEMES, DIFFERENCES IN STYLE, CONNOTATION AND FREQUENCY



Diagram№ 8.3.5b

Five out of eight American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents, one is not found, four British samples are more frequent, and one British one is as frequent as its American counterpart.

8.3.6 Same lexemes, differences in style ,connotation and frequency- results

Within this area they are as follows:

Diagram 8.3.1a: six British samples out of nine are more frequent than the American ones, two are not found, one American is more frequent.

Diagram 8.3.1b: four American samples out of nine are more frequent than the British ones, three are not found, two British ones are as frequent as their American counterparts.

Diagram 8.3.2a: three British samples out of eleven are more frequent than the American ones, five are not found, and three American sample is more frequent.

Diagram 8.3.2b: three American samples out of eleven are more frequent than the British ones, three are not found while five British samples are more frequent.

Diagram 8.3.3a: four British samples out of eleven are more frequent than the American ones, six are not found, and one American sample is more frequent.

Diagram 8.3.3b: two American samples out of eleven are more frequent than the British ones, four are not found, while five British samples are more frequent.

Diagram 8.3.4a: one British sample out of eleven is more frequent than the American one, seven are not found, and three American samples are more frequent.

Diagram 8.3.4b: three American samples out of eleven are more frequent than the British ones, six are not found, one British sample is more frequent and one is as frequent as its American counterpart.

Diagram 8.3.5a: three out of eight British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts, two are not found, and three American ones are more frequent.

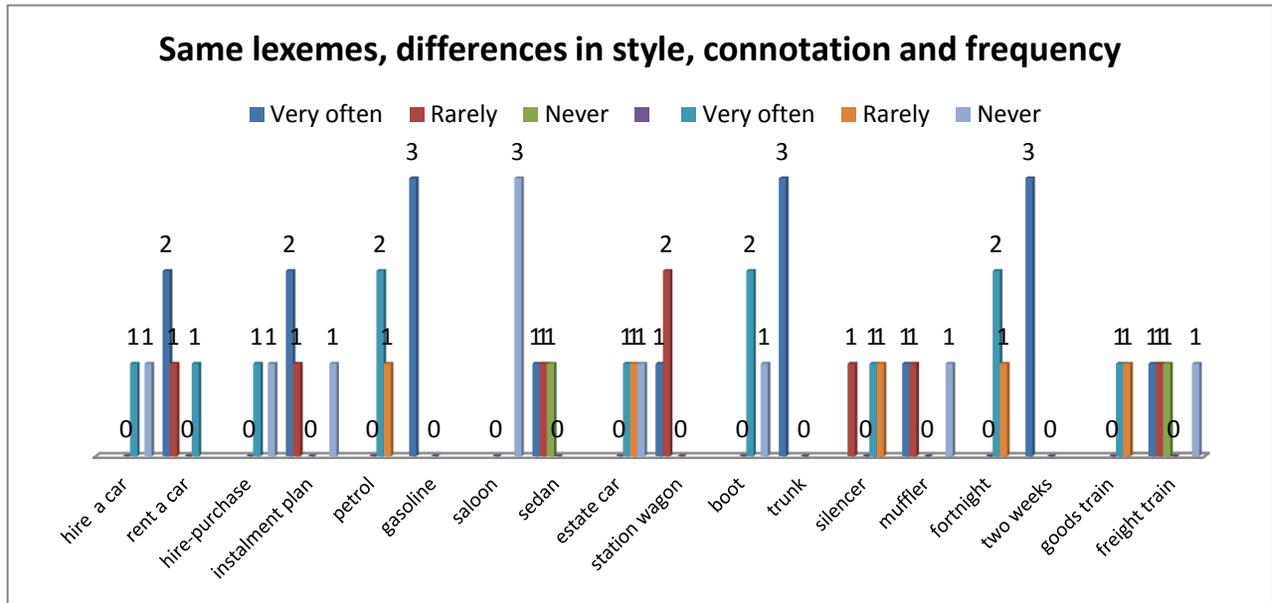
Diagram 8.3.5b: five American samples out of eight are more frequent than the British ones, one is not found, four British samples are more frequent, while one is as frequent as its counterpart.

Based on the diagrams, it can be deduced that two cases strongly support the hypothesis (Diagrams 8.3.1a and 8.3.5b), seven partially support it (Diagrams 8.3.1a, 8.3.2a, 8.3.2b, 8.3.3a, 8.3.3b, 8.3.4b and 8.3.5a) while only one (Diagram 8.3.4a) does not support it. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis *Same lexemes, differences in style, connotation and frequency* can be confirmed as partially true.

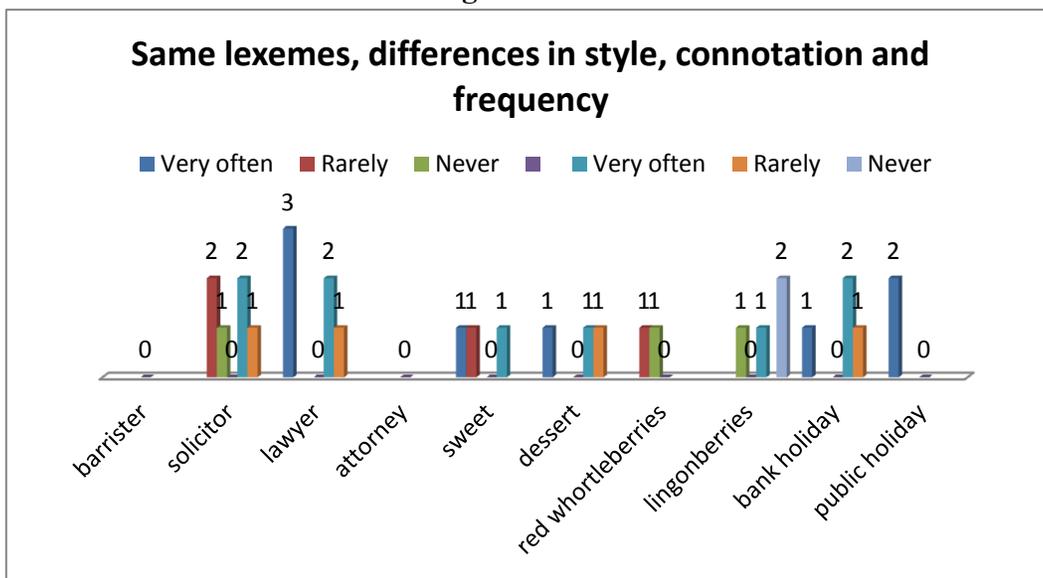
The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

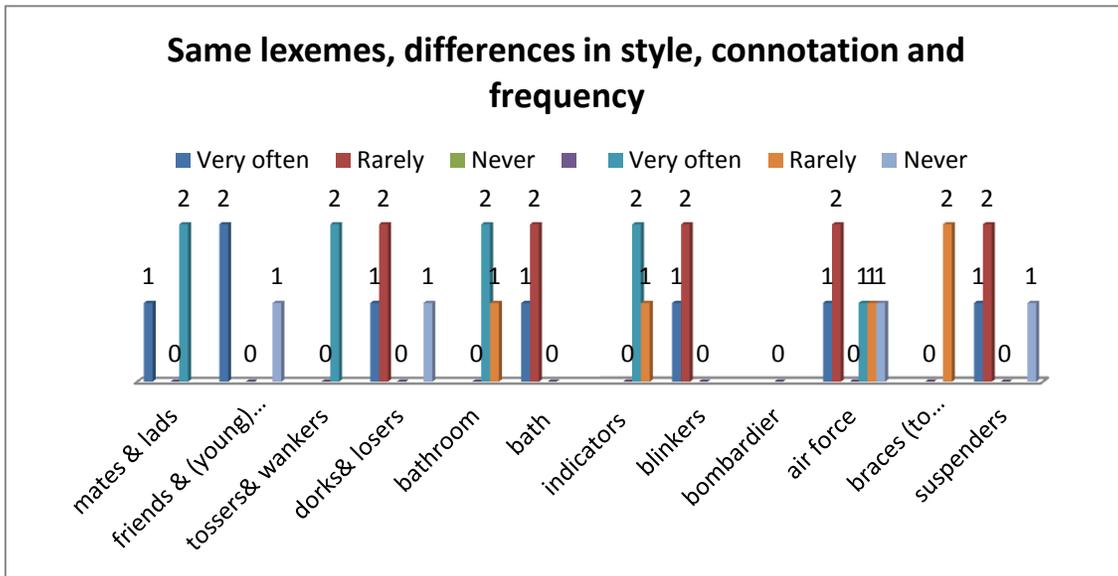
Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.



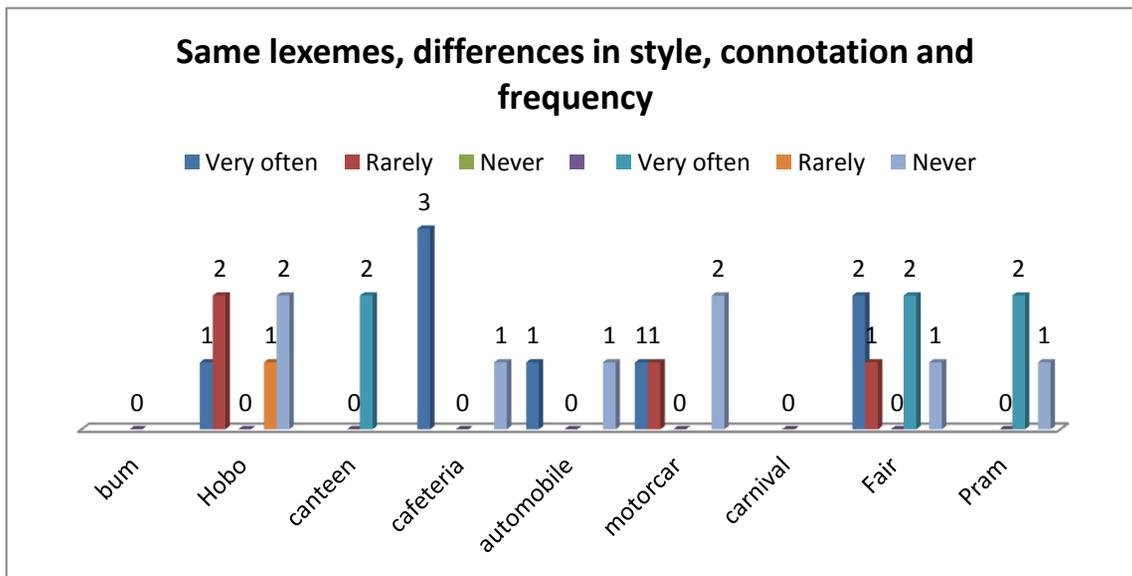
Diagram№ 8.3.6



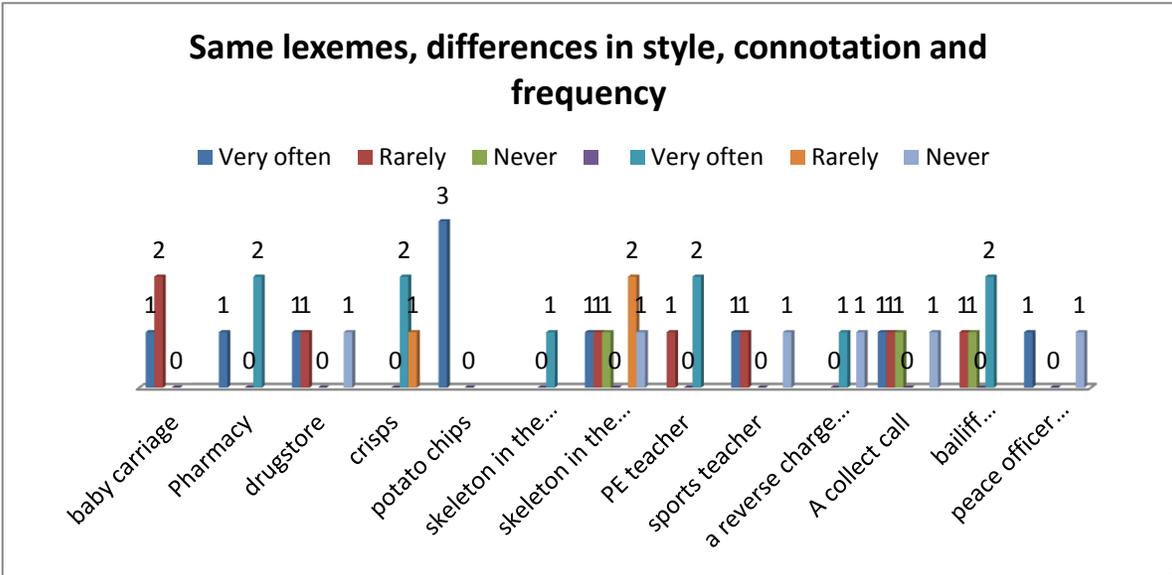
Diagram№ 8.3.7



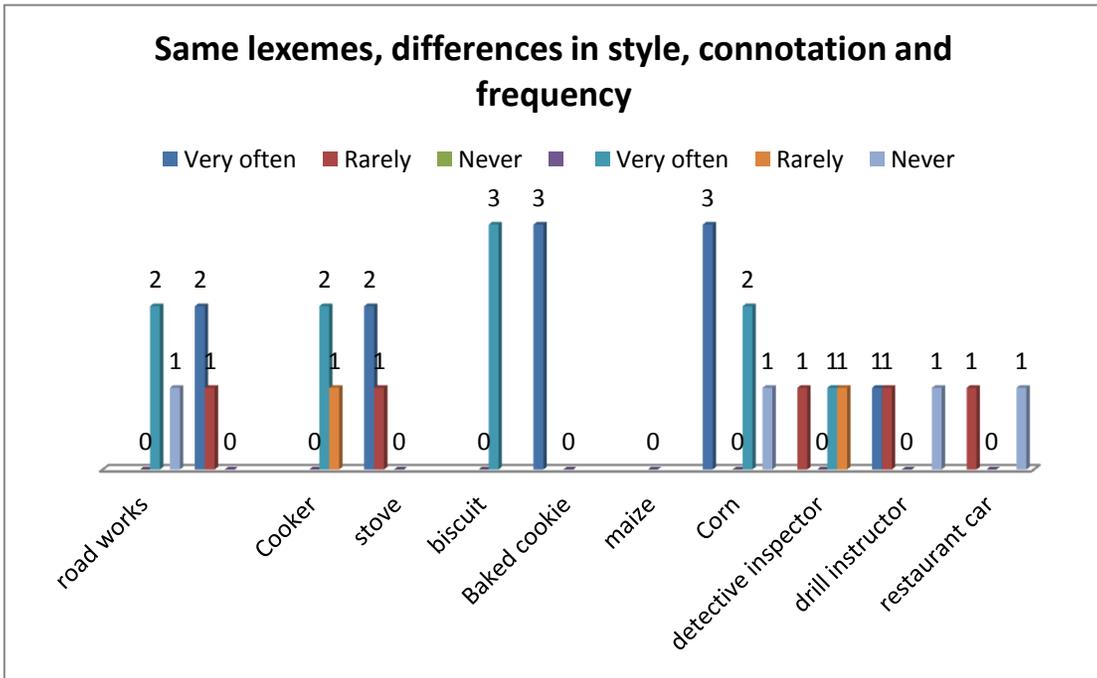
Diagram№ 8.3.8



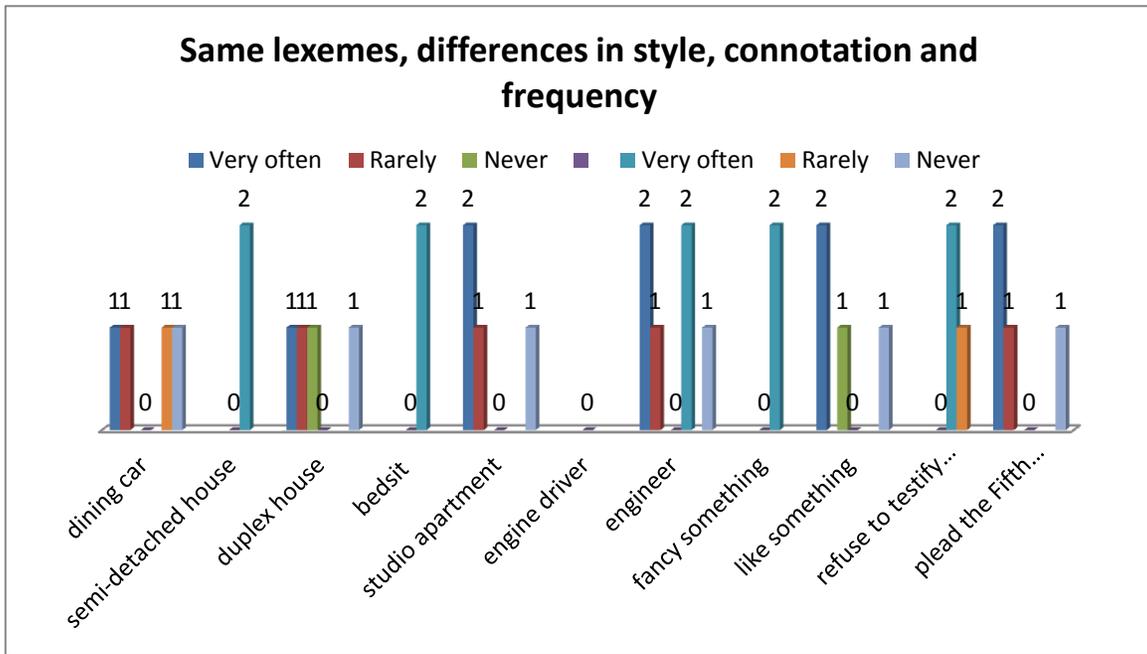
Diagram№ 8.3.9



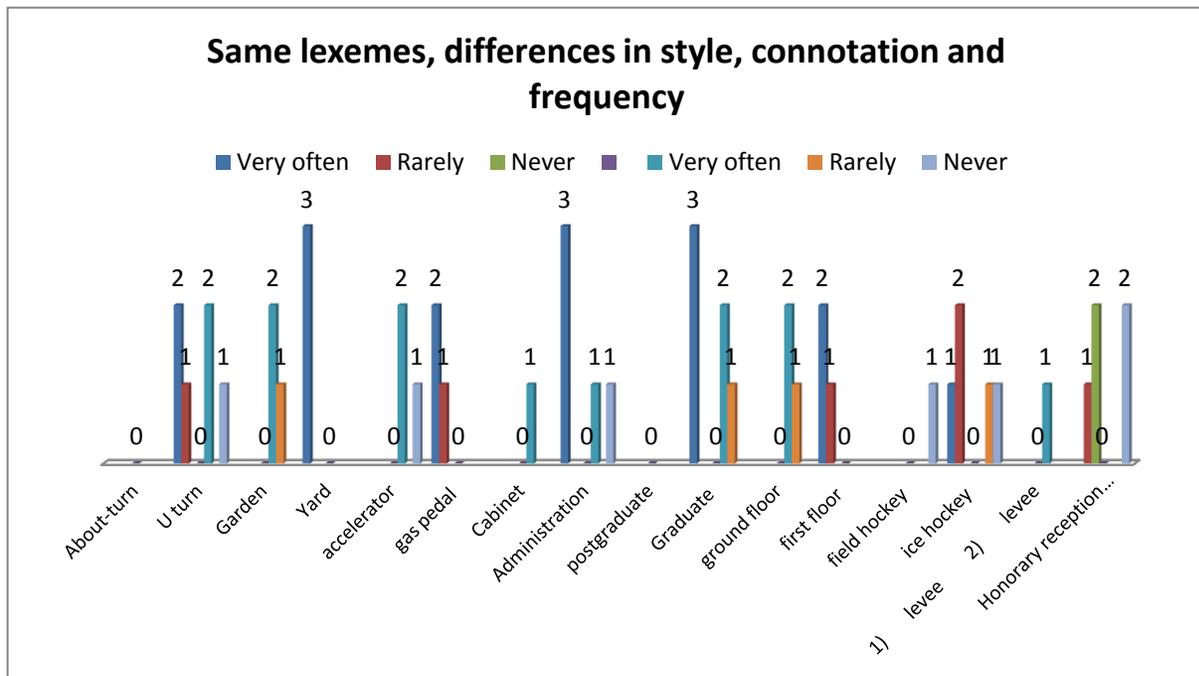
Diagram№ 8.3.10



Diagram№ 8.3.11



Diagram№ 8.3.12



Diagram№ 8.3.13

8.3.14 Received results according to the questionnaires

Diagram № 8.3.6

According to the diagram all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” in three cases two native speakers have chosen that option in two cases, but only one of them has chosen “never” as an option in five cases.

British native speakers in one case all of them chose the option “very often” in three cases only two of them have chosen the option very often and only one them has chosen the same otion in six cases.

Diagram № 8.3.7

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in only one case all of them have chosen the option “very often”, two of them have chosen the same option in one case and one of them has made the same choice in three cases.

British are represented on the right side and in three cases two of them have chosen the option “very often” and only one of them has made the same option in three cases.

Diagram № 8.3.8

According to this diagram two American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in four other cases two of them have chosen the option” rarely”. From the other side two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often” but only one of them in four cases has chosen “ never” as an option.

Diagram № 8.3.9

According to this diagram three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and two of them have chosen the same option in one case and only one of them has made the same choice in three cases. But from the other side two of the American native speakers have chosen “ rarely” in three cases. Two British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” but only one of them in four cases has chosen “ never” as an option.

Diagram № 8.3.10

According to this diagram three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and only one of them have chosen the same option in four cases But from the other side two of the American native speakers have chosen “ rarely” in one case and one of them has

made the same choice in six cases. Two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option “very often” but only one of them in five cases has chosen “ never” as an option.

Diagram № 8.3.11

According to this diagram three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and two of them have chosen the same option in two cases. All British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” two of them have made the same choice in three cases but only one of them in four cases has chosen “ never” as an option.

Diagram № 8.3.12

According to this diagram two American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in four cases. Two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram № 8.3.13

According to this diagram three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in three cases and only two of them have chosen the same option in three cases. Two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “very often”.

Consequently, five cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to strongly support, three cases partially support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Same lexemes, differences in style, connotation and frequency* according to the obtained results in the questionnaires can be confirmed as partially true.

8.4 Euphemisms

The next part of the study focuses on the area of **Euphemisms**. The relevant samples have been already been discussed in the theoretical part. The source that used to check the frequency of these euphemisms is *American English* by Albert H. Marckward. The total number of samples extracted is 59 words, which are organized in tables. They are explained and their frequency is checked as in the previous sections. The results obtained are presented by means of diagrams and conclusions are made based on whether the findings comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

Table № 8.4.1

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
1	pass away	Reference to death	6,77	18,42
2	fight a long battle with		0	0
3	departed		0	14,29
4	meet your maker		0	9,82
5	six feet under		9,71	184
6	pushing up daisies		9,29	2
7	in one's box		0	7
8	snuff it		4,77	15
9	pop one's clogs		14,52	0
10	kick the bucket		8,36	17
11	negative patient		3,86	3

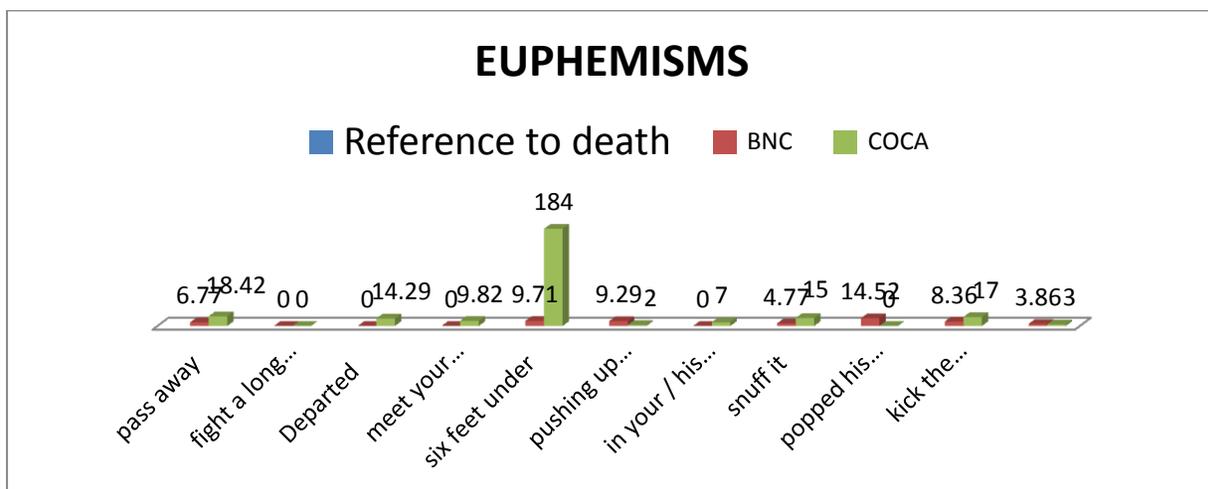


Diagram № 8.4.1

Six out of eleven references are more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 2

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
12	put down	Animal euthanasia	13,25	3267
13	put an end to its suffering		0	1

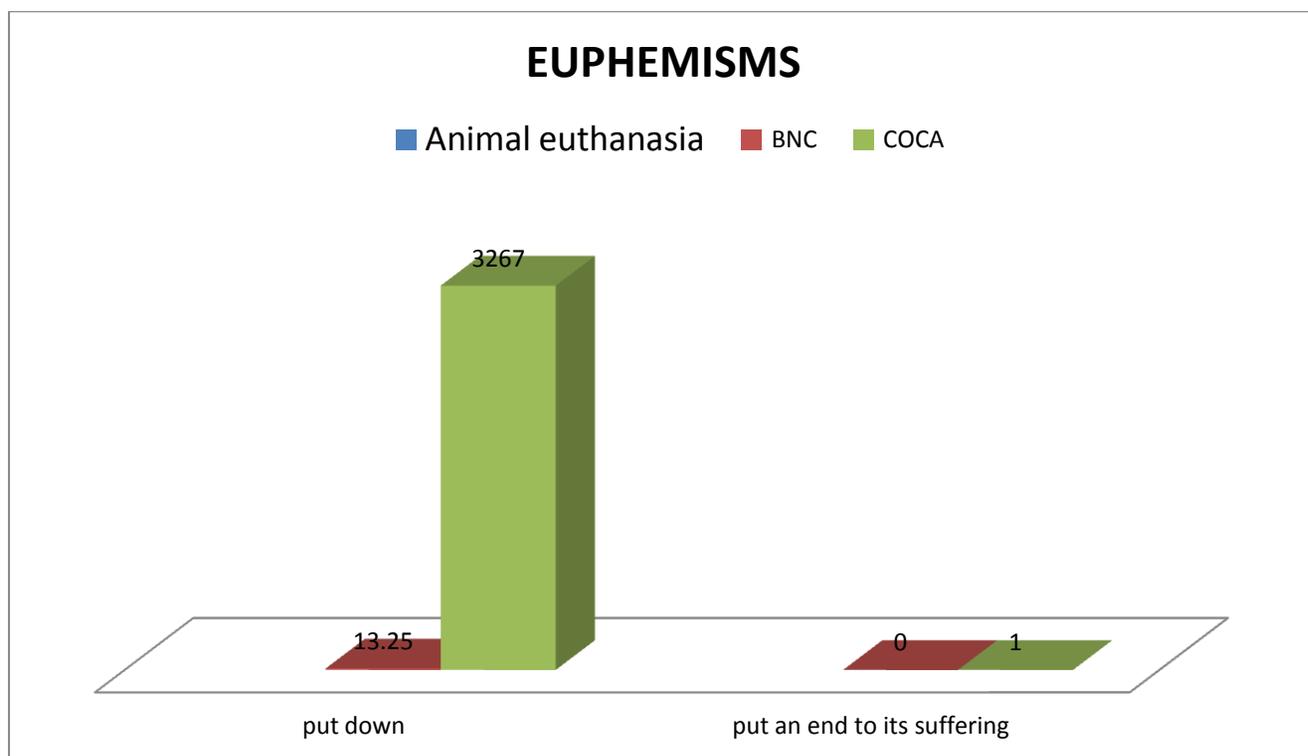


Diagram № 8.4.2

Two references out of two is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.3

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
14	restroom	reference to loo	14.23	847
15	public conveniences		0	0
16	ladies / gents		0	0
17	the bog		77	240
18	the smallest room of the house		0	1
19	powder my nose		6	7
20	See a man about a dog		6	6

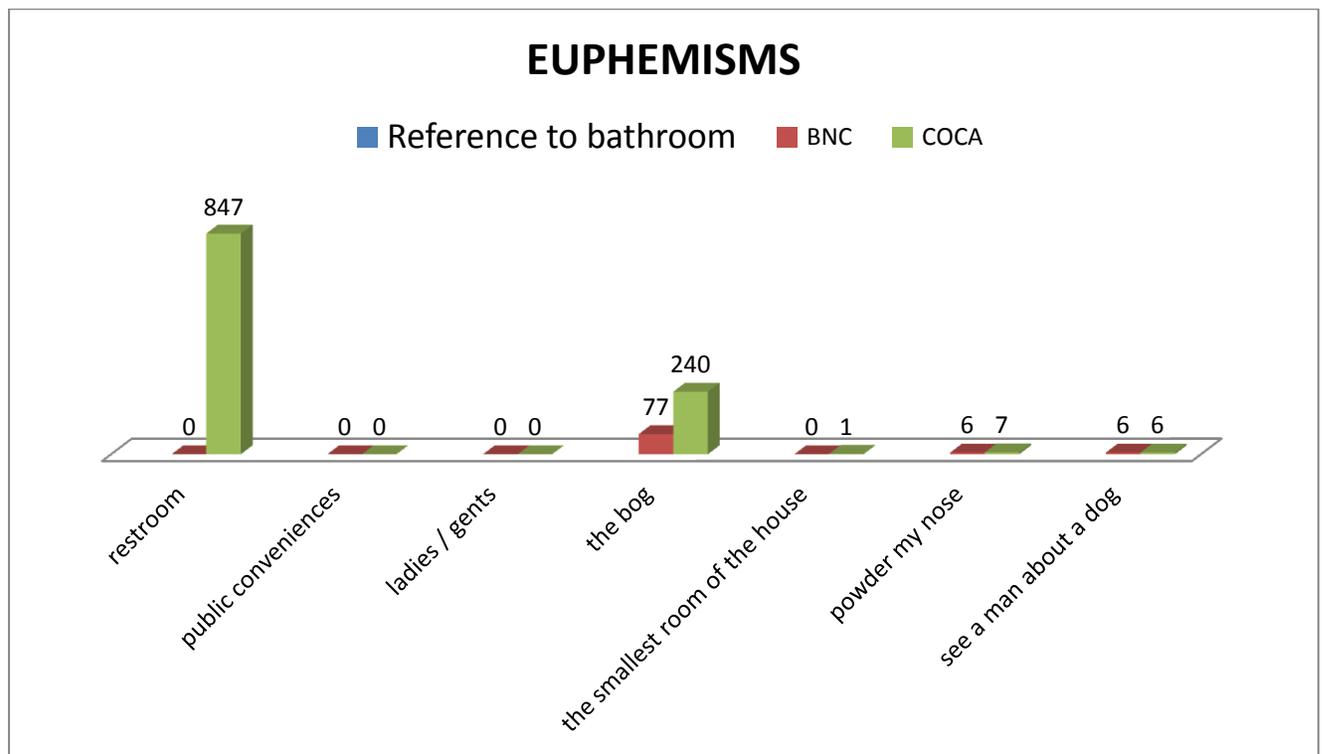


Diagram № 8.4.3

Four references out of seven are more frequent in COCA than in BNC, two are not found, and one reference is equally frequent in BNC and COCA.

Table № 8.4.4

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
21	between jobs	unemployment	30	149
22	a resting actor		0	0

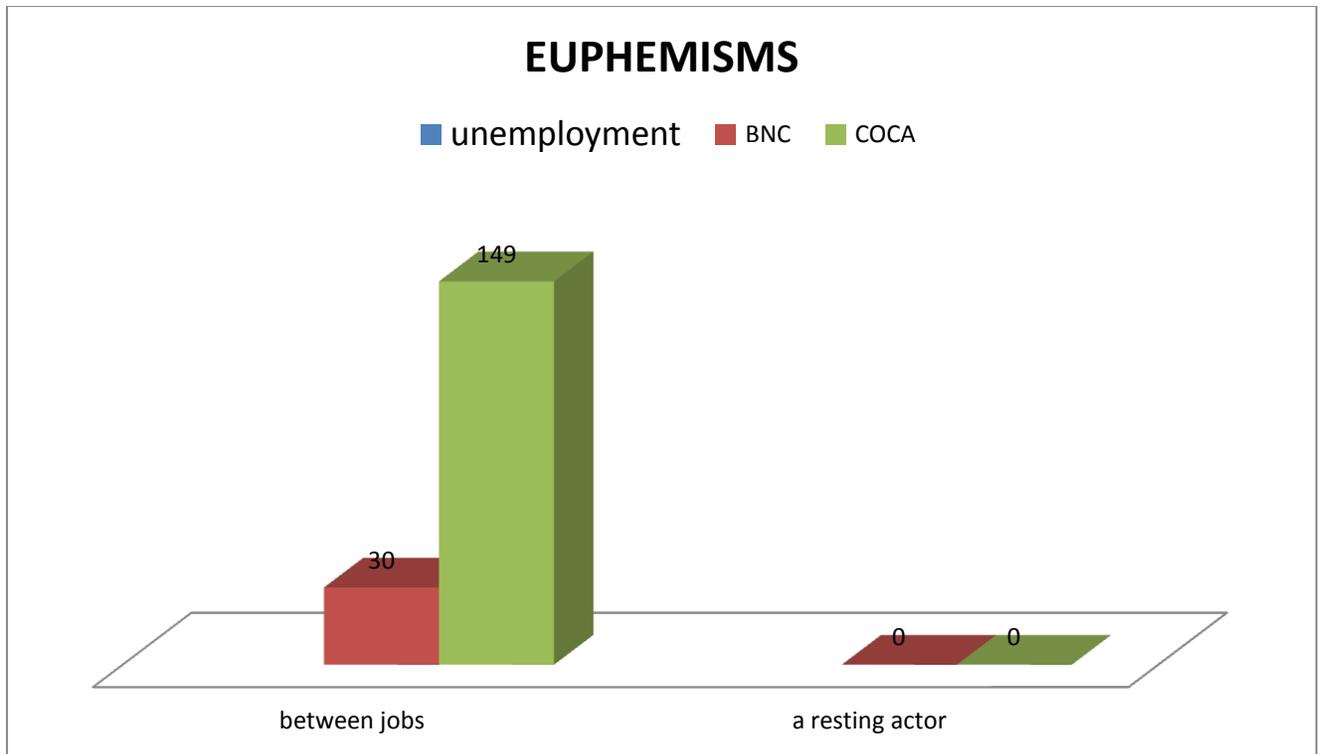


Diagram № 8.4.4

One out of two references is more frequent in COCA than in BNC while one is not found in either.

Table № 8.4.5

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
23	in the family way	Pregnancy	13	14
24	have a bun in the oven		0	1

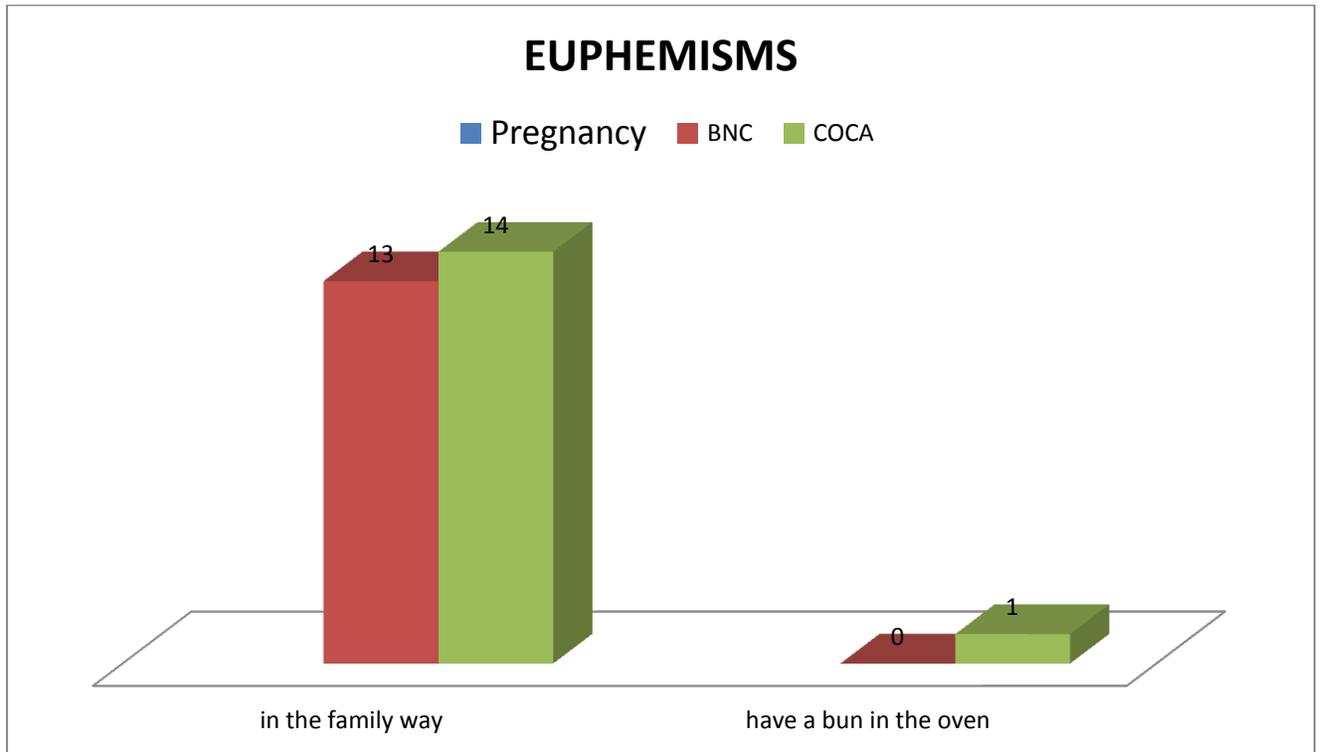


Diagram № 8.4.5

Both references are more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.6

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
25	tired and emotional	drunk	12	2
26	have a bit too much to drink		0	0
27	to be a bit worse for wear		0	1
28	to have over-indulged		0	0

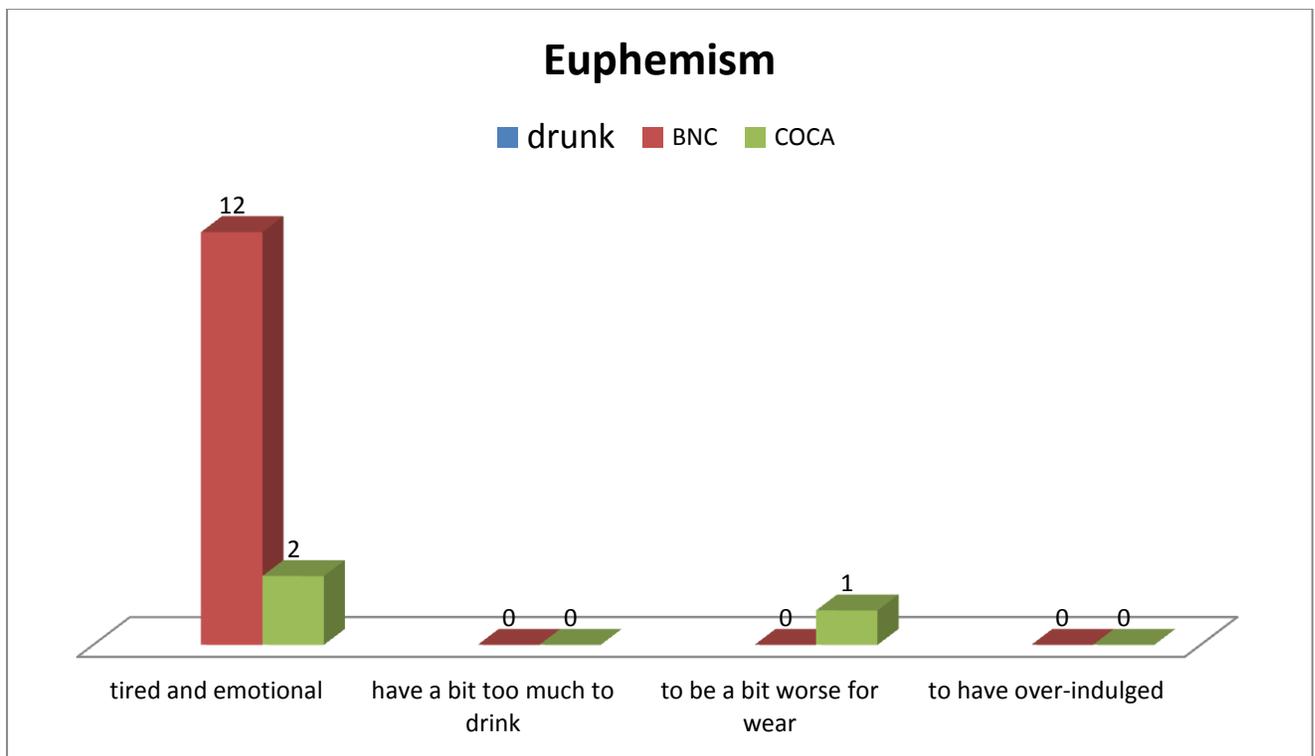


Diagram № 8.4.6

Two references out of four are more frequent in COCA than in BNC and two are not found in either corpus.

Table № 8.4.7

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
29	economical with the truth	lying	16	6

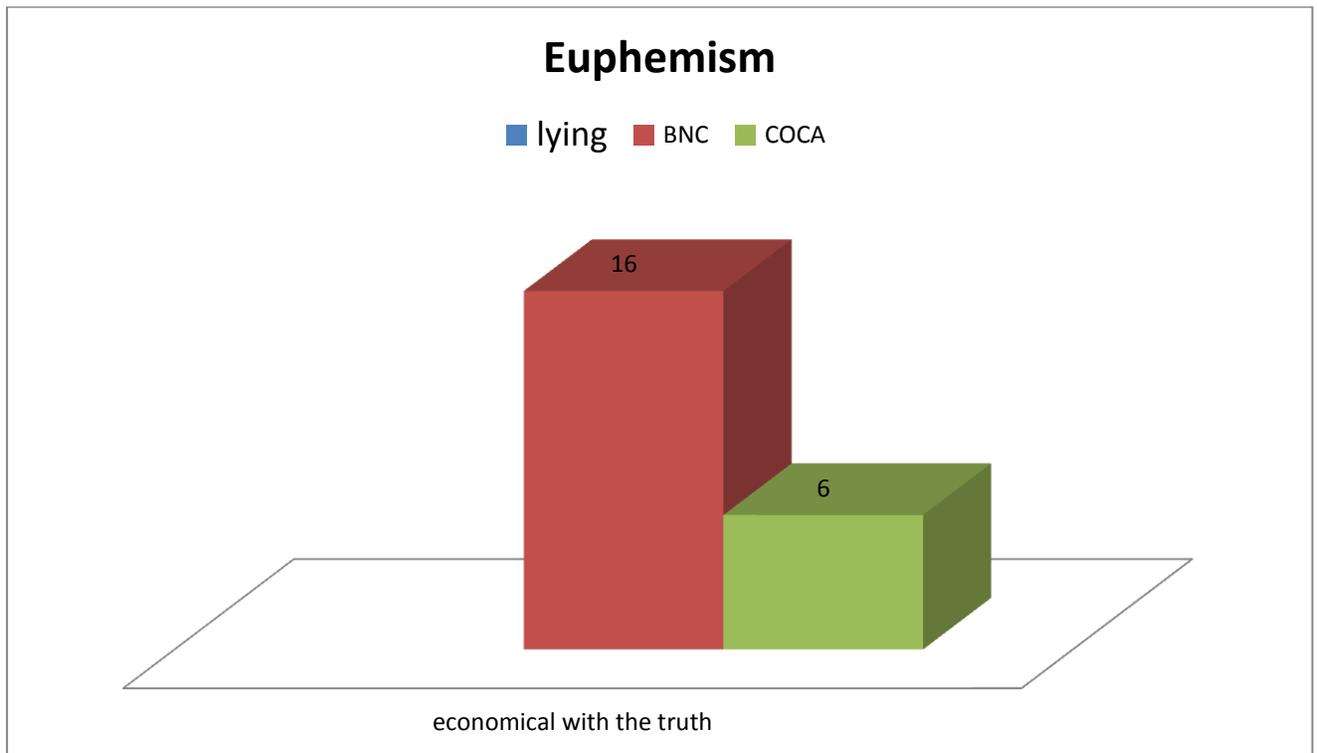


Diagram № 8.4.7

One reference out of one is more frequent in BNC than in COCA.

Table №8.4.8

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
30	have a full and frank discussion	argue	2	3
31	have words with someone		0	0

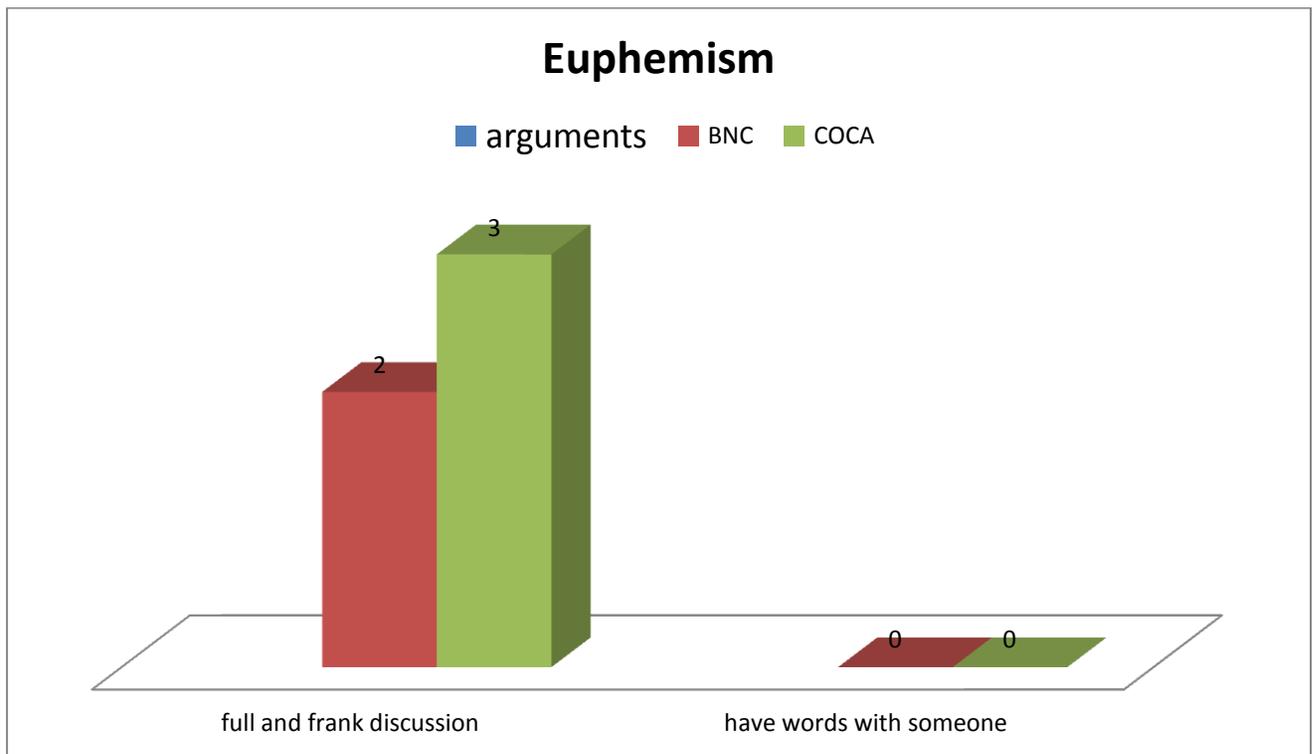


Diagram № 8.4.8

One reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC, while one reference is not found in either.

Table № 8.4.9

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
32	be disadvantaged	be poor	43	38
33	financially embarrassed		3	2

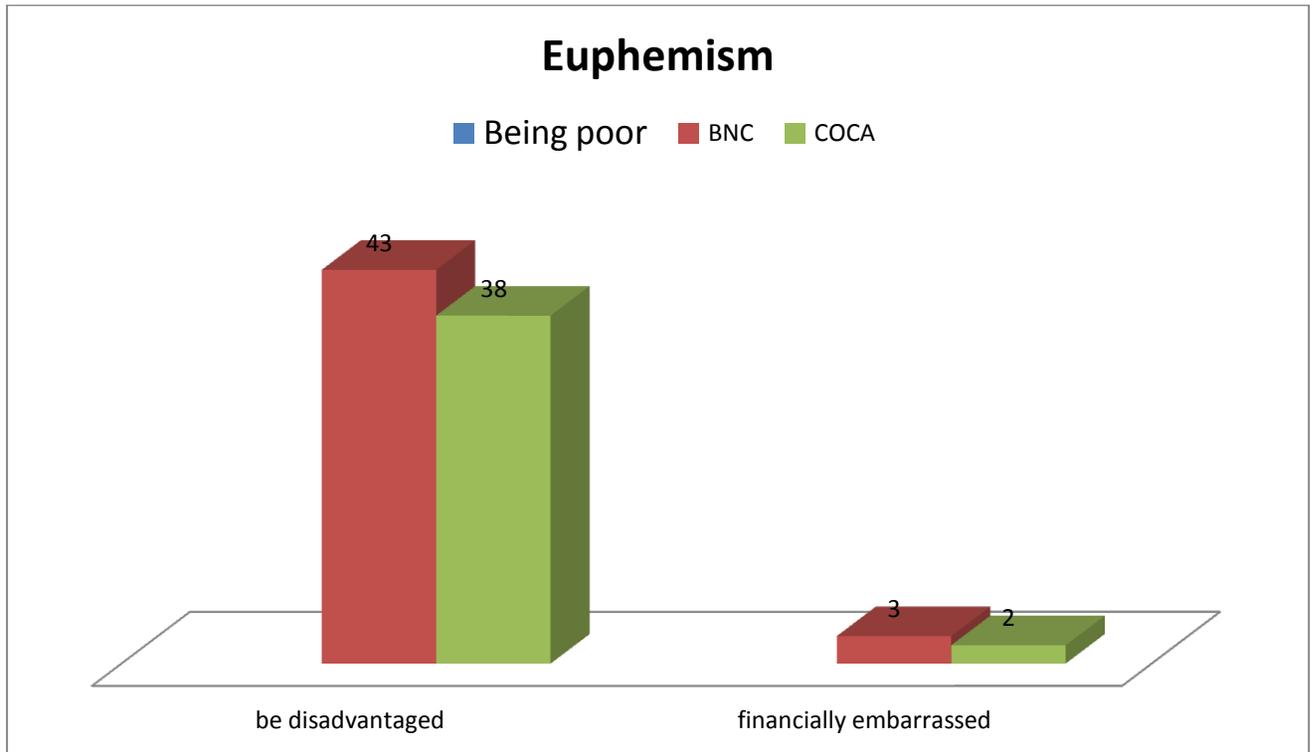


Diagram №8.4.9

Both references are more frequent in BNC than in COCA.

Table № 8.4.10

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
34	correctional facility	jail	1	262

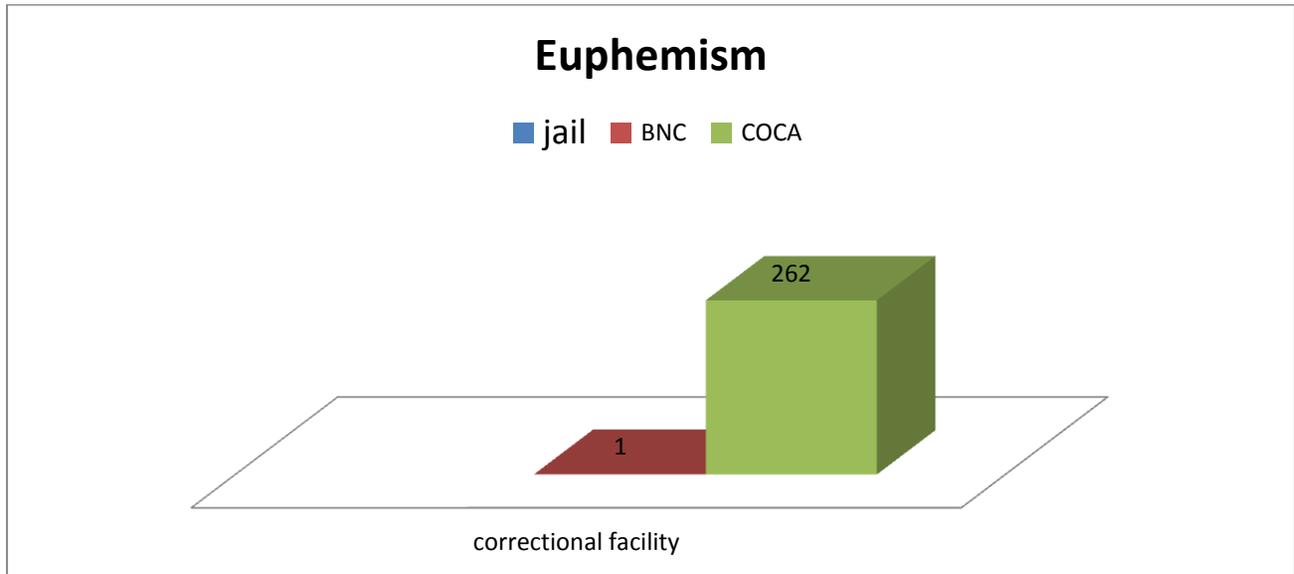


Diagram № 8.4.10

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.11

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
35	relocation center	Prison camp	0	21

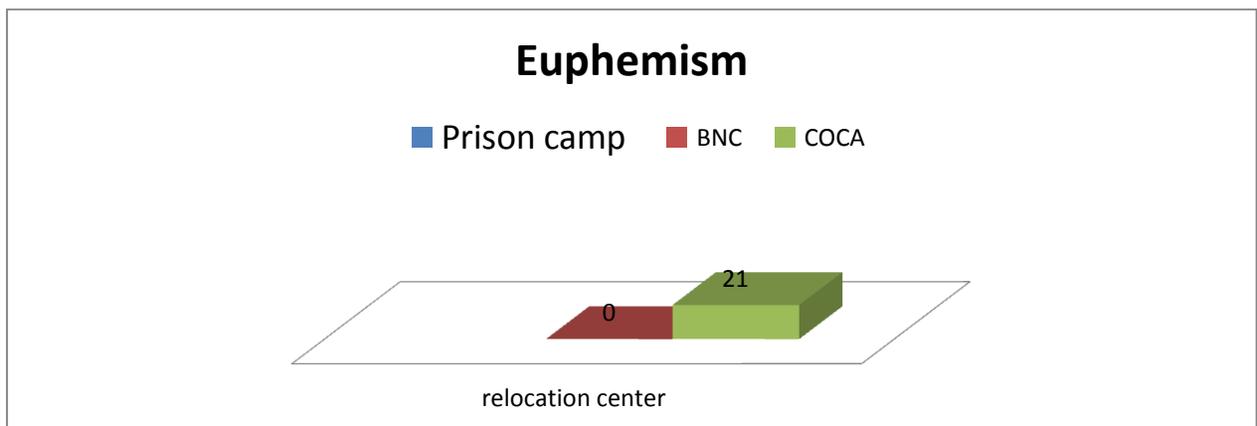
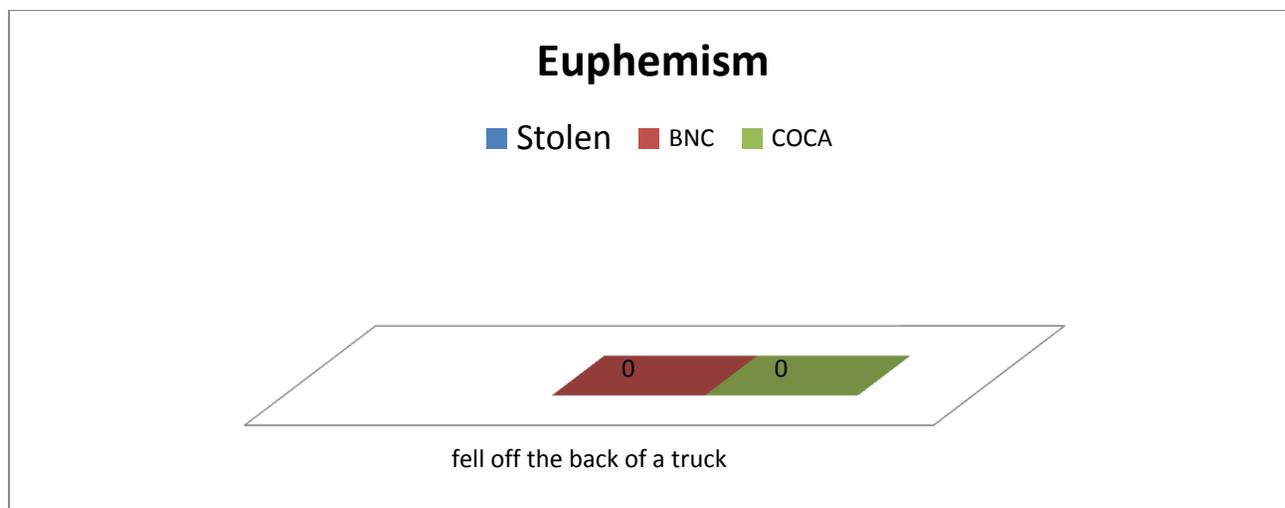


Diagram № 8.4.11

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table№ 8.4.12

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
36	fall off the back of a lorry	be stolen	0	0

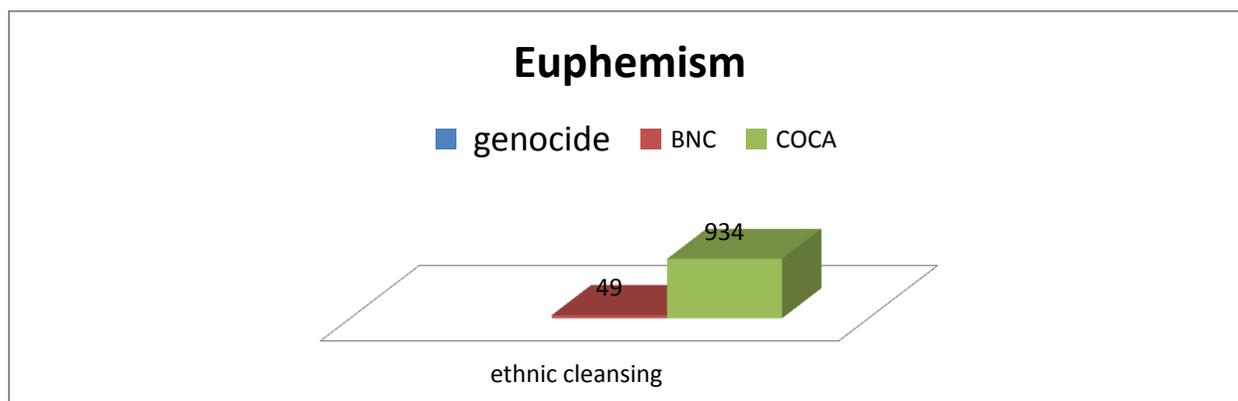


Diagram№ 8.4. 12

No reference can be found in either of the corpuses.

Table№ 8.4.13

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
37	ethnic cleansing	genocide	49	934

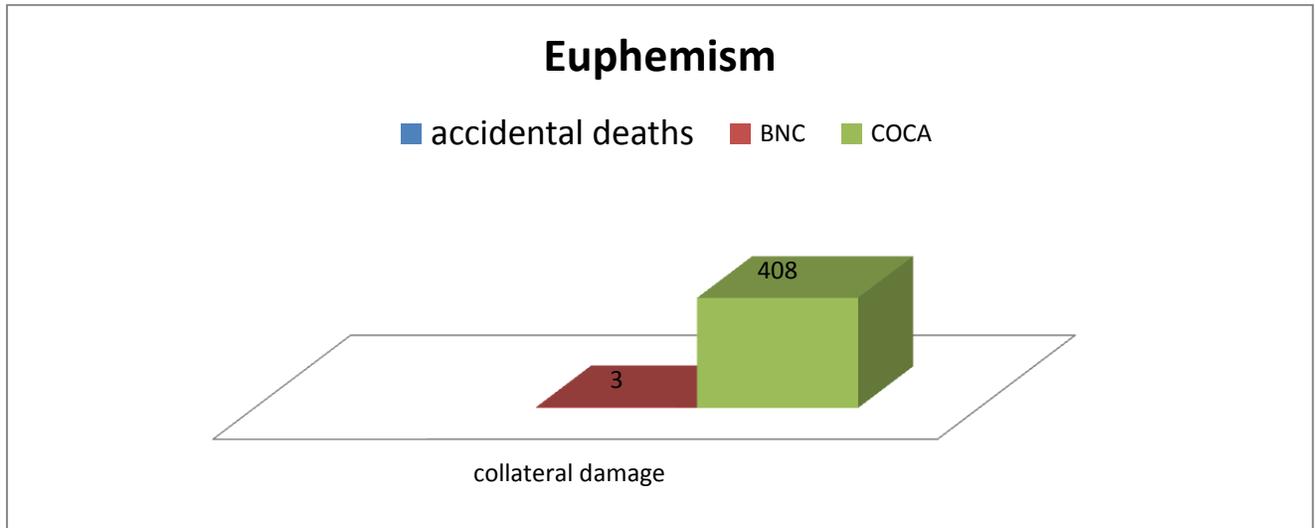


Diagram№ 8.4. 13

One reference out of one is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table№ 8.4.14

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
38	collateral damage	accidental deaths	3	408

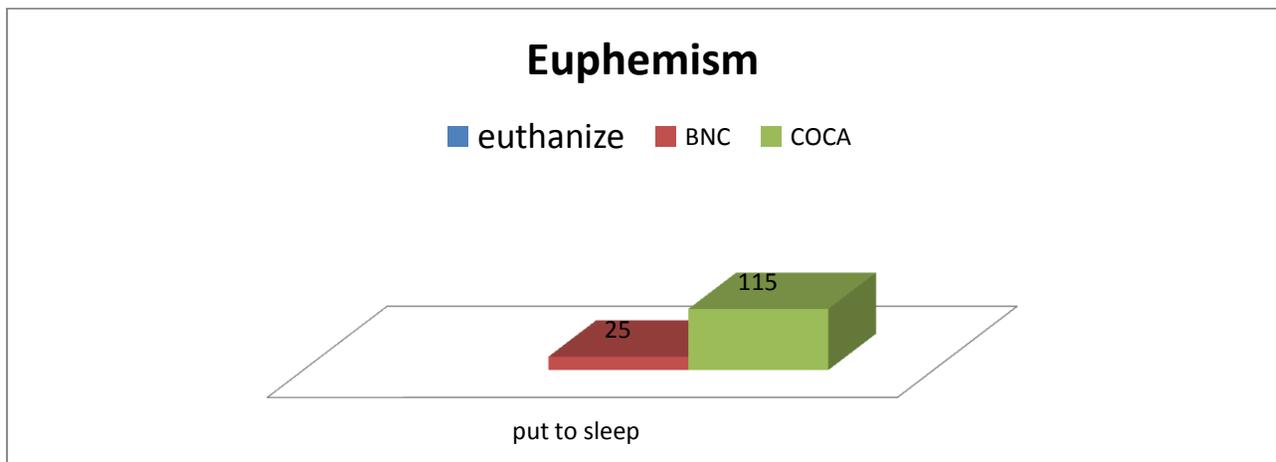


Diagram№ 8.4.14

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table №8.4.15

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
39	put to sleep	euthanize	25	115



Diagram№ 8.4. 15

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table №8.4.16

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
40	pregnancy termination	Abortion	1	9

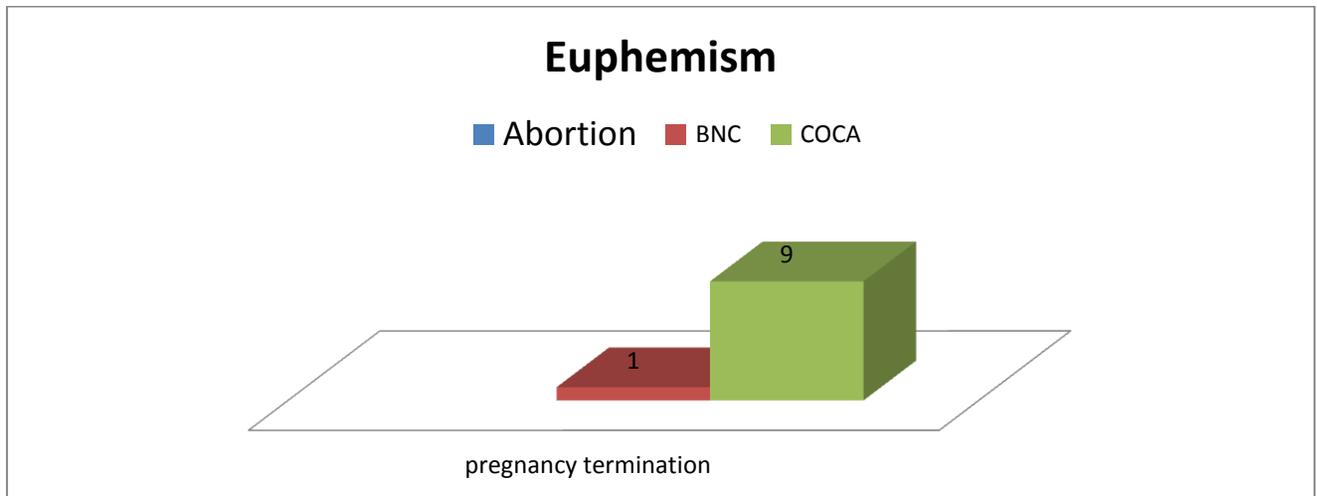


Diagram № 8.4.16

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table №8.4.17

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
41	differently-abled	handicapped or disabled	0	2

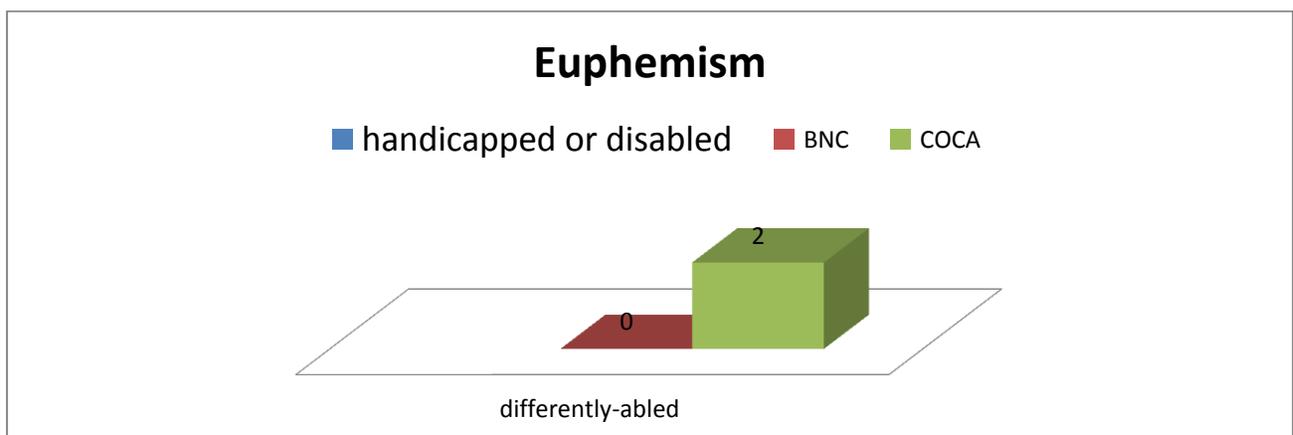


Diagram № 8.4.17

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table.№ 8.4.18

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
42	turn a trick	engage in prostitution	0	6

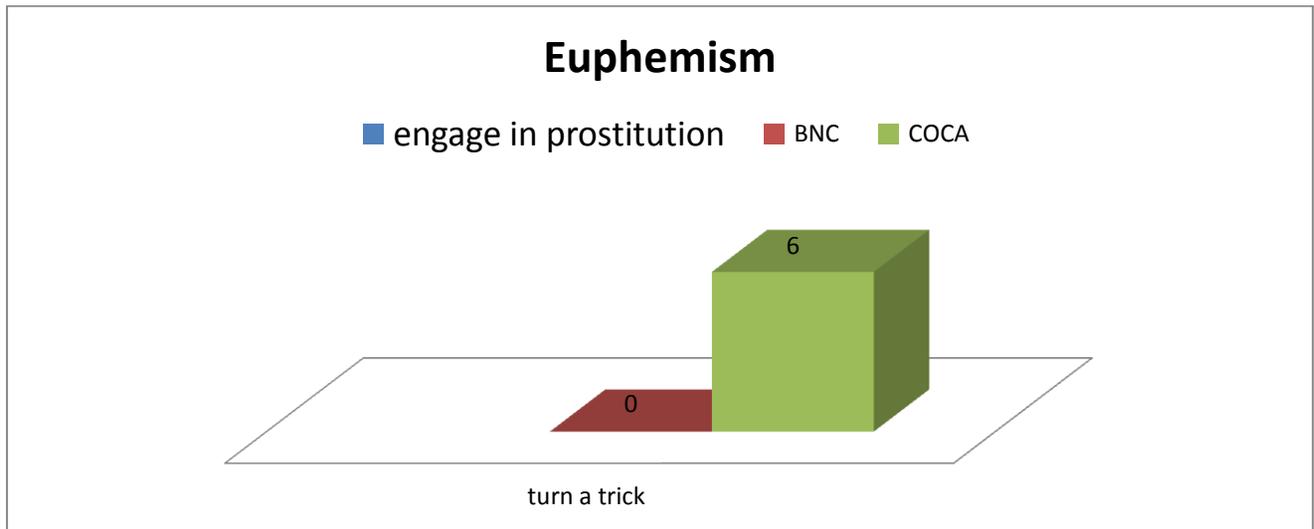


Diagram.№ 8.4.18

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table.№ 8.4.19

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
43	letting someone go	firing someone	0	2

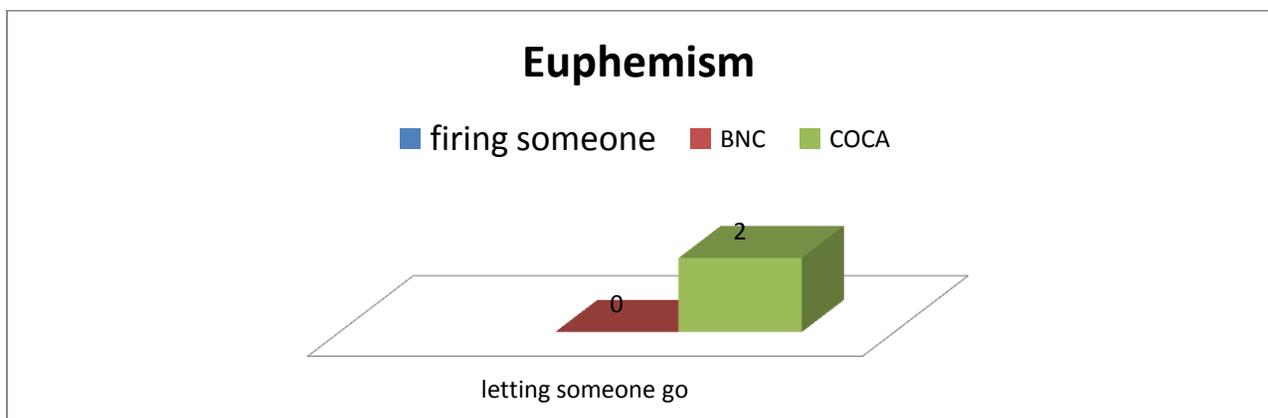


Diagram.№ 8.4.19

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.20

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
44	on the streets	homeless	548	4404

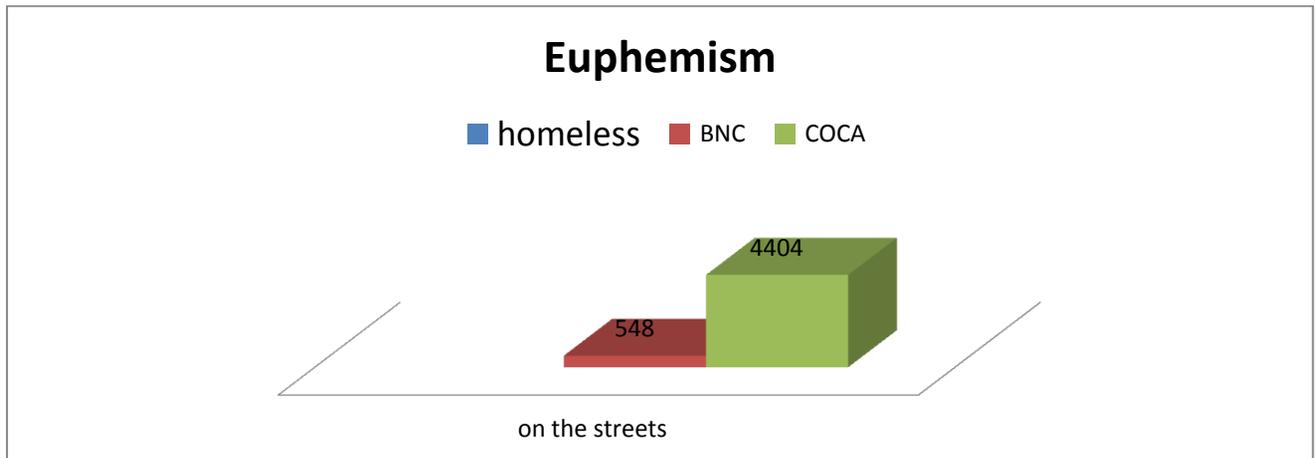


Diagram № 8.4. 20

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.21

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
45	adult entertainment	pornography	2	128

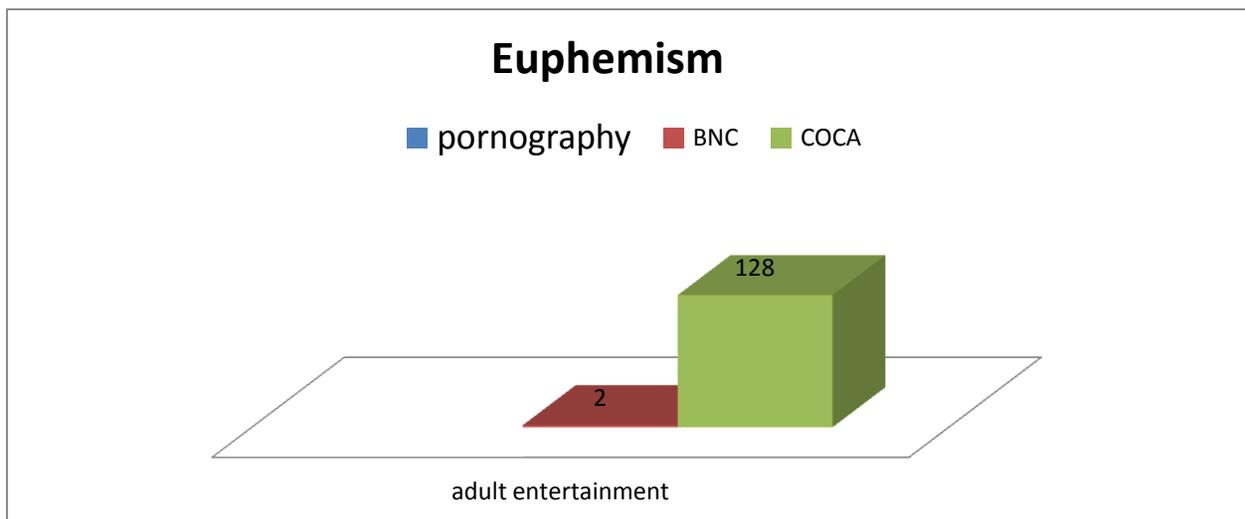


Diagram № 8.4.21

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.22

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
46	adult beverages	Beer, or liquor	0	21

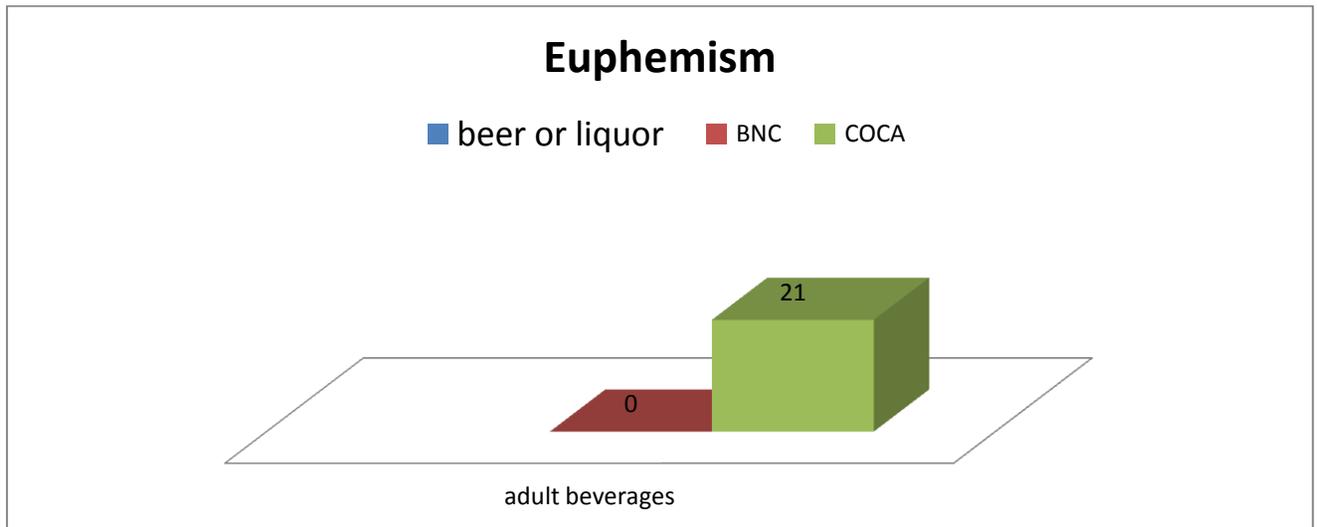


Diagram № 8.4. 22

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table №8.4.23

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
47	au natural	Naked	0	10

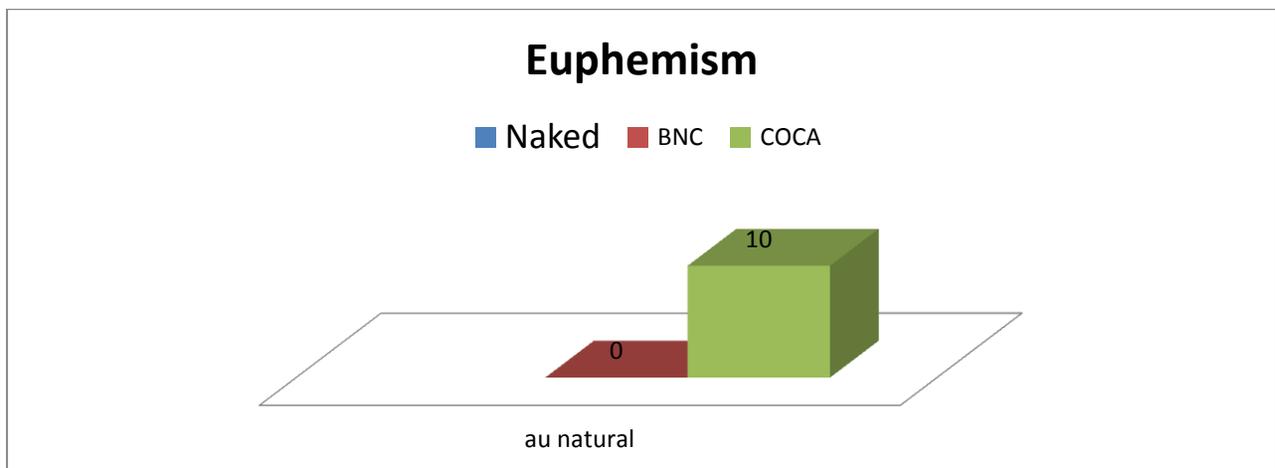


Diagram № 8.4 23

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.24

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
48	big-boned	heavy or overweight	13	130

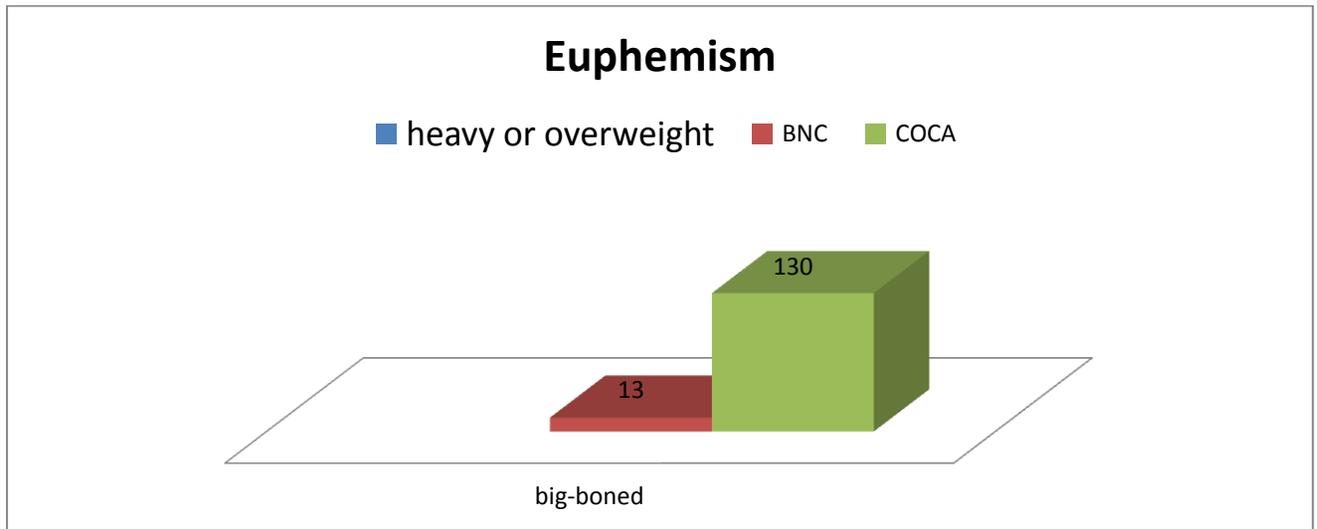


Diagram №8.4.24

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.25

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
49	portly	heavy or overweight	60	400

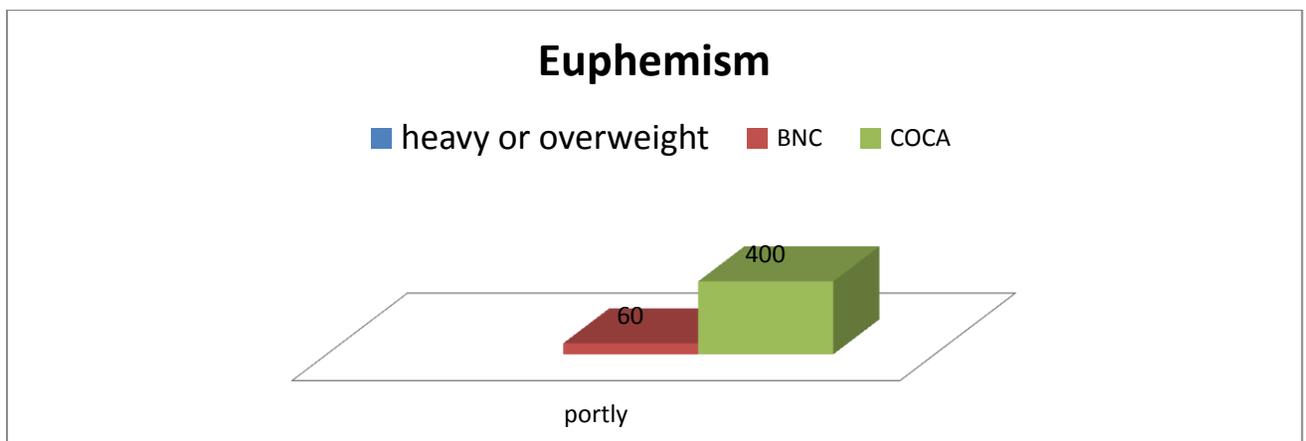
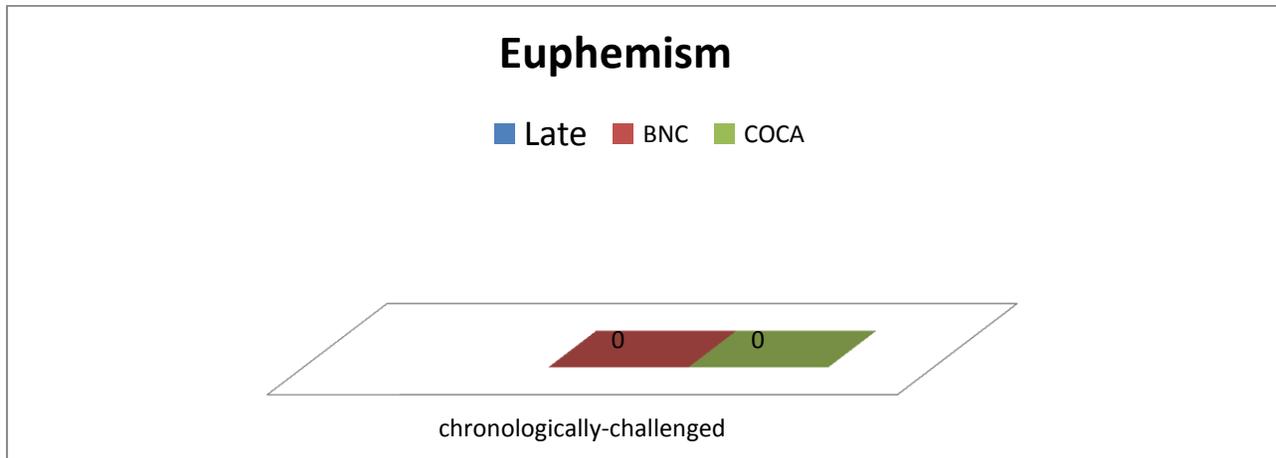


Diagram № 8.4. 25

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table№ 8.4.26

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
50	chronologically-challenged	Late	0	0

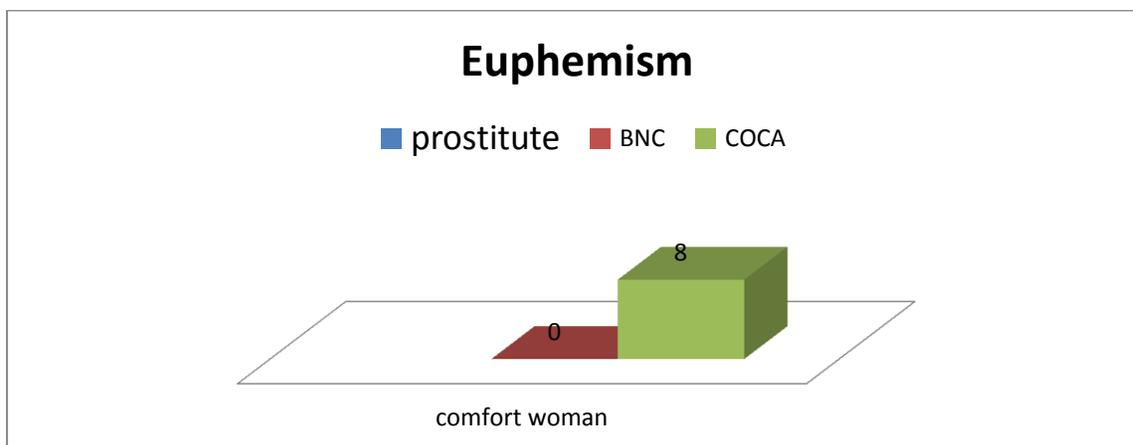


Diagram№ 8.4.26

No references can be found in either corpus.

Table№ 8.4.27

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
51	comfort woman	prostitute	0	8



Diagram№ 8.4.27

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table№ 8.4.28

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
52	use the rest room	go to the bathroom		9

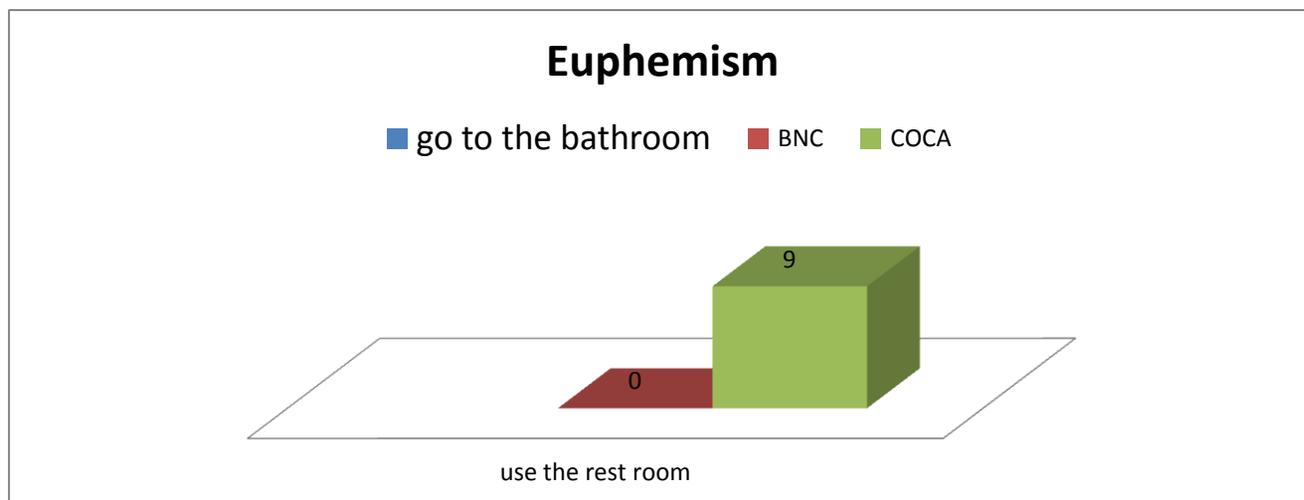


Diagram № 8.4.28

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table№ 8.4.29

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
53	break wind	pass gas	6	8

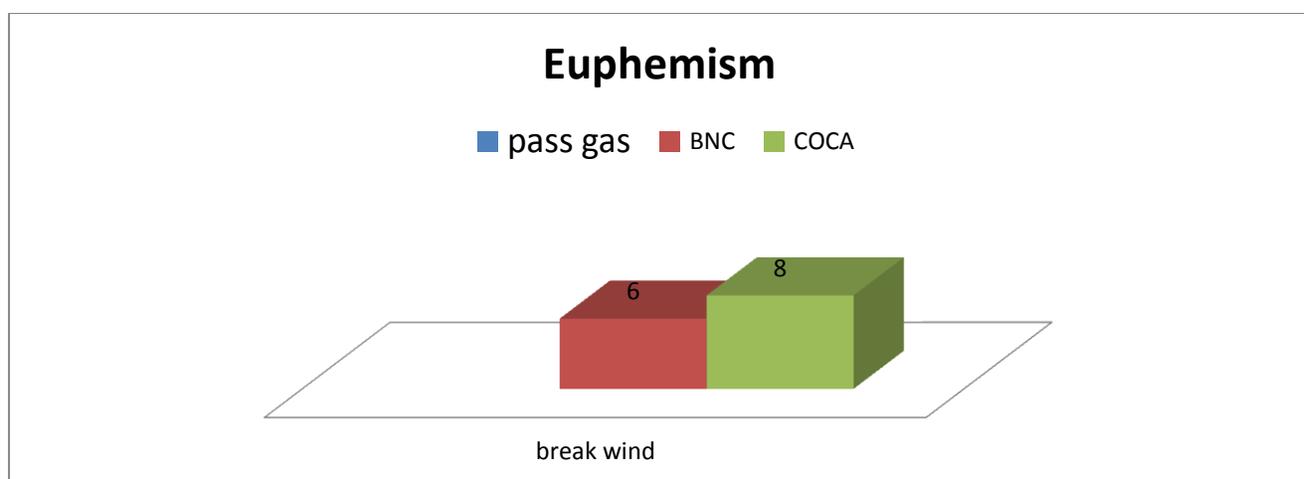


Diagram.№ 8.4. 29

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.30

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
54	The birds and the bees	Sex	5	52

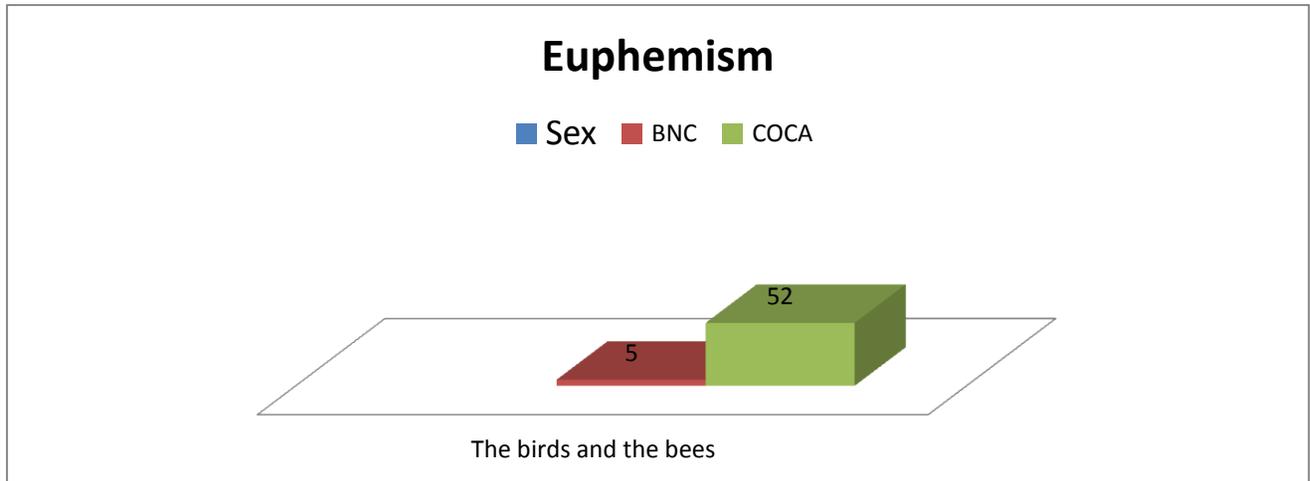


Diagram № 8.4.30

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.31

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
55	go all the way	have sex	124	720

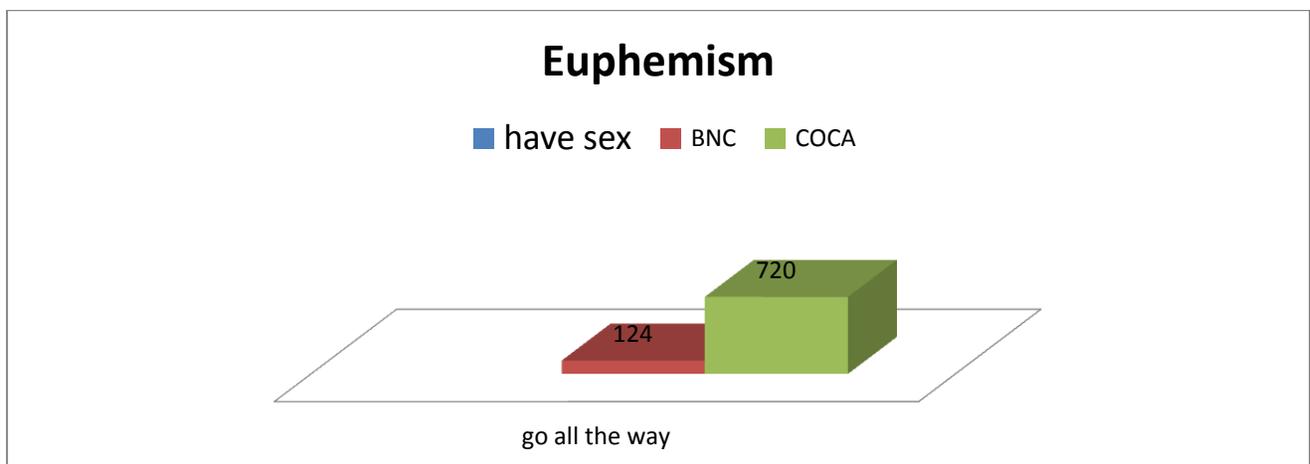


Diagram № 8.4.31

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.32

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
56	domestic engineer	maid	0	6

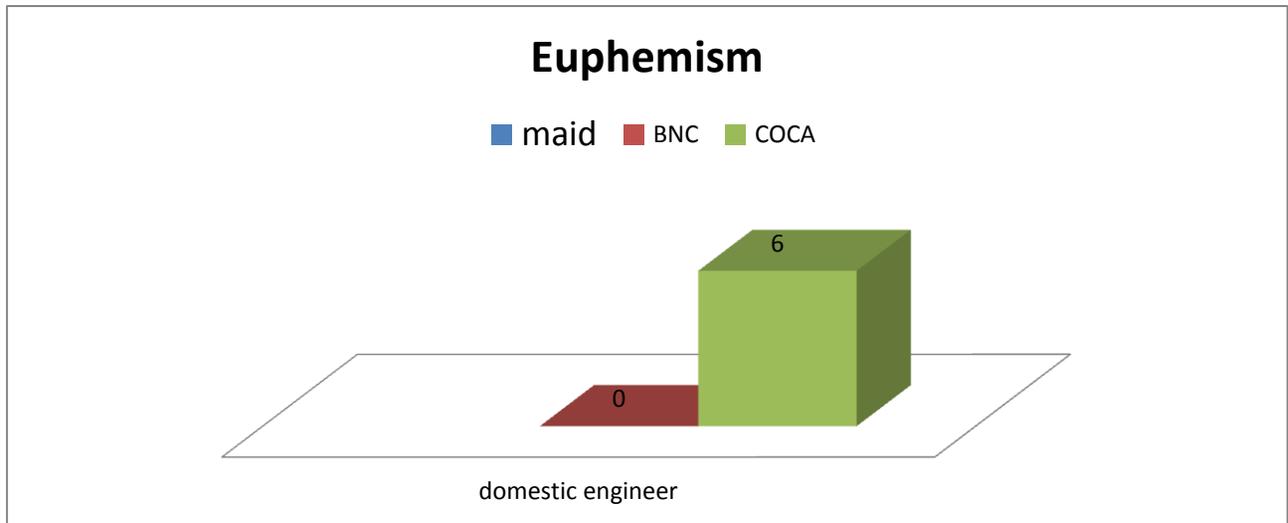


Diagram № 8.4.32

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.33

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
57	sleep together	have sex	21	141

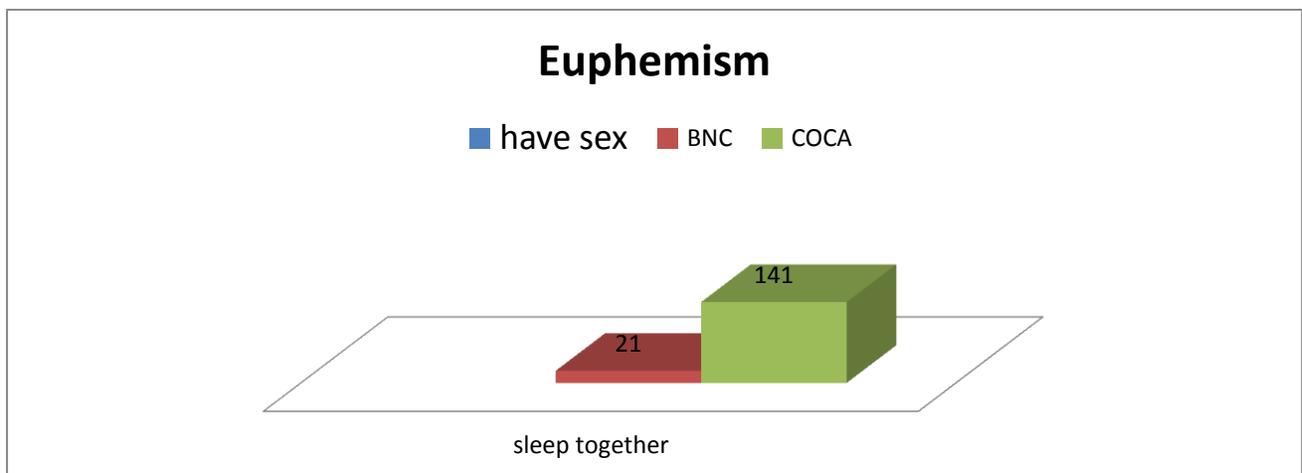


Diagram № 8.4. 33

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.34

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
58	sanitation engineer	Garbage man	1	5

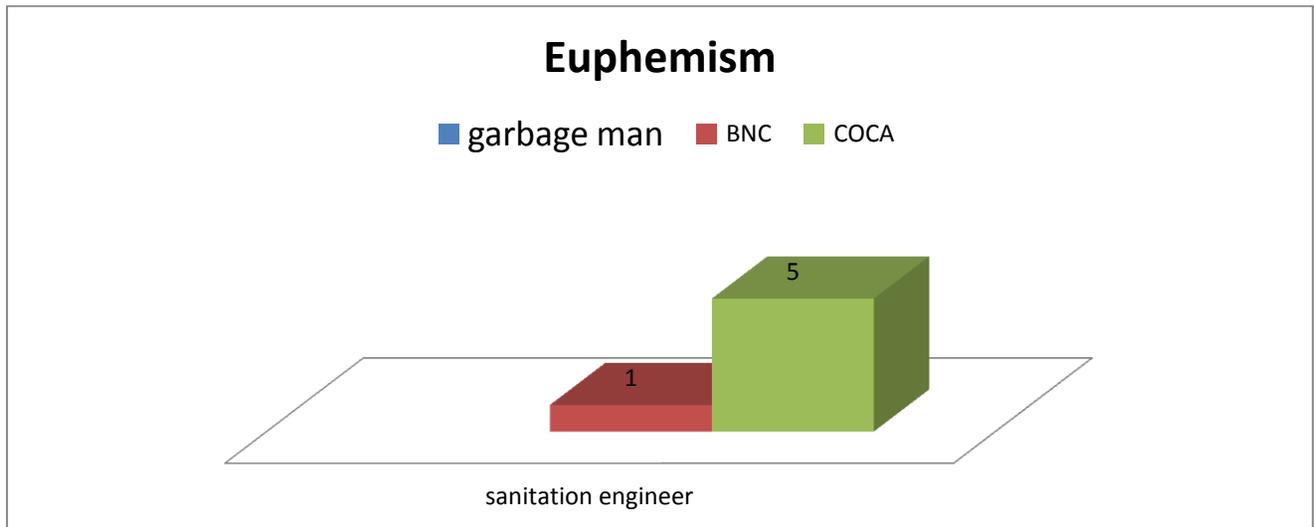


Diagram № 8.4.34

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.4.35

№	Euphemism	Meaning	BNC	COCA
59	vertically-challenged	short	0	0

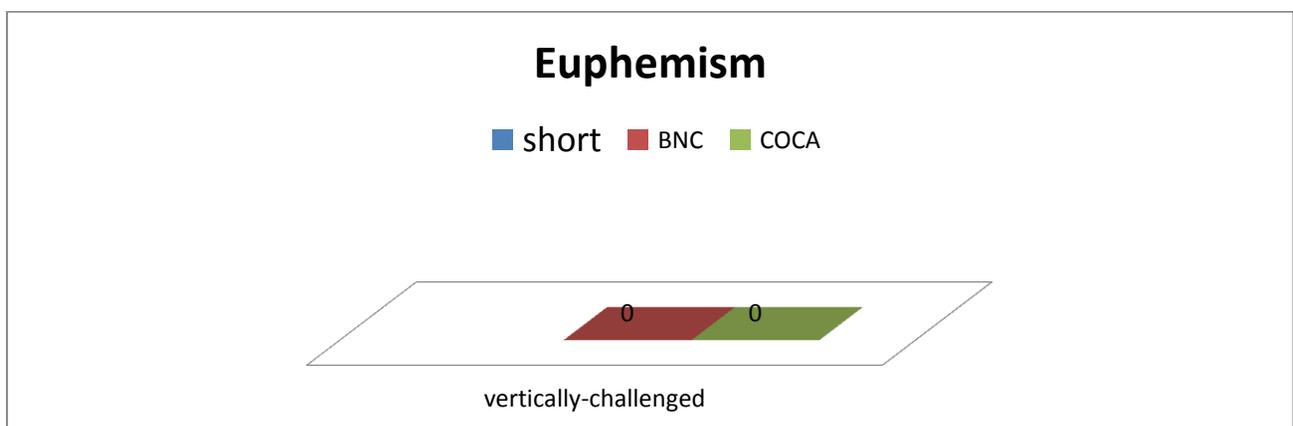


Diagram № 8.4.35

No references can be found in either of the corpuses.

8.4.36 Euphemisms -results

The frequency-based findings are the following:

Diagram № 8.4.1: six references out of eleven are more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram№ 8.4.2: one reference out of two is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram№ 8.4.3: four references out of seven are more frequent in COCA [than in BNC], two are not found, and one is equally frequent in both

Diagram№ 8.4.4: one reference out of two is more frequent in COCA and the other is not found

Diagram№ 8.4.5: two references out of two is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram№ 8.4.6: two references out of four are more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram№ 8.4.7: one reference out of one is more frequent in BNC [than in COCA]

Diagram№ 8.4.8: one reference out of one is more frequent in COCA, and one is not found.

Diagram № 8.4.9: both two references are more frequent in BNC [than COCA]

Diagram№ 8.4.10: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram № 8.4.11: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram № 8.4.12: the one and only reference is not found

Diagram№ 8.4.13: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram № 8.4.14: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC

Diagram № 8.4.15: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagrams № 8.4.16-25: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram № 8.4.26: the one and only reference is not found

Diagrams № 8.4.27-34: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram№ 8.4.35: the one and only reference could not be found.

As can be seen in the diagrams, twenty-nine cases can be found to fully support the hypothesis (Diagrams№ 8.4.5, 7, 8, 9 and № 8.4.10-34), two to strongly support it (Diagrams№ 8.4.2 and 4), and, finally, only one (Diagram№ 8.4.35) not to support it. Therefore, it can be stated that *the hypothesis within the area of Euphemisms can be confirmed as strongly true.*

The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Do you recognize these pairs of sentences? (If yes) How often do you use? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

EUPHEMISMS

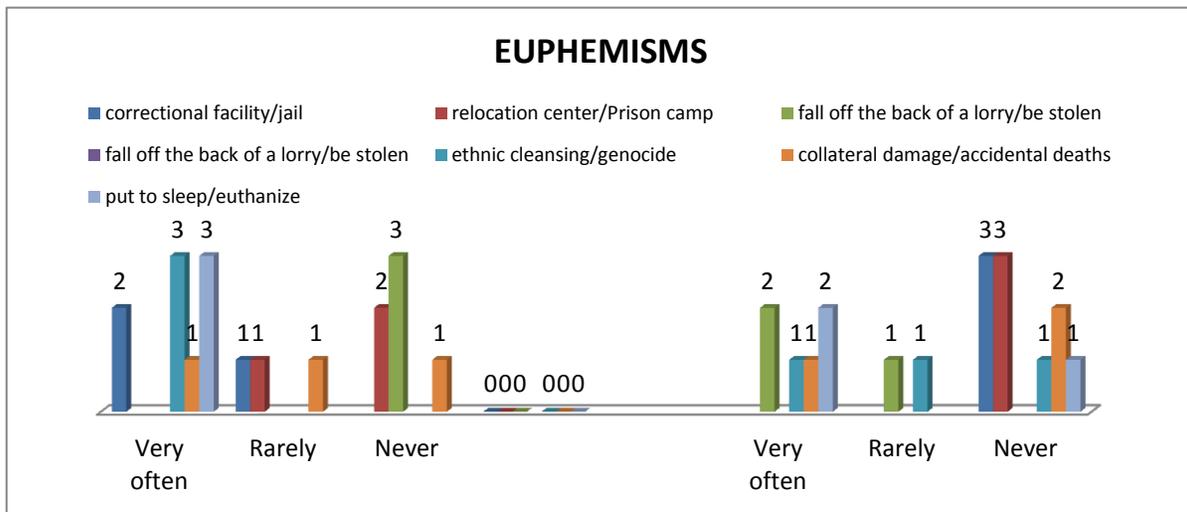


Diagram № 8.4.36

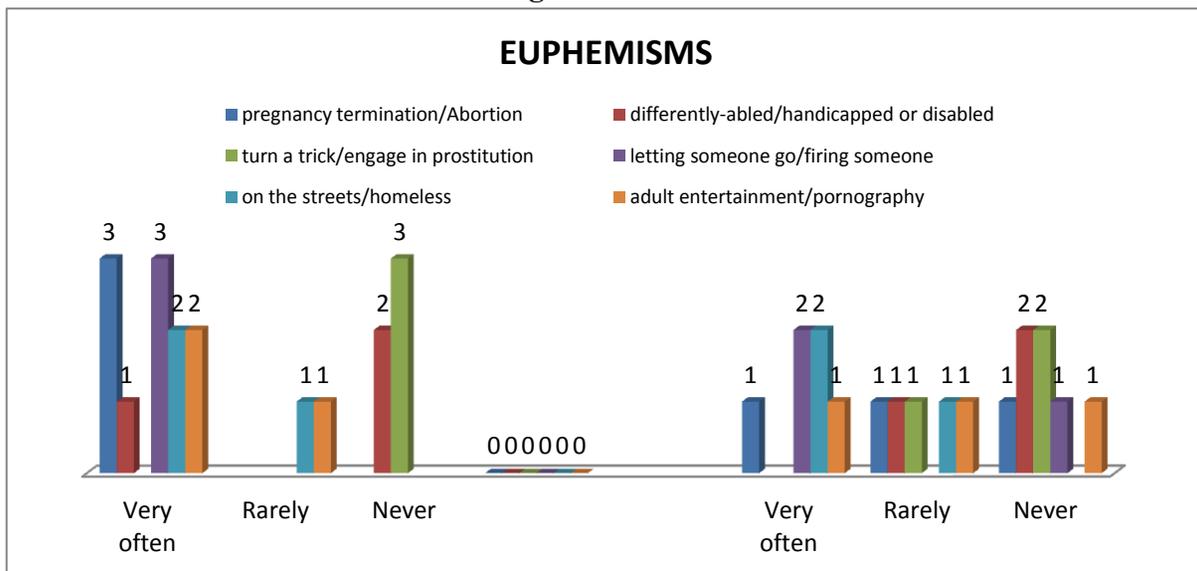


Diagram № 8.4.37

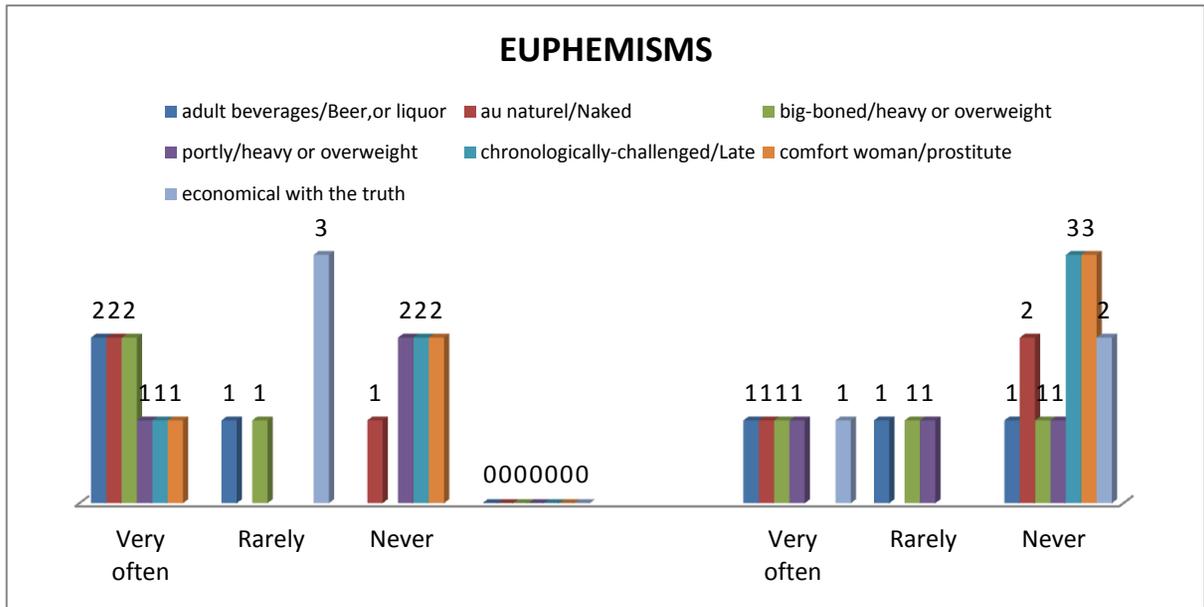


Diagram № 8.4.38

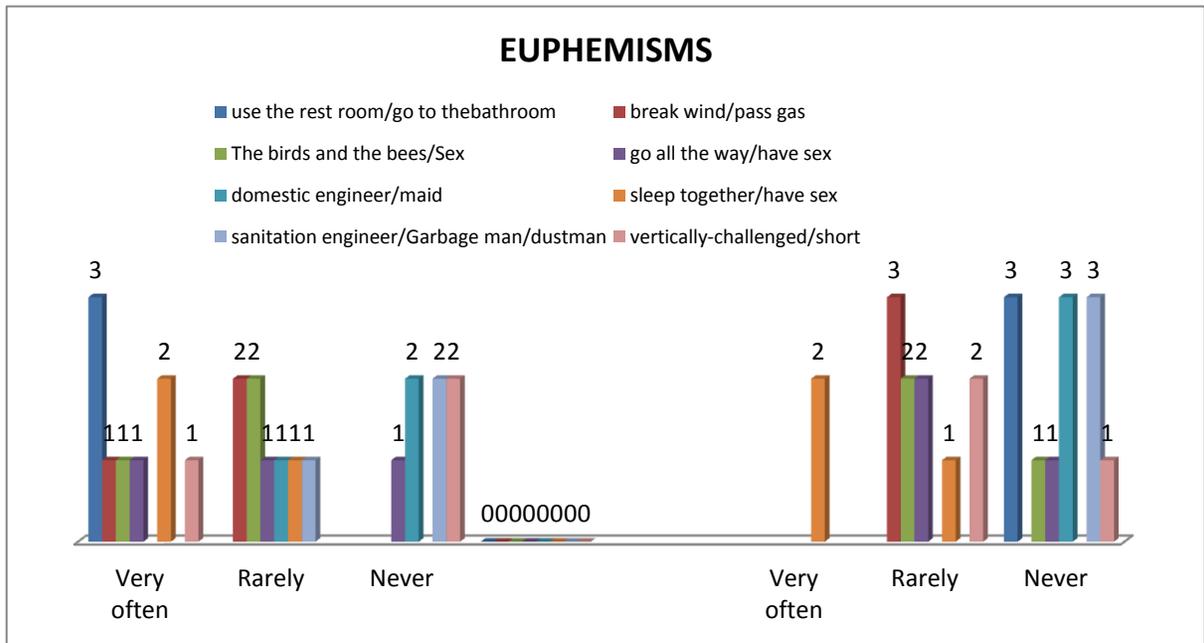


Diagram № 8.4.39

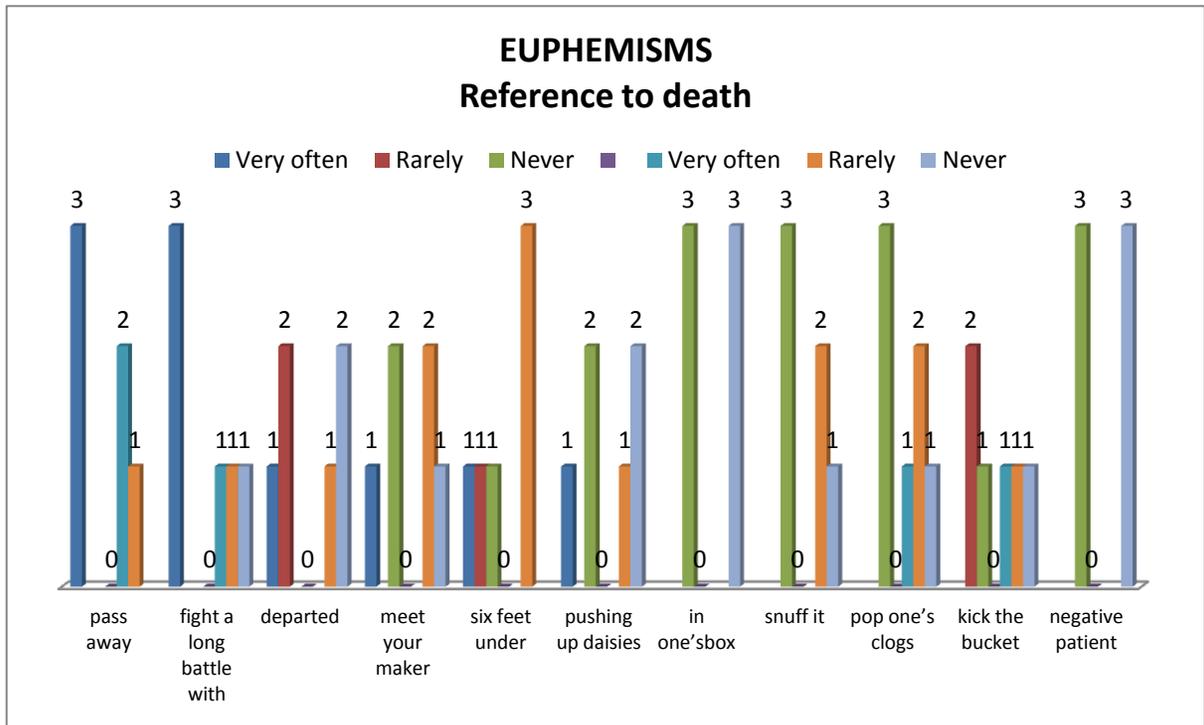


Diagram № 8.4.40

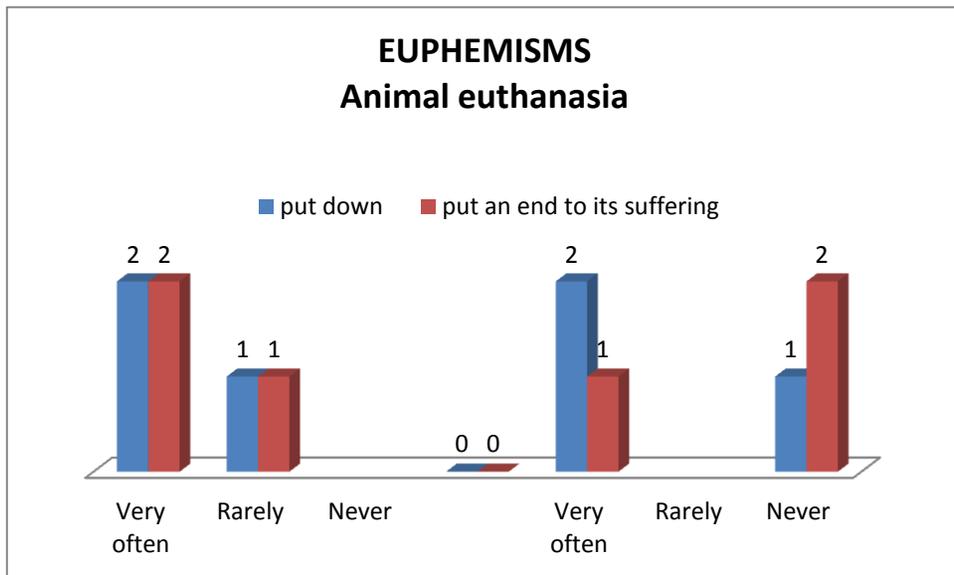


Diagram № 8.4.41

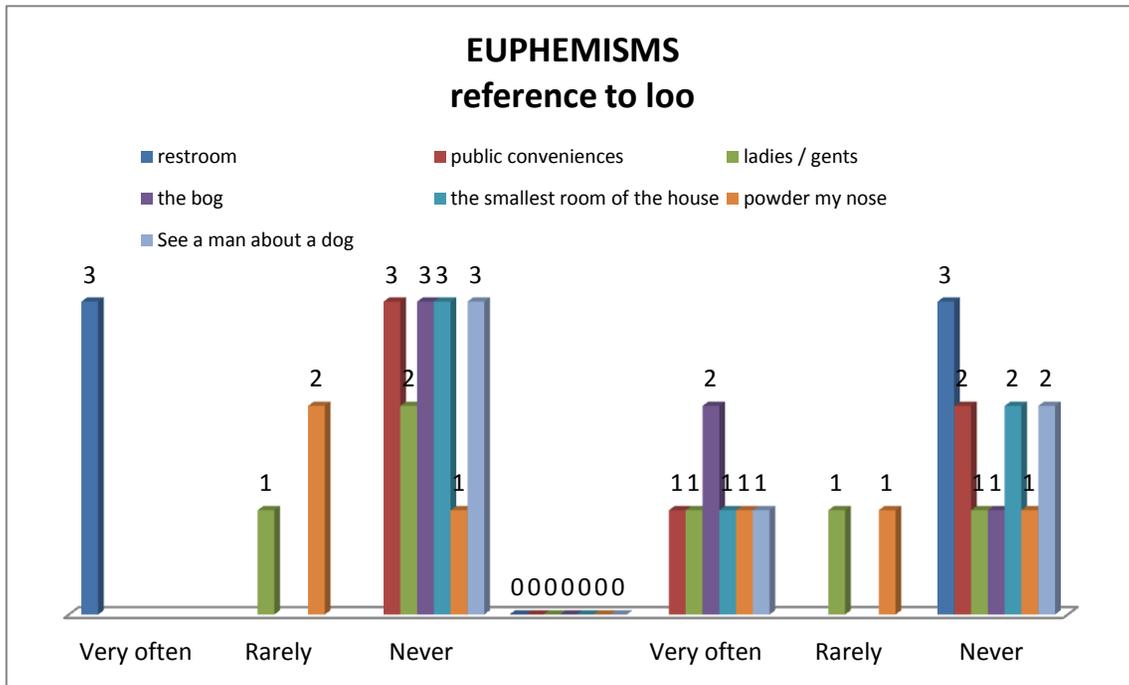


Diagram № 8.4.42

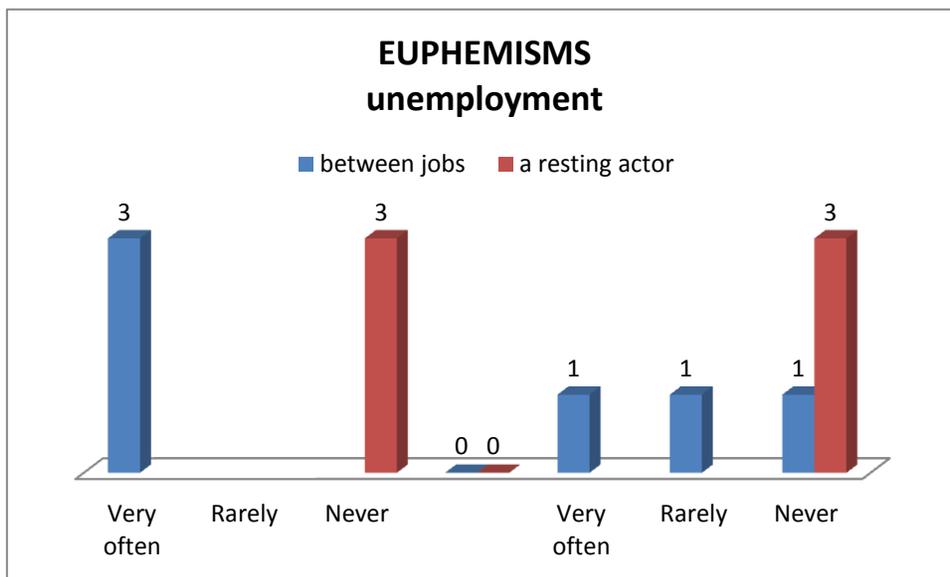


Diagram № 8.4.43

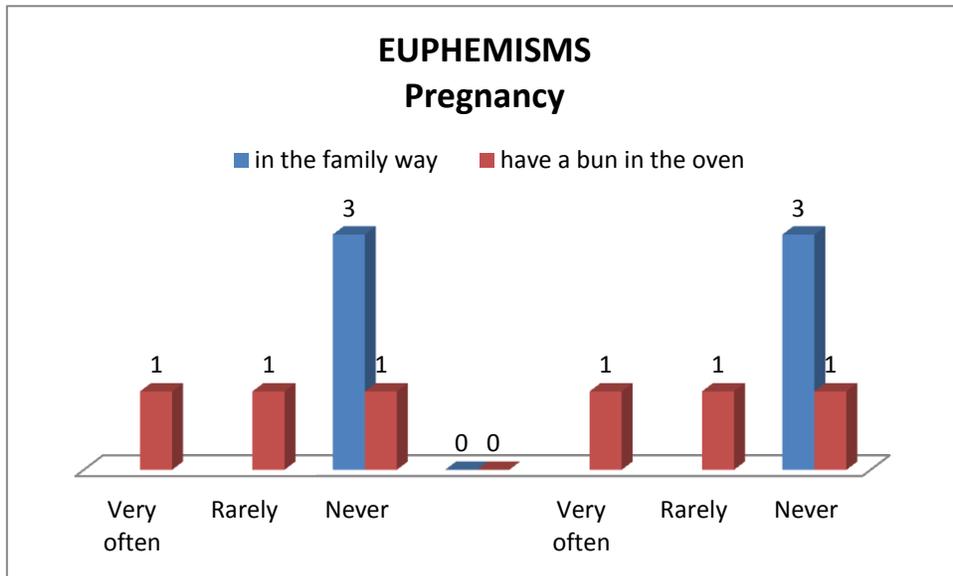


Diagram № 8.4.44

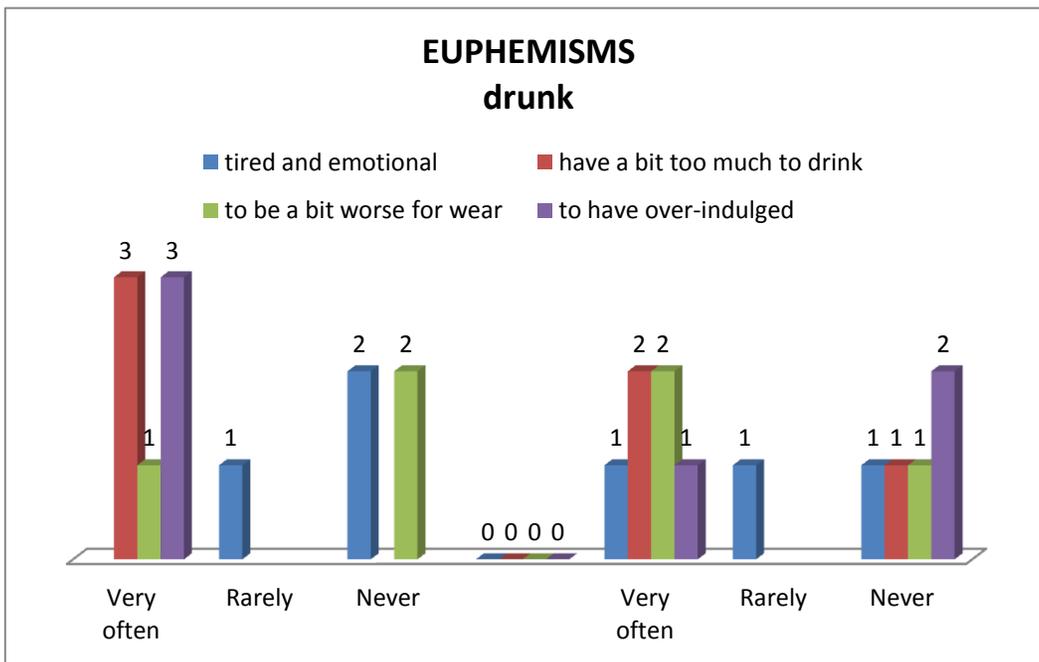


Diagram № 8.4.45

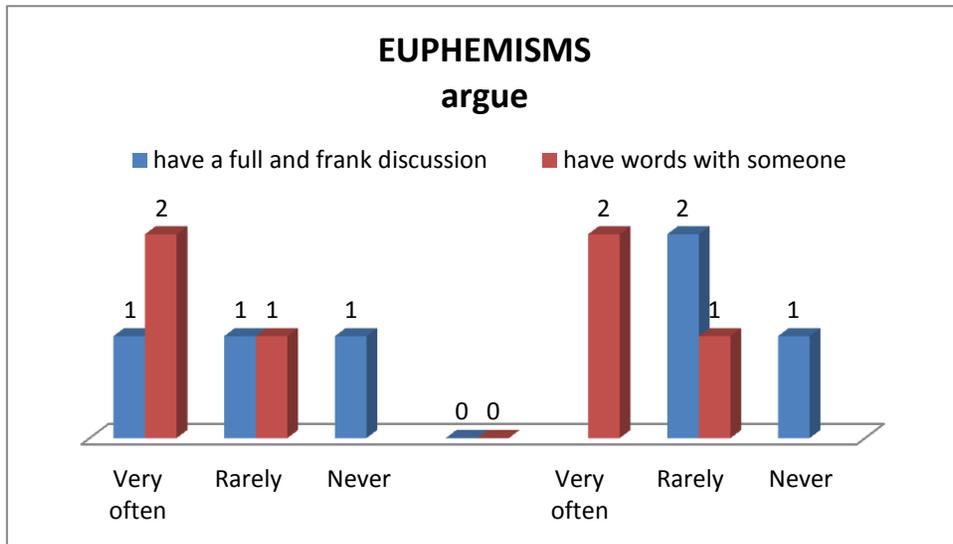


Diagram № 8.4.46

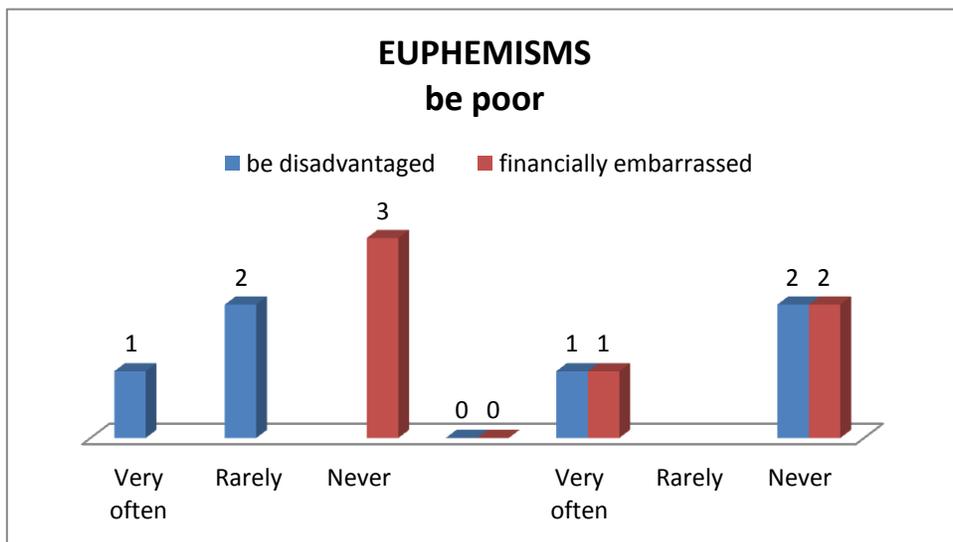


Diagram № 8.4.47

8.4.48 Received results according to the questionnaires

Diagram № 8.4.36

According to the diagram all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and in only one case only two native speakers have chosen that option.

Two British native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases, and all of them have chosen the option “never” in two cases .

Diagram № 8.4.37

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in only one case all of them have chosen the option “very often” in two cases, two of them have chosen the same option in two cases .

British are represented on the right side and in two cases two of them have chosen the option “very often” but also two of them in two cases have chosen the option “never”

Diagram № 8.4.38

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in only one case two of them have chosen the option “very often” in three cases, but two of them have chosen the option “never” in three cases .

British are represented on the right side and in two cases all of them have chosen the option “never” also two of them in two cases and one of them in three cases have chosen the same option “never”.

Diagram № 8.4.39

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case but in two other cases two of them have chosen the option “rarely” and two of them in three cases have chosen the option “never”. From the other side all British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “rarely”, two of them in two cases have chosen the same option and all of them in three cases the option “never”

Diagram № 8.4.40

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and one of them in four cases has chosen the same option, but in four other cases all of them have chosen the option “never” and two of them in two cases have chosen the

option “never”. From the other side all British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option “very often”, two of them in two cases have chosen the same option but all of them in one case have chosen the option “rarely” and also two of them in three cases have made the same choice.

Diagram № 8.4.41

According to this diagram two American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases. From the other side two British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often”, and one of them in one case has chosen the same option.

Diagram № 8.4.42

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case, but in four other cases all of them have chosen the option “never”. From the other side all British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” but three of them in one case have chosen the option “never” just like two of them in three cases.

Diagram № 8.4.43

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case but in another case three of them have chosen the option “never”. From the other side all British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram № 8.4.44

According to this diagram one of the American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case, but in another case all of them have chosen the option “never”. From the other side one of the British native speakers in one case has chosen the option “very often”, all of them in one case have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram № 8.4.45

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases but in two other cases two of them have chosen the option “never”. Two of the British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option “very often”, but two of them in one case have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram № 8.4.46

According to this diagram two American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case but in two other cases one of them has chosen the option “rarely”. Two of the British

native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often”, but two of them in one case have chosen the option “rarely”.

Diagram № 8.4.47

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “never” in one case and British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option “never”.

Consequently, one case presented in tables and diagrams have been found to strongly and eleven cases to partially support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Euphemisms* according to the obtained results in the questionnaires can be confirmed as partially true.

8.5 Politically correct terms

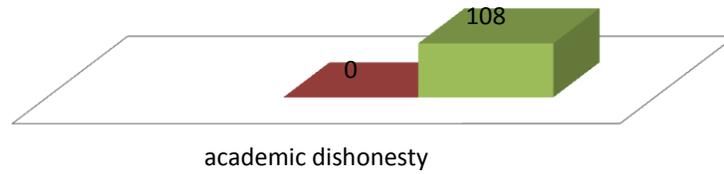
The area of this lexical level to follow as part of this research is **Politically correct expressions**. As in the previous areas, samples have been discussed in the theoretical part of this thesis. Certain books have been consulted but this is a more specific area and more research has been done on the Internet, more specifically, the samples are taken from www.scribd.com list of politically correct terms. 61 words thus obtained are organized in tables with their corresponding meanings explained. The frequency is checked in the two ways already described in the previous sections. Similarly, the results thus obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are drawn based on whether the results comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

Table№ 8.5.1

№	Politically correct terms	Meaning	BNC	COCA
1	academic dishonesty	cheating		108
2	achieve a deficiency	fail		
3	animal assassin	hunter		
4	challenge challenged	cowardly		
5	chemically challenged	drug addict		
6	comb-free	bald		
7	cosmetically different	ugly		
8	creatively re-dyed	stained		
9	differently brained	stupid		
10	differently logical	wrong	2	

Politically correct terms

■ cheating ■ BNC ■ COCA

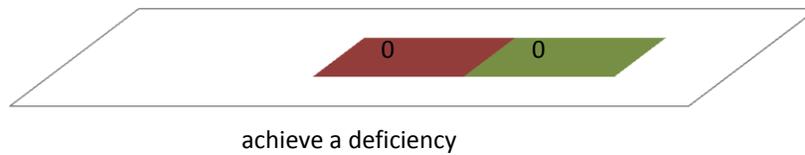


Diagram№ 8.5.1a

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC

Politically correct terms

■ fail ■ BNC ■ COCA

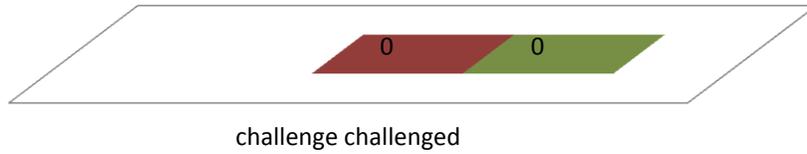


Diagram№ 8.5.1b

No references can be found in either of the corpuses.

Politically correct terms

■ cowardly ■ BNC ■ COCA

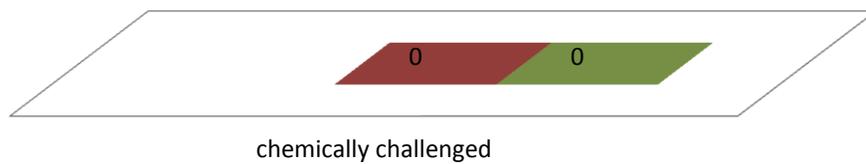


Diagram№ 8.5.1c

No references can be found in either corpus.

Politically correct terms

■ drug addict ■ BNC ■ COCA

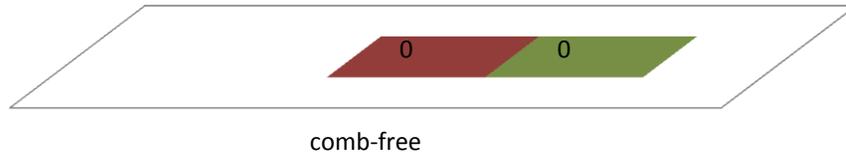


Diagram№ 8.5.1d

No references can be found in either of the corpuses.

Politically correct terms

■ bald ■ BNC ■ COCA

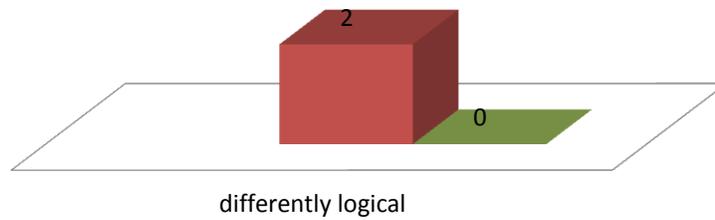


Diagram№ 8.5.1e

No references can be found in either corpus.

Politically correct terms

■ wrong ■ BNC ■ COCA

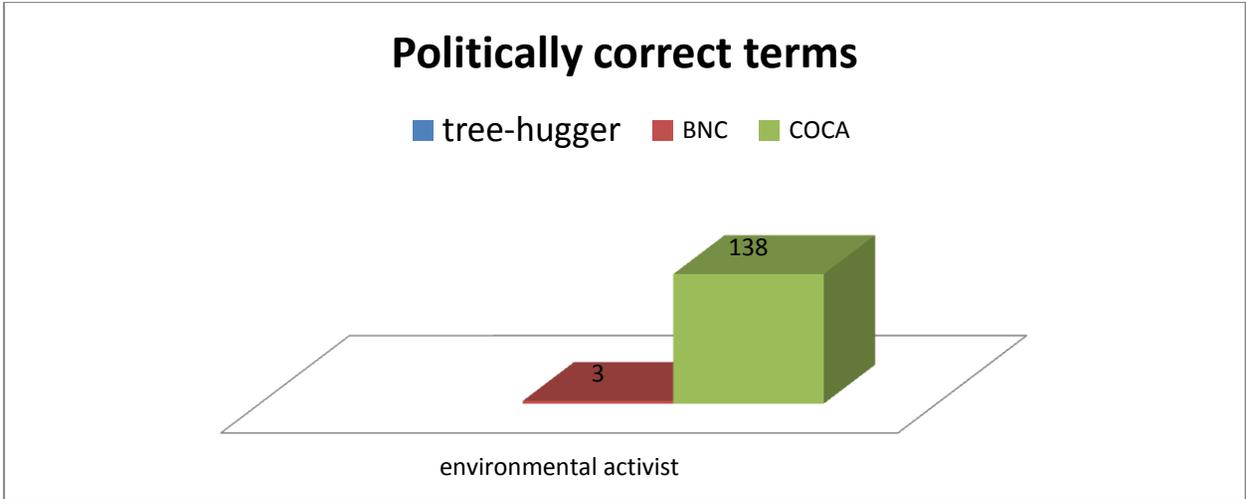


Diagram№ 8.5.1f

The reference is more frequent in BNC than in COCA.

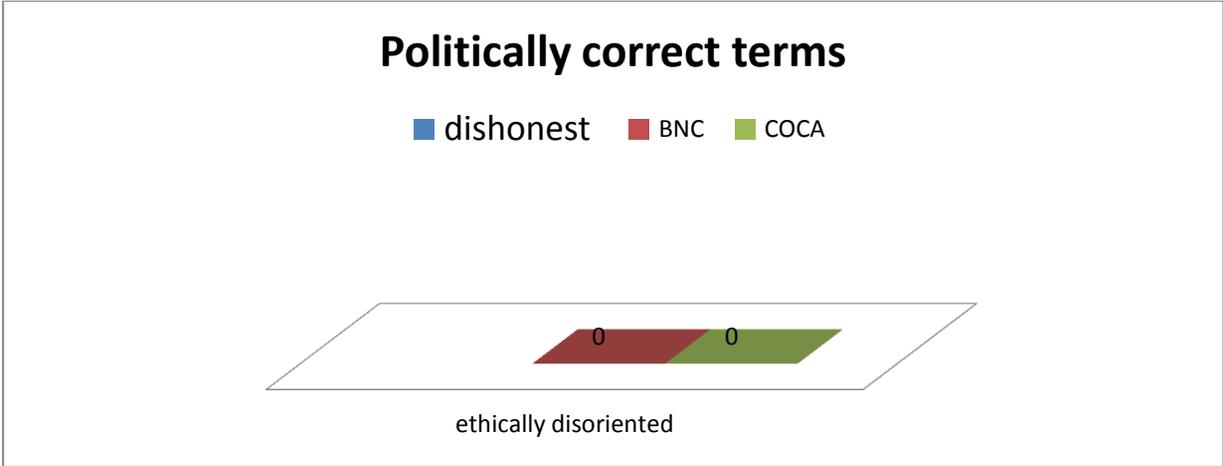
Table №8.5.2

№	Politically correct term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
11	differently qualified	incompetent		
12	economically marginalized	poor		16
13	educational resource center	library		2
14	emotional rape	insult		3
15	environmental activist	tree-hugger	3	138
16	ethically disoriented	dishonest		
17	factually unencumbered	ignorant		
18	family dysfunction	Housebroken		
19	First-year student	freshman		
20	cabin crew	steward, stewardess, flight attendant	2	1110



Diagram№ 8.5.2a

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC

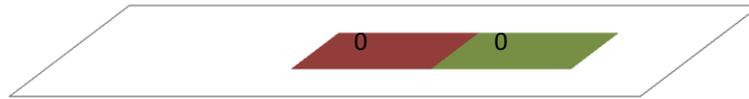


Diagram№ 8.5.2b

No references can be found in either of the corpuses.

Politically correct terms

■ housebroken ■ BNC ■ COCA



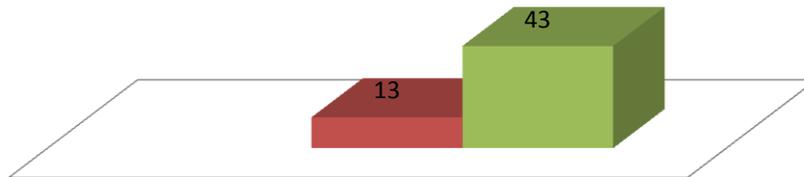
family disfunction

Diagram№ 8.5.2c

No references can be found in either corpus.

Politically correct terms

■ freshman ■ BNC ■ COCA



first-year student

Diagram№ 8.5.2d

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Politically correct terms

■ steward, stewardess ■ BNC ■ COCA

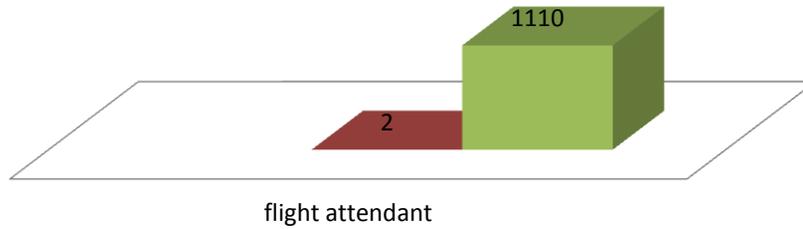


Diagram № 8.5.2e

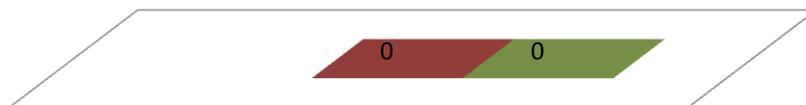
The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table №8.5.3

№	Politically correct term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
21	commercial fisherman	flipper whipper		
22	genetically discriminating	racist		
23	gerontologically advanced	old person / elderly person		
24	homeless person	bum	10	197
25	humankind	mankind	136	1555
26	letter carrier	postman		80
27	little people	Midgets / Dwarves	70	538
28	maintenance hole	man-hole		
29	<u>mechanically challenged</u>	broken down automobile		6
30	mental explorers	insane people		

Politically correct terms

■ commercial fisherman ■ BNC ■ COCA



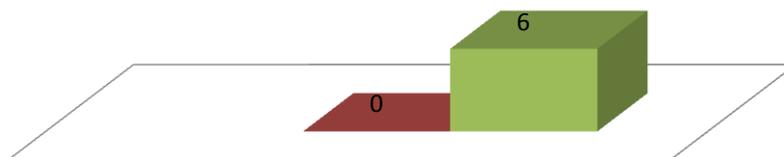
flipper whipper

Diagram № 8.5.3a

References cannot be found in either corpus..

Politically correct terms

■ broken down automobile ■ BNC ■ COCA



mechanically challenged

Diagram № 8.5.3b

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

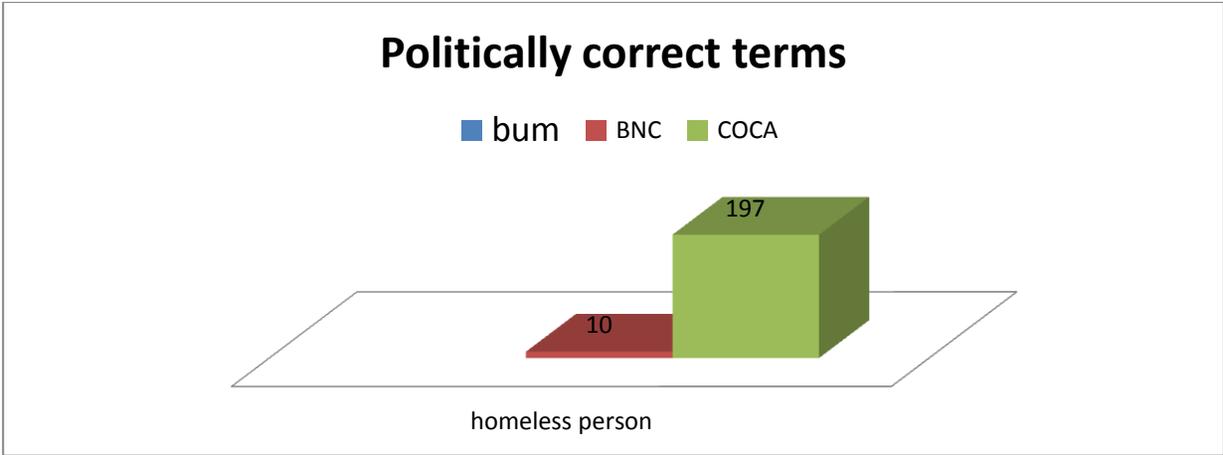


Diagram № 8.5.3c
The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

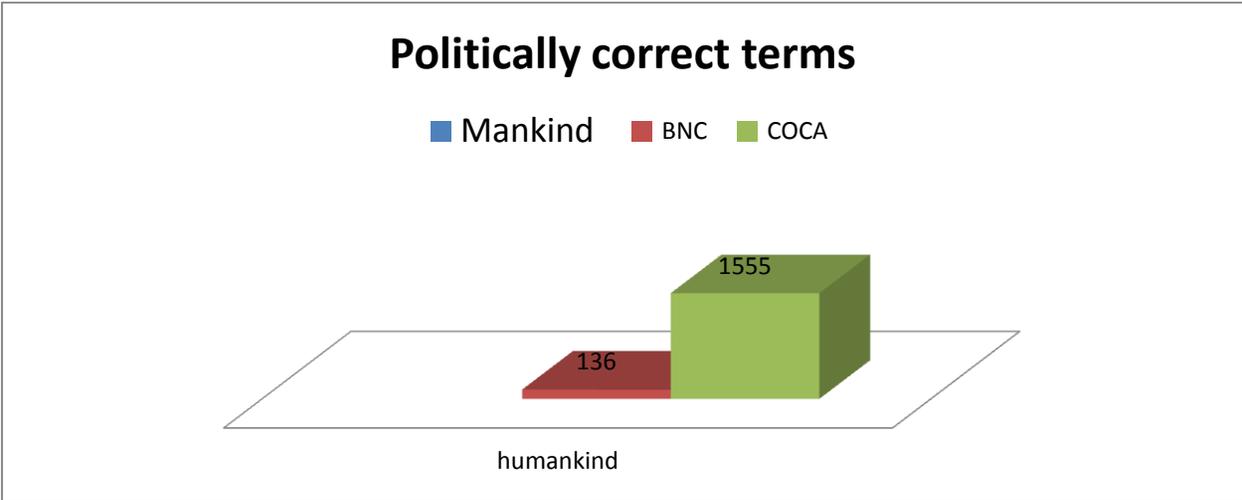


Diagram № 8.5.3d
The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table№ 8.5.4

№	Politically correct term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
31	morally (ethically) challenged	a crook		4
32	motivationally deficient.	lazy		
33	musically delayed	tone deaf		
34	nasally gifted	large nose		
35	near-Life Experience	abortion		
36	newcomer	immigrant	115	397
37	ontologically challenged	fictional / mythological		
38	optically darker	blind		
39	osmotically challenged	thirsty		

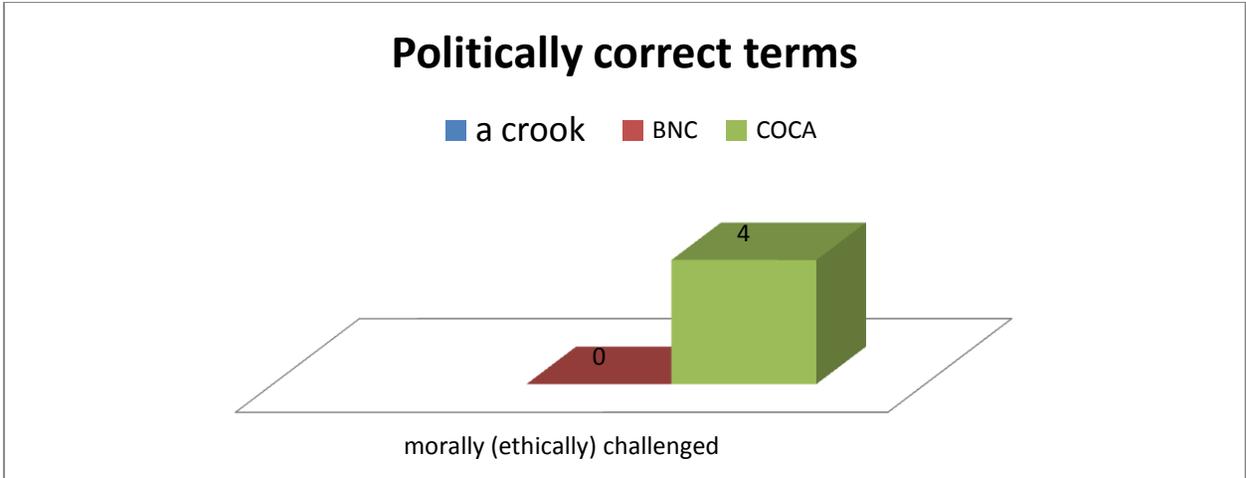


Diagram № 8.5.4a
 The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

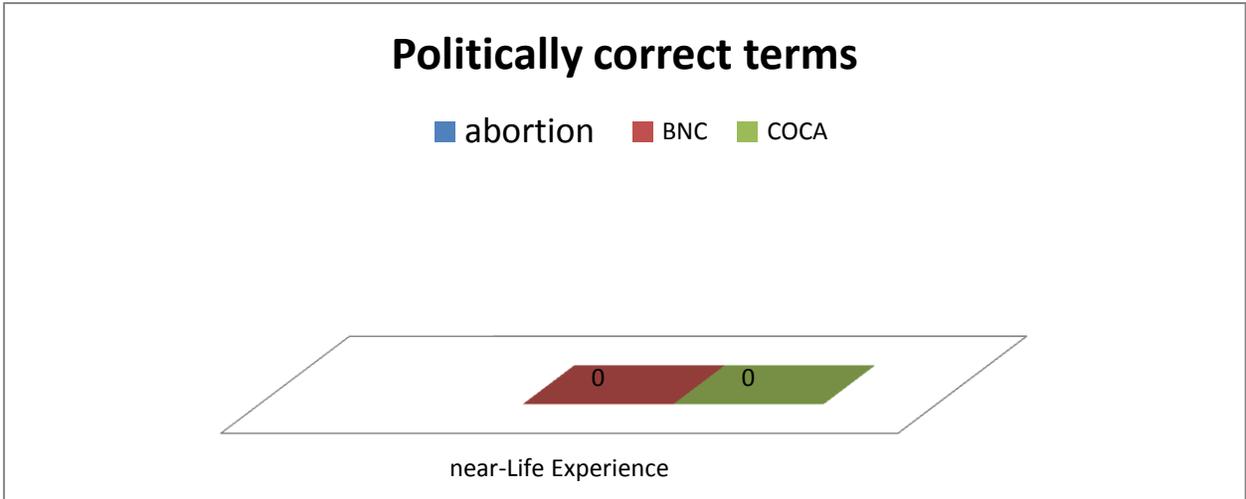


Diagram № 8.5.4b
 No references can be found in either corpus.

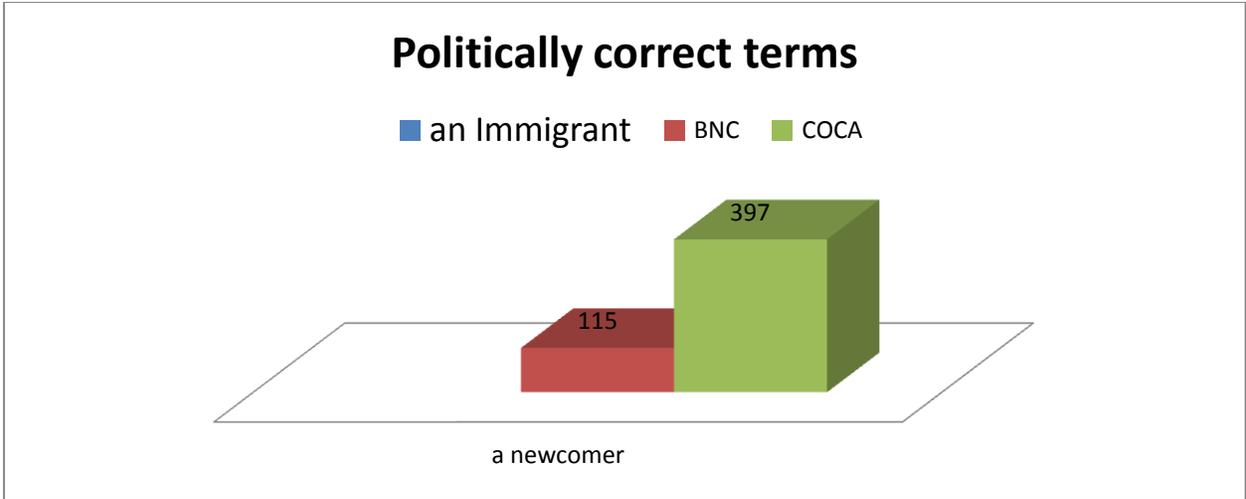


Diagram № 8.5.4c
The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC

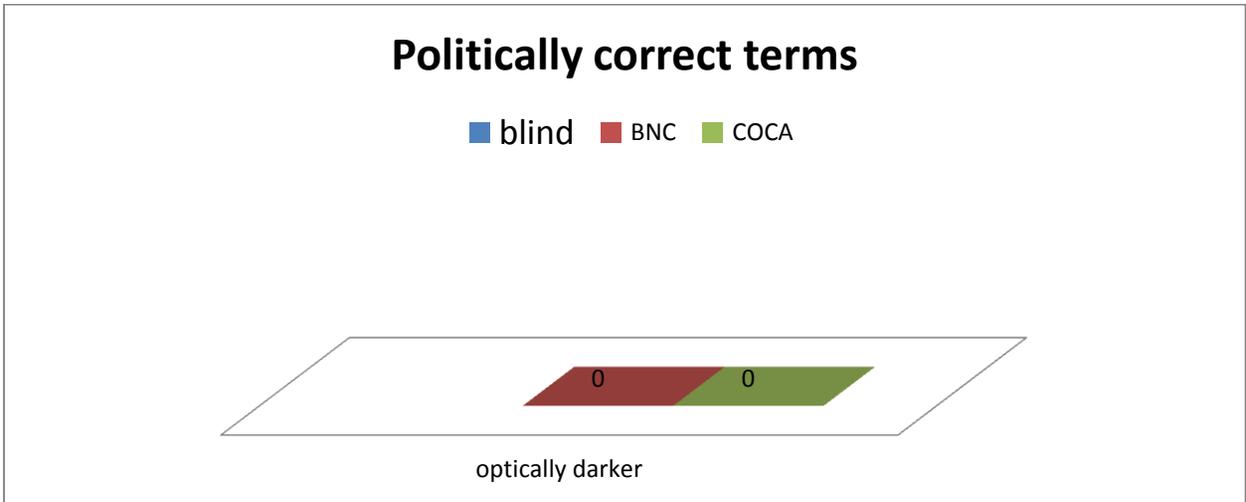


Diagram № 8.5.4d
No references can be found in either corpus.

Table № 8.5.5

№	Politically correct term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
40	paper pirate	logger		1
41	parking enforcer	meter maid		
42	permanently static post-human mass	corpse		
43	person with difficult-to-meet needs	serial-killer		
44	person of region?	redneck		
45	person of substance	fat		8
46	porcelain	China	345	2445
47	processed tree carcass	paper bag		
48	processed tree carcass	paper bag	1	
49	racially challenged	white American		1

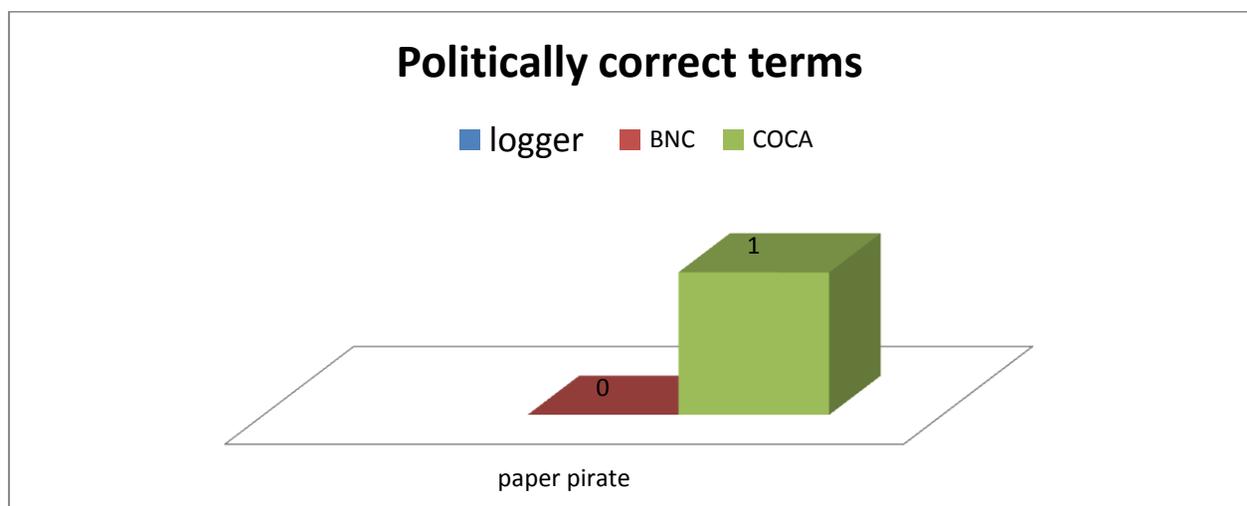
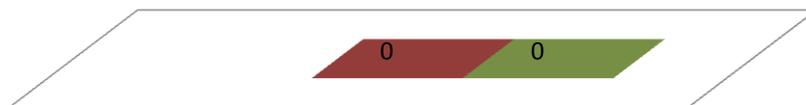


Diagram № 8.5.5 a

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Politically correct terms

■ corpse ■ BNC ■ COCA



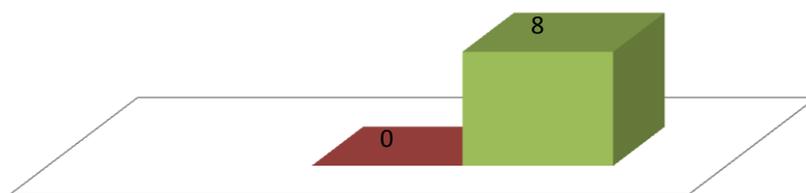
permanently static post-human mass

Diagram № 8. 5.5 b

No references can be found in either corpus.

Politically correct terms

■ fat ■ BNC ■ COCA



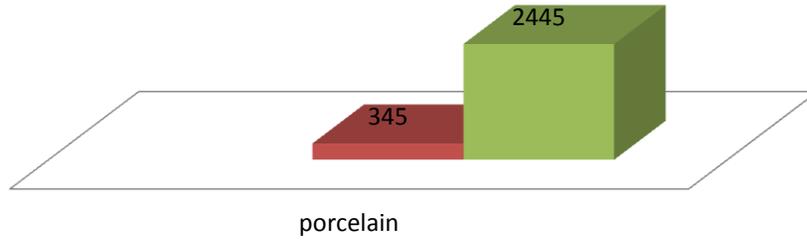
person of substance

Diagram № 8. 5.5 b

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Politically correct terms

■ China ■ BNC ■ COCA

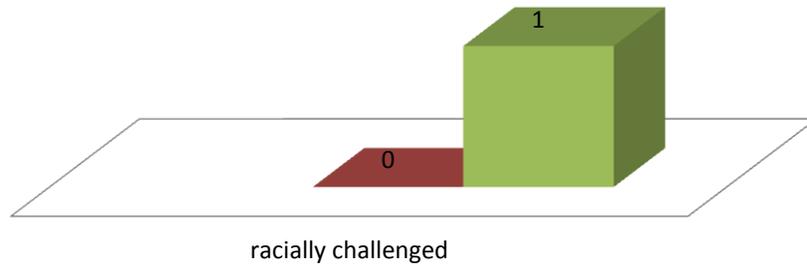


Diagram№ 8. 5.5 c

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Politically correct terms

■ white american ■ BNC ■ COCA



Diagram№ 8. 5.5 d

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.5.6

№	Politically correct term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
50	second place	loser		
51	selective speech	censorship		
52	street activity index	crime rate		
53	target equity group	vocal minority		
54	temporarily challenged	chronically late		
55	temporarily metabolically abled	alive		
56	uniquely coordinated	clumsy		
57	Unsavoury	a criminal		16
58	utensil sanitizer	dish washer		
59	visually oriented	deaf	1	37
60	youth group	gang	34	260

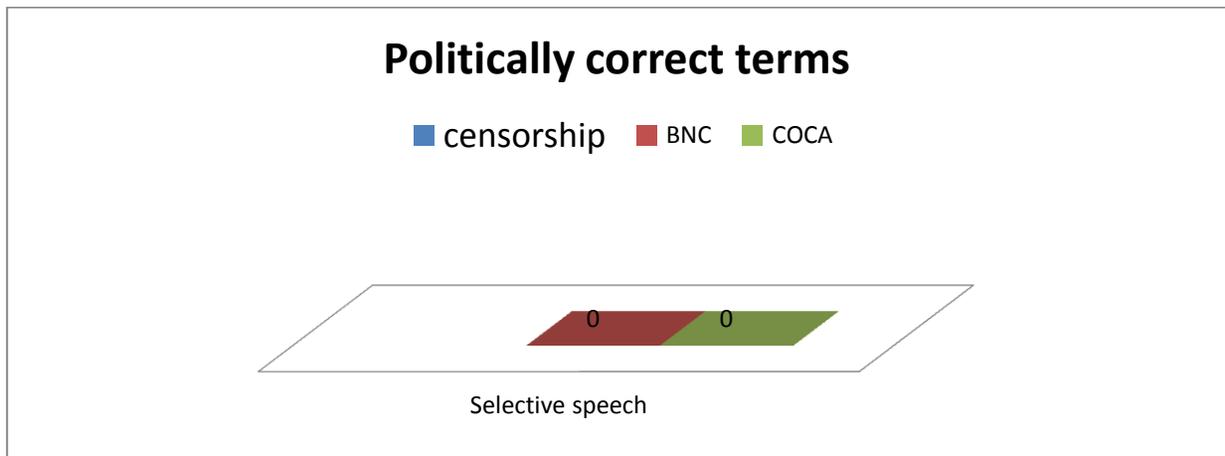
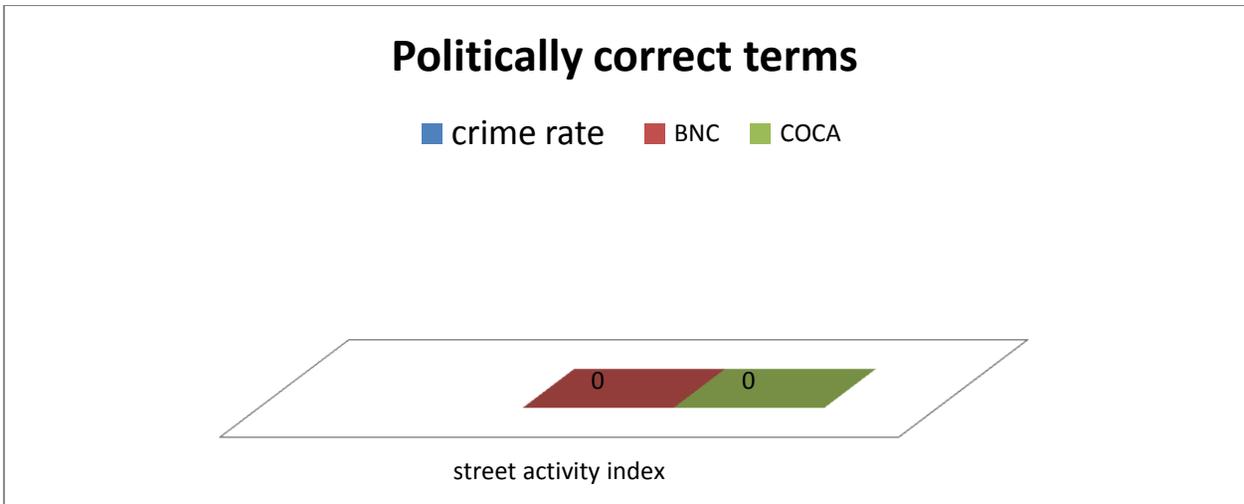
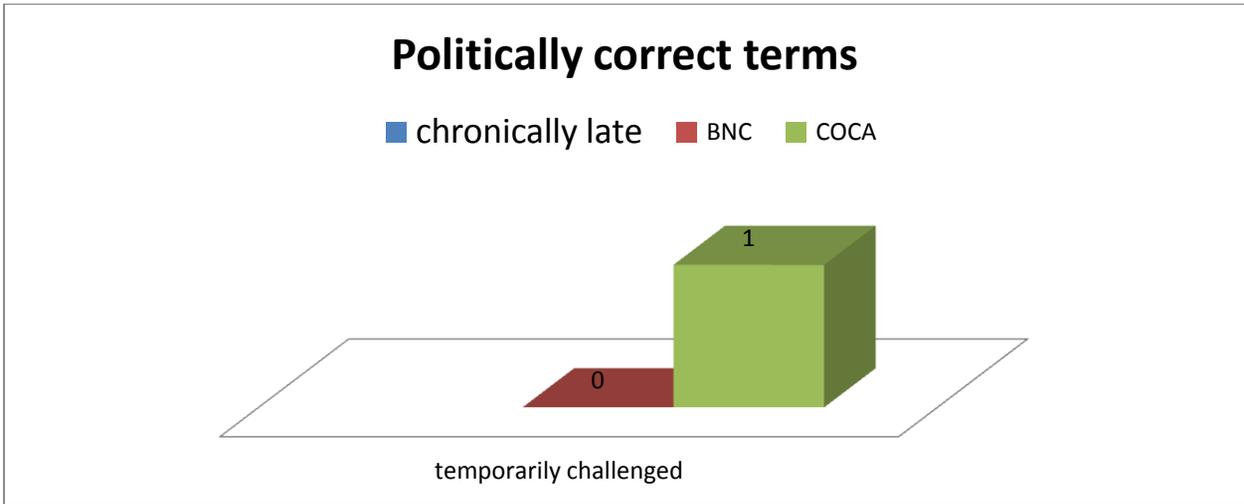


Diagram № 8. 5.6 a

No references can be found in either of the corpuses.



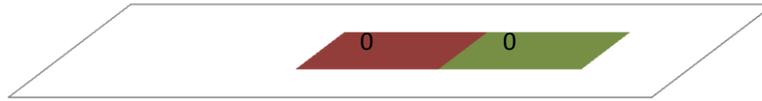
Diagram№ 8. 5.6 b
 No references can be found in either corpus.



Diagram№ 8. 5.6 c
 The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Politically correct terms

■ alive ■ BNC ■ COCA



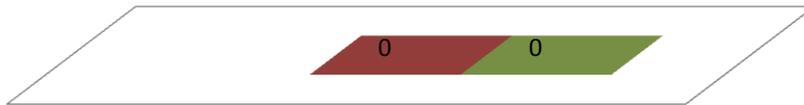
temporarily metabolically abled

Diagram№ 8. 5.6 d

No references can be found in either corpus.

Politically correct terms

■ clumsy ■ BNC ■ COCA



uniquely coordinated

Diagram№ 8. 5.6 e

No references can be found in either corpus.

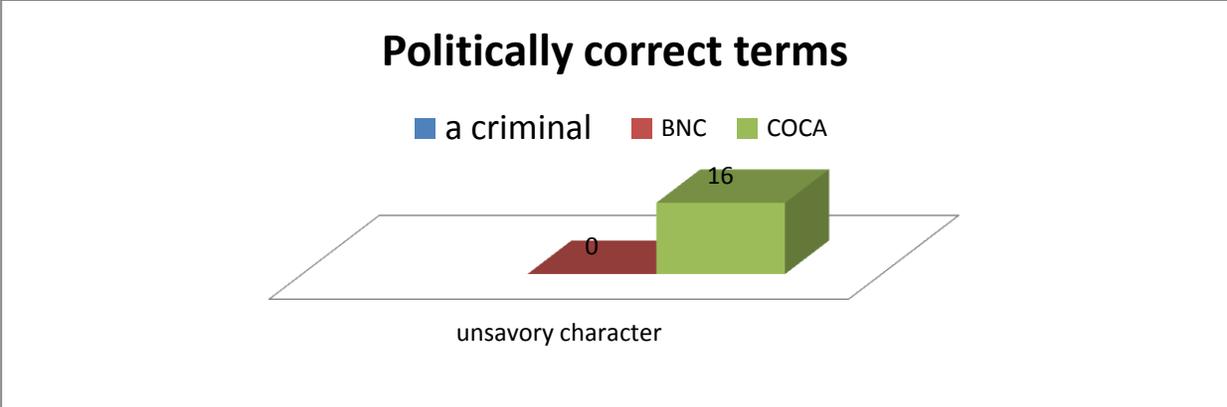


Diagram № 8. 5.6 f
 The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

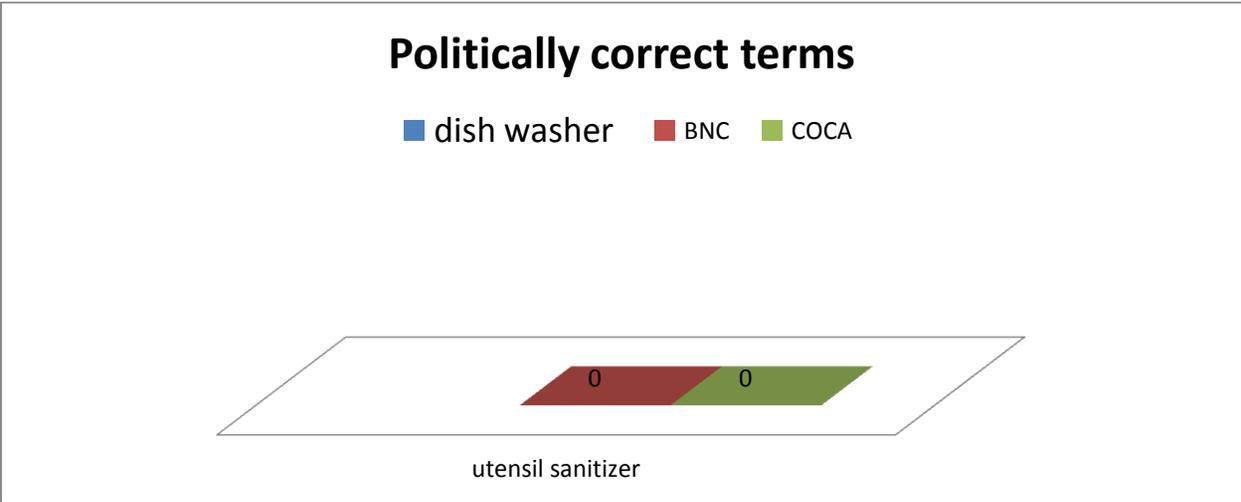


Diagram № 8. 5.6 g
 No references can be found in either corpus.

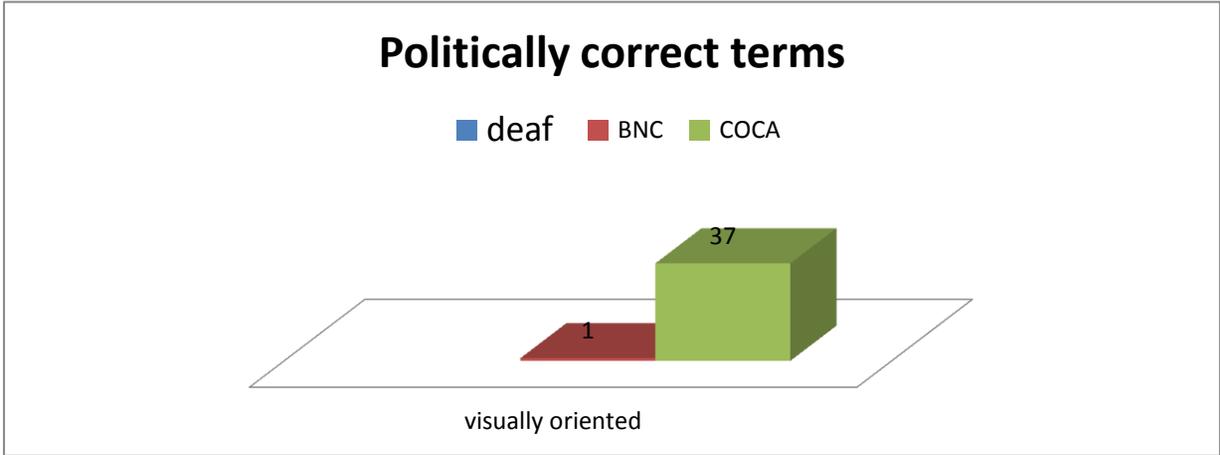


Diagram № 8. 5.6 h

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

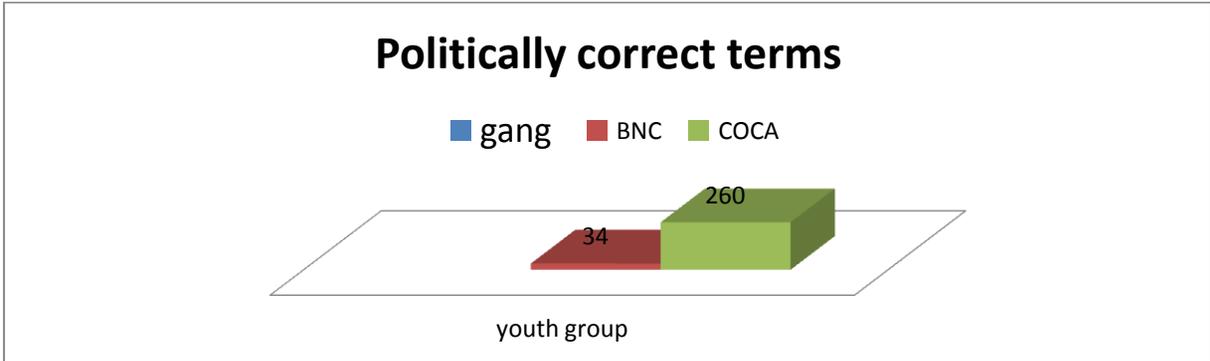


Diagram № 8. 5.6 i

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

8.5.7 Politically correct terms –results

The frequency-based findings are the following:

Diagram 8.5.1a.: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagrams 8.5.1b-8.5.1c: the reference could not be found in either of the corpuses

Diagrams 8.5.1d-1f: the reference could not be found in either of the corpuses

Diagram 8.5.2a: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagrams 8.5.2b-2c: the reference could not be found in either of the corpuses

Diagrams 8.5.2d-2e: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.5.3a: the reference could not be found in either of the corpuses

Diagram 8.5.3b: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagrams 8.5.3c-3d: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.5.4a: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.5.4b: the reference could not be found in either of the corpuses

Diagram 8.5.4c one reference out of one is more frequent in COCA than in BNC

Diagram 8.5.4d: the reference could not be found in either of the corpuses

Diagrams 8.5.5a-5.e: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA [than in BNC]

Diagram 8.5.5.b: the reference could not be found in either of the corpuses

Diagrams 8.5.6a -8.5.6.g: the reference could not be found in either of the corpuses

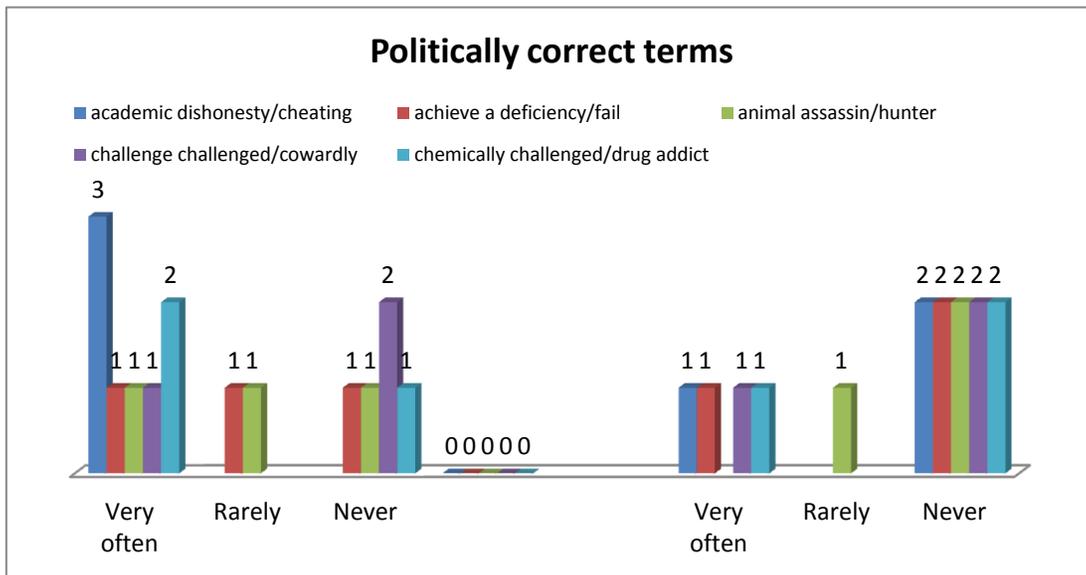
Diagram 8.5.6c.-8.5.6i: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

As can be shown in the diagrams, twenty cases can be found to fully support the hypothesis with this category (Diagrams 8.5.1a, 8.5.2a, 8.5.2d, 8.5.2e, 8.5.3.b, 8.5.3c, 8.5.3.d, 8.5.4.a, 8.5.4c, 8.5.5a-8.5.5e, and 8.5.6.c-6.i), while eighteen cases (Diagram 8.5.1a-8.5.1f, 8.5.2b, 8.5.2c, 8.5.3a, 8.5.4b, 8.5.4d, 8.5.5b and 8.5.6a-6g) do not support it. Therefore, it can be argued that the hypothesis *Politically correct terms* can be confirmed as partially true.

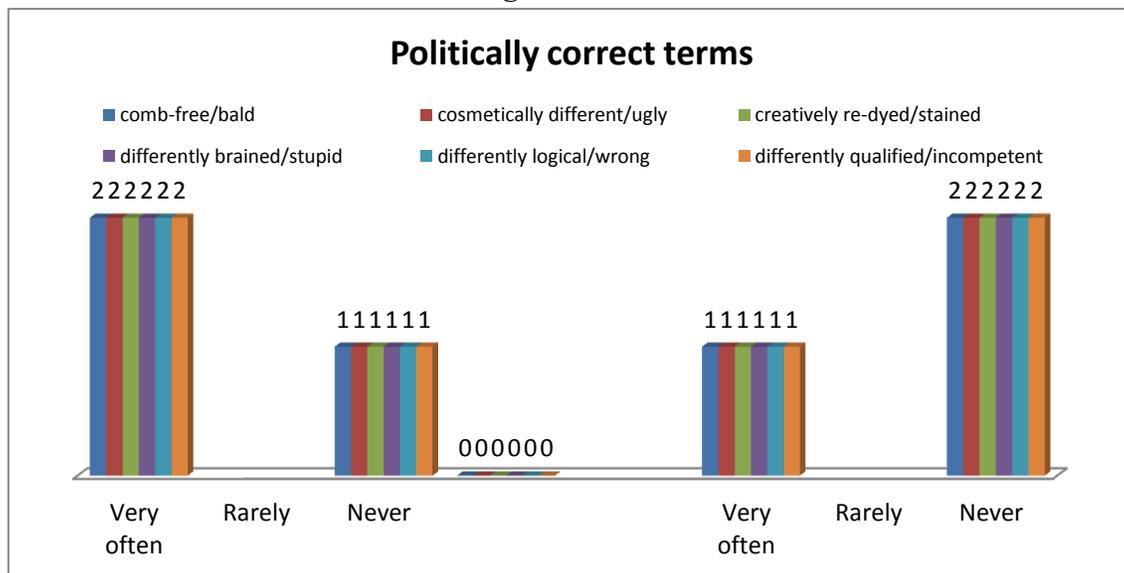
The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

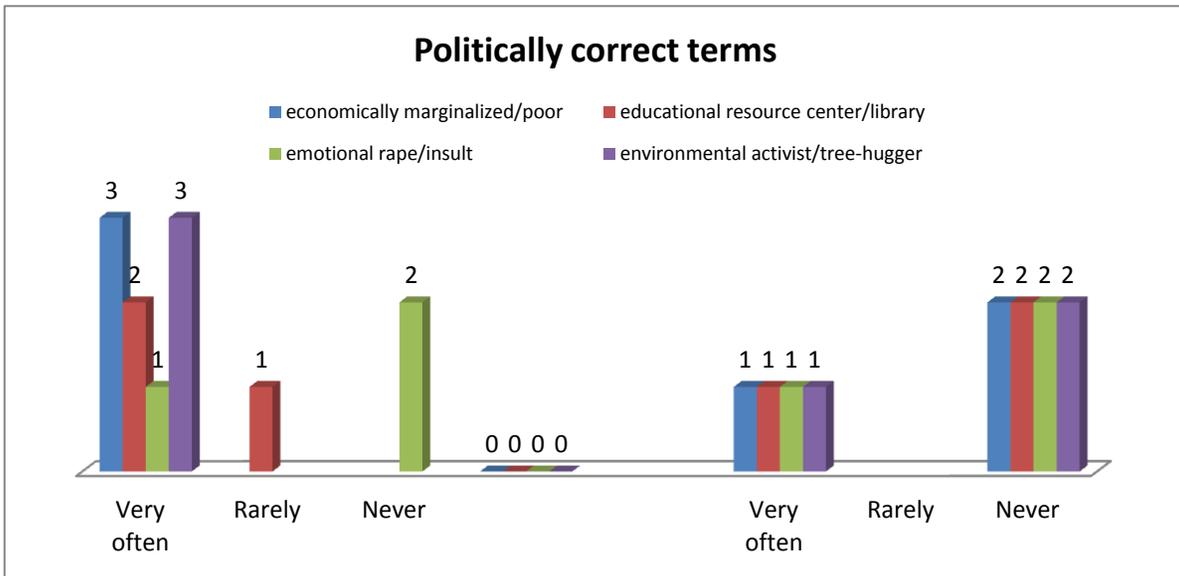
Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.



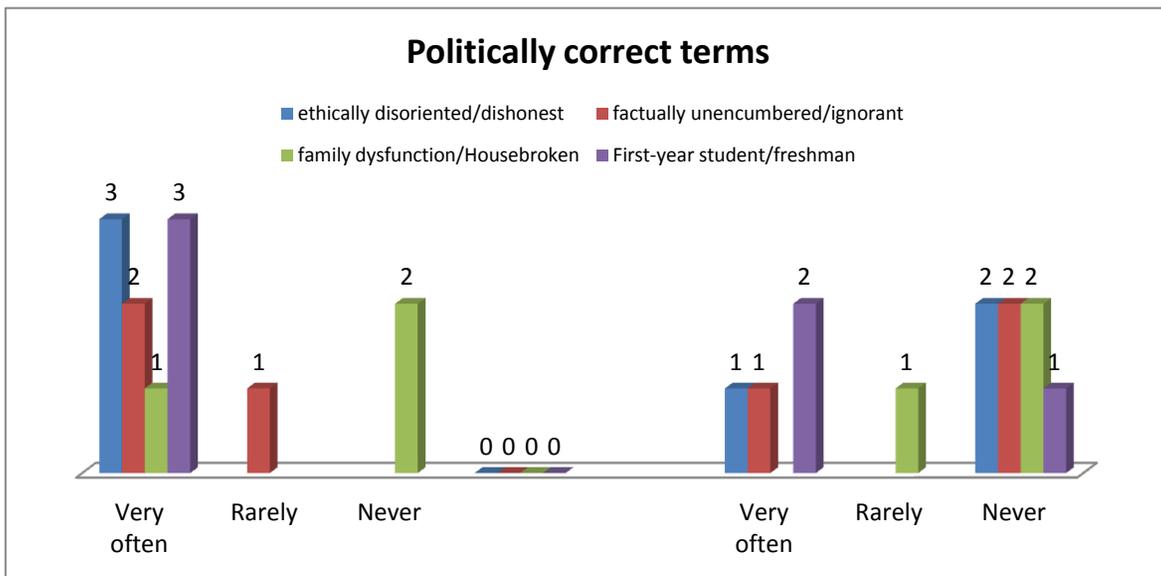
Diagram№ 8. 5.7



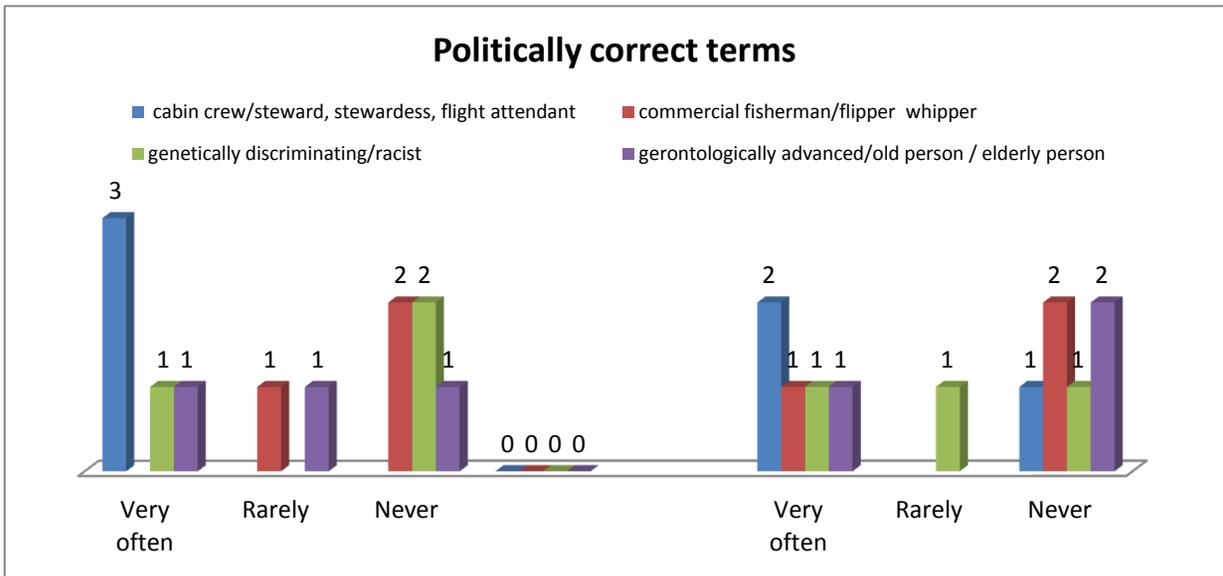
Diagram№ 8. 5.8



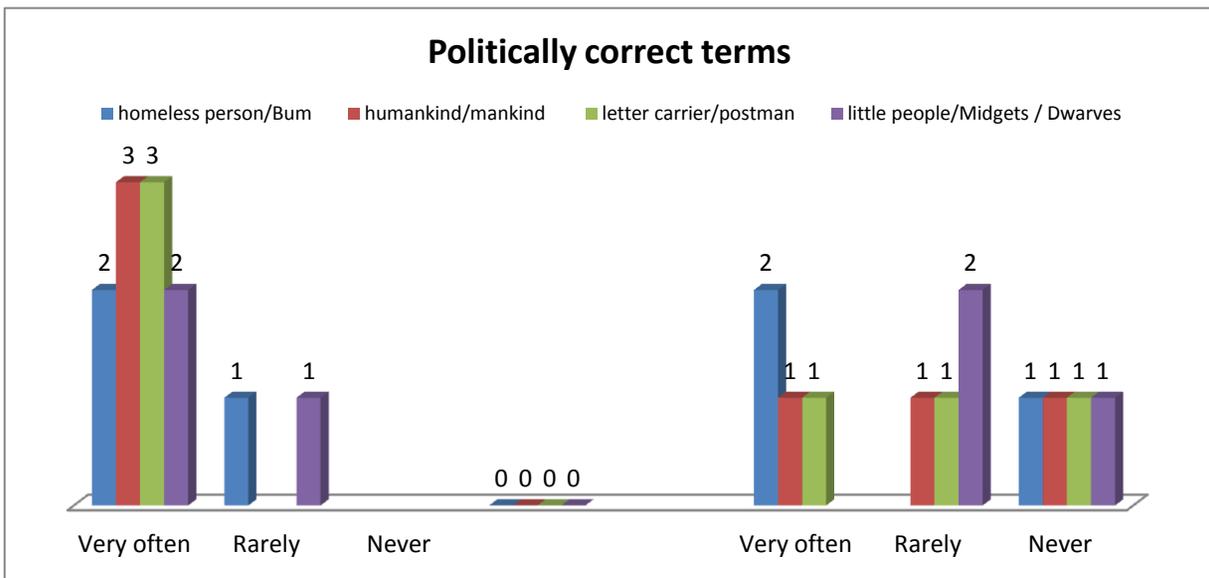
Diagram№ 8. 5.9



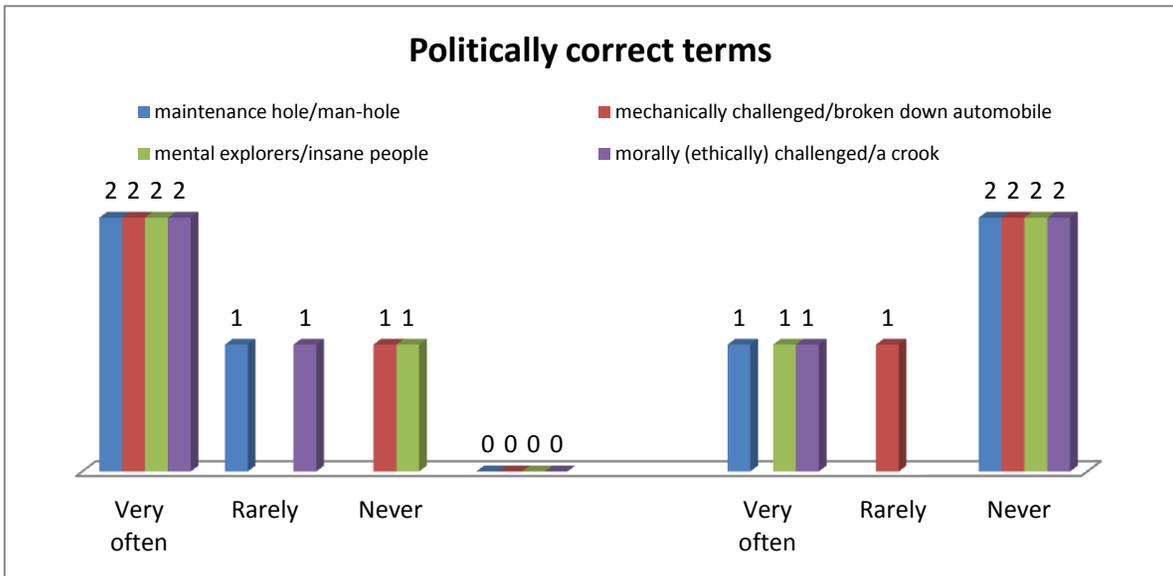
Diagram№ 8. 5.10



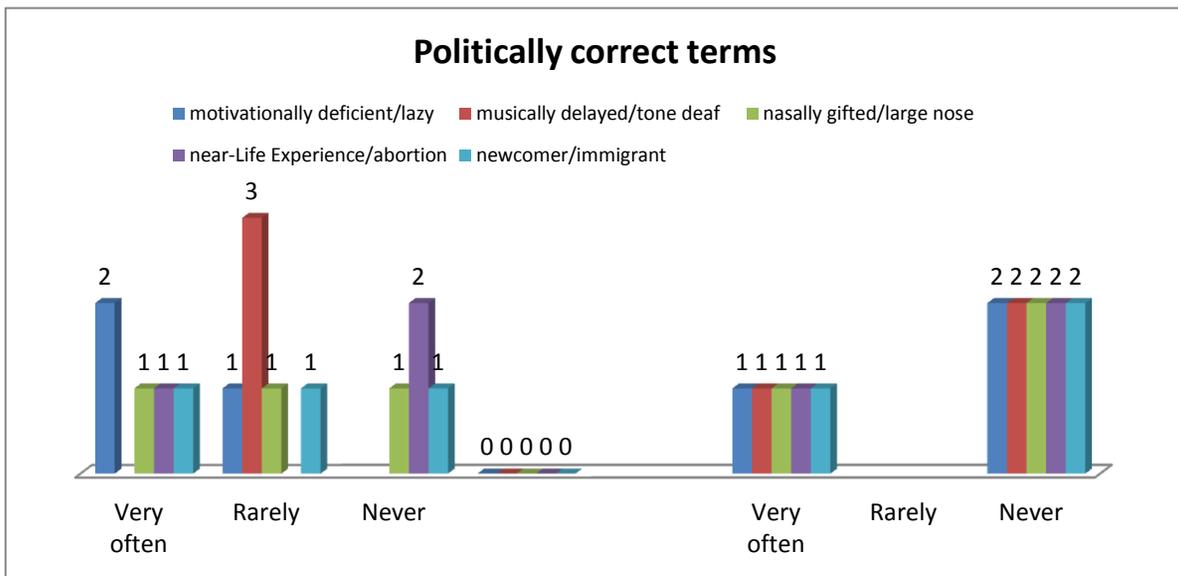
Diagram№ 8. 5.11



Diagram№ 8. 5.12



Diagram№ 8. 5.13



Diagram№ 8. 5.14

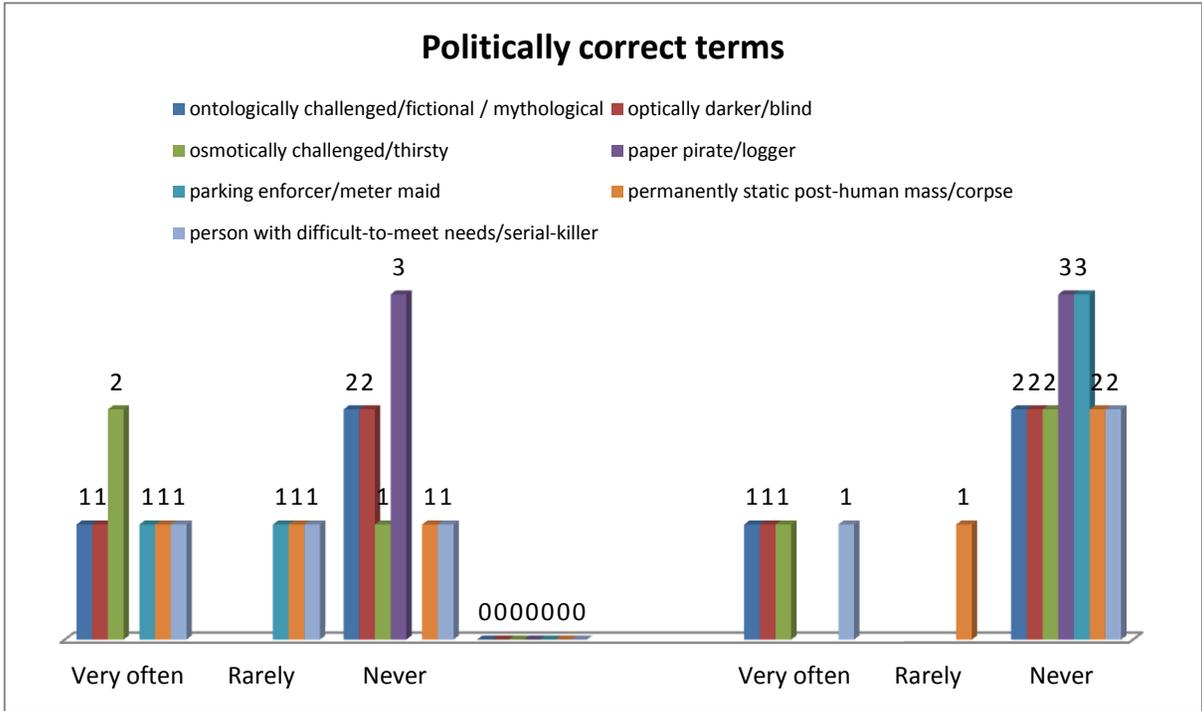


Diagram № 8. 5.15

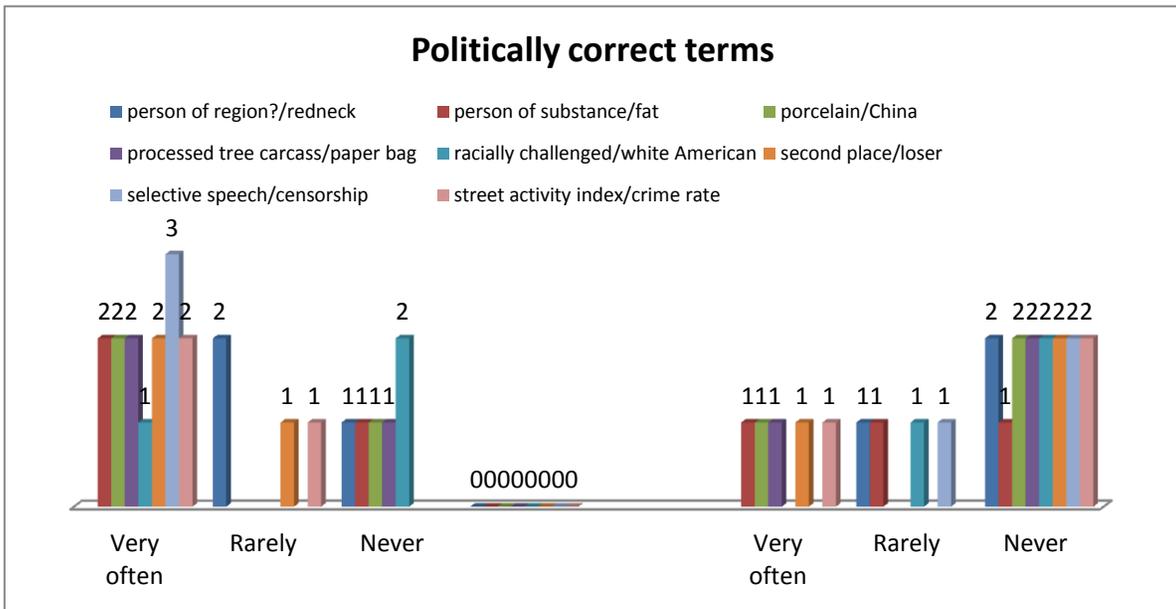


Diagram № 8. 5.16

Diagram№ 8.5.11

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in two other cases two of them have chosen the option ”never”. From the other side two British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” and one of them has made the same choice in three cases. But two of them in two cases have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram№ 8.5.12

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and in two other cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in one case have chosen the option “very often” and two of them in one case have chosen the option “rarely” while one of them in four other cases has chosen the option “never”.

Diagram№ 8.5.13

According to this diagram two American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in four cases but two British native speakers in four cases have chosen the option ”never”.

Diagram№ 8.5.14

According to this diagram two American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in another case all of them have chosen the option ”rarely”. From the other side two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram№ 8.5.15

According to this diagram two American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and in five other cases one of them has chosen the same option. But two of them in two cases and all of them in one case have chosen the option “never” From the other side two British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option “never” and all of them have made the same choice in two cases.

Diagram№ 8.5.16

According to this diagram two of the American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in six cases and in another case all of them have chosen the same option. From the other side two British native speakers in six cases have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram№ 8.5.17

According to this diagram two of the American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in three cases, in two cases two of them have chosen the option ”rarely” and two of them in one case have chosen the option “never”. From the other side all British native speakers in two cases and two of them in five cases have chosen the option “never”.

Consequently, all eleven cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to partially support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Politically correct terms* according to the obtained results in the questionnaires can be confirmed as partially true.

8.6 Language creativity – in reference to cultural reality

The last part of this level is the area of **Language creativity – in reference to cultural reality**. Relevant samples are taken from **American English** by Albert H. Marckwardt (1958). As with the previous areas, they have been discussed in the theoretical part.

The 57 words extracted are organized in tables with explanations given of their meaning. Their frequency is again checked in the same way as in the previous sections. After their frequency has been checked, diagrams are constructed to represent the results obtained and conclusions are made based on whether the findings comply completely, partly or not at all with the original source.

Table № 8.6.1

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
1	hamburger	Reference to the same group - food	102	1950
2	cheeseburger		13	463
3	beefburger		21	2
4	fishburger		3	
5	lobsterburger			

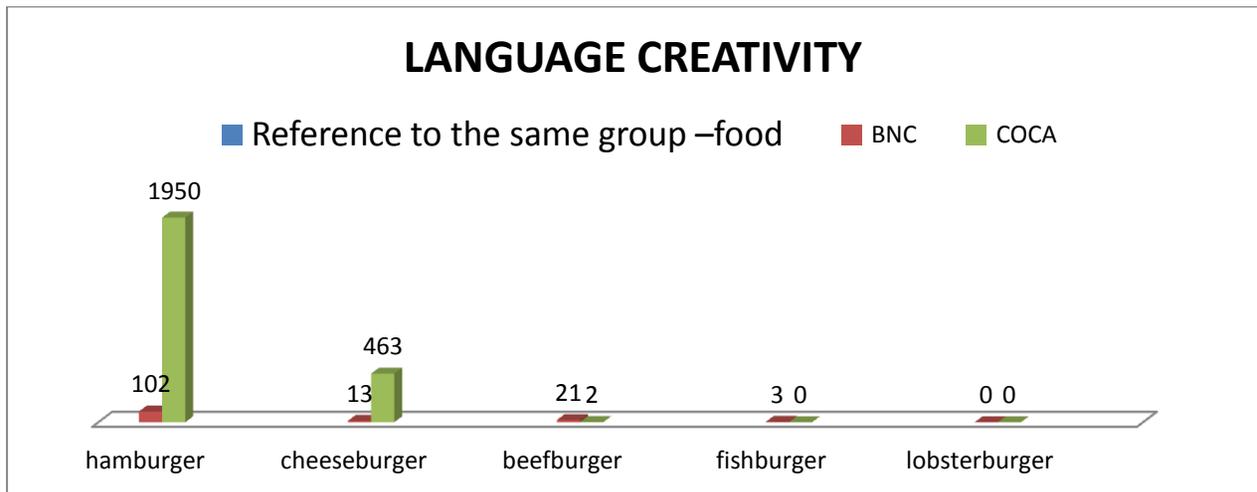


Diagram № 8.6.1

Two references out of five are more frequent in COCA than in BNC, while two are more frequent in BNC, and one reference is not found in either.

Table № 8.6.2

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
6	Hotel	Reference to the same group – accommodation	10785	37731
7	Motel		134	4245
8	Floatel			
9	Boatel			1

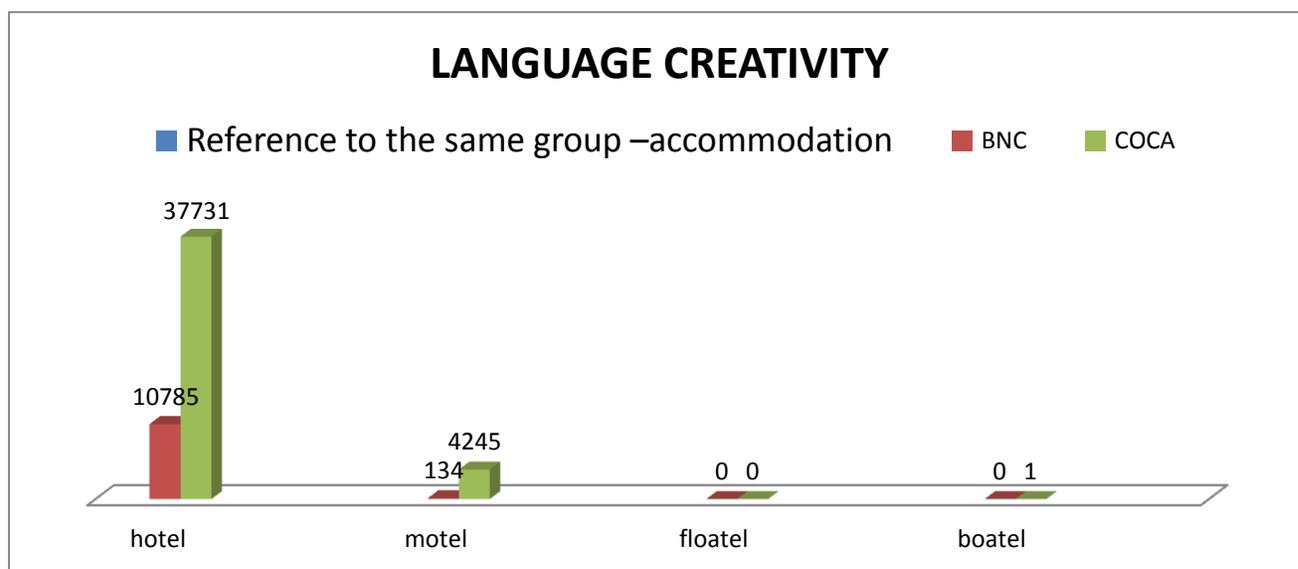


Diagram № 8.6.2

Two references out of four are more frequent in COCA than in BNC, whereas one is more frequent in BNC and one is found in neither.

Table № 8.6.3

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
10	suburb	Reference to the same group – part of a city	455	3243
11	exurb			25
12	technoburb			
13	cyburb			

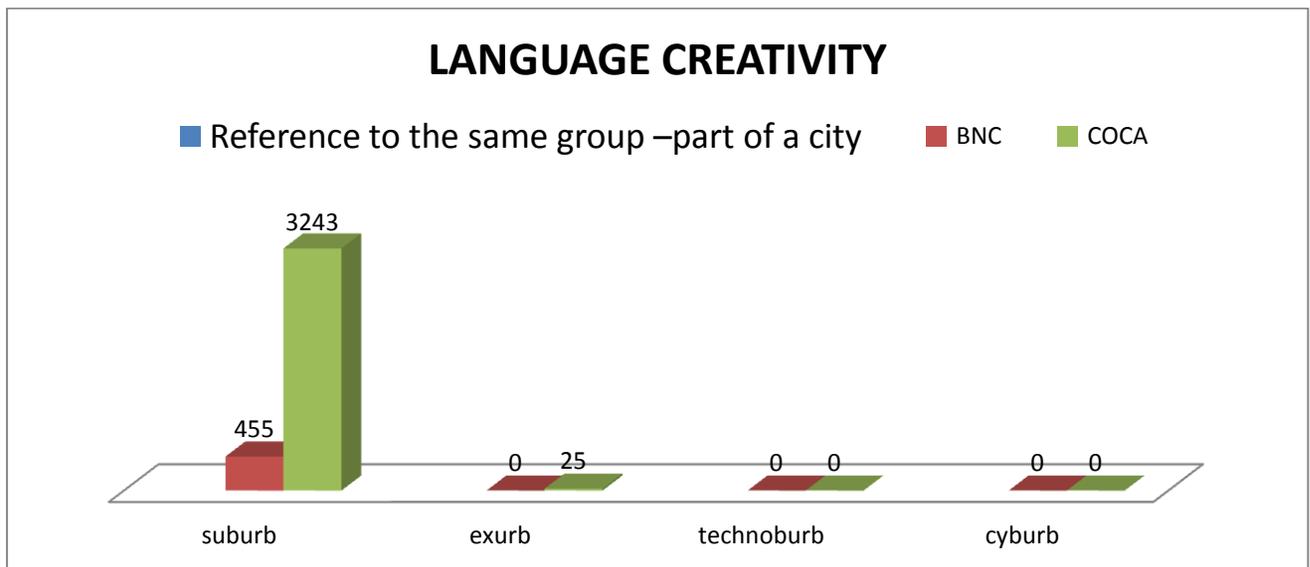


Diagram № 8.6.3

Two out of four references are more frequent in COCA than in BNC, and two are not found in either corpus.

Table № 8.6.4

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
14	hardware	Reference to the same group – IP technology	1953	7953
15	software		9030	27140
16	firmware		23	156
17	shareware		147	245
18	freeware		3	73
19	vaporware			15
20	treeware			3

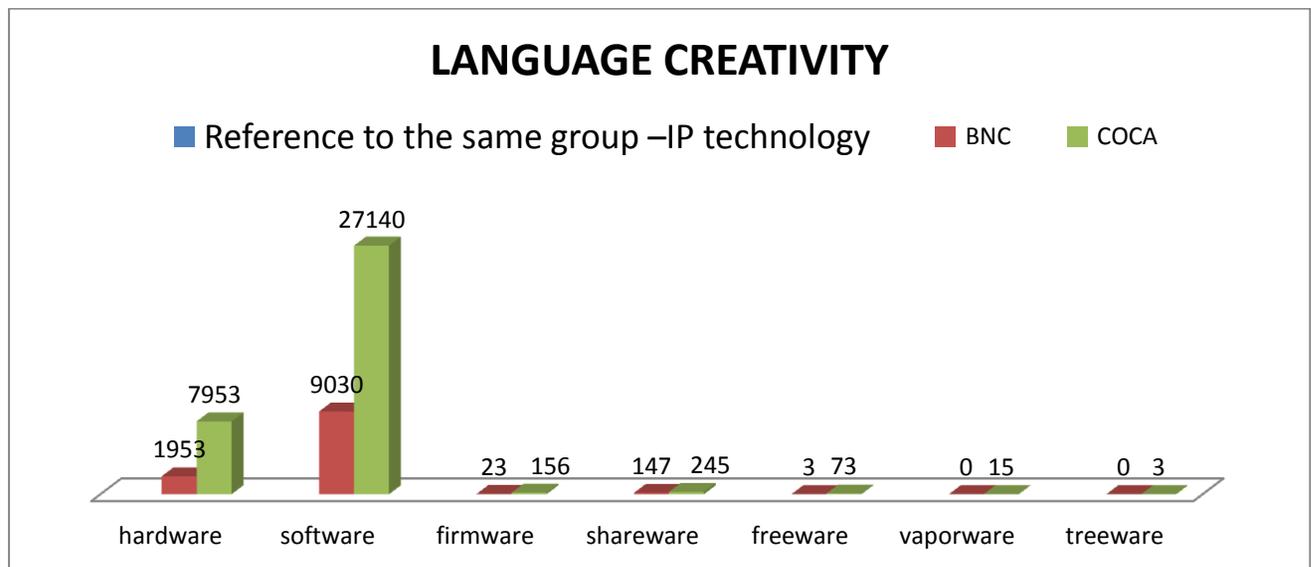


Diagram № 8.6. 4

All seven references are more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.6.5

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
21	Citizen	Reference to the same group – Science	1335	11338
22	netizen			8
23	atmosphere		4688	16739
24	blogosphere			237
25	crowdsourcing			25
26	cloudsourcing			
27	crowdfunding			19
28	crowdworking			

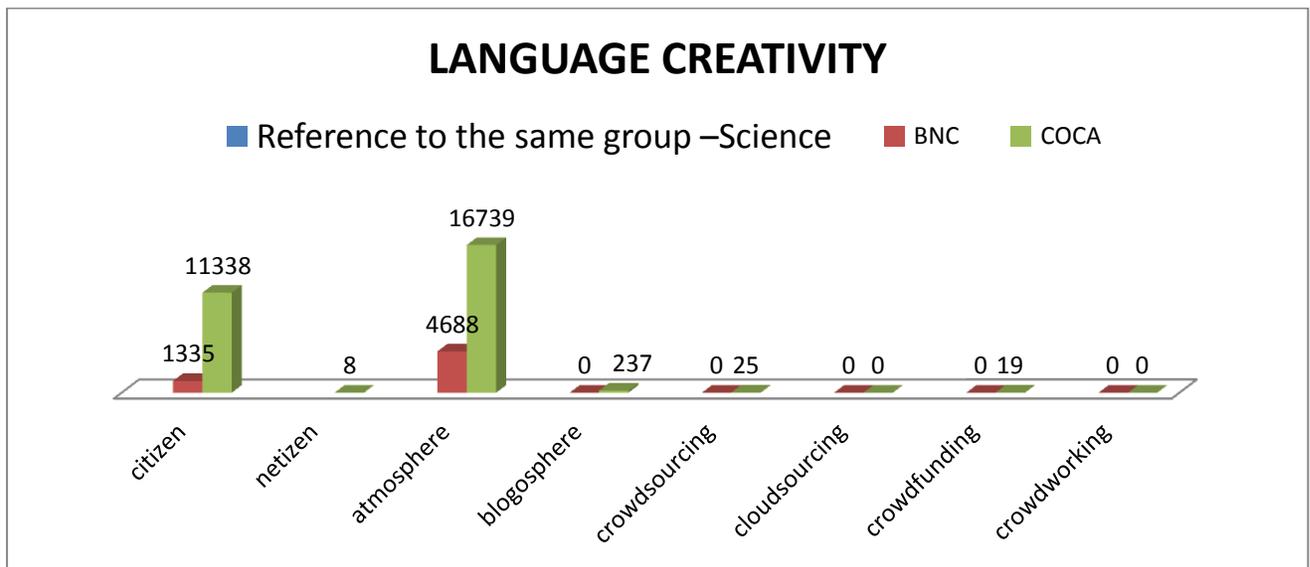


Diagram № 8.6. 5

Six references out of eight are more frequent in COCA than in BNC, and two are found in neither.

Table № 8.6.6

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
29	copyright	Reference to the same group - Internet	993	8053
30	copyleft			1
31	Wiki contributions			
32	to google			186
33	'googling'			
34	verify		247	2609
35	<u>wherify</u>			24
36	GPRS-technology			
37	child-tracking system			
38	Wikipedia			399
39	Wikiality			

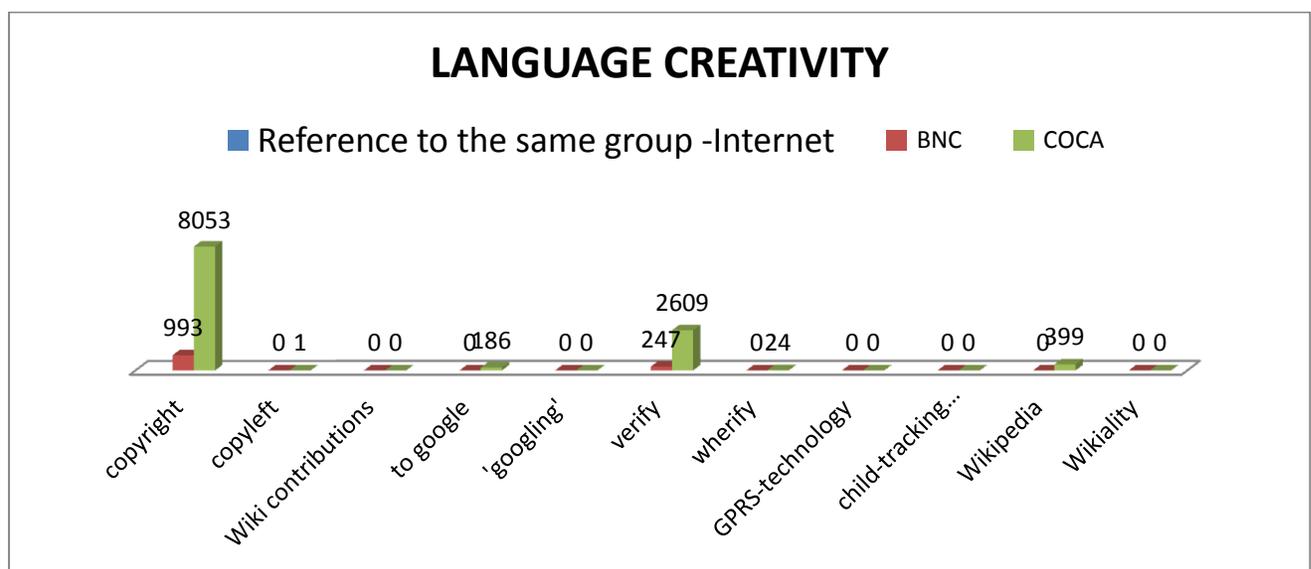


Diagram № 8.6.6

Six out of eleven of the references are more frequent in COCA than in BNC, while five are not found in either.

Table № 8.6.7

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
40	Facts	determined by 'majority rule	5143	20356

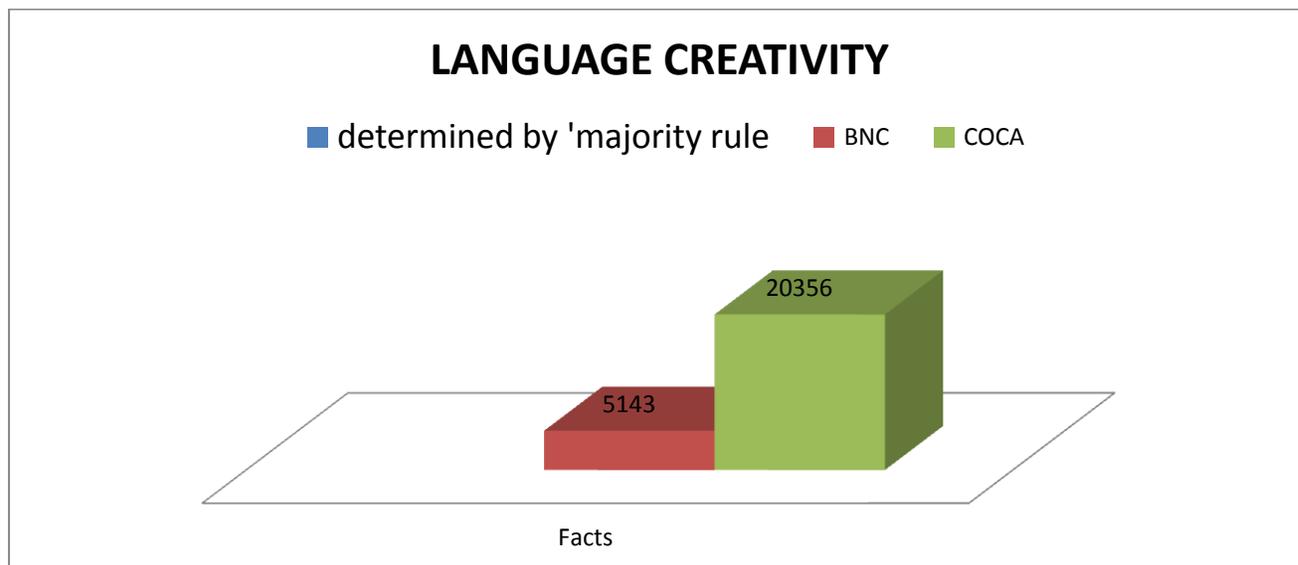


Diagram № 8.6.7

The reference is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.6.8

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
41	twitter	Reference to the same group – Social networks	11	2712
42	Twittering		59	160
43	Twitterati			5
44	a 'tweet'		1	594
45	climate canary			
46	to be YouTubed			
47	to be Plutoed			3

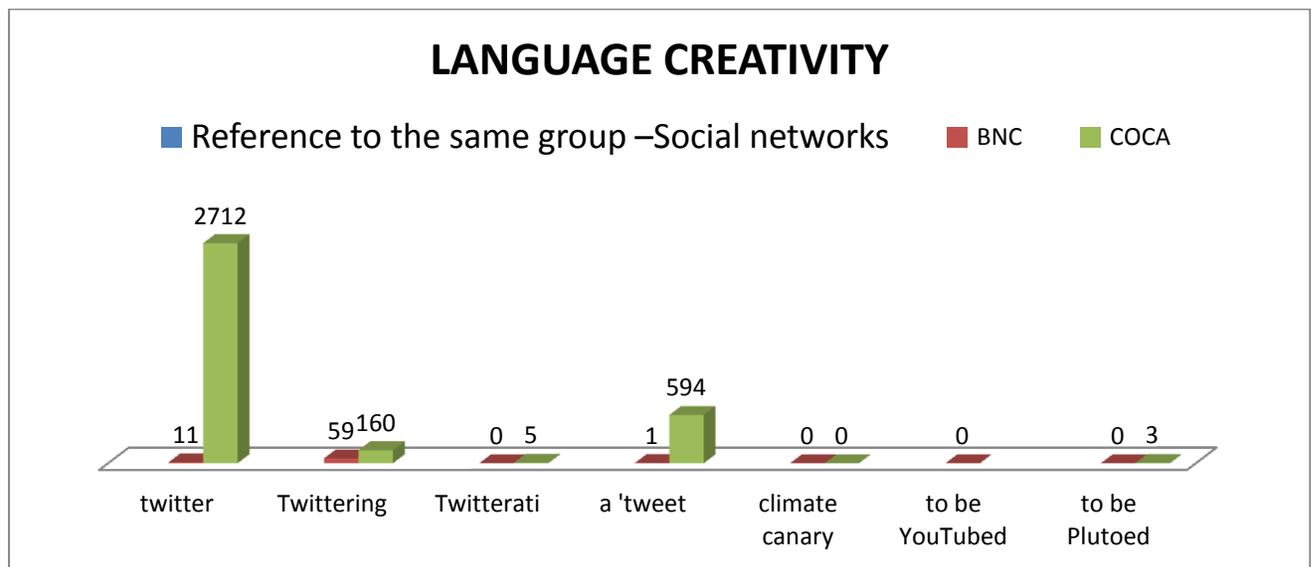


Diagram № 8.6.8

Five references out of seven are more frequent in COCA than in BNC, whereas two can be found in either.

Table № 8.6.9

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
48	fashionista	Reference to the same group – fashion		86
49	stylista			4
50	frugalista			1
51	accessorista			

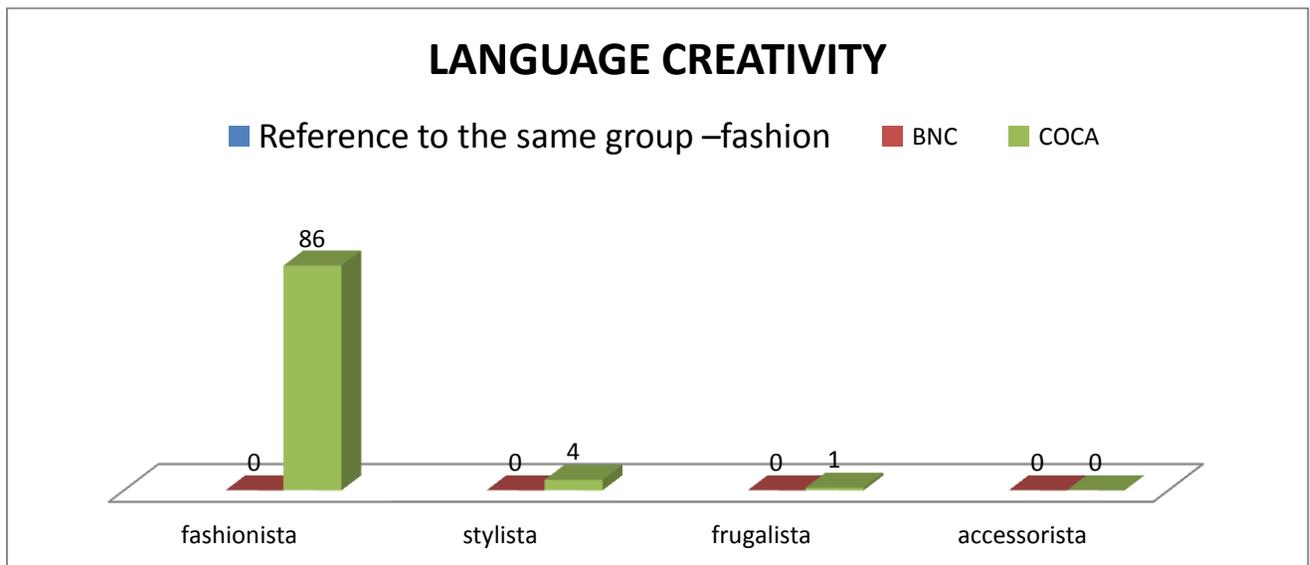


Diagram № 8.6.9

Three out of four of the references are more frequent in COCA than in BNC, and one is found in neither.

Table № 8.6.10

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
52	smog	Smoke/fog	3789	22455/5850

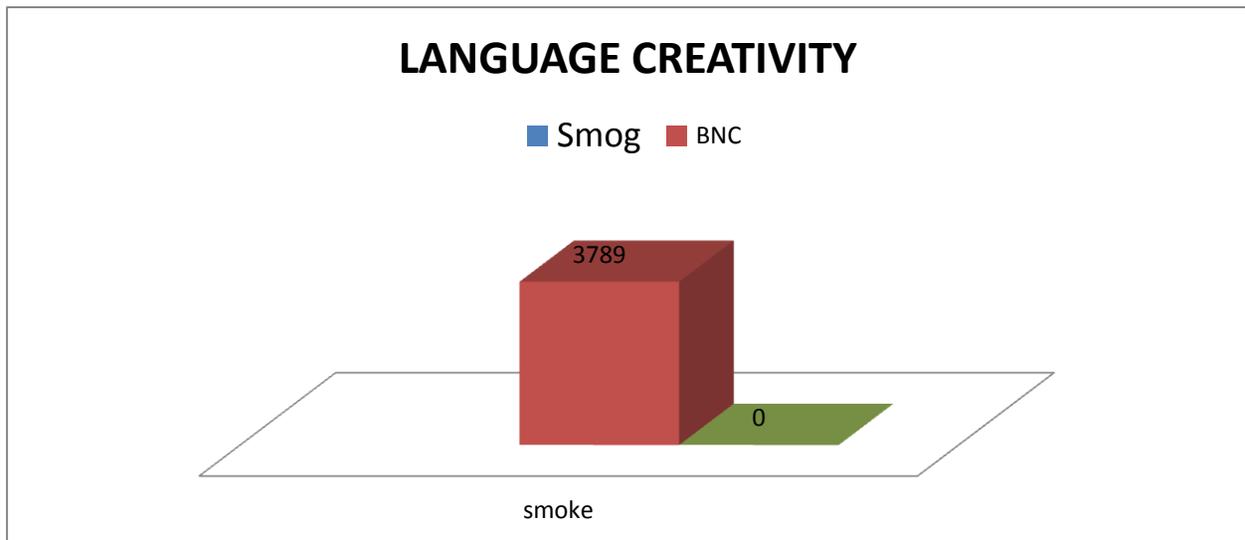


Diagram № 8.6.10a

The reference in the meaning of smog is more frequent in BNC than in COCA

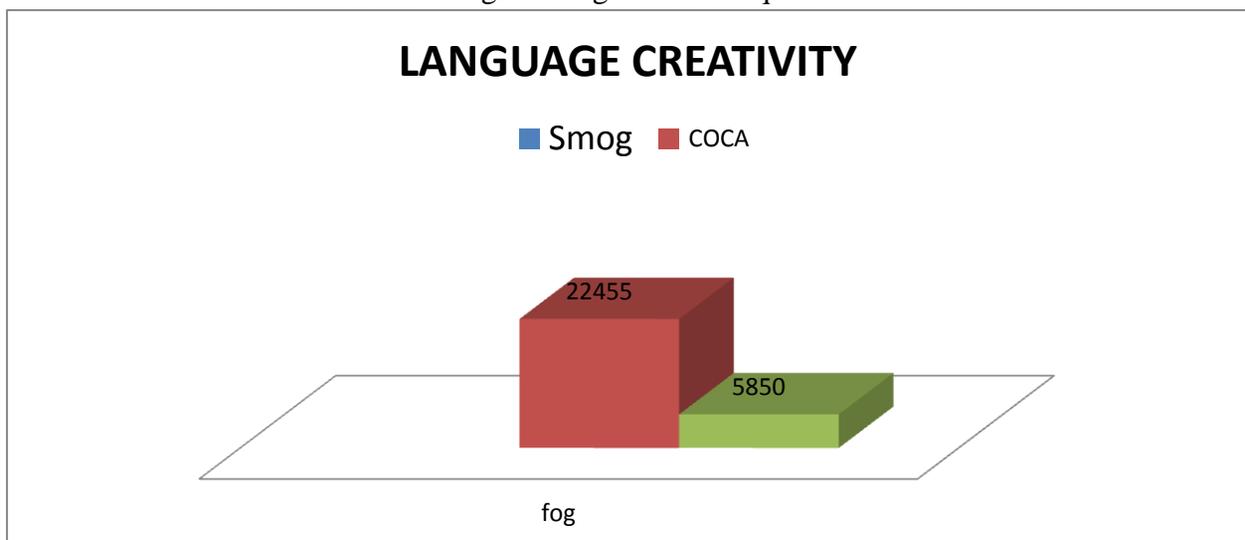


Diagram № 8.6. 10.b

The reference in the meaning of fog is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.6.11

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
54	pharmaceuticals/farming	pharming	0.09/10.57	5829/1466

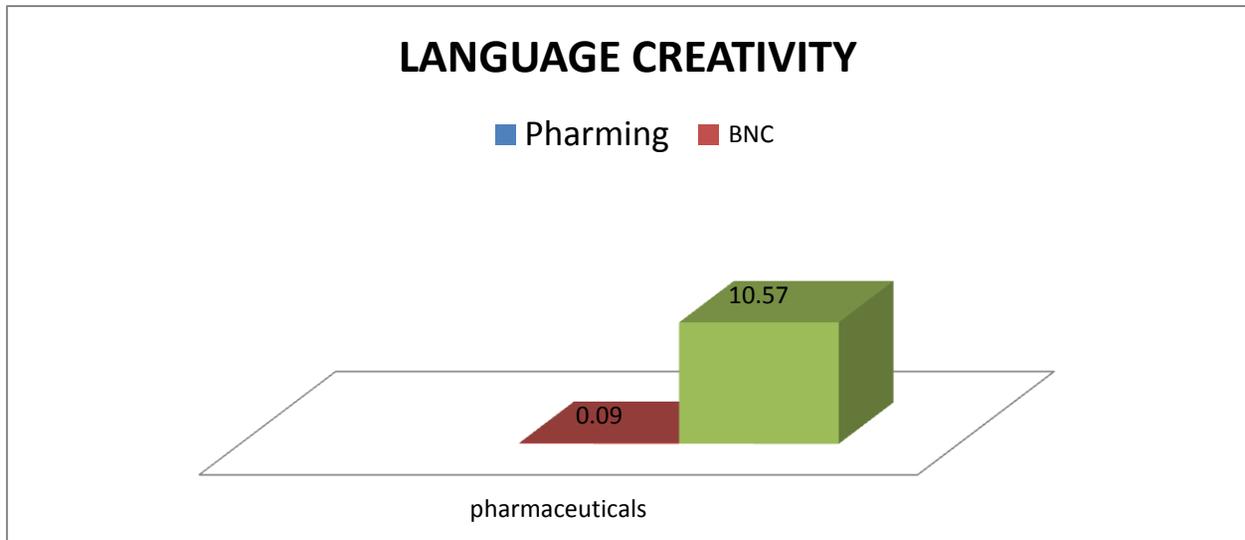


Diagram 8.6.11a

The reference in the meaning of pharmaceuticals is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

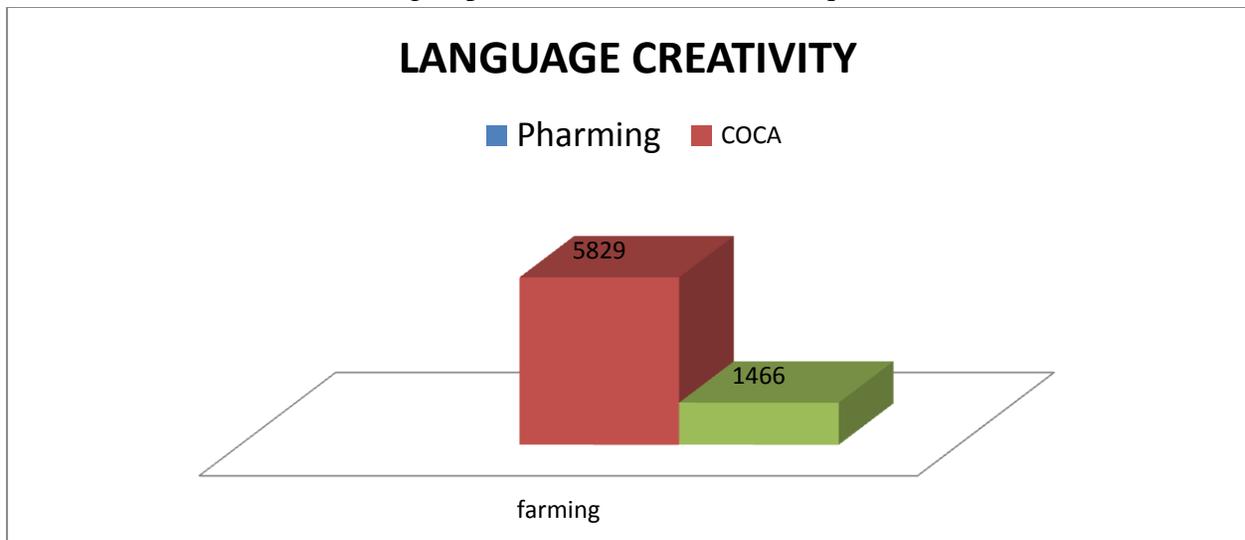
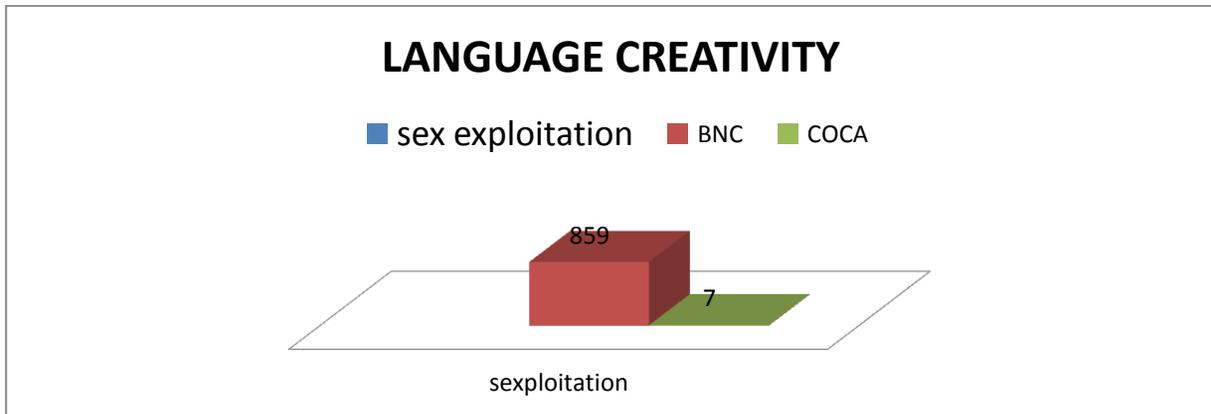


Diagram 8.6.11b

The reference in the meaning of farming is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.6.12

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
55	sexploitation	sexual exploitation	859	7

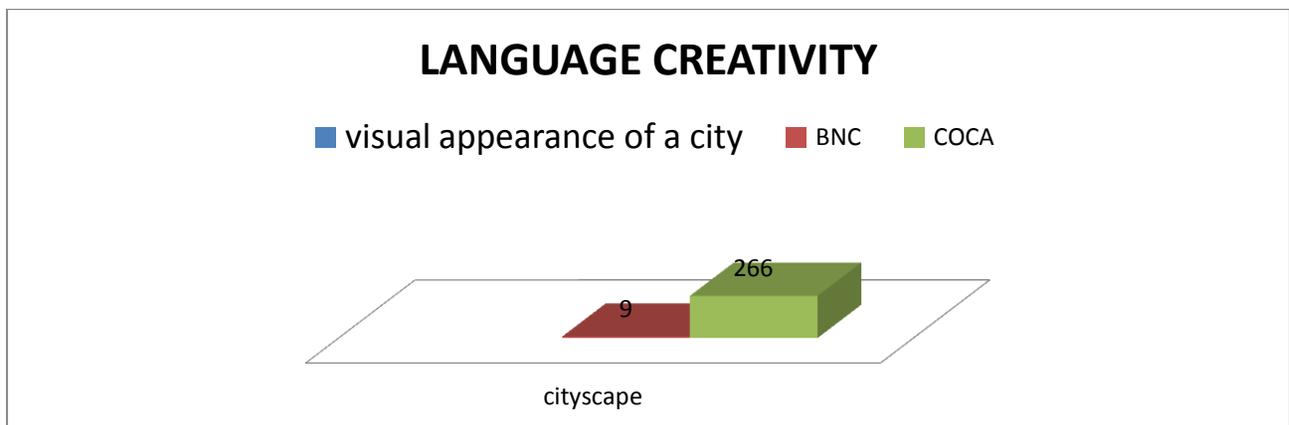


Diagram№ 8.6.12

The reference in the meaning of sexual exploitation is more frequent in BNC than in COCA.

Table № 8.6.13

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
56	cityscape	visual appearance of a city	9	266



Diagram№ 8.6.13

The reference in the meaning of cityscape is more frequent in COCA than in BNC.

Table № 8.6.14

№	Term	Meaning	BNC	COCA
57	zeroscaping	xeriscaping		

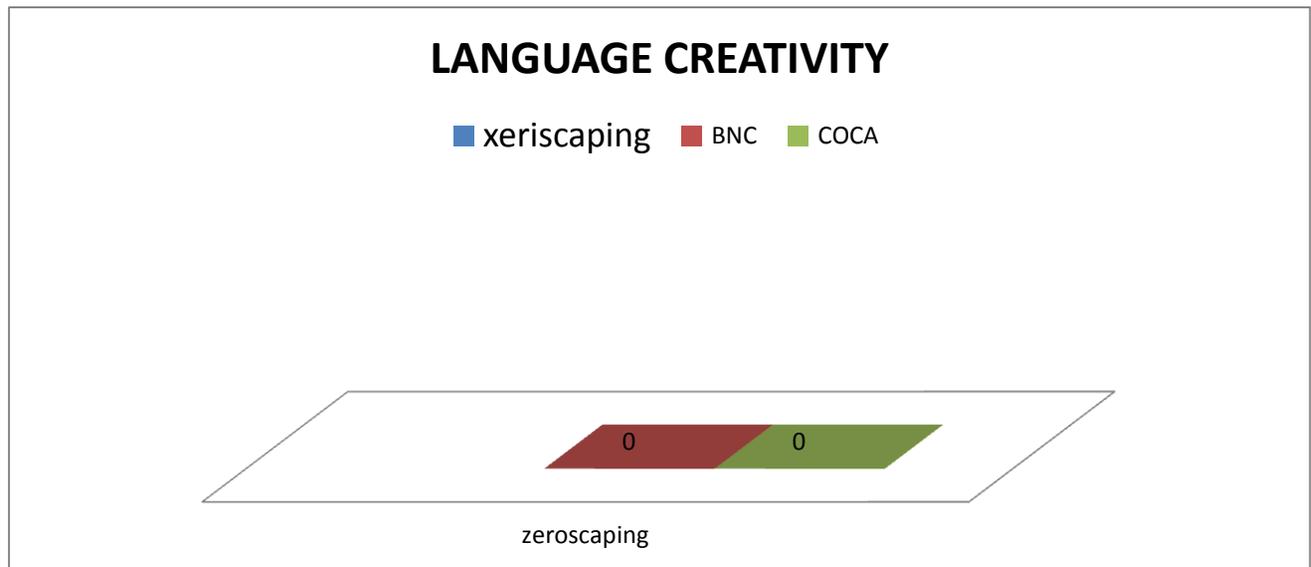


Diagram № 8.6.14

No references can be found in either corpus.

8.6.15 Language creativity: Reference to cultural reality -results

The frequency-based findings are the following

Diagram 8.6.1: two references out of five are more frequent in COCA, two references are more frequent in BNC, and one reference could not be found

Diagram 8.6.2: two references out of four are more frequent in COCA, one more frequent in BNC, and one could not be found

Diagram 8.6.3: two references out of four are more frequent in COCA, and two could not be found

Diagram 8.6.4: all the seven references are more frequent in COCA

Diagram 8.6.5: six references out of eight are more frequent in COCA, and two could not be found

Diagram 8.6.6: six references out of eleven are more frequent in COCA, and five could not be found

Diagram 8.6.7: the one and only reference is more frequent in COCA

Diagram 8.6.8: Five references out of seven are more frequent in COCA whereas two can be found in neither

Diagram 8.6.9: Three out of four of the references are more frequent in COCA and one is not found in either

Diagram 8.6.10a: the reference is more frequent in BNC

Diagram 8.6.10b: the reference is more frequent in COCA

Diagrams 8.6.11a-8.6.11b: the reference is more frequent in COCA

Diagrams 8.6.12-13: one reference out of one is more frequent in BNC

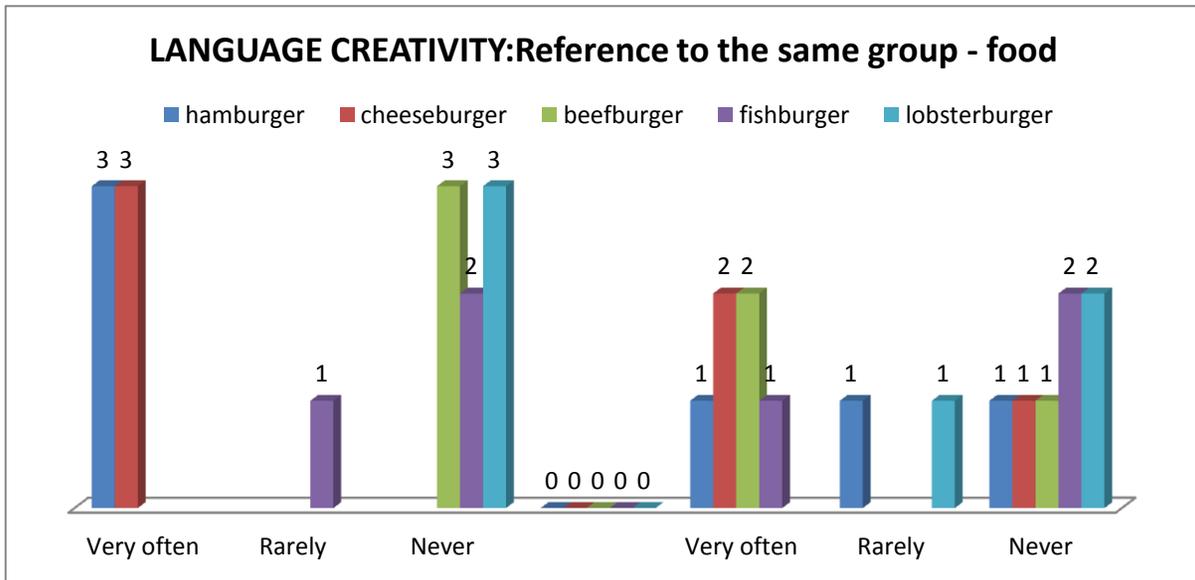
Diagram 8.6.14: the one and only reference could not be found

As can be seen in the diagrams, eight cases can be found to fully support the hypothesis (Diagrams 8.6.4, 8.6.7, 8.6.10a, 8.6.10b, 8.6.11a, 8.6.11b, and 8.6.12) and five (Diagrams 8.6.1, 8.6.2, 8.6.5, 8.6.8 and 8.6.9) to strongly support, two (Diagrams 8.6.3 and 8.6.6) to partially support the hypothesis and only one (Diagram 8.6.14) not to support it. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Language creativity reference to cultural reality* can be confirmed as true.

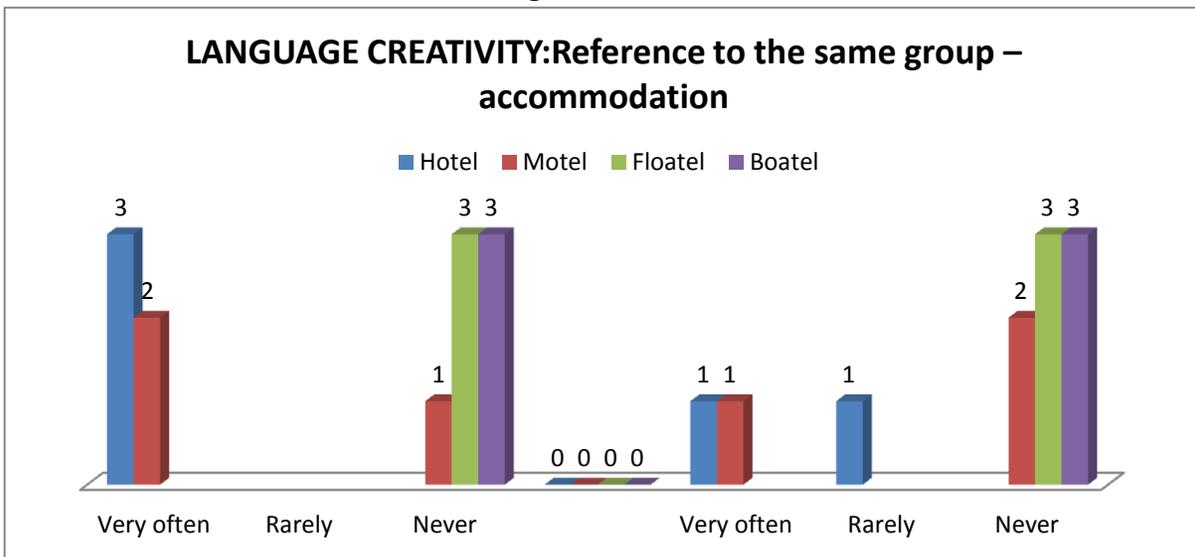
The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.



Diagram№ 8. 6.15



Diagram№ 8. 6.16

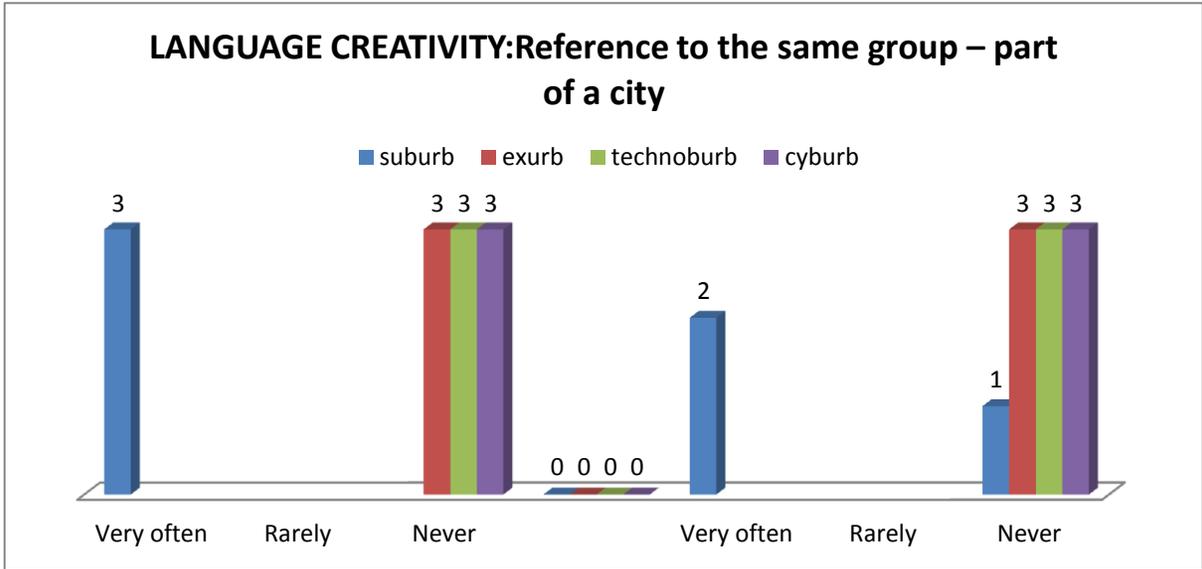


Diagram.№ 8. 6.17

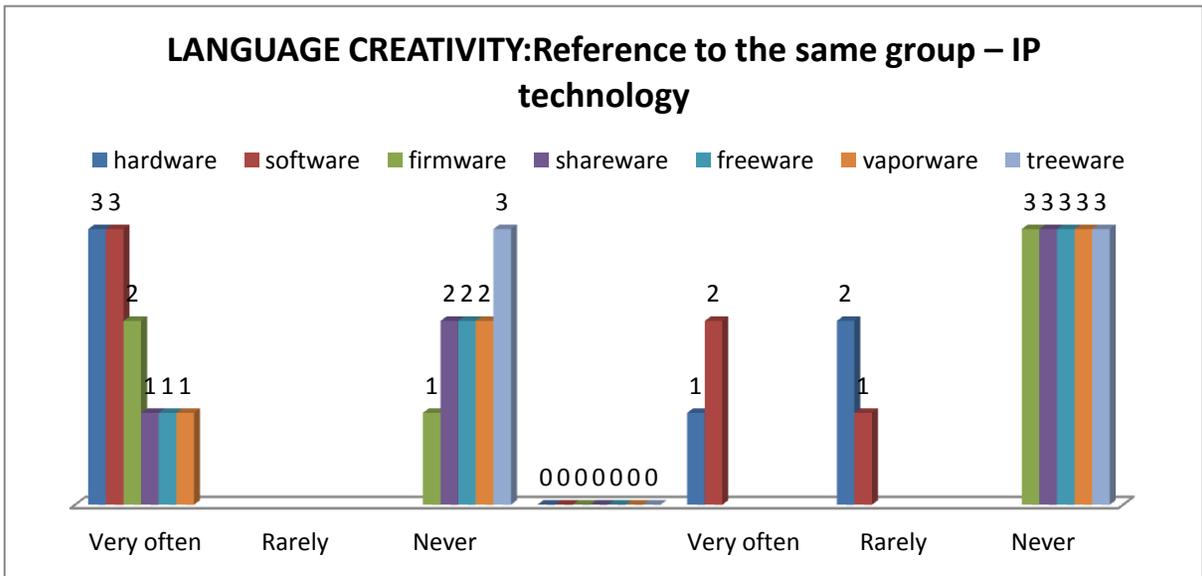
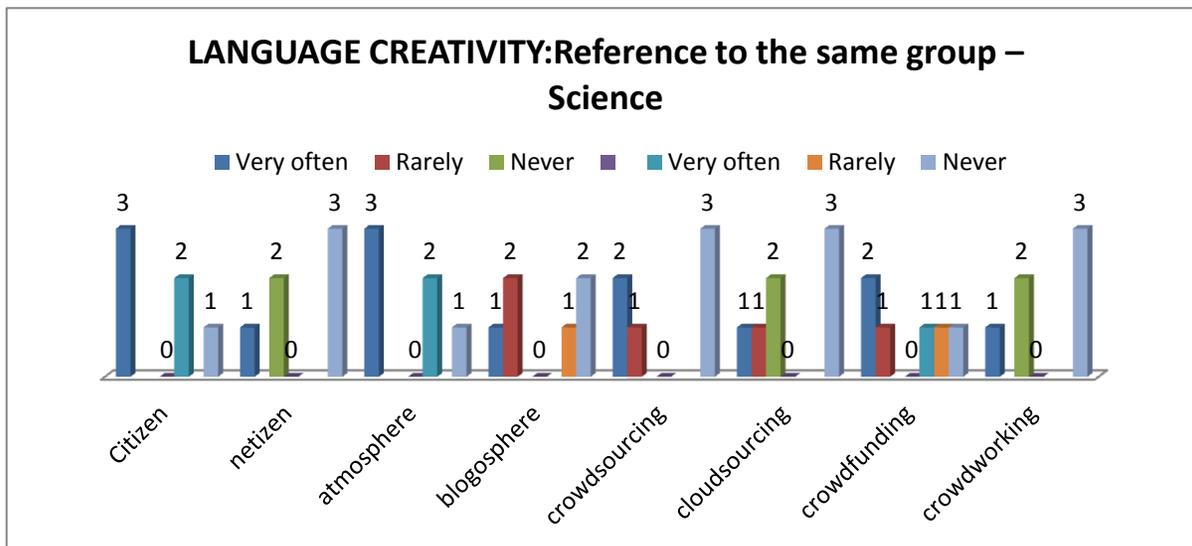
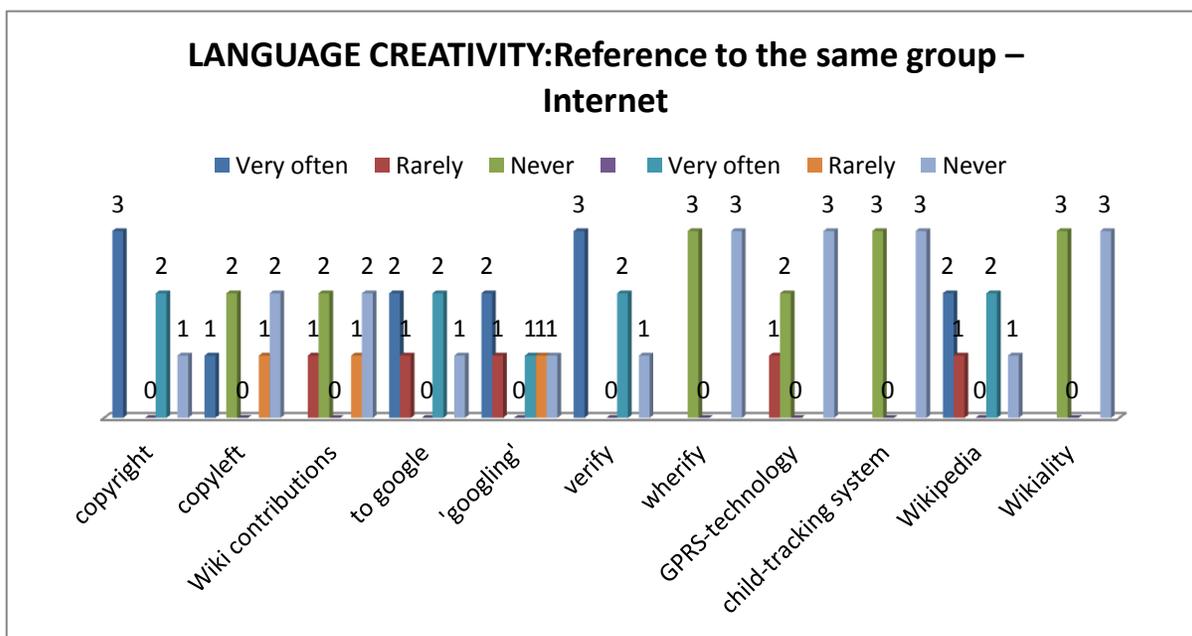


Diagram.№ 8. 6.18



Diagram№ 8. 6.19



Diagram№ 8. 6.20

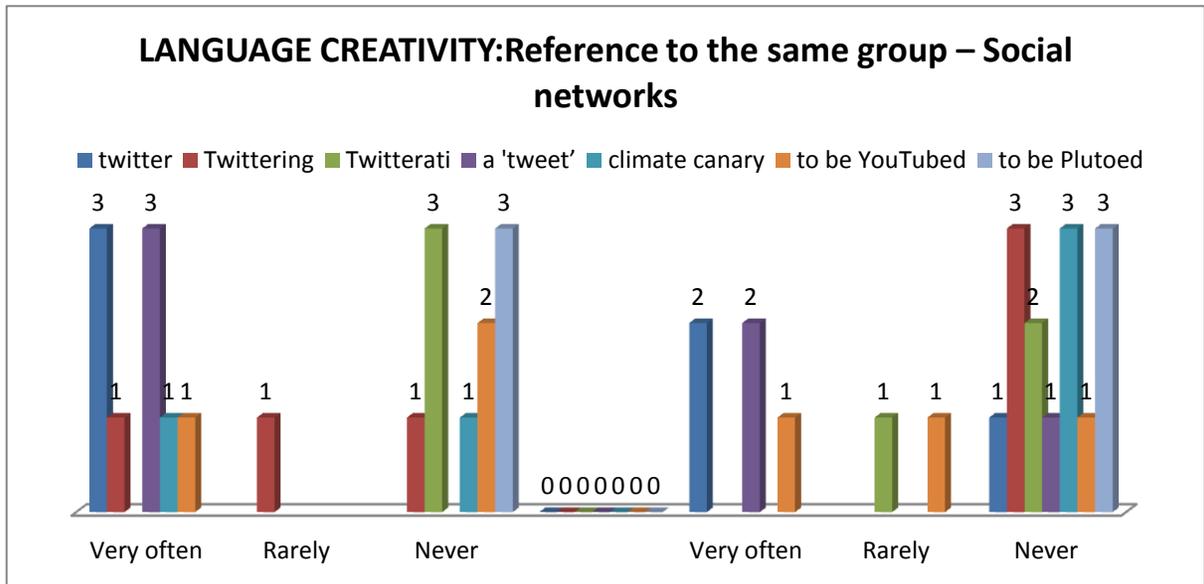


Diagram.№ 8. 6.21

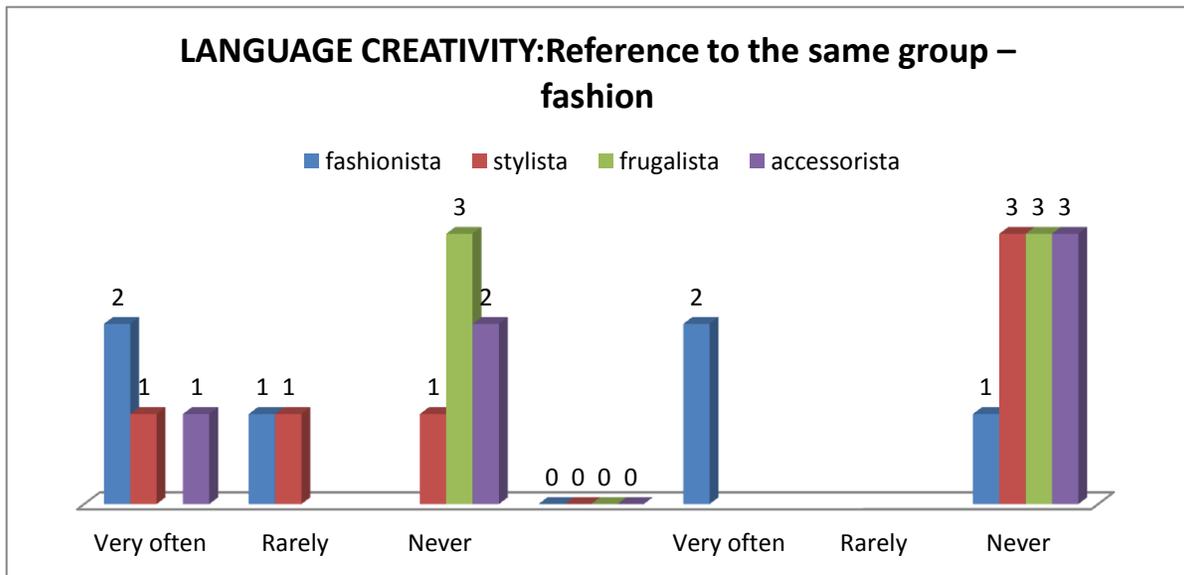


Diagram.№ 8. 6.22

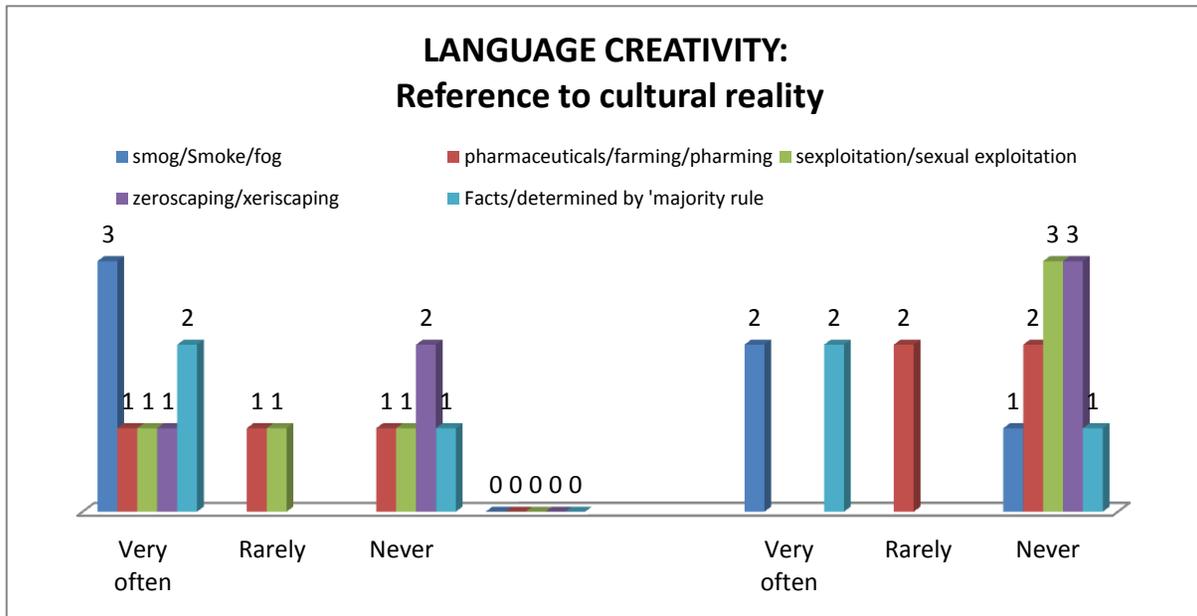


Diagram № 8. 6.23

8.6.24 Received results according to the questionnaires

Diagram № 8.6.15

According to the diagram all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often” in two cases but all of them in three cases have chosen the option “never”. Two British native speakers in two cases have chosen the option “very often” in two cases but two of them in two cases have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram № 8.6.16

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in two cases all of them have chosen the option “very often” in one case, two of them have chosen the same option in one case .but all of them in two cases have chosen the option ”never”.

British are represented on the right side and all of them have chosen the “never” option in two cases, two of them in one case have made the same choice.

Diagram № 8.6.17

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case but all of them in three cases have chosen the option “never”. From the other side all British native speakers on three occasions have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram № 8.6.18

According to this diagram all American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases, two Americans have chosen the same option in one case, and only one of them has made the same choice in three cases but all of them in one case and two of them in three cases have chosen the option “never”. From the other side all British native speakers in five cases have chosen the option very often and two of them on one occasion have chosen “very often” .

Diagram № 8.6.19

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in two cases all of them have chosen the option “very often”, two of them in two cases have chosen the same option and only one of them in four cases has made the same choice.

British are represented on the right side and two of them have chosen the “very often” option in two cases but all of them have chosen the option “never”.

Diagram № 8.6.20

According to this diagram all American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases, two Americans have chosen the same option in three cases but all of them in three cases and two of them in three cases have chosen “never”. From the other side two British native speakers in three cases have chosen “very often” but all of them on three occasions have chosen the option “never” and two of them in two cases have made the same choice.

Diagram № 8.6.21

According to this diagram all American native speakers has chosen the option “very often” in two cases and all Americans have chosen the option “never” in two cases. From the other side two British native speakers on two occasions have chosen the option “very often” but all of them have chosen the option “never” in three cases.

Diagram № 8.6.22

According to this diagram two American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in two cases and only one American has chosen the same option in four cases. But all of the Americans have chosen “never” as an option in one case and two of them have chosen the same option in one case. From the other side two British native speakers on one occasion have chosen the option “very often” but all of them have chosen the option “never” in three cases.

Diagram № 8.6.23

According to this diagram all American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in one case and two of them have chosen the same option in one case. But two of the Americans have chosen “never” as an option in one case. From the other side two British native speakers on two occasion have chosen the option “very often”, but all of them have chosen the option “never” in two cases and two of them in one case had made the same choice.

Consequently, eight cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to partially support and one case does not support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Language creativity- reference to cultural reality* according to the obtained results in the questionnaires can be confirmed as partially true.

9. Grammatical level

The third and final level of this part of the research is the grammatical level, because the pragmatic level requires further analysis and therefore is only covered in the theoretical part in reference to the lexical level. At this level two areas are analysed:

- Differences in sentence structure
- Differences in use of verb forms, including differences in frequency

The first area of this level covers **Word order; Present Perfect Tense versus Past Simple Tense** and **Sentences which contain the words *already, just, yet***.

As with the previously mentioned areas of research where the main hypothesis has been checked, samples are discussed in the theoretical part and have been used in the research part. For the first part of **Differences in sentences structure** samples have been taken from *Survey of Modern English* by Stephen Gramley, Kurt Michael Patzold. 5 pairs of sentences from British and American English are given in tables. Their frequency will be checked in two ways: using two grammars, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis, and using questionnaires to the two groups of native speakers, asking the following questions:

Which of these do you use and how often do you use? Very often; rarely; never

9.1 Sentence structure differences

9.1.1 Word order

The first component to be checked is the Word Order.

Table № 9.1.1

№	British English	American English	Cambridge Grammar of the English Language	The structure of American English
1	Yours sincerely	Sincerely yours	+	+
2.	Monday last	Last Monday	+	-
3	Graham Greene, the British novelist	British Novelist Graham Greene	+	+
4	Benedict Eggs	Eggs Benedict	+	+
5	Louise Pea Soup	Pea Soup Louise	+	+

6	Thames River	River Thames	+	+
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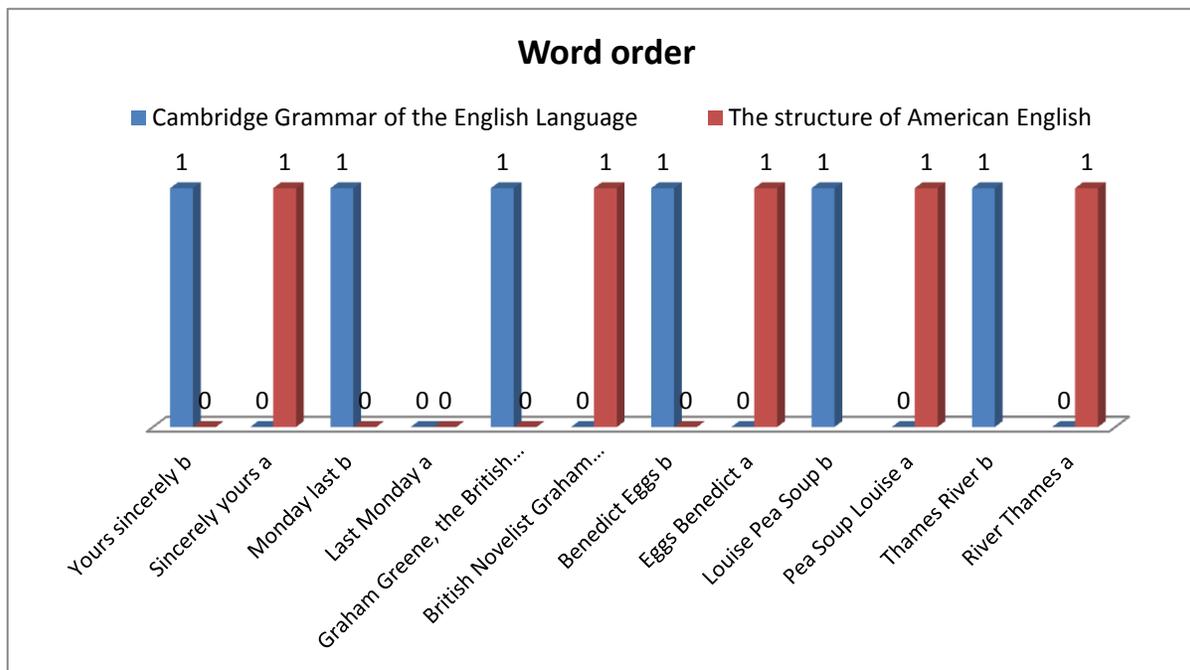


Diagram № 9.1.1

Six pairs of sentences follow the rules set in the Cambridge Grammar of the English Language while one half of a pair differs from those in The Structure of American English

9.1.2 Present Perfect Tense (have/has + past participle) versus Past Simple Tense an action in the past that has an effect in the present

The second part is **Present Perfect tense versus Past Simple Tense**. There are a great number of samples which can be used for this area. For this research, it has been decided to use the Article by Merry Maxwell and Lindsay Clandfield.

The 5 pairs of sentences extracted have been placed in tables, which indicate British and American usage. Their frequency is checked in the same two ways as in the section above: using *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis and a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers, asking these questions: Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

To finish with, the findings are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source

Table№ 9.1.2

№	British English	American English	Cambridge Grammar of the English Language	The Structure of American English
1	Jenny feels ill. She's eaten too much.	Jenny feels ill. She ate too much.	+	+
2	I can't find my keys. Have you seen them anywhere?	I can't find my keys. Did you see them anywhere?	+	+
3	Have you phoned her yet?	Did you phone her yet?	+	+
4	Have you ever been to Canada?	Did you ever go to Canada?	+	+
5.	Have you cleaned your teeth?	Did you clean your teeth?	+	+

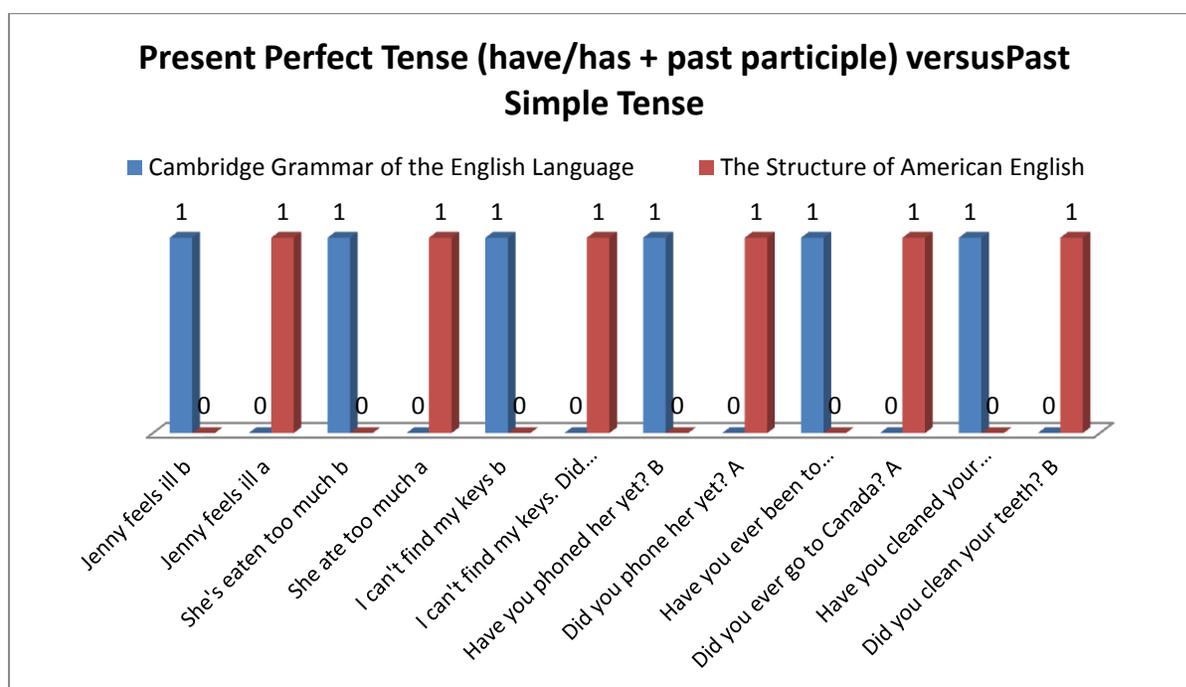


Diagram № 9.1 2

Four pairs of sentences comply with the Cambridge Grammar of the English Language and The Structure of American English

9.1.3 Sentences which contain the words just yet and already

The third part of the grammatical level is **Sentences which contain the words just yet and already**. Once again, it has been decided to use the Article by Merry Maxwell and Lindsay Clandfield to obtain relevant sentences. The 5 pairs of sentences extracted are placed in tables showing British and American usage. Next, their frequency is checked in the same two ways as in the above section: with the use of the two grammars, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis and that of the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

This is the third component to be checked. As above, the signs '+' and '-' a sentence complies with the corresponding grammar or not.

Table № 9.1.3

№	British English	American English	Cambridge Grammar of the English Language	The Structure of American English
1	Are they going to the show tonight? No ,they've already seen it.	Are they going to the show tonight? No ,they already saw it.	+	+
2	Is Samantha here? No, she's just left	Is Samantha here? No, she just left	+	+
3	Can I borrow your book? No, I haven't read it yet.	Can I borrow your book? No, I didn't read it yet.	+	+
4	I've just got home.	I just got home.	+	+
5	I've already eaten.	I already ate.	+	+

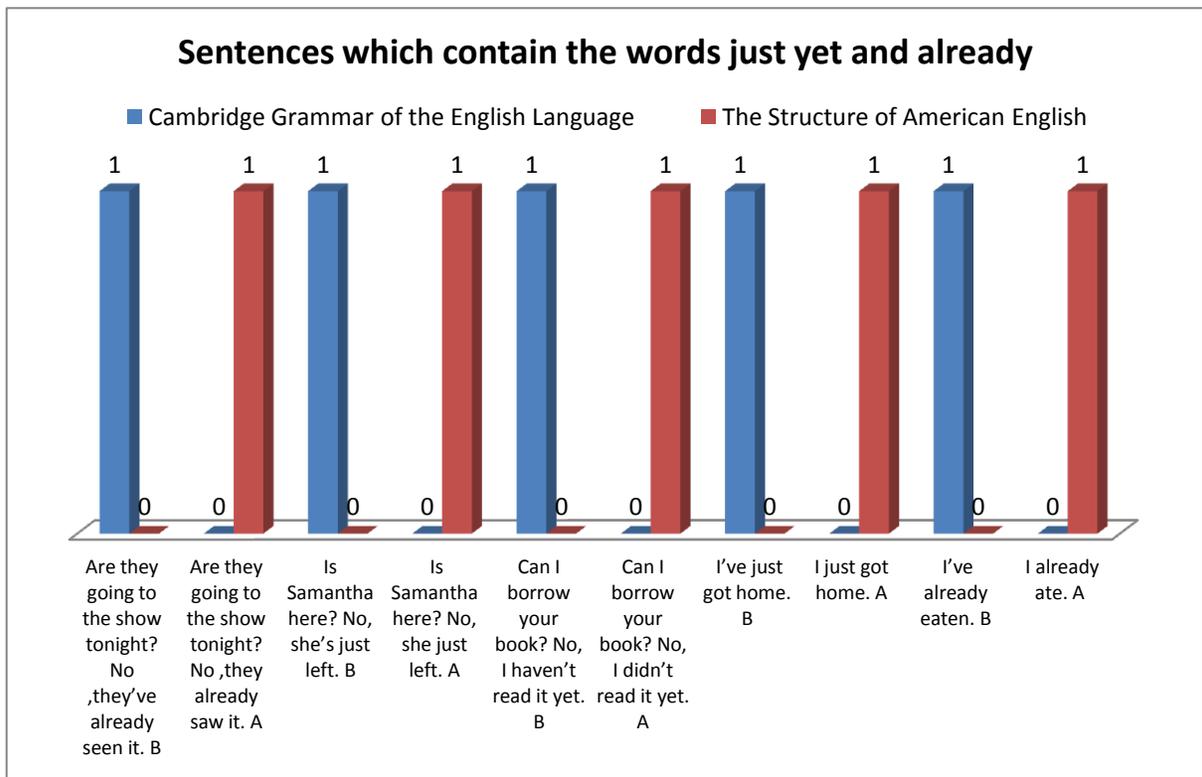


Diagram № 9.1.3

Three pairs of sentences comply with the rules set in both the two grammars

9.1.4 Differences in sentence structure-results by using two grammars

Word Order

The findings from this part of the research are as follows:

Diagram 1: six pairs of sentences follow the rules set in both grammars while one pair complies only with those in The Structure of American English.

Present Perfect (have/has + past participle) versus Past Simple Tense an action in the past that has an effect in the present

Diagram 2: four pairs of sentences comply fully with the rules set in both the above-mentioned grammars.

Sentences which contain the words already, just, yet

Diagram 3: Three pairs of sentences comply with the rules set in both the two grammars.

Consequently, with the exception of one, all the cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be

stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Differences in sentence structure* can be confirmed as true.

The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

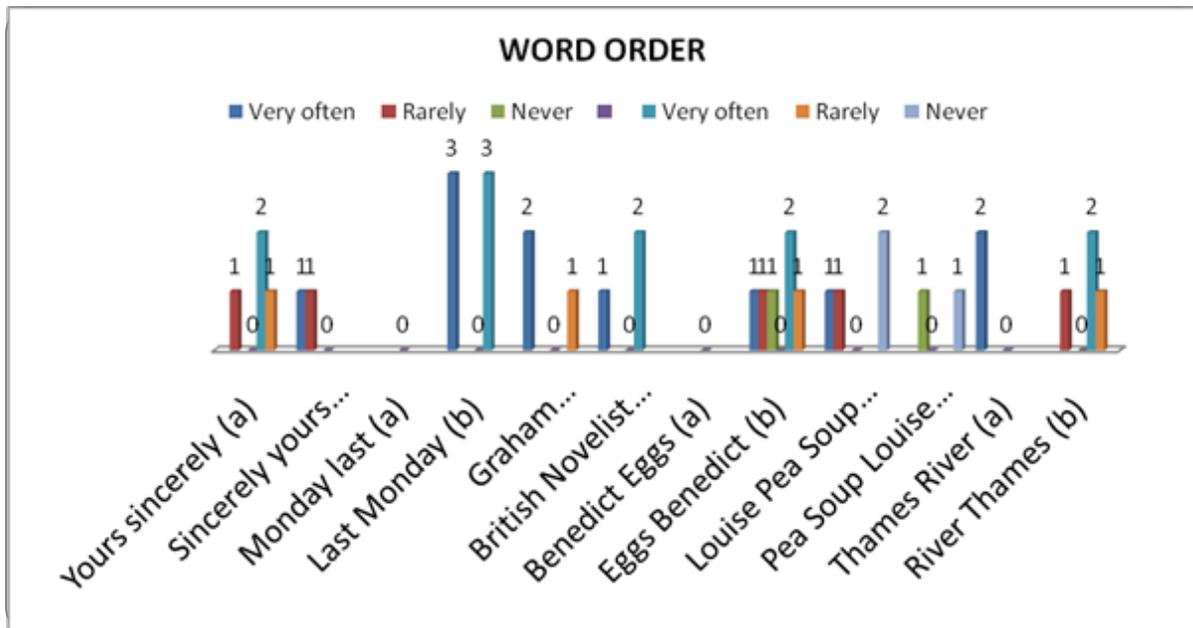


Diagram № 9.1.5

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE (have/has + past participle) versus PAST SIMPLE TENSE, an action in the past that has an effect in the present

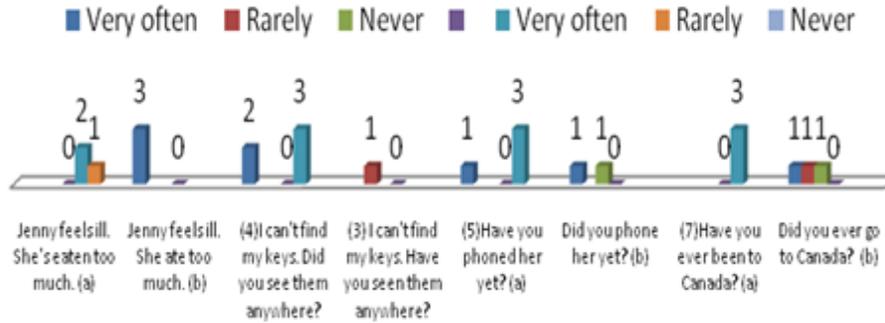


Diagram № 9.1.6

SENTENCES CONTAINING THE WORDS ALREADY, JUST AND YET

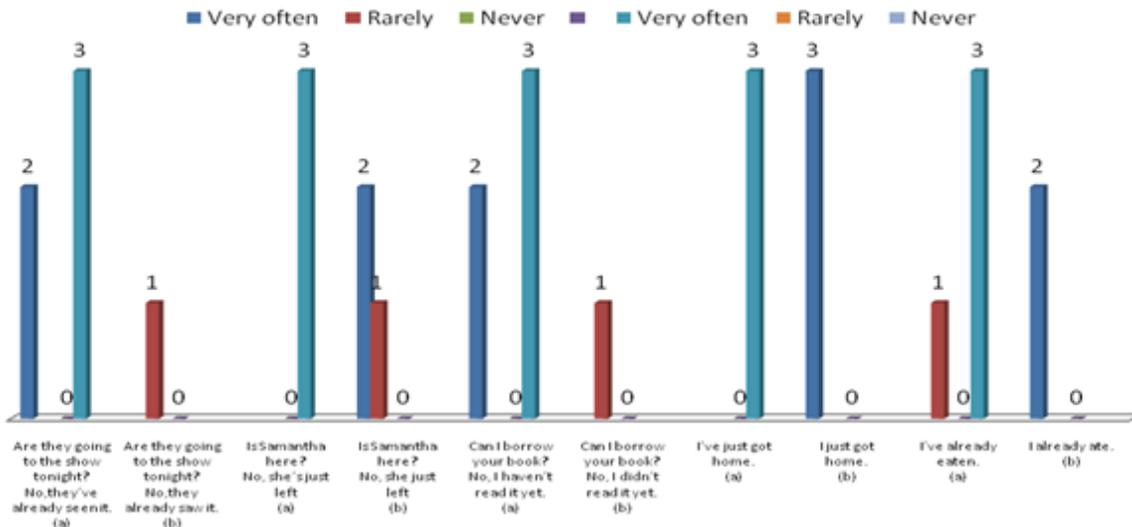


Diagram № 9.1.7

9.1.8 Received results according to the questionnaires

Diagram № 9.1.5

According to the diagram referring to the word order, in one case out of six, all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often”, in only one case only 1 native speaker has chosen that option.

British native speakers asked about this 6 pairs of sentences in one case all of them chose the option “very often” in four cases only two of them have chosen the option very often, while the option “never” has been chosen by one native speaker in two cases.

Diagram № 9.1.6

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in only one case all of them have chosen the option “very often”, two of them have chosen the same option in one case.

British are represented on the right side and in three cases they have chosen the option “very often”.

Diagram № 9.1.7

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option very often in one case and in four other cases two of them have chosen the same option. From the other side all British native speakers in all cases have chosen the option “very often”.

Consequently, three cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to strongly support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Differences in sentence structure* according to the obtained results in the questionnaires can be confirmed as true.

9.2 Differences in use of verb forms, including differences in frequency regarding

Verb agreement with collective nouns

The second area to be analyzed at the grammatical level is **Differences in use of verb forms, including differences in frequency** and **Verb agreement with collective nouns**

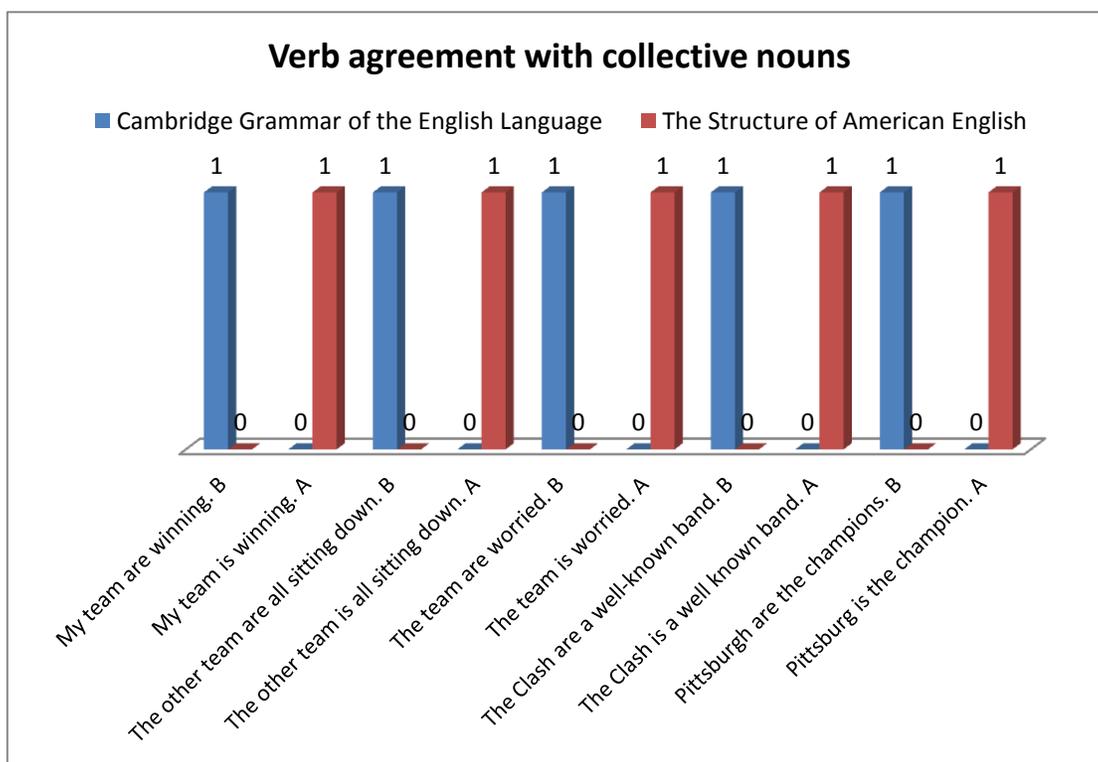
For this area, samples are taken from *Survey of Modern English* by Stephen Gramley, Kurt Michael Patzold and the *Article* by Merry Maxweel and Lindsay Clandfield

The 5 pairs of sentences thus obtained from British and American English are given in tables.

Their frequency is checked as in the previous section. The results are then presented in diagrams and conclusions on the basis of how much they comply, completely, partially or not at all, with original source.

Table№ 9.2.1

№	British English	American English	Cambridge Grammar of the English Language	The Structure of American English
1	My team are winning.	My team is winning.	+	+
2	The other team are all sitting down.	The other team is all sitting down.	+	+
3	The team are worried.	The team is worried.	+	+
4	The Clash are a well-known band.	The Clash is a well known band.	+	+
5	Pittsburgh are the champions.	Pittsburg is the champion.	+	+



Diagram№ 9.2.1

The two pairs of sentences comply with both Cambridge Grammar of the English Language and The Structure of American English

9.2.2 Use of delexical verbs *have* and *take*.

The second part of this area is **Use of delexical verbs *have* and *take***. The samples are taken from the Article by Merry Maxweel and Lindsay Clandfield. The five pairs extracted are organized in tables and their frequency is checked in two ways: with the two grammars, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *A The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis and using a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers, asking the questions

Which of these do you use and how often?

Very often; rarely; never.

The results are presented in diagrams and, basing on how well they comply (completely, partially or not at all) with the original source.

Table № 9.2.2

№	British English	American English	Cambridge Grammar of the English Language	The Structure of American English
1	I'd like to have a bath.	I'd like to take a bath.	+	+
2	She's having a little nap.	She's taking a little nap.	+	-
3	Let's have a short vacation.	Let's take a short vacation.	+	-

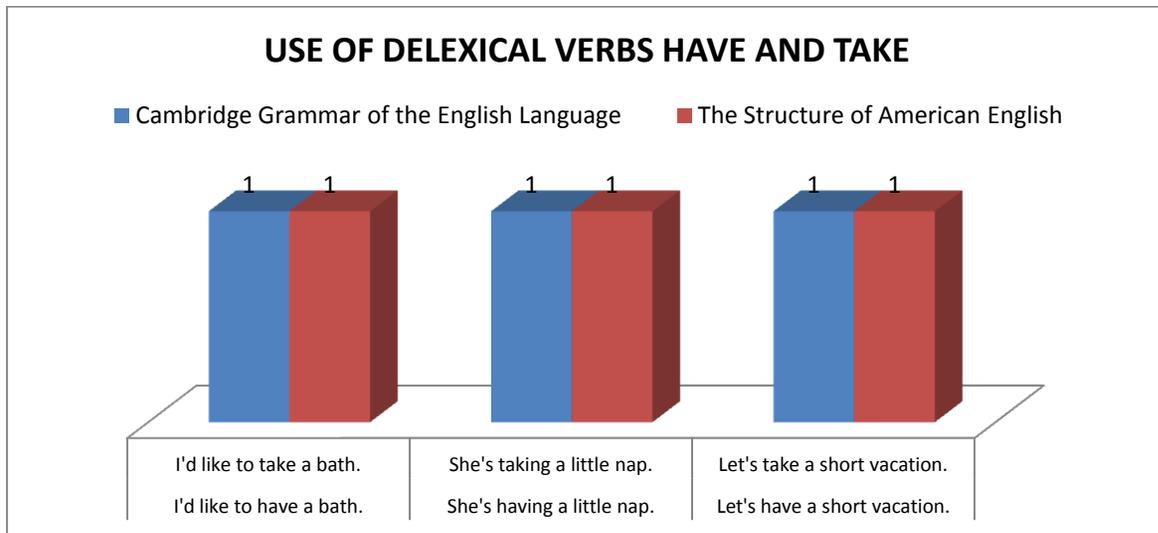


Diagram № 9.2.2

Only one of the three pairs of sentences complies with the guidance provided by Cambridge Grammar of the English Language while two pairs follow the framework set in The Structure of American English

9.2.3 Use of auxiliaries and modals

The third part focuses on **Use of auxiliaries and modals**. The samples are taken from the Article by Merry Maxweel and Lindsay Clandfield and the four pairs selected are organized in tables, with their frequency checked in two ways: with the two grammars, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English* and using a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers, consisting of the following questions:

Which of these do you use and how often? Very often; rarely; never.

The results are presented in diagrams and conclusions made based on whether they comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

Table № 9.2.3

№	British English	American English	Cambridge Grammar of the English Language	The Structure of American English
1	A: Are you coming with us? B: I might [do].	A: Are you coming with us? B: I might.	+	+
2	They needn't come to school today. They don't need to come to school today.	They don't need to come to school today.	+	+
3	I shall/will be there later.	I will be there later.	+	+
4	Shall we ask him to come with us?	Should we ask him to come with us?	+	+

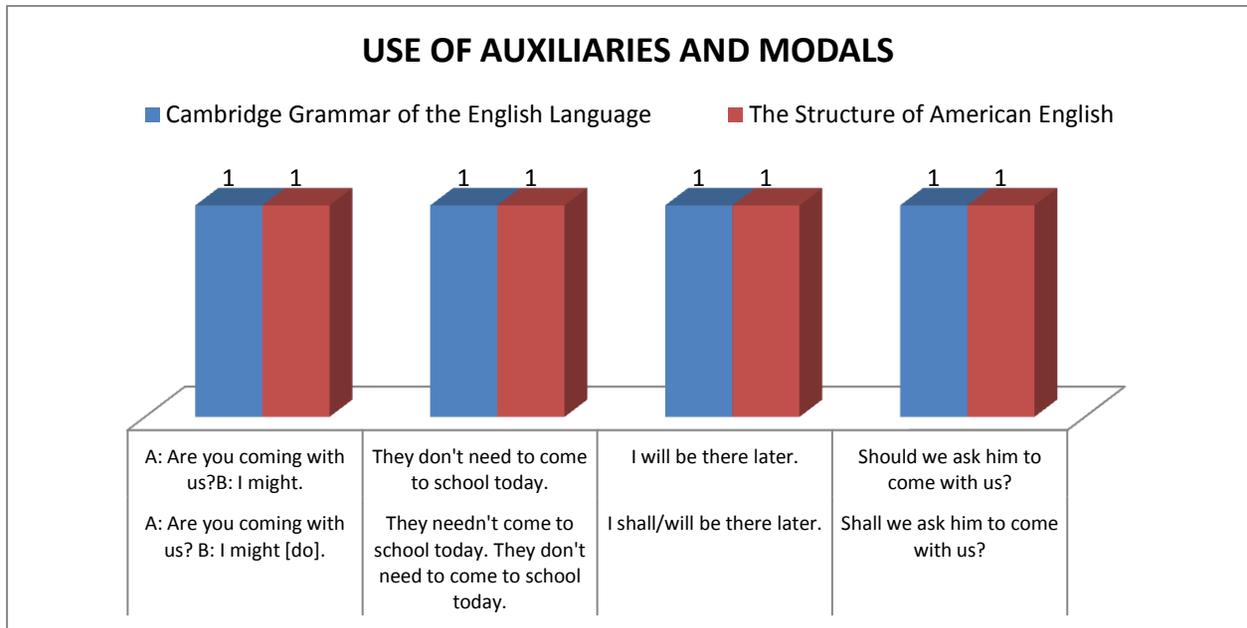


Diagram № 9.2.3

All the four pairs comply with both Cambridge Grammar of the English Language and The Structure of American English

9.2.4 Past Tense Forms,

The final part of this area at the grammatical level is **Past Tense Forms**, where Samples are taken from *Advanced Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. The ensuing 15 pairs of irregular verbs are organized in tables and their frequency checked in the same way as in the previous section. The results are then presented in diagrams and conclusions drawn based on whether they comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.

It has to be emphasized that both corpora which have been used to check the frequency cover different periods. Namely, the British National Corpus covers the period until 1993 and The Corpus of Contemporary American until 2010. Also, lexemes which differ in their number of elements could not be compared and it is the same case with longer phrases.

Table № 9.2.4

№	Infinitive	Simple past (Br)	Simple past (Am)	Past participle (Br)	Past participle (Am)	BNC	COCA
1	burn	burned/ burnt	burned/ burnt	burned/ burnt	burned/ burnt	0.88/1.13	0.17/5.81
2	bust	bust	busted	bust	busted	8.01/0.12	1.88/0.54
3	dive	dived	dove/ dived	dived	dived	0.70/1.43	5.29/0.19
4	dream	dreamed/ dreamt	dreamed/ dreamt	dreamed/ dreamt	dreamed/ dreamt	0.37/2.67	0.12/8.45
5	get	got	got	got	gotten	868.25	12.55/0.08
6	lean	leaned/ leant	leaned	leaned/ leant	leaned	0.59/1.68	0.00/210.08
7	learn	learned/ learnt	learned	learned/ learnt	learned	0.41/2.43	0.01/184.07

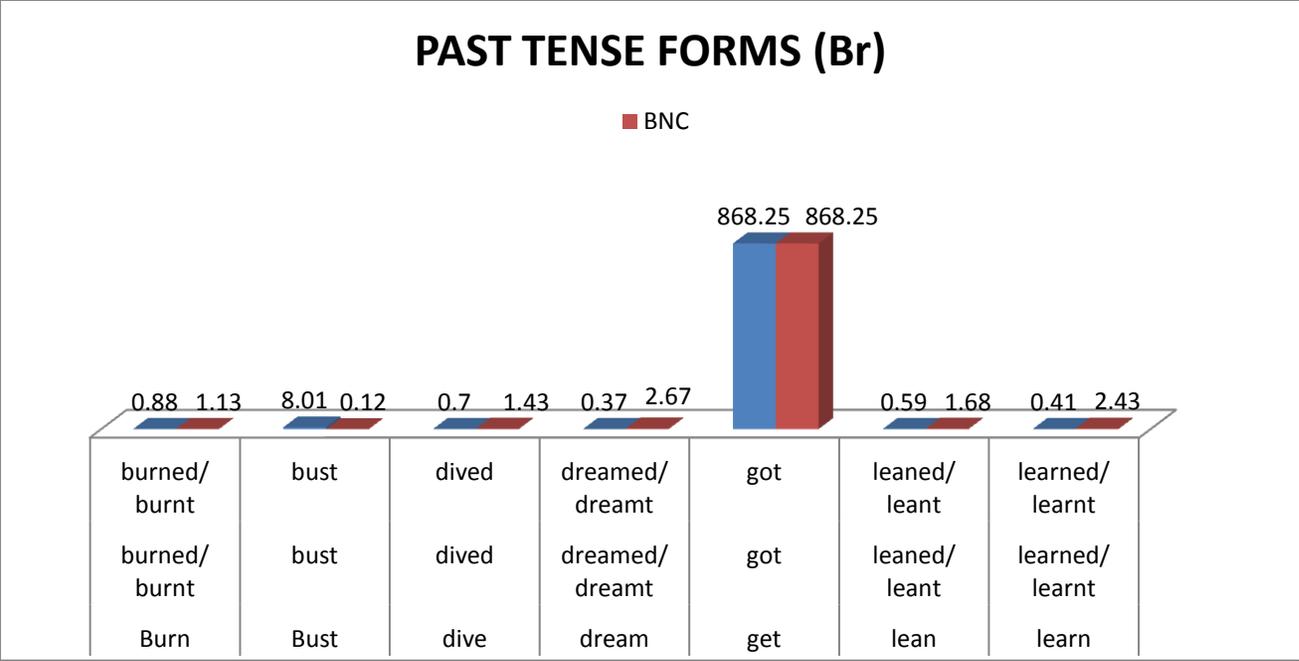


Diagram № 9.2.4a

Five British samples out of seven are more frequent than the American ones, one American is more frequent and one pair are equally frequent.

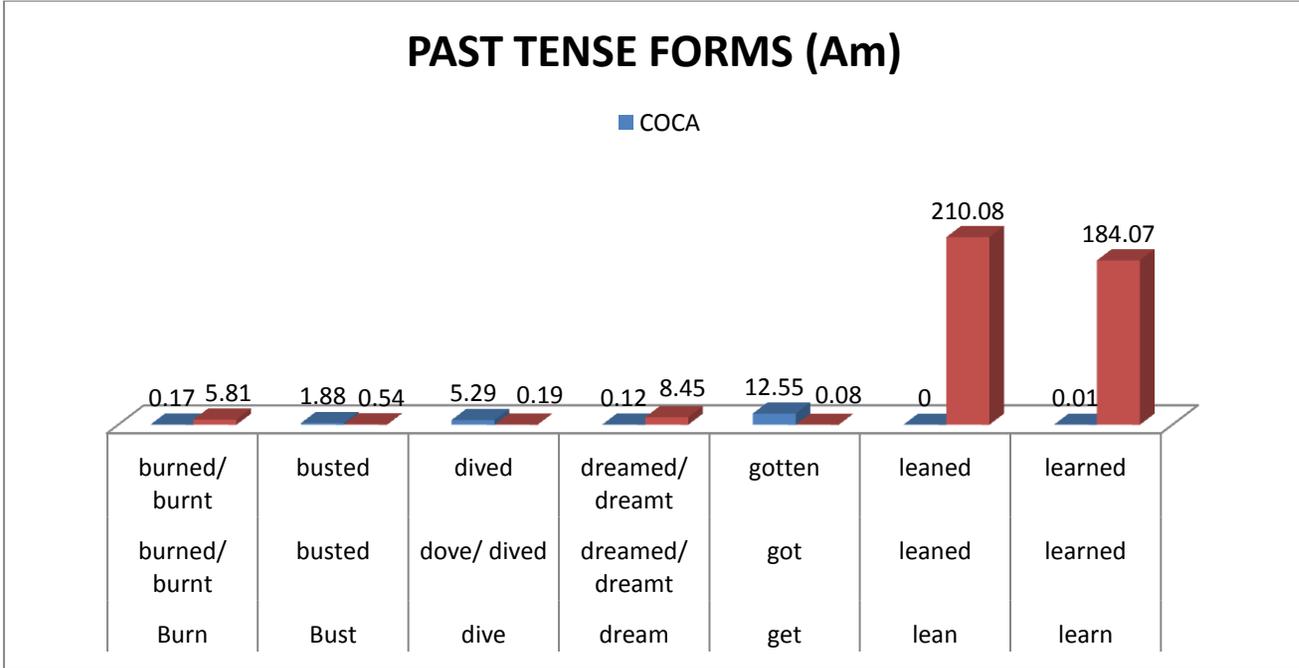


Diagram № 9.2.4b

Three American samples out of seven are more frequent than their British counterparts, while four British ones are more frequent than their American equivalents.

Table № 9.2.5

№	Infinitive	Simple past (Br)	Simple past (Am)	Past participle (Br)	Past participle (Am)	BNC	COCA
8	plead	pleaded	pleaded/ pled	pleaded	pleaded/ pled	0.03/29.03	0.13/7.55
9	prove	proved	proved	proved	proved/ proven		1.94/0.52
10	saw	sawed	sawed	sawn	sawn/ sawed	8.62/0.12	5.22/0.19
11	smell	smelled/ smelt	smelled	smelled/ smelt	smelled	1.42/0.70	0.04/23.20
12	spill	spilled/ spilt	spilled	spilled/ spilt	spilled	1.97/0.51	0.04/25.23
13	spoil	spoiled/ spoilt	spoiled/ spoilt	spoiled/ spoilt	spoiled/ spoilt	0.91/1.10	0.02/52.13
14	stink	stank	stank/ stunk	Stunk	stunk	7.58/0.13	2.05/0.49
15	wake	woke	woke/waked	woken	woken	113.50/0.01	0.17/5.83

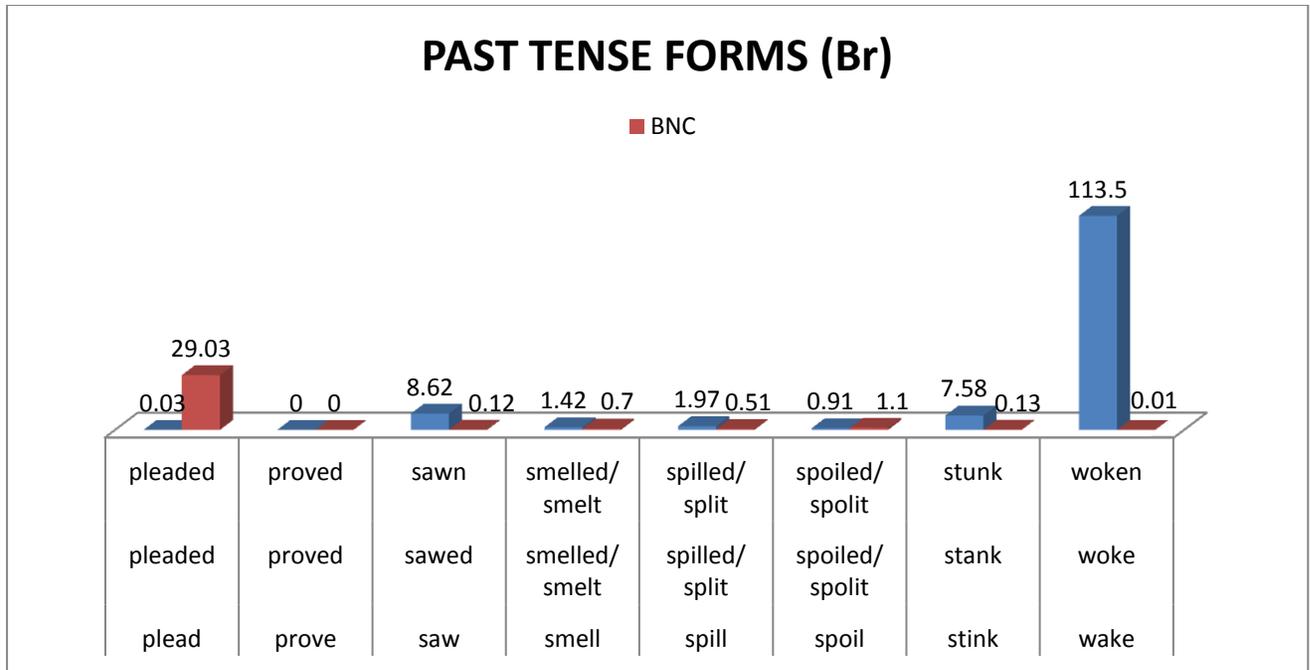


Diagram № 9.2.5 a

Five British samples out of eight are more frequent than the American ones, one is not found, and two American samples are more frequent.

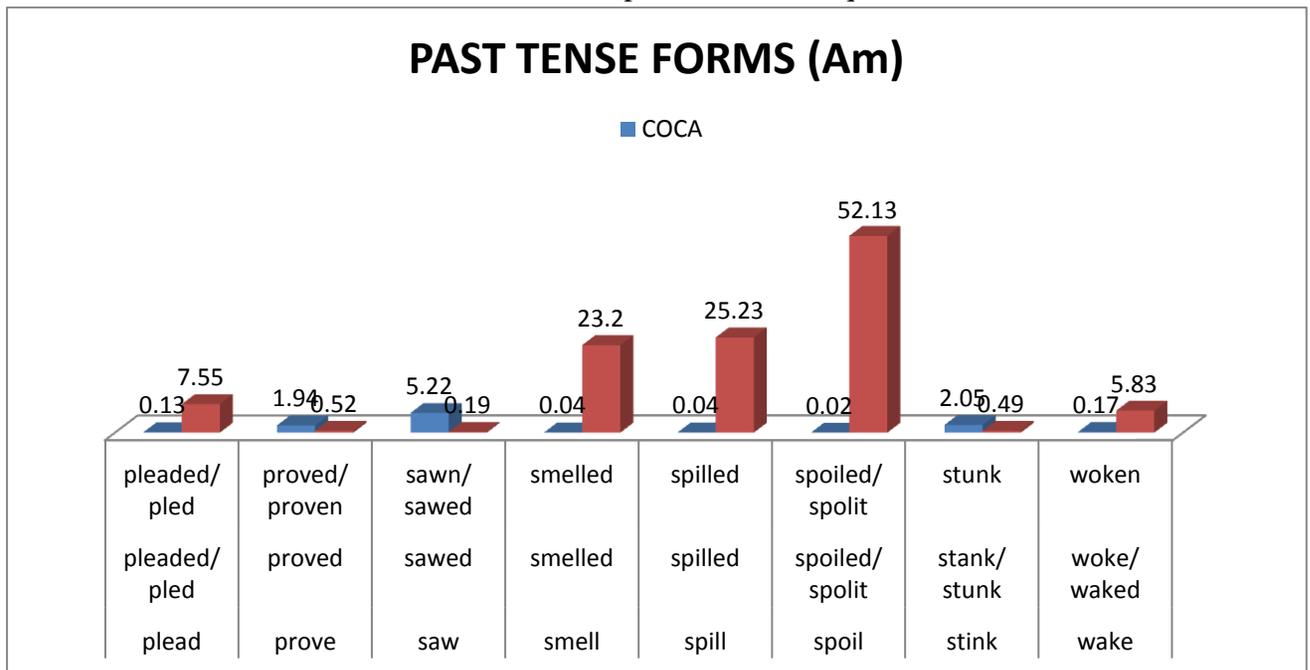


Diagram № 9.2.5b

Three American samples out of eight are more frequent than their British equivalents, while five British ones are more frequent.

Differences in use of verb forms including differences in frequency regarding

Verb agreement with collective nouns

The findings from this part of the research are as follows:

Diagram 4: The two pairs of sentences comply with both the grammars in question.

Use of delexical verbs *have* and *take*

Diagram 5: Only one of the three pairs of sentences comply with the guidance provided by Cambridge Grammar of the English Language while the other two follow the framework set in The Structure of American English

Use of auxiliaries and modals

Diagram 6: All the four pairs of sentences comply with both the grammars in question.

Past Tense Forms

Diagram 7.1: five out of seven British samples can be said to be more frequent than their American equivalents, one American more frequent, and one pair equally frequent (BNC - COCA)

Diagram 7.2: out of the seven samples, three American ones are more frequent than their British counterparts, while four British ones are more frequent (BNC - COCA)

Diagram 8.1: out of the eight samples, five British ones are more frequent than the American ones, one could not be found, while three American samples are more frequent (BNC - COCA)

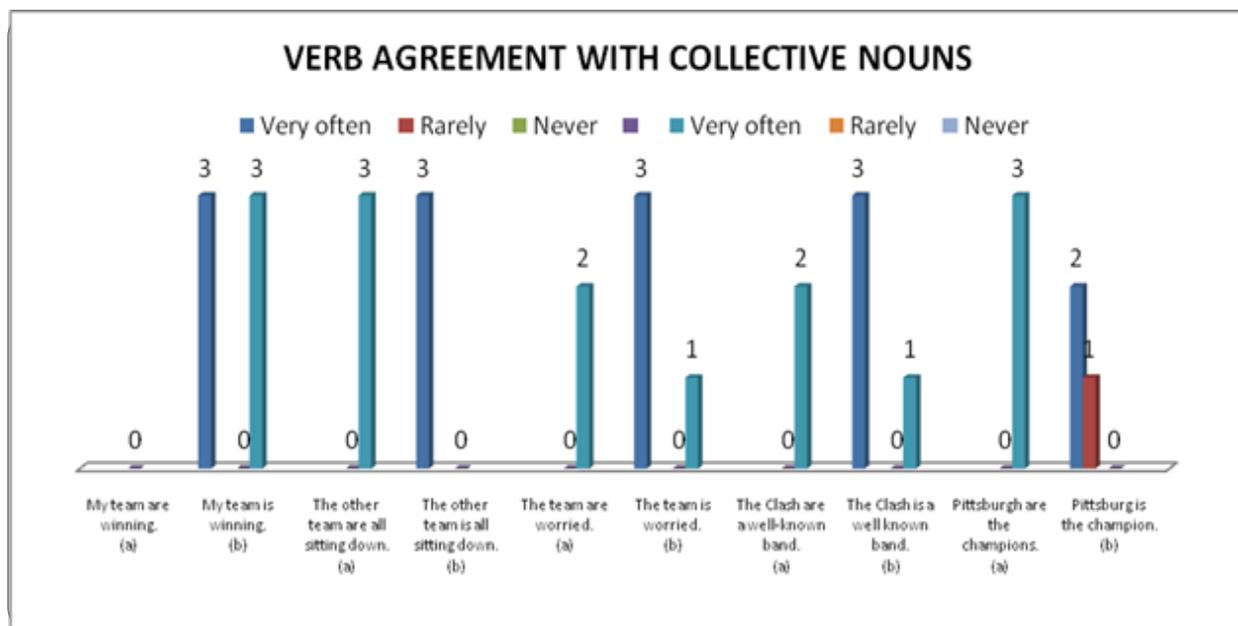
Diagram 8.2: three out of eight American samples are more frequent than their British equivalents, whereas five British samples are more frequent than their American counterparts.

As can be seen in the diagrams, two cases can be found which fully support the hypothesis set for this part of the study (Diagrams 4 and 6) further two strongly support it (Diagrams 7.1, 8.1); three partially support it (Diagrams 7.2, 8.2) and finally, only two (Diagrams 8.1 and 8.2) do not support it. Hence, it can be stated that the hypothesis in regard to the categories *Differences in use of verb forms including differences in frequency regarding Verb agreement with collective nouns; Use of delexical verbs have and take; Use of auxiliaries and modals; and Past Tense Forms* can be confirmed as strongly supported.

The second way in which frequency was checked was the use of a questionnaire to the two groups of native speakers asking them:

Do you recognize these pairs of sentences? (If yes) How often do you use? Very often; rarely; never

Last but not least, the findings obtained are presented in diagrams and conclusions are made based on how many of the sentences comply completely, partially or not at all with the original source.



Diagram№ 9.2.6

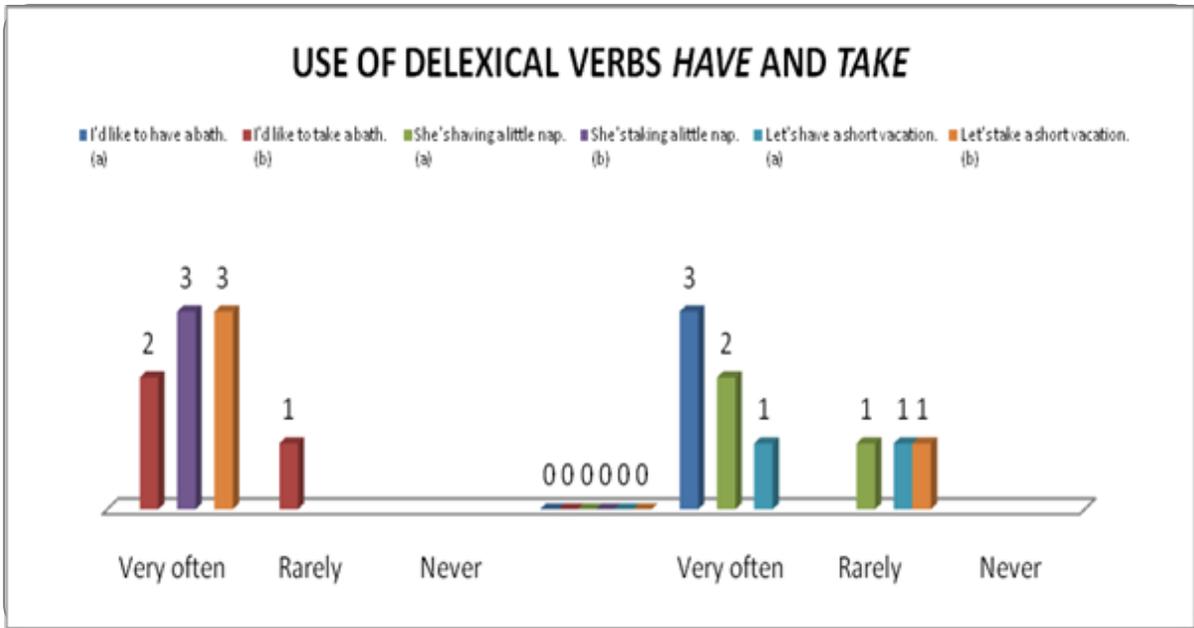


Diagram № 9.2.7

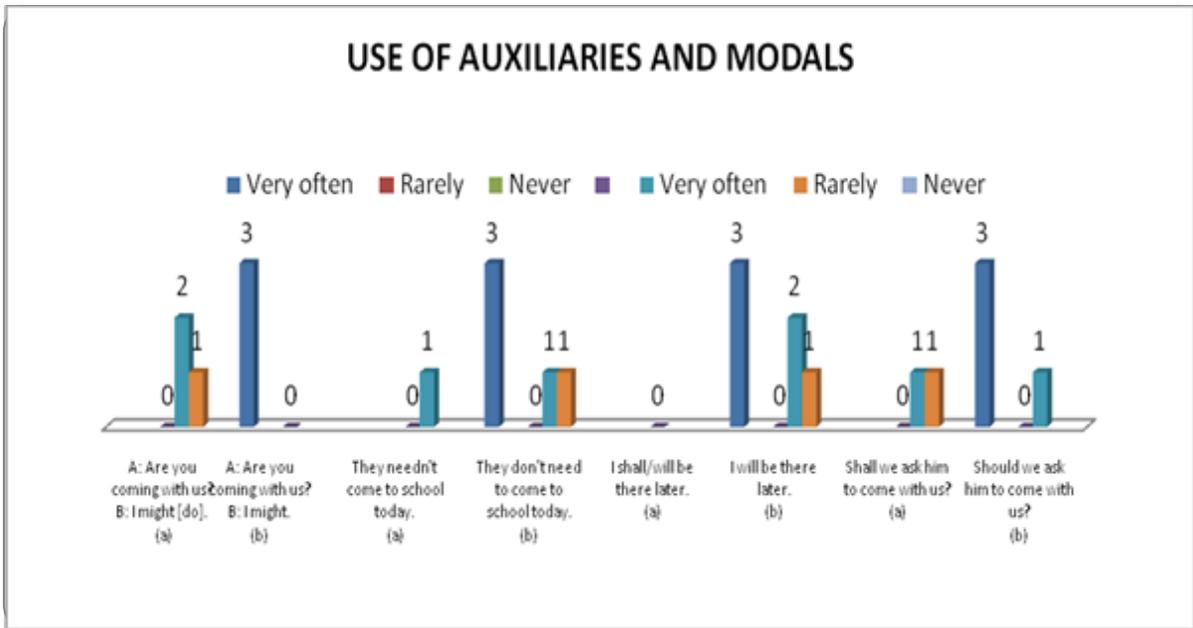
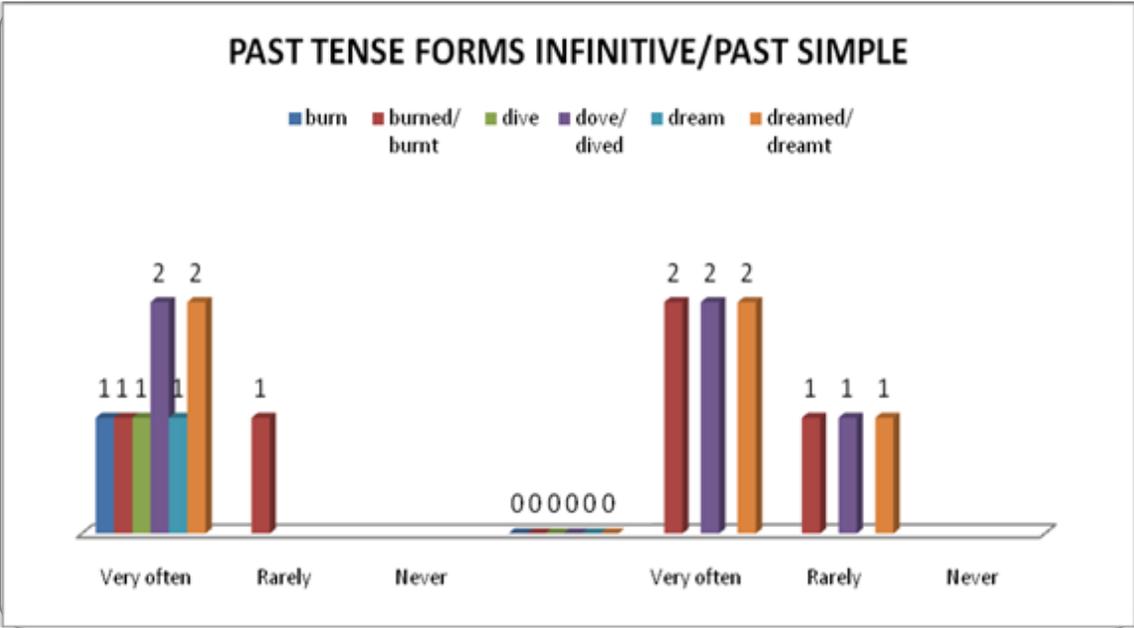
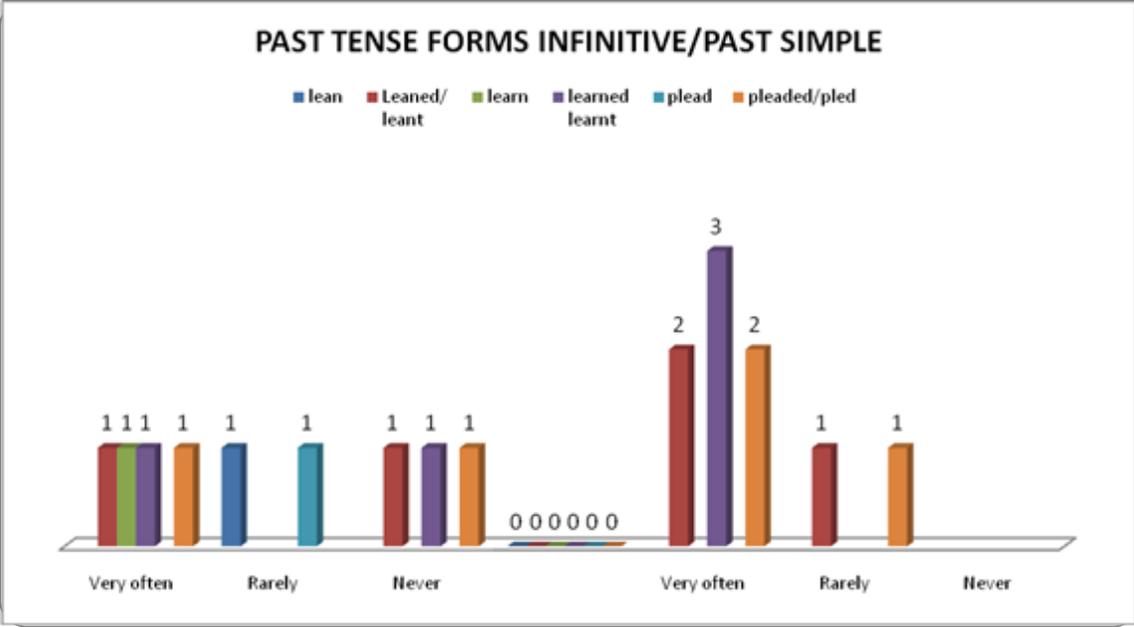


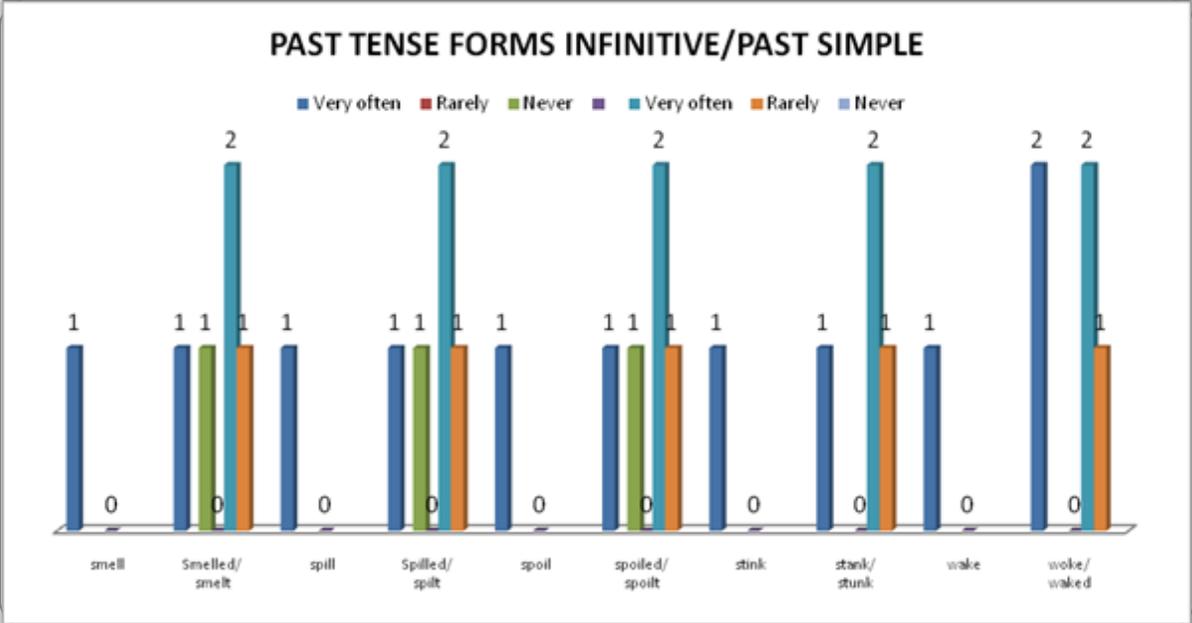
Diagram № 9.2.8



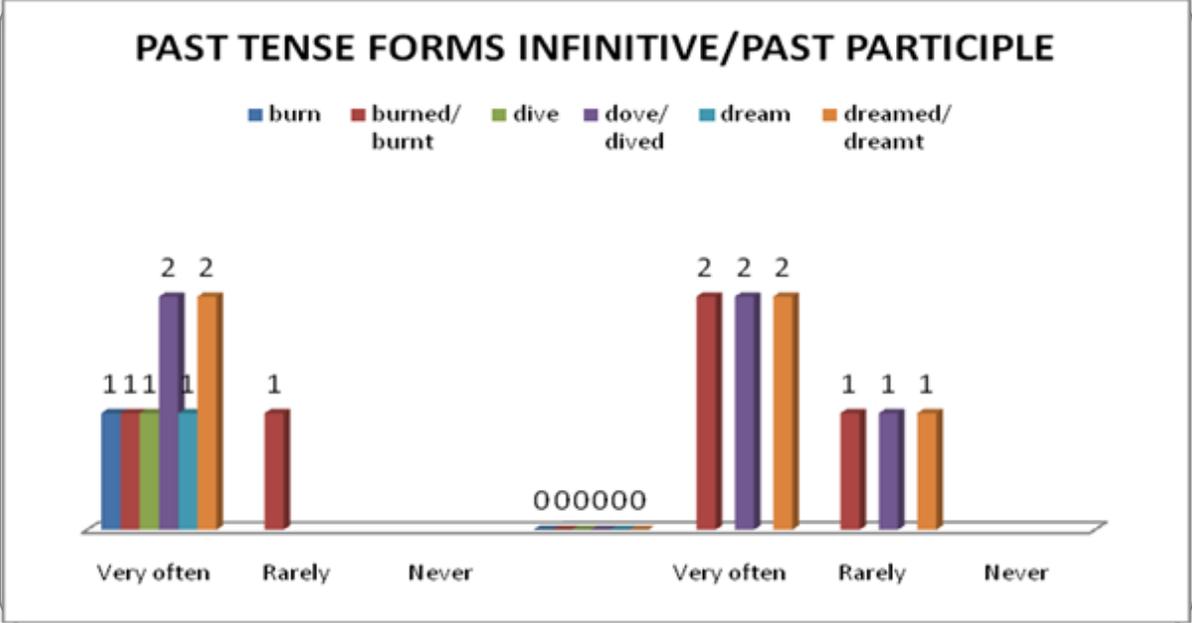
Diagram№ 9.2.9



Diagram№ 9.2.10



Diagram№ 9.2.11



Diagram№ 9.2.12

9.2.13 Received results according to the questionnaires

Diagram № 9.2.6

According to the diagram in four cases out of five, all three American native speakers who are represented on the left side of the diagram, have chosen the option “very often”, in only one case only 1 native speaker has chosen that option.

3 British native speakers in three cases have chosen the option “very often” in two cases only two of them have chosen the option very often

Diagram № 9.2.7

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in two cases all of them have chosen the option “very often”, two of them have chosen the same option in one case .

British are represented on the right side and all of them have chosen the “very often” option in one case, two of them have made the same choice in two cases and only in one case one native speaker has chosen the option “very often”.

Diagram № 9.2.8

According to this diagram all three American native speakers have chosen the option “very often” in four cases. From the other side two British native speakers on two occasions have chosen the option “very often” and only one of the speakers in two cases has made the same choice.

Diagram № 9.2.9

According to this diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” in four cases and two Americans have chosen the same option in two cases. From the other side two British native speakers on three occasions have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram № 9.2.10

Americans who are represented on the left side of this diagram in five cases one of them has chosen the option “very often”.

British are represented on the right side and two of them have chosen the “very often” option in two cases, three of them have made the same choice in one case.

Diagram № 9.2.11

According to this diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” in nine cases and two Americans have chosen the same option in one case. From the other side two British native speakers on five occasions have chosen the option “very often” .

Diagram № 9.2.12

According to this diagram one American native speaker has chosen the option “very often” in five cases and two Americans have chosen the same option in two cases. From the other side two British native speakers on three occasions have chosen the option “very often” .

Consequently, seven cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to strongly support the hypothesis set for this part of the study. Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of *Differences in use of verb forms including differences in frequency regarding Verb agreement with collective nouns* according to the obtained results in the questionnaires can be confirmed as true.

10. Conclusion

This doctoral thesis describes the research objective, analysis and results in order to see whether the set hypothesis for the variants between British and American English have being tested in details to be able to be confirmed completely, partially or not confirmed.

The thesis consists of three main parts: theoretical, research and conclusion. In each of them the variants have been searched thoroughly and very carefully on the three levels of language.

The main hypothesis is to test and prove through research that the intra lingual contrastive analysis on the levels of the both standards shows differences (contrasts) within the following categories:

Pronunciation

- Same spelling, different pronunciation
- Different spelling, same pronunciation

Vocabulary

- Different lexemes for same terms
- Same lexemes for same terms, partial differences in meaning
- Same lexemes differences in style, connotation and frequency
- Euphemisms
- Political correct expressions
- Language creativity- real culture reference

Grammar

- Differences in sentence structure
- Differences in use of verb forms including differences in frequency

The samples were chosen according to the set parameters and criteria and originate from the material used for this doctoral thesis and the Internet as another source. The frequencies are checked by means of

- using groups of native speakers (English and American);
- making use of the two existing corpora of the English language: *BNC* and *COCA* although it has to be emphasized that each covers a different time period; and
- utilizing two corresponding grammars: *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* and *The Structure of American English*.

Namely, on the first level, that is pronunciation, **Same spelling, different pronunciation** Native British and Native American speakers were consulted in order to check the pronunciation of the elected samples. The obtained results were presented in diagrams and according to them the following results were obtained:

Based on the diagrams, it was deduced that:

- twenty cases strongly support the hypothesis
- five partially support it
- one does not support it

The outcome of the research made within the first area pronunciation that is **Same spelling, different pronunciation was confirmed as true.**

Furthermore, on the same level **Different spelling, same pronunciation** samples were elected and their frequency was checked in two corpuses: British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American (COCA). The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). Samples were presented in tables and the results were shown into diagrams.

The following results have been obtained:

- thirteen cases can be found which strongly support the hypothesis set
- fifteen partially support it
- five do not support it

Since the British National Corpus covers the period until 1993, the number of the samples which could not be found is larger than in COCA as it covers the period until 2010.

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area *Different spelling same pronunciation* can be confirmed as partially true.

According to the results from the questionnaires

- the eleven cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support,
- ten strongly support and
- one case does not support the hypothesis set for this part of the study.

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of **Different spelling same pronunciation** according to the obtained results in the questionnaires was confirmed as true.

On the second level vocabulary within **Different lexemes for same terms**, first the samples were taken and presented in tables and after that the frequency of the samples was checked in the both previously mentioned corpuses British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American (COCA). The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). The frequency was presented in diagrams.

- eighteen cases were found which fully support the hypothesis set for this part of the study
- eight strongly support it
- ten partially support it and finally,
- only two do not support it.

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the category **Different lexemes for the same terms was confirmed as true.**

According to the results from the questionnaires

- three cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support,
- five cases strongly support and
- six cases partially support the hypothesis set for this part of the study.

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area *of* **Different lexemes for the same terms** according to the obtained results in the questionnaires **was confirmed as true.**

Further, on the second level **Same lexemes for same terms, partial differences in meaning** samples were also collected and presented in tables. Their frequency was checked in both corpuses BNC and COCA. The achieved results were presented in diagrams and according to them the following conclusions were obtained:

- eighteen cases fully support the hypothesis within this area
- three strongly support it

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis **Same lexemes for the same terms with slight differences in meaning was confirmed as true.**

The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). The frequency was presented in diagrams.

According to the results from the questionnaires:

- two cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support,

- three cases strongly support and
- twelve cases partially support
- two cases do not support the hypothesis set for this part of the study

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis **Same lexemes for the same terms with slight differences in meaning** was confirmed as true.

The same procedure was followed on the second level **Same lexemes differences in style, connotation and frequency**. The samples were elected and presented in tables. Their frequency were checked in the both corpuses BNC and COCA. Afterwards the received results were presented in diagrams The following was concluded.

- two cases strongly support
- seven cases partially support
- only one case does not support the hypothesis

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis **Same lexemes, differences in style, connotation and frequency** was confirmed as partially true.

The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). The frequency was presented in diagrams.

According to the results from the questionnaires:

- three cases strongly support and
- twelve cases partially support the hypothesis set for this part of the study

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis **Same lexemes, differences in style, connotation and frequency** was confirmed as partially true.

Euphemisms on the second level were next to be researched so the most explicit and typical samples were presented in tables referencing to a larger group. The samples together with the references were checked in both corpuses BNC and COCA and after that the received results were shown into diagrams. As they follow:

- twenty-nine cases fully support
- two cases strongly support
- one case does not support the hypothesis

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of **Euphemisms** was confirmed as strongly true.

The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). The frequency was presented in diagrams.

According to the results from the questionnaires: two cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support,

- one case strongly support and
- eleven cases partially support the hypothesis set for this part of the study

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of **Euphemisms** was confirmed as partially true.

Within the second category **Political correct expressions** were researched and the same procedure was followed. Namely, the most typical samples were taken and they were put in tables connected according to their reference. The frequency of their reference was presented in diagrams and the results were the following:

- twenty cases fully support
- eighteen cases do not support the hypothesis.

Therefore, it can be argued that the hypothesis **Politically correct terms** was confirmed as partially true.

The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). The frequency was presented in diagrams.

According to the results from the questionnaires: two cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support,

- one case strongly support and
- eleven cases partially support the hypothesis set for this part of the study

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of **Politically correct terms** according to the obtained results in the questionnaires was confirmed as partially true.

And finally the last within this category was the **Language creativity reference to cultural reality** Namely, here like in the previous research, the procedure was the following. The most frequent samples were taken and their wider reference was presented in tables. The frequency was checked in both corpuses BNC and COCA and it was presented in diagrams. The results are as follows:

- eight cases fully support
- five cases partially support
- only one not to support the hypothesis

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area **Language creativity reference to cultural reality was confirmed as true.**

The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). The frequency was presented in diagrams.

According to the results from the questionnaires: two cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support,

- eight cases partially support and
- one case does not support the hypothesis set for this part of the study

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of **Language creativity- reference to cultural reality** according to the obtained results in the questionnaires **was confirmed as partially true.**

The third and the last level in the research part is **Grammar**. The variants were researched within the area **Differences in sentence structure** which was divided into several parts. **Word Order** where pairs of sentences were chosen and their frequency was checked in both grammars the Cambridge Grammar of the English Language and The Structure of American English . The results were presented in diagrams:

- six pairs of sentences follow the rules set in both grammars while one pair complies only with those in The Structure of American English.

Next, the use of **Present Perfect (have/has + past participle) versus Past Simple Tense as an action in the past that has an effect in the present** was checked in both grammars The

Cambridge Grammar of the English Language and The Structure of American English. The results were presented in diagrams:

- four pairs of sentences comply fully with the rules set in both the above-mentioned grammars.

The third part on the third level **Sentences which contain the words already, just, yet** was checked in the both previously mentioned grammars. Their frequency was checked and presented in diagrams which gave the following results:

- three pairs of sentences comply with the rules set in both the two grammars.

Taking into consideration the received results the conclusion is that variants do exist and **Differences in sentence structure** was confirmed as true.

The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). The frequency was presented in diagrams.

According to the results from the questionnaires:

- three cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support the hypothesis

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of **Differences in sentence structure** according to the obtained results in the questionnaires was confirmed as true.

The second part variants were analyzed in **Differences in use of verb forms including differences in frequency** of this third level has four parts. The first one was **Verb agreement with collective nouns**. Two pairs of sentences were taken and their frequency was checked in the Cambridge Grammar of the English Language and The Structure of American English The following results were obtained:

- The two pairs of sentences comply with both the grammars in question.

The second part on the third level was **Use of delexical verbs have and take**. A pair of sentences were taken and the same procedure was followed as with the previously mentioned parts of this level. The results were:

- Only one of the three pairs of sentences comply with the guidance provided by Cambridge Grammar of the English Language while the other two follow the framework set in The Structure of American English

The third part of the third level was **Use of auxiliaries and modals** where four pairs of sentences were compared and their frequency was checked in the Cambridge Grammar of the English Language The Structure of American English. This was the result.

- All the four pairs of sentences comply with both the grammars in question.

The last segment on this third level and generally in this research part was the **Past Tense Forms** where in the same way as the samples on the previous lexical level were elected and their frequency was checked in both corpuses British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American (COCA). The results are the following:

- two cases fully support
- two strongly support
- three partially support
- only two do not support the hypothesis set for this part of the study

Hence, it can be stated that the hypothesis in regard to the areas **Differences in use of verb forms including differences in frequency regarding Verb agreement with collective nouns; Use of delexical verbs have and take; Use of auxiliaries and modals; and Past Tense Forms was confirmed as strongly supported.**

The second way in which their frequency was checked was by questionnaires filled in by two groups of native speakers (three British and three American). The frequency was presented in diagrams.

According to the results from the questionnaires:

- seven cases presented in tables and diagrams have been found to fully support the hypothesis

Therefore, it can be stated that the hypothesis within the area of **Differences in use of verb forms including differences in frequency regarding Verb agreement with collective nouns** according to the obtained results in the questionnaires **was confirmed as true.**

All of the received results from the research that was made for this doctoral thesis, indicate that most of the hypothesis was confirmed as true. In those cases it was partially confirmed as true that the influence of the media, news, Internet, and politics need to be taken into account along with the other ways of communication which give advantage to American English. Still the British variants in language try to be preserved as much as possible. Both

corpora which were used to check the frequency cover different periods of time. Namely, the British National Corpus covers the period until 1993 and The Corpus of Contemporary American until 2010. Also, lexemes which differ in their number of elements could not be compared. It is the same case with longer phrases.

Nevertheless, by this doctoral thesis it was proved that language is a living material and it is not static, but it is always in some inter relations. Not only British and American relations, but as English is a worldwide international accepted language, it also undergoes the changes and influences of other languages as well.

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12.Enclosures

Phonological level

Questionnaire 1

№	Different spelling, same pronunciation		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	Apologize	Apologise			
2	Authorize	Authorize			
3	Anesthetist	Anaesthetist			
4	Analog	Analogue			
5	Ax	Axe			
6	Ameba	Amoeba			
7	Anemia	Anaemia			
8	Anesthesia	Anaesthesia			
9	Appall	Appal			
10	Archeology	Archaeology			
11	Behavior	Behavior			
12	Bail out	Bale out			
13	Battleax	Battleaxe			
14	Baloney	Boloney			
15	B.S	BSc			
16	Buses	Busses			
17	Color	Colour			
18	Center	Centre			
19	Counseling	Counselling			
20	Civilize	Civilise			
21	Catalog	Catalogue			
22	Ceasarian	Caesarian			
23	Check	Cheque			
24	Chili	Chilli			
25	Cigaret	Cigarette			
26	Citrus	Citrous			
27	Diarrhea	Diarrhoea			
28	Dialog	Dialogue			
29	Defense	Defence			
30	Disk	Disc			
31	Draft	Draught			
32	Donut	Doughnut			
33	Draftsman	Draughtsman			
34	Drafty	Draughty			
35	Esthetic	Aesthetic			
36	Estrogen	Oestrogen			
37	Esophagus	Oesophagus			
38	Encyclopedia	Encyclopaedia			
39	Inquire	Enquire			
40	Insure	Ensure			
41	Favor	Favour			

42	Flavor	Flavour			
43	Feces	Faeces			
44	Fetus	Foetus			
45	Flotation	Flotation			
46	Gynecology	gynaecology			
47	Gray	Grey			
48	Jail	Gaol			
49	Garrote	Garotte			
50	Gage	Gauge			
51	Gonorrhea	Gonorrhoea			
52	Gram	Gramme			
53	Harbor	Harbour			
54	Honor	Honour			
55	Humor	Humour			
56	Hemorrhage	Haemorrhage			
57	Haemoglobin	Hemoglobin			
58	Homeopath	Homeopath			
59	Hosteler	Hosteller			
60	Inflection	Inflexion			
61	Instill	Instil			
62	Jeweler	Jeweler			
63	Jr	Jnr			
64	Kilogram	Kilogramme			
65	Labor	Labour			
66	Liber	Libre			
67	Liter	Litre			
68	Labeled	Labelled			
69	Leukemia	Leukaemia			
70	Largess	Largesse			
71	Libelus	Libellous			
72	License (n.)	Licence (n.)			
73	Licorice	Liquorice			
74	Maneuver	Manoeuvre			
75	Marvelous	Marvellous			
76	Medieval	Mediaeval			
77	Mollusk	Mollusc			
78	Mold	Mould			
79	Molt	Moult			
80	Mustache	Moustache			
81	M.S	MSc			
82	Neighbor	Neighbour			
83	Odor	Odour			
84	Organize	Organise			
85	Offense	Offence			
86	Orthopedics	Orthopaedics			
87	Pediatrics	Paediatrics			
88	Program	Programme			
89	Pretense	Pretence			
90	Plow	Plough			
91	Panelist	Panellist			
92	Paralyze	Paralyse			
93	Peddler	Pedlar			
94	Practice	Practise			

95	Premiss	Premise			
96	Pajamas	Pyjamas			
97	Rumor	Rumour			
98	Recognize	Recognise			
99	Scepter	Sceptre			
100	Somber	Sombre			
101	Specialize	Specialise			
102	Skeptical	Sceptical			
103	Sanitorium	Sanatorium			
104	Scalawag	Scallywag			
105	Smolder	Smoulder			
106	Story	Storey			
107	Sulfur	Sulphur			
108	Theater	Theatre			
109	Traveling	Travelling			
110	Traveled	Travelled			
111	Thruway	Throughway			
112	Tidbit	Titbit			
113	Tire	Tyre			
114	Vapor	Vapour			
115	Vise	Vice			
116	Woolen	Woollen			

№	. Different lexemes for same terms		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	Cotton wool	Absorbent cotton			
2	Aeroplane	Airplane			
3	Antenna	Aerial			
4	Autumn	Fall			
5	Block of flats	Apartment house			
6	Bath(tub)	Bathtub			
7	Bookshop	Bookstore			
8	Bill	Check			
9	Biscuit	Cookie			
10	Bowler	Derby			
11	Bailiff	Repo-man			
12	Barrister	Attorney			
13	Bath	Tub			
14	Bonnet (of a car)	Hood			
15	Current account	Checking account			
16	Chips	French fries			
17	Crisps	Chips			
18	Car	Auto			
19	Chest of drawers	Bureau			
20	Coffin	Casket			
21	Credit account	Charge account			
22	Pin	Peg			
23	Cot	Camp bed			
24	County seat	County town			
25	Crime	Felony			
26	Curtains	Drapes			
27	Dustbin	Ash can			
28	Station	Depot			
29	Diversion	Detour			
30	Dialling tone	Dial tone			
31	Dual carriage way	Divided highway			
32	Driving licence	Driver's license			
33	Draft	Conscription			
34	Estate car	Station wagon			
35	Eiderdown	Comforter			
36	Engine driver	Engineer			
37	Extractor fan	Exhaust fan			
38	Emergency cord	Communication cord			
39	Flypast	Flyover			
40	Flyover	Overpass			
41	Flat	Apartment			
42	Furnishing store	Furniture store			
43	Flex	Electric cord			
44	Fire brigade	Fire department			
45	French windows	French doors			
46	Fool	Dummy			

47	Gramophone records	Phonograph records			
48	Government	Administration			
49	Guard's van	Caboose			
50	Guard	Conductor			
51	Ground floor	First floor			
52	Gear stick	Stick shift			
53	Holdall	Carryall			
54	Hall of residence	Dormitory			
55	Hire purchase	Instalment plan			
56	Holiday	Vacation			
57	Home help	Homemaker			
58	Immersion heater	Hot water heater			
59	Internet Interval	Intermission			
60	Jeans	Blue jeans			
61	Jumper	Sweater			
62	Ketchup	Catsup			
63	Knave	Jack			
64	Lift	Elevator			
65	Liftboy	Elevator boy			
66	Luggage	Baggage			
67	Lavatory	Bathroom			
68	Lollipop lady/man	Crossing guard			
69	Level crossing	Grade crossing			
70	Lead	Leash			
71	Lemonade	Lemon soda			
72	Lucky dip	Grab bag			
73	Line	Track			
74	Licence plate	Number plate			
75	Maize	Corn			
76	Motorway	Expressway			
77	Mince meat	Ground meat			
78	Marrow	Squash			
79	Motorcar	Automobile			
80	Main road	Interstate			
81	Mobile phone	Cellular phone			
82	Newspaper cutting	Newspaper clipping			
83	Note	Bill			
84	Nappy	Diaper			
85	Nail varnish	Nail polish			
86	Nightdress	Nightgown			
87	Newsagent	Newsdealer			
88	Notice board	Bulletin board			
89	Pharmacy	Drugstore			
90	Post	Mail			
91	Pocket money	Allowance			
92	Pram	Baby carriage			
93	Phone in	Call in			
94	Primary school	Elementary school			
95	Petrol	gasoline			
96	Post mortem	Autopsy			
97	Postcode	zip code			
98	Quilt	Comforter			

99	Quaver	Eighth note			
100	Ring road	Beltway			
101	Raspberry	Bronx cheer			
102	Reception clerk	Desk clerk			
103	Rubber	Eraser			
104	Rubbish	Garbage			
105	Reading history	Majoring in history			
106	Shop	Store			
107	Skirting board	Base board			
108	Scone	Biscuit			
109	Sweets	Candy			
110	Soft goods	Drygoods			
111	Standard lamp	Floor lamp			
112	Suspenders	Garters			
113	Solicitor	Lawyer			
114	Tailback	Back up			
115	Tin	Can			
116	Tea towel	Dish towel			
117	Tipper lorry	Dump truck			
118	Tap	Faucet			
119	Torch	Flashlight			
120	Term	Semester			
121	Timber	Lumber			
122	Tramp	Bum			
123	Wallet	Billfold			
124	Wagon	Carriage			
125	Wardrobe	Closet			
126	Whom (Object form)	Who			

Questionnaire 2 Reading list Please read the list and record it.

№	Word
1.	Anti
2.	Asthma
3.	Ate
4.	Allied
5.	Alternate
6.	Anesthesia
7.	Artistic
8.	Aspire
9.	Astrology
10.	Averse
11.	Backbone
12.	Backdrop
13.	Broadcaster
14.	Butterfly
15.	Buzzword
16.	Bastion
17.	Bathrobe
18.	Booster
19.	Banner
20.	Baroque
21.	Capsule
22.	Chassis
23.	Clerk
24.	Clique
25.	Cardio
26.	Carnival
27.	Cavern
28.	Certificated
29.	Charter
30.	Cobra
31.	Data
32.	Derby
33.	Doctoral
34.	Distributed
35.	Distort
36.	Departed
37.	Dagger
38.	Dutiful
39.	Donkey

40.	Dosage
41.	Erase
42.	Earthquake
43.	Ecology
44.	Elderberry
45.	Embody
46.	Enfold
47.	Enlarge
48.	Entrance
49.	Elbow
50.	Epicenter
51.	Fracas
52.	Farming
53.	Fearfully
54.	Fiasco
55.	Fiery
56.	Filter
57.	Finder
58.	Firstly
59.	Flagstaff
60.	Flicker
61.	Geyser
62.	Gooseberry
63.	Goulash
64.	Gala
65.	Gender
66.	Globalization
67.	Goaltender
68.	Grassland
69.	Guilder
70.	Gymnast
71.	Herb
72.	Hers
73.	High-ball
74.	Hobby
75.	Holiness
76.	Holocaust
77.	Hone
78.	Honky-tonk
79.	Horrible
80.	Housemaster
81.	Inapplicable
82.	Incendiary
83.	Incognito
84.	Induce

85.	Indoor
86.	Inexhaustible
87.	Inspired
88.	Independence
89.	Intermediate
90.	Intestate
91.	Jitterbug
92.	Joey
93.	Jogger
94.	Journey
95.	Juggler
96.	Juncture
97.	Juvenile
98.	Juxtapose
99.	Jumpsuit
100	Judiciary
101	Kebab
102	Kegger
103	Keyboard
104	Ki bosh
105	Kiddo
106	Killer
107	Kingfisher
108	Knacker
109	Knew
110	Krome
111	Leisure
112	Lever
113	Lieutenant
114	Labored
115	Lastly
116	Latitude
117	Laudable
118	Land
119	Launch
120	Lighter
121	Medicine
122	Missile
123	Malformed
124	Makeover
125	Maser
126	Materially
127	Matiner
128	Matrimony
129	Minimart

130	Mobile
131	Nephew
132	Nougat
133	Nightshirt
134	Nocturnal
135	Non existent
136	North bound
137	Noteworthy
138	Nourish
139	Nucleus
140	Nightfall
141	Observer
142	Obsolescence
143	Occupant
144	Oceanfront
145	Oleander
146	Opacity
147	Ordinance
148	Outerwear
149	Outdoors
150	Overhang
151	Progress
152	Parking
153	Parse
154	Pegboard
155	Performer
156	Pinhole
157	Pitfah
158	Plasterboard
159	Plaza
160	Pocked
161	Qualify
162	Qualification
163	Quandary
164	Quatrain
165	Quarterwaster
166	Quicksilver
167	Quiescent
168	Quizmaster
169	Quotient
170	Quotidian
171	Route
172	Racketeer
173	Radiology
174	Rapper

175	Rascal
176	Repertory
177	Reschedule
178	Rancam
179	Runner
180	Ryegrass
181	Schedule
182	Sackcloth
183	Safeguard
184	Salutary
185	Scenario
186	Sculptured
187	Seniority
188	Sharpen
189	Shopper
190	Shovelware
191	Tissue
192	Tomato
193	Tensile
194	Templaif
195	Thermosetting
196	Tirade
197	Toaster
198	Toff
199	Torchlight
200	Transient
201	Undue
202	Unexploded
203	Unharmmed
204	Unproven
205	Untoward
206	Unsuited
207	Unremarkable
208	Unobserved
209	Usher
210	Utilization
211	Vase
212	Vacuum
213	Valour
214	Variant
215	Volunteer
216	Volcano
217	Vortex
218	Vulgar
219	Votive

220	Voyer
221	Wrath
222	Wager
223	Waffle
224	Wakeboard
225	Wheelbarrow
226	Willow tree
227	Winnow
228	Worker
229	World
230	Wrongfoot
231	x-certificate
232	Xenon
233	Xenophobia
234	Xylophone
235	X axis
236	Xenotransplant
237	x-was
238	Yachting
239	Yaws
240	Yammer
241	Yellowish
242	Yogurt
243	Yolk
244	Yonder
245	Yourself
246	Youtube
247	Younger
248	Z
249	Zebra
250	Zenith
251	Zero
252	Zinger
253	Zodiac
254	Zombie
255	Zydeco
256	Zoology
257	Zapper

**Lexical level
Questionnaire 3**

№	Different lexemes for same terms		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	Cotton wool	Absorbent cotton			
2	Aeroplane	Airplane			
3	Antenna	Aerial			
4	Autumn	Fall			
5	Block of flats	Apartment house			
6	Bath(tub)	Bathtub			
7	Bookshop	Bookstore			
8	Bill	Check			
9	Biscuit	Cookie			
10	Bowler	Derby			
11	Bailiff	Repo-man			
12	Barrister	Attorney			
13	Bath	Tub			
14	Bonnet (of a car)	Hood			
15	Current account	Checking account			
16	Chips	French fries			
17	Crisps	Chips			
18	Car	Auto			
19	Chest of drawers	Bureau			
20	Coffin	Casket			
21	Credit account	Charge account			
22	Pin	Peg			
23	Cot	Camp bed			
24	County seat	County town			
25	Crime	Felony			
26	Curtains	Drapes			
27	Dustbin	Ash can			
28	Station	Depot			
29	Diversion	Detour			
30	Dialling tone	Dial tone			
31	Dual carriage way	Divided highway			
32	Driving licence	Driver's license			
33	Draft	Conscription			
34	Estate car	Station wagon			
35	Eiderdown	Comforter			
36	Engine driver	Engineer			
37	Extractor fan	Exhaust fail			
38	Emergency cord	Communication cord			
39	Flypast	Flyover			
40	Flyover	Overpass			
41	Flat	Apartment			
42	Furnishing store	Furniture store			
43	Flex	Electric cord			
44	Fire brigade	Fire department			
45	French windows	French doors			
46	Fool	Dummy			

47	Gramophone records	Phonograph records			
48	Government	Administration			
49	Guard's van	Caboose			
50	Guard	Conductor			
51	Ground floor	First floor			
52	Gear stick	Stick shift			
53	Holdall	Carryall			
54	Hall of residence	Dormitory			
55	Hire purchase	Instalment plan			
56	Holiday	Vacation			
57	Home help	Homemaker			
58	Immersion heater	Hot water heater			
59	Internet Interval	Intermission			
60	Jeans	Blue jeans			
61	Jumper	Sweater			
62	Ketchup	Catsup			
63	Knave	Jack			
64	Lift	Elevator			
65	Liftboy	Elevator boy			
66	Luggage	Baggage			
67	Lavatory	Bathroom			
68	Lollipop lady/man	Crossing guard			
69	Level crossing	Grade crossing			
70	Lead	Leash			
71	Lemonade	Lemon soda			
72	Lucky dip	Grab bag			
73	Line	Track			
74	Licence plate	Number plate			
75	Maize	Corn			
76	Motorway	Expressway			
77	Mince meat	Ground meat			
78	Marrow	Squash			
79	Motorcar	Automobile			
80	Main road	Interstate			
81	Mobile phone	Cellular phone			
82	Newspaper cutting	Newspaper clipping			
83	Note	Bill			
84	Nappy	Diaper			
85	Nail varnish	Nail polish			
86	Nightdress	Nightgown			
87	Newsagent	Newsdealer			
88	Notice board	Bulletin board			
89	Pharmacy	Drugstore			
90	Post	Mail			
91	Pocket money	Allowance			
92	Pram	Baby carriage			
93	Phone in	Call in			
94	Primary school	Elementary school			
95	Petrol	gasoline			
96	Post mortem	Autopsy			
97	Postcode	zip code			
98	Quilt	Comforter			

99	Quaver	Eighth note			
100	Ring road	Beltway			
101	Raspberry	Bronx cheer			
102	Reception clerk	Desk clerk			
103	Rubber	Eraser			
104	Rubbish	Garbage			
105	Reading history	Majoring in history			
106	Shop	Store			
107	Skirting board	Base board			
108	Scone	Biscuit			
109	Sweets	Candy			
110	Soft goods	Drygoods			
111	Standard lamp	Floor lamp			
112	Suspenders	Garters			
113	Solicitor	Lawyer			
114	Tailback	Back up			
115	Tin	Can			
116	Tea towel	Dish towel			
117	Tipper lorry	Dump truck			
118	Tap	Faucet			
119	Torch	Flashlight			
120	Term	Semester			
121	Timber	Lumber			
122	Tramp	Bum			
123	Wallet	Billfold			
124	Wagon	Carriage			
125	Wardrobe	Closet			
126	Whom (Object form)	Who			

№	Same lexemes for same terms, slight differences in meaning			Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
	Words /phrases	Meaning 1	Meaning 2	Very often	Rarely	Never
1	anorak	a parka (slang) a socially awkward person obsessively interested in something	hooded, rainproof outerwear that lacks a full-length zipper in the front			
2	apartment	suite of rooms set aside for a particular person (rare),	us. rented housing unit in a larger building			
3	bakery	a place where bread and cakes are made	a place where bread and cakes are sold			
4	bar	where drinks or food are ordered and paid for in a pub	A place where alcoholic drinks are served			
5	bird	a young woman	an animal with feathers that flies			
6	bog	the bathroom	wet muddy soft ground			
7	braces	suspenders, an article of clothing used to hold trousers up	supports on the teeth used to straighten them			
8	Biscuit	a cookie	a type of bread that is flaky and buttery			
9	beaker	drinking vessel without a handle, or one (with or without handles) made of unbreakable plastic for the use of children	flat-bottomed vessel, with a lip, used as a laboratory container.			
10	bee	a four-winged insect which collects nectar and pollen, produces wax and honey, and lives in large communities	a meeting for communal work or amusement			
11	bill	invoice; request for payment	a piece of paper money			
12	boiler (n.)	1)an old fowl	device (usu. oil			

		best cooked by boiling 2) as in Am.E.	or gas-fired) for heating water for central heating or hot water			
13	boss	the person you report to at work	cool, totally awesome			
14	brilliant	excellent, of the highest quality (rarely sarcastic)	very bright (of a light or a brain)			
15	bureau	a type of writing table	a public office or government agency			
16	checkers	a game for two people, each with twelve circular pieces which they move on a board with black and white squares	A game for two players using round pieces			
17	cookie	A chocolate chip cookie	A small flat sweet dry cake			
18	cheerio	goodbye (old-fashioned)	Exclamation			
19	caravan	towed recreational vehicle containing accommodation	a type of minivan sold in the United States			
20	Chips	potatoes cut into thin/thick pieces cooked in hot oil	thin flat crisp pieces of food made from crushed maize			
21	Cookery	The art or skill of cooking	Recipe			
22	corn	the seeds of plants, such as wheat , maize , oats and barley that can be used to produce flour	the seeds of the maize plant, or the plant itself			
23	College	part of the name of some state secondary schools educational institution between school and university	an independent institution of higher education (as a small university or a division of a university) granting bachelor's degrees			
24	Coach	a bus taking passengers outside the local	a person who teaches or trains athletes			

		area a person who teaches or trains, for example, athletes				
25	can (n.)	small metal container mainly for drinks	can (v.): to fire someone from a job; (n.) a metal container for food/drinks			
26	campsite (n.)	area or park for people to camp in (US: <i>campground</i>)	spot for a particular person or group to camp, often within a <i>campground</i>			
27	carnival	the festive days just preceding Lent	a travelling circus or fair			
28	carriage	railway coach (q.v.) designed for the conveyance of passengers the conveying of goods or the price paid for it	baby transport vehicle featuring the infant lying down facing the pusher			
29	Check	examine for a particular purpose; a pattern of coloured squares; a warning given in chess	leave items in the care of someone else (e.g. at a cloakroom; hence <i>checkroom</i>)			
30	Chemist's	pharmacist, pharmacy	student or researcher of chemistry			
31	city	a large town, in particular a town created a city by charter and containing a cathedral	a usually large or important municipality governed under a charter granted by the state			
32	clerk	administrative worker	store or shop worker			
33	collect	to win a bet (from the idea of picking up the winnings)	to gather together, to pick up			
34	cooker	an appliance for cooking food	a person who cooks			
35	course	the entire degree	an individual			

		programme a student takes at university	subject a student takes at university			
36	cracker	small parcel that makes an explosive report when pulled from both ends, traditionally pulled at Christmas; attractive woman (slang); anything good ("the new product is a cracker") (slang)	a person who commits illegal acts by exploiting security flaws in a computer system			
37	cricket	a bat-and-ball sport contested by two teams	an insect, similar in appearance to grasshoppers			
38	custodian	an association football goalkeeper	a keeper or guardian of a person or thing			
39	draughts	a game for two people, each with twelve circular pieces which they move on a board with black and white squares	A game for two players using round pieces			
40	doctor	WRITTEN ABBREVIATION Dr a person with a medical degree (= university qualification) whose job is to treat people who are ill or hurt	(WRITTEN ABBREVIATION Dr) a person who has the highest degree (= qualification) from a college or university			
41	dinner	sometimes, the meal eaten in the middle of the day, but us. in the evening	the main meal of the day, usually the meal you eat in the evening			
42	drawing room	a comfortable room in a large house used for relaxing or for entertaining guests	Sitting room			
43	dummy	a pacifier, a	a model or			

		small piece of rubber that babies suck on	replica of a human being			
44	deck	the floor or level of a ship or other types of vehicles	a wooden, raised platform adjoining a house, us. enclosed by a railing			
45	diary	personal calendar *(US: <i>appointment book</i> ,	personal journal			
46	dirt	substance(s) rendering something unclean; incriminating evidence ("we've got the dirt on him now")	earth, soil			
47	dormitory	a town where commuters live, usually	building with many small private rooms, as for housing the students of a college			
48	dresser	a type of cupboard or sideboard esp. for kitchen utensils	a chest of drawers, usu. with a looking glass (mirror) (UK: <i>dressing-table</i>)			
49	elevator	flap on the back of an aeroplane used to control pitch; moving belt to transport grain, hay bales, etc.	platform or cage moved vertically in a shaft to transport people and goods to various floors in a building			
50	engineer	a person who mends and operates machinery	one who operates an engine, esp. a locomotive (UK: <i>engine driver</i>)			
51	estate	any defined area of real property, as in housing estate/council estate; a car for up to 5 people, with a	grounds of a large piece of real property which features a mansion and beautiful landscaping,			

		large hold for things at the back	property left by a deceased person			
52	flat	(n.) self-contained housing unit	(n.) a flat tyre/tire, an apartment that occupies the entire floor of a small building (upstate New York and San Francisco); used also in phrases such as <i>railroad flat</i>			
53	flannel	a washcloth or a small towel	a type of material made of wool or cotton that is often used to make warm shirts or pyjamas			
54	football	soccer	the American football game			
55	fall	to become pregnant. (as in 'I fell pregnant');	Autumn			
56	filth	<i>the filth</i> the police (derogatory slang); dirt	dirt, disgusting substance, obscene material			
57	fix (v.)	to make firm, fasten, or attach *(the original sense, no longer very common in US) to set or arrange (as a date) *("A time has been fixed")	to repair (orig. US) to sterilise (an animal) to manipulate usually underhandedly ("To fix a fight by paying a boxer to take a dive.")			
58	faculty	division of a university, dealing with a specific group of disciplines (e.g. faculty of arts)	academic staff of a school, college or university			
59	goods	items to be	useful objects or			

		transported (as by railway) ("a goods train") (US & UK also: <i>freight</i>)	services; products; merchandising; personal property incriminating evidence			
60	government	the cabinet or executive branch (US: the <i>administration</i>) the political party supporting the cabinet in parliament	the collective agency through which government is exercised (UK: the <i>state</i>) all such individual agencies (UK: the <i>public sector</i>)			
61	grade (education)	a level of [music] examination	level or year of a student in elementary, middle, or high school			
62	grass	an informant	green ground cover			
63	grammar school	a type of secondary school, normally a selective state funded school	elementary school (less common today)			
64	howdy	Warm welcome	Informal hello			
65	haul	to pull something heavy slowly and with difficulty	To try to hit someone very hard			
66	hooker	a rugby player (the name of a specific position on a rugby team)	a prostitute, a woman who sells sex			
67	hamper	small basket with a lid that is used for picnicking	a large basket with a lid used for laundry			
68	(a) half	half a pint of beer, cider or lager	fifty percent/0.5 times.			
69	hire	to rent moveable property	to recruit a person			
70	hockey	hockey played with a ball on grass (<i>field hockey</i>)	hockey played on ice with a puck (<i>ice hockey</i>)			
71	holiday	<i>Bank holiday</i> (often pl.) time	see <i>Federal holidays in the</i>			

		taken off from work, school, etc., including the period between school terms	<i>United States (the Holidays)</i> the days comprising Christmas and New Year's Day (and Hanukkah), and often also Thanksgiving (used esp. in the phrase "Happy Holidays")			
72	jack	to stop doing something (a very rare meaning for this verb); a device to lift side of car up when changing a wheel	Informal to waste someone's time			
73	jumper	a sweater	a person about to jump, often associated with a person about to commit suicide by jumping off something far off the ground			
74	janitor	an officer in a Masonic Chapter (specialist language)	a person employed to oversee the cleaning and security of a building			
75	jelly	a fruit flavoured dessert set with gelatine	fruit preserve with fruit pieces			
76	joint	piece of meat for carving, (slang) hand-rolled cigarette containing cannabis	(slang) hand-rolled cigarette containing only cannabis; (slang) prison ("in the joint")			
77	jug	any container with a handle and a mouth or spout for liquid	large container with a narrow mouth and handle for liquids			
78	loan	to lend something valuable to someone	To lend something especially money			

79	lumber	to move slowly and awkwardly	wood that has been prepared for building			
80	lift	(n) an elevator	(v) to pick up or raise			
81	leader	newspaper editorial; main violin in an orchestra (US: <i>concertmaster</i>) see also Leader of the Opposition	a pipe for carrying water ("rain water leader")			
82	lemonade	clear, carbonated, lemon-flavoured drink similar to Sprite and 7 Up	non-carbonated drink made by mixing lemon juice, sugar, and water (UK: <i>traditional lemonade</i>)			
83	liquor	the broth resulting from the prolonged cooking of meat or vegetables. Green liquor is traditionally served with pie and mash in the East End of London	(<i>hard liquor</i>) strongly alcoholic beverage			
84	lounge	a room for relaxation and entertainment in a house (<i>lounge bar</i>) part of a pub	a bar			
85	mail	The letters and packages that are delivered or received; also known as 'post'	System of collecting and delivering letters and packages			
86	pie	Meat and/or vegetables baked inside a pastry or potato covering	Fruit baked inside a pastry covering			
87	politician	a member of a government or law-making organization	Someone who is skilled at dealing with people			
88	public house	pub (formal use)	council housing			
89	professor	a teacher of the	teacher of high			

		highest rank in a department of a British university	rank in an American university or college			
90	Parlo(u)r	a business which provides a stated type of personal service or sells a stated product	A store that sells a stated product or a business providing stated service			
91	pants	underpants, underwear	trousers, long pants			
92	rubber	an eraser	Waterproof shoe; also, slang for a condom			
93	student	Young person at school	Generally accepted at all levels of education			
94	stomach	organ in the body where food is digested the soft front part of your body just below the chest	an organ in the body where food is digested; also the front part of your body near the waist			
95	soap opera	a series of television or radio programmes about the lives and problems of a particular group of characters.	A TV series that continues over a long period and is broadcast (several times) every week			
96	saloon	a car with seats for four or five people, [two or] four doors, and a separate section at the back for bags, boxes and cases	a public bar, especially in the past in the western United States			
97	supper	a small meal eaten in the late evening for some people, dinner (evening meal)	a main meal eaten in the evening			
98	shag	sexual intercourse (a slang word)	a type of carpet with long yarn pieces; catch a hit baseball, or pick up balls that have been			

			used in practice			
99	trendy	modern and influenced by the most recent fashions or ideas	influenced by or expressing the most recent fashions or ideas, modern in style			
100	tariff	A charge or a list of charges for services, e.g., in a hotel or a restaurant, or on goods entering the country	a government charge or list of charges either for services or on goods entering a country			
101	tavern	Old use for <i>pub</i> where you can stay overnight	a place where alcohol is sold and drunk			
102	Trainer(s)	tennis shoes or running shoes	person who trains people or animals, such as a gym trainer			
103	trolley	a shopping cart with wheels	a vehicle that runs on tracks and is powered by an electric cable			
104	university	collection of colleges at which people study for a degree (Cambridge/Oxford);	An educational institution at the highest level			
105	vest	Type of underwear (us. without sleeves) that covers upper body for extra warmth	a sleeveless piece of clothing, usually with buttons down the front and worn over a shirt			

№	Same lexemes, differences in style, connotation and frequency		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	hire a car	rent a car			
2	hire-purchase	instalment plan			
3	petrol	gasoline			
4	saloon	sedan			
5	estate car	station wagon			
6	boot	trunk			
7	silencer	muffler			
8	fortnight	two weeks			
9	goods train	freight train			
10	barrister	solicitor			
11	lawyer	attorney			
12	sweet	dessert			
13	red whortleberries	lingonberries			
14	bank holiday	public holiday			
15	mates & lads	friends & (young) men			
16	tossers & wankers	dorks& losers			
17	bathroom	bath			
18	indicators	blinkers			
19	bombardier	air force			
20	braces (to support trousers)	suspenders			
21	bum	Hobo			
22	canteen	cafeteria			
23	automobile	motorcar			
24	carnival	Fair			
25	Pram	baby carriage			
26	Pharmacy	drugstore			
27	crisps	potato chips			
28	skeleton in the cupboard	skeleton in the closet			
29	PE teacher	sports teacher			
30	a reverse charge call	A collect call			
31	bailiff (Certificated enforcement agents used by local authorities)	peace officer providing court security			
32	road works	a (road) construction area/zone			
33	Cooker	stove			
34	biscuit	Baked cookie			
35	maize	Corn			
36	detective inspector	drill instructor			
37	restaurant car	dining car			
38	semi-detached house	duplex house			
39	bedsit	studio apartment			
40	engine driver	engineer			
41	fancy something	like something			

42	refuse to testify against oneself	plead the Fifth (Amendment)			
43	About-turn	U turn			
44	Garden	Yard			
45	accelerator	gas pedal			
46	Cabinet	Administration			
47	postgraduate	Graduate			
48	ground floor	first floor			
49	field hockey	ice hockey			
50	1) levee 2) levee	Honorary reception Embankment			

EUPHEMISMS			Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
	Words/phrases	Meaning	Very often	Rarely	Never
1	pass away	Reference to death			
2	fight a long battle with				
3	departed				
4	meet your maker				
5	six feet under				
6	pushing up daisies				
7	in one's box				
8	snuff it				
9	pop one's clogs				
10	kick the bucket				
11	negative patient				
12	put down	Animal euthanasia			
13	put an end to its suffering				
14	restroom	reference to loo			
15	public conveniences				
16	ladies / gents				
17	the bog				
18	the smallest room of the house				
19	powder my nose				
20	See a man about a dog				
21	between jobs	unemployment			
22	a resting actor				
23	in the family way	Pregnancy			
24	have a bun in the oven				
25	tired and emotional	drunk			
26	have a bit too much to drink				
27	to be a bit worse for wear				
28	to have over-indulged				
29	economical with the truth	lying			
30	have a full and frank discussion	argue			
31	have words with someone				

32	be disadvantaged	be poor			
33	ocially embarrassed				
34	correctional facility	jail			
35	relocation center	Prison camp			
36	fall off the back of a lorry	be stolen			
37	ethnic cleansing	genocide			
38	collateral damage	accidental deaths			
39	put to sleep	euthanize			
40	pregnancy termination	Abortion			
41	differently-abled	handicapped or disabled			
42	turn a trick	engage in prostitution			
43	letting someone go	firing someone			
44	on the streets	homeless			
45	adult entertainment	pornography			
46	adult beverages	Beer, or liquor			
47	au naturel	Naked			
48	big-boned	heavy or overweight			
49	portly	heavy or overweight			
50	chronologically-challenged	Late			
51	comfort woman	prostitute			
52	use the rest room	go to the bathroom			
53	break wind	pass gas			
54	The birds and the bees	Sex			
55	go all the way	have sex			
56	domestic engineer	maid			
57	sleep together	have sex			
58	sanitation engineer	Garbage man/dustman			
59	vertically-challenged	short			

№	Politically correct terms		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
	Words/phrases	Meaning	Very often	Rarely	Never
1	academic dishonesty	cheating			
2	achieve a deficiency	fail			
3	animal assassin	hunter			
4	challenge challenged	cowardly			
5	chemically challenged	drug addict			
6	comb-free	bald			
7	cosmetically different	ugly			
8	creatively re-dyed	stained			
9	differently brained	stupid			
10	differently logical	wrong			
11	differently qualified	incompetent			
12	economically marginalized	poor			
13	educational resource center	library			
14	emotional rape	insult			
15	environmental activist	tree-hugger			
16	ethically disoriented	dishonest			
17	factually unencumbered	ignorant			
18	family dysfunction	Housebroken			
19	First-year student	freshman			
20	cabin crew	steward, stewardess, flight attendant			
21	commercial fisherman	flipper whipper			
22	genetically discriminating	racist			
23	gerontologically advanced	old person / elderly person			
24	homeless person	Bum			
25	humankind	mankind			
26	letter carrier	postman			

27	little people	Midgets / Dwarves			
28	maintenance hole	man-hole			
29	<u>mechanically challenged</u>	broken down automobile			
30	mental explorers	insane people			
31	morally (ethically) challenged	a crook			
32	motivationally deficient.	lazy			
33	musically delayed	tone deaf			
34	nasally gifted	large nose			
35	near-Life Experience	abortion			
36	newcomer	immigrant			
37	ontologically challenged	fictional / mythological			
38	optically darker	blind			
39	osmotically challenged	thirsty			
40	paper pirate	logger			
41	parking enforcer	meter maid			
42	permanently static post-human mass	corpse			
43	person with difficult-to-meet needs	serial-killer			
44	person of region?	redneck			
45	person of substance	fat			
46	porcelain	China			
47	processed tree carcass	paper bag			
48	processed tree carcass	paper bag			
49	racially challenged	white American			
50	second place	loser			
51	selective speech	ensorship			
52	street activity index	crime rate			

53	target equity group	vocal minority			
54	temporarily challenged	chronically late			
55	temporarily metabolically abled	alive			
56	uniquely coordinated	clumsy			
57	Unsavoury	a criminal			
58	utensil sanitizer	dish washer			
59	visually oriented	deaf			
60	youth group	gang			

№	LANGUAGE CREATIVITY: Reference to cultural reality		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
	Words/phrases	Meaning	Very often	Rarely	Never
1	hamburger	Reference to the same group - food			
2	cheeseburger				
3	beefburger				
4	fishburger				
5	lobsterburger				
6	Hotel	Reference to the same group – accommodation			
7	Motel				
8	Floatel				
9	Boatel				
10	suburb	Reference to the same group – part of a city			
11	exurb				
12	technoburb				
13	cyburb	Reference to the same group – IP technology			
14	hardware				
15	software				
16	firmware				
17	shareware				
18	freeware				
19	vaporware				
20	treeware				
21	Citizen	Reference to the same group – Science			
22	netizen				
23	atmosphere				
24	blogosphere				
25	crowdsourcing				
26	cloudsourcing				
27	crowdfunding				
28	crowdworking				
29	copyright	Reference to the same group – Internet			
30	copyleft				
31	Wiki contributions				
32	to google				
33	'googling'				
34	verify				
35	<u>wherify</u>				
36	GPRS-technology				
37	child-tracking system				
38	Wikipedia				
39	Wikiality				
40	Facts	determined by 'majority rule'			
41	twitter	Reference to the same group – Social networks			
42	Twittering				
43	Twitterati				
44	a 'tweet'				
45	climate canary				
46	to be YouTubed				

47	to be Plutoed				
48	fashionista	Reference to the same group – fashion			
49	stylista				
50	frugalista				
51	accessorista				
52	smog	Smoke/fog			
53	pharmaceuticals/farming	pharming			
54	sexploitation	sexual exploitation			
55	zeroscaping	xeriscaping			

Questionnaire 4

№	WORD ORDER		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	Yours sincerely (a)	Sincerely yours (b)			
2	Monday last (a)	Last Monday (b)			
3	Graham Greene, the British novelist (a)	British Novelist Graham Greene (b)			
4	Benedict Eggs (a)	Eggs Benedict (b)			
5	Louise Pea Soup (a)	Pea Soup Louise (b)			
6	Thames River (a)	River Thames (b)			

№	PRESENT PERFECT TENSE (have/has + past participle) versus PAST SIMPLE TENSE, an action in the past that has an effect in the present		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	Jenny feels ill. She's eaten too much. (a)	Jenny feels ill. She ate too much. (b)			
2	(3) I can't find my keys. Have you seen them anywhere?	(4) I can't find my keys. Did you see them anywhere?			
3	(5) Have you phoned her yet? (a)	Did you phone her yet? (b)			
4	(7) Have you ever been to Canada? (a)	Did you ever go to Canada? (b)			
5	(9) Have you cleaned your teeth? (a)	Did you clean your teeth/ (b)			

№	SENTENCES CONTAINING THE WORDS <i>ALREADY, JUST AND YET</i>		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	Are they going to the show tonight? No ,they've already seen it. (a)	Are they going to the show tonight? No ,they already saw it. (b)			
2	Is Samantha here? No, she's just left (a)	Is Samantha here? No, she just left (b)			
3	Can I borrow your book? No, I haven't read it yet. (a)	Can I borrow your book? No, I didn't read it yet. (b)			
4	I've just got home. (a)	I just got home. (b)			
5	I've already eaten. (a)	I already ate. (b)			

№	VERB AGREEMENT WITH COLLECTIVE NOUNS		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	My team are winning. (a)	My team is winning. (b)			
2	The other team are all sitting down. (a)	The other team is all sitting down. (b)			
3	The team are worried. (a)	The team is worried. (b)			
4	The Clash are a well-known band. (a)	The Clash is a well known band. (b)			
5	Pittsburgh are the champions. (a)	Pittsburg is the champion. (b)			

№	USE OF DELEXICAL VERBS <i>HAVE</i> AND <i>TAKE</i>		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	I'd like to have a bath. (a)	I'd like to take a bath. (b)			
2	She's having a little nap. (a)	She's taking a little nap. (b)			
3	Let's have a short vacation. (a)	Let's take a short vacation. (b)			

№	USE OF AUXILIARIES AND MODALS		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
			Very often	Rarely	Never
1	A: Are you coming with us? B: I might [do]. (a)	A: Are you coming with us? B: I might. (b)			
2	They needn't come to school today. (a)	They don't need to come to school today. (b)			
4	I shall/will be there later. (a)	I will be there later. (b)			
5	Shall we ask him to come with us? (a)	Should we ask him to come with us? (b)			

№	PAST TENSE FORMS		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
	Infinitive	Past Simple	Very often	Rarely	Never
1	burn	burned/ burnt			
2	dive	dove/ dived			
3	dream	dreamed/ dreamt			
4	lean	Leaned/ leant			
5	learn	learned learnt			
6	plead	pleaded/ pled			
7	smell	Smelled/ smelt			
8	spill	Spilled/ spilt			
9	spoil	spoiled/ spoil			
10	stink	stank/ stunk			
11	wake	woke/ waked			

№	Verbs		Which of these do you use and how often? Tick the corresponding box(es).		
	Infinitive	Past Participle	Very often	Rarely	Never
1	burn	burned/ burnt			
2	dream	dreamed/ dreamt			
3	get	got/ gotten			
4	lean	leaned /leant			
5	learn	learned/ learnt			
6	plead	pleaded/ pled			
7	prove	proved/ proven			
8	saw	sawn/ sawed			
9	spoil	spoiled/ spoilt			

БИОГРАФИЈА

М-р Весна Милевска (Битољ, 1976) дипломирала на Филолошком факултету “Блаже Конески” у Скопљу, група енглеског језика и књижевност, добила се са звањем дипломирани професор из енглеског језика и књижевности. На исти факултет завршила постдипломски студије и добила је звање магистар филолошких наука .

У Средњој Општинској Школи “Таки Даскало” ради као професор од 2000 до данас квалитетно обављала је и функције професора енглеског језика а истовремено и претседник Школског одбора.

Присуствовала на више обука и семинара из области образовања и то: обука четири тродневне радионице интерактивне наставе и методологије , обука „Побољшање оценивање у школама“, обука у пројекат о модернизацији образовања „Од Идеје до Трајних побољшања“ учасник у радионици „Предавање у класовима са ученицима мешаних способности“ и „ Менаџирање у учионици“, - стручна конференција „ Дешавања у васпитно образовној пракси“ и стручна конференција „Ефикасност и ефективност у настави“. Учасник као трењер Регионалног Младинског Форума дебате у Матарушку бању Краљево, Р.Србија. Била је дио комисије екстерног оценивања Државне матуре осам години како оцењивач предмета енглески јазик, завршена обука из програме доживотног учења и мобилности Леонардо Да Винчи организована од Националне агенције европских интеграција и мобилности. Као дио ове програме учество контакт семинару у Даблину, Р.Ирска (2009) припремна посета Истамбулу, Р.Турска (2010) и контакт семинар у Пултстуку, Пољска (2012)

Успешно завршена обука и положени испит директора средње јавне школе, координатор међународног пројекта у оквиру Националне Агенције европских образовних програма и мобилности „Обука наставника прозор ка Европске Уније“, координатор пројекта СОУ „Таки Даскало“ Битољ и Радко Стокл Шулс Мелзунген Немачка, координатор пројекта у оквиру програме Еразмус „Будућност образовања је у имплементације европске климе у школама“ Италија 2014, координатор пројекта у оквиру програме Еразмус + „Стицање европских искуства боље језичне компетенције“ Енглеска 2014.

Превела и објавила на енглески језик следеће књиге: ; “12 корака до здравља са Тианши” издата од Агенције за преводе и посредовање Филип М 2006, “Важне личности за Битољ”- издата од НУУБ” Климент Охридски”-Битола 2007; “Важне личности за Битољ-писци” издата од НУУБ Климент Охридски Битола 2008; “Књижевни зборник Битољских писца”- издата од НУУБ” Климент Охридски”- Битољ 2009; “Библиотеке у Битољ”- издата од НУУБ “Климент Охридски”- Битољ 2009; “Битољ, љубави моја”- препевана књига са поезијом од Панде Манојлова 2009, превод на ДВД за НУУБ “Климент Охридски”- Битола 2008 превод предговора за “Каталог старе и ретке књиге” издата од НУУБ “Климент Охридски”- Битола 2009; “Важне личности за Битољ-култура”, издата од НУУБ “Климент Охридски”- Битола 2009; “Важне личности за Битољ- култура” издата од НУУБ “Климент Охридски”- Битољ 2010 „ Приручник о транспарентном лобирању грђанских организација“, 2013 „ Камен испред наше капије“ препев поезије Бранка Наумовског 2014 „Приручник стручне терминологије“ Средња Општинска Школа „Таки Даскало“ Битола, 2014. Пише и научне статије а има и сталну сарадњу са невладиним сектором.

Прилог 1.

Изјава о ауторству

Потписани-а Весна Милевска
број уписа 2962/2012

Изјављујем

да је докторска дисертација под насловом

„Амерички и британски енглески:
варијантне разлике на различитим
нивоима језичке структуре“

- резултат сопственог истраживачког рада,
- да предложена дисертација у целини ни у деловима није била предложена за добијање било које дипломе према студијским програмима других високошколских установа,
- да су резултати коректно наведени и
- да нисам кршио/ла ауторска права и користио интелектуалну својину других лица.

Потпис докторанда

У Београду, 16.06.2017

В. Милевска

Прилог 2.

**Изјава о истоветности штампане и електронске
верзије докторског рада**

Име и презиме аутора Весна Милебска
Број уписа 2962/2012
Студијски програм енглески језик
Наслов рада Амерички и британски енглески: варијантне
разлике на различитим нивоима језичке структуре
Ментор проф. др. Ивана Трбојевић
Потписани Весна Милебска

изјављујем да је штампана верзија мог докторског рада истоветна електронској верзији коју сам предао/ла за објављивање на порталу Дигиталног репозиторијума Универзитета у Београду.

Дозвољавам да се објаве моји лични подаци везани за добијање академског звања доктора наука, као што су име и презиме, година и место рођења и датум одбране рада.

Ови лични подаци могу се објавити на мрежним страницама дигиталне библиотеке, у електронском каталогу и у публикацијама Универзитета у Београду.

Потпис докторанда

У Београду, 16. 06. 2017

Весна Милебска

Прилог 3.

Изјава о коришћењу

Овлашћујем Универзитетску библиотеку „Светозар Марковић“ да у Дигитални репозиторијум Универзитета у Београду унесе моју докторску дисертацију под насловом:

„Амерички и британски енглески: барујсантоне разлике на различитим нивоима језичке структуре“
која је моје ауторско дело.

Дисертацију са свим прилозима предао/ла сам у електронском формату погодном за трајно архивирање.

Моју докторску дисертацију похрањену у Дигитални репозиторијум Универзитета у Београду могу да користе сви који поштују одредбе садржане у одабраном типу лиценце Креативне заједнице (Creative Commons) за коју сам се одлучио/ла.

1. Ауторство
2. Ауторство - некомерцијално
3. Ауторство – некомерцијално – без прераде
4. Ауторство – некомерцијално – делити под истим условима
5. Ауторство – без прераде
6. Ауторство – делити под истим условима

(Молимо да заокружите само једну од шест понуђених лиценци, кратак опис лиценци дат је на полеђини листа).

Потпис докторанда

У Београду, 16. 06. 2017

Александра

