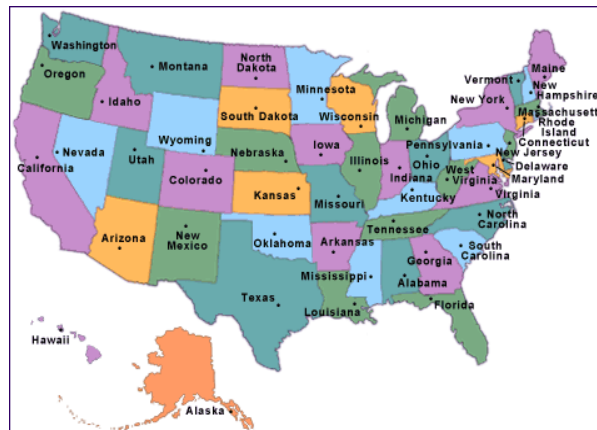


ЧЕРКАСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ІМЕНІ БОГДАНА ХМЕЛЬНИЦЬКОГО

AMERICAN ENGLISH:

Матеріали до вивчення курсу



Черкаси – 2006

American English: Матеріали до вивчення курсу. Посібник для студентів стаціонарної та заочної форми навчання. Укладач Л.О. Пашіс. – Черкаси: ЧНУ, 2006. – 54 с.

Посібник укладено на допомогу студентам факультету романо-германської філології для стаціонарної та заочної форми навчання. Навчальний посібник складається з трьох частин, у першій частині подано теоретичний матеріал із загальних проблем курсу; у другій – вправи; у третій – глосарій.

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Друкується за рішенням Вченої ради Черкаського національного університету ім. Б. Хмельницького (протокол № від)

Contents

Part 1

1.1.	English as it exists today	5
1.2.	Dialects vs. variety/variation	5
1.3.	English in America	7
1.3.1.	Canadian English	8
1.3.2.	Regional varieties of Canadian English	9
1.3.3.	Regional varieties of English in the USA	10
1.4.	Social variations of American English	11
1.5.	Ethnic varieties of American English	12
1.5.1.	Native American English	13
1.5.2.	Spanish-influenced English	13
1.5.3.	Black English	14
1.6.	Male-Female differences	15
1.6.1.	Approaches to the explanation of cross-sex differences	16
1.6.2.	Differences encoded in language	18
1.6.3.	How to avoid sexist language	20
1.7.	British English and American English: Differences in pronunciation	21
1.7.1.	Differences in phonetic inventory	21
1.7.2.	Differences in quality of the phonemes	22
1.7.3.	Phonotactic differences	23
1.7.4.	Divergent patterns of phoneme use in sets of words	24
1.7.5.	Stress and intonation	25
1.8.	British English and American English: Differences in morphology	26
1.8.1.	Differences in the verb	26
1.8.2.	Differences in the noun and pronoun	28
1.8.3.	Differences in the preposition and the adverb	28
1.9.	British English and American English: Differences in lexis	30
1.10.	British English and American English: Spelling and punctuation differences ...	31

Part 2

Exercises38

Part 3

Recommended Literature50

Glossary52

1.1. ENGLISH AS IT EXISTS TODAY



English is most certainly several things at once. To begin with it is an assortment of national and regional varieties. This includes not only Britain, Ireland and Australia, New Zealand and South Africa where there are millions of native speakers but also East and West Africa, South and Southeast Asia where there are relatively few native speakers but millions of users of English as a second language. Within all these areas there are also regional, social and ethnic varieties of the language. English is also the language used by all sorts of people in all kinds of situations. How people use the language depends on what purposes they are pursuing and whom they are communicating with. English is a network of phonological, grammatical, lexical, orthoepical and textual nature. What English should serve as the basis? The basis is standard English. Any *standard language* is a codified form a language accepted by and serving as a model to the larger speech community (P.L. Garvin). R. Quirk and G. Stein look at a standard language from the different viewpoint. *Standard language* is a kind of English that draws its attention to itself over the widest area and through the widest usage. It is most clearly associated with the written language, perhaps what is written and published is more permanent and is free of slips and is transmitted in spelling which is more standardized than pronunciation. American English and British English differences in *orthography* are really few but national and regional accent standards are rather numerous. J. Stalker in his work "A Reconsideration of Definition of Standard English" distinguishes three criteria of language use standard:

- 1) it is when speakers communicate in a socially appropriate manner;
- 2) when the language is suitable to the use to which it is being put;
- 3) when it is clear.

Walt Wolfram and Natalie Schilling Estes give the following definition of *Standard American English*: "Standard American is a widely socially accepted variety of English which is held to be the linguistic norm and which is relatively unmarked with respect to regional characteristics of English". They speak about *Network Standard* that is variety of English relatively free of marked regional characteristics, the ideal norm aimed for by national radio and television network announcers.

1.2. DIALECTS vs VARIETY/VARIATION

Dialects are defined as varieties of language which are spoken in different geographical or social areas that are mutually understandable.

Regional vs. Social Dialect: social dialects do not necessarily follow geographic boundaries but adhere to age, social class or social networks.

Many educators and linguists consider the term dialect to be vague: e.g. the term "dialect" is used to refer to the speech of low-income African American (it is used with the article "the"). Another common use of the term "dialect" refers to those varieties of English whose features have become widely recognized throughout American society. Society at large recognizes a "southern drawl" or a "Boston accent". So many American language scientists prefer to use such terms as *language difference*, *language variety* or

language variation instead to denote the language associated with a particular regional or social group.

The Standard English operates on both **formal** and **informal** levels.

The **formal standard** is codified, prescriptive and relatively homogeneous. We can simply appeal to the established source such as usage guides and established authorities on the English language. The sphere of usage for the formal standard is relatively restricted, largely confined to writing and specialized public presentations.

The **informal standard** is more subjective, somewhat flexible, and tends to exist on a continuum.

Standard | A | B | C | D | E | | *Nonstandard*

A continuum of standardness

The informal standard is more widely applicable and relevant to the vast majority of everyday language interactions.

Standard American English (SAE) is a variety of English devoid of both general and local socially stigmatized features, as well as regionally obtrusive phonological and grammatical features.

Contrary to popular opinion, SAE is fairly limited in terms of the occasions and professions that call for its usage; it is also quite restricted in terms of who routinely uses it. On most speaking occasions **Regional Standard English** is more pertinent than SAE, although the notion of regional Standard English certainly receives much less public attention. Regional Standard English refers to the variety which is recognized as standard for speakers in a given locale. This variety may contain regional features and particularly in pronunciation and vocabulary, but also some features of grammar and language use. Most typically, it is associated with middle-class, educated native speakers of the region. In the local context, these speakers would be rated as Standard English speakers by community members from different social strata within the community.

In a Southern setting such as Memphis, Tennessee, the regional standard may include a number of Southern regionalisms:

- lack of contrast between [ɪ] and [e] before nasals in “*pin*” and “*pen*”
- the monophthongization of [aɪ] in “*time*”, “*hi*”
- plural “*y’all*”
- personal Dative pronouns “*I got me a new outfit*”

The standard Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, variety includes

- the local “broad a” (*bad, pass*)
- the vowel [ɪ] in items such as *att[i]tude* vs. *att[ə]tude* or *magn[i]tude* vs. *magn[ə]tude*
- positive “anymore”: *Anymore we watch videos rather than go to the movies*
- pronoun absence in personal “with” phrases: *Are you coming with?*

But in both locales, the standard dialects would share the avoidance of a general set of socially stigmatized features such as multiple negation and different irregular verbs (*They seen it. They brang it to the picnic.*).

Regional standards are not necessarily transferable, so that the standard dialect of Memphis might not be considered standard in the context of Philadelphia.

1.3. ENGLISH IN AMERICA

English is spoken as a native language in **two major** spheres:

- the US and the English-speaking Canada,
- the Caribbean area centring on Jamaica, and Antilles and Guyana, and the **peripheral area** - the creol speaking sections of the Atlantic coast of the Central America. **Creol** is a language that having originated as a pidgin has become established as the first language in a speech community.

A simplified language derived from two or more languages is called a **pidgin**. It is a contact language developed and used by people who do not share a common language in a given geographical area. It is used in a limited way and the structure is very simplistic. Since such languages serve a single simplistic purpose, they usually die out.

E.g.: ai no kea hu stei hant insai dea.

I no care who stay hunt inside there

I don't care who's hunting in there

These two areas are distinguished according to two **criteria**:

- educated Caribbean is clearly oriented towards British English while the US English and Canadian English make up American English despite numerous British English features to be found in the Canadian English;
- the second criteria is rooted in creol English linguistic continuum which exists in Caribbean English but not in American English.



THE LANGUAGES OF THE USA AND CANADA



The largest English speaking area in the world is that formed by the US and Canada.

The United States is the home of approximately 336 languages (spoken or signed) of which 176 are indigeous to the area. 52 languages formerly spoken in the US territory are now extinct.

The United States does not have an *official language*; nevertheless, English is the language used for legislation, regulations, executive orders, treaties, federal court rulings, and all other official pronouncements. In some states, *English*, *Hawaiian* and *Spanish* are official. In 2000, the census bureau printed the standard census questionnaires in six languages: English, Spanish, Korean, Chinese, Vietnamese, and Tagalog. The English-Only movement seeks to establish English as the only official language of the nation.

Approximately 85% and almost 2/3 of the Canadian population have English as their native language, it is about a quarter of a billion speakers. Many of the inhabitants of the US and Canada, who don't have English as their native language, use it in

multitude of different situations. English was inherited from *British colonization* and it is spoken by the vast majority of the population. It serves as the *de facto* language: the language in which government business is carried out. According to the 1990 census, 97 per cent of U.S. residents speak English "well" or "very well". Only 0.8 per cent speak no English at all, as compared with 3.6 per cent in 1890. Other languages widely used are *Spanish* and *French*.

The Spanish language is the second-most common language in the country, spoken by about 28.1 million people (or 10.7% of the population) in 2000. The United States is the fifth country in the world in Spanish-speaking population, outnumbered only by Mexico, Spain, Argentina, and Colombia. Although many Latin American immigrants have various levels of English-proficiency, Hispanics who are second-generation Americans in the United States almost all speak English. A significant number of Spanish speakers live in Miami and New York.

French is the majority language in Quebec. In New England and Louisiana French is spoken either. There are tremendous numbers of speakers of other languages, however few of them have settled so that their languages have also been able to serve as community languages. But there are rural communities in which immigrant languages have been maintained:

E.g.: Amish in Pennsylvania (German), Dukhobors in Saskatchewan (Russian).

Non-immigrant and non-colonial languages are still in daily use in some American environments. About half a million but all in all one million Indian and Alaskan people speak their native language.

1.3.1. Canadian English

J. Pringle in his work "The Concept of Dialect and the Study of Canadian English" writes that Canadian English is a solid part of the American branch of language. It shares most of the linguistic characteristics of American English yet there are important features of Canadian English which distinguish it as an independent subvariety of American English. Canadians have positive view of the US and there are some phenomena in common:

- syllable reduction:
E.g.: lion=line, warren=warn
- fewer high diphthongs in the words "about", "like" /ɑu/ - /Λu/
- Canadians use more American morphological and lexical forms.

Pro-British attitudes correlate well with the preservation of vowel distinction before [r] such as "spear it" /'spiərit/ vs /'spirit/.

Pro-Canadian attitudes mean relatively more leveling of the vowel distinctions, more loss of /j/.

E.g.: tune /tju:n/ - /tu:n/

75% of Canadians say /zed/ instead /zi:/, 75% - *chesterfield* for sofa, 2/3 have sound /l/ in "almond", 2/3 of Canadians say *to bath a baby* /ba:θ/ (BrE), than /beið/ (AmE). British English spelling is strongly favoured in Ontario and American English in Alberta. Thus differences between Canadian English and American English are largely in the area of pronunciation and vocabulary. Grammar differences don't exist on the level of Standard English.

Vocabulary provides a considerable number of Canadianisms. Designators for topography, flora and fauna make up many of these items: *buffalo grass* (бізонова трава), *fambeau* /fæm' bɔ/ (факел з березової кори), *cutthroat* (робітник, що розрізає рибу біля її голови), *West-India fish* (другий сорт тріски), *Canada goose* (канадська казарка), *Canada jay* (сіра сойка).

The pronunciation of Canadian English sometimes called **General Canadian** applies to Canada from Ottawa Valley to British Columbia and it is similar to **General American English**. It shares the same consonant system including the unstable contrast between /hw/ - /w/ *which* - *wich*. General Canadian vowel system is similar to that of the Northern variety of General American, i.e. opposition /ɔ:/ - /ɒ/ has been lost. The distinctions between /i:/ - /i/, /eə/ - /e/ - /æ/ are rapidly dying out. The most typical Canadian feature of pronunciation is **Canadian raising**. This refers to realization of diphthongs /au/, /ai/ with the higher and non-fronted first element /ʌu/, /ʌi/ when followed by voiceless consonant, e.g. *bout* /bʌut/.

1.3.2. Regional varieties of Canadian English



Canadian population is overwhelmingly middle class and urban and the bulk of it lives in the area westwards (**to the west of Ottawa Valley**). Working class usage differs from middle class but middle class preferences in Ottawa are strongly in the direction of American English.

E.g.: Loss of /j/ in “new” - /nu:/. Working class favors *-in'* not *-ing* and they level /hw/ and /w/.

The second major region of Canadian English is **eastwards from the Ottawa Valley** - Maritime Province, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. Here the norms of pronunciation are varied. Ten distinct English language areas are distinguished here. These variations are explained by the settlement history (Scots, Northern and Southern

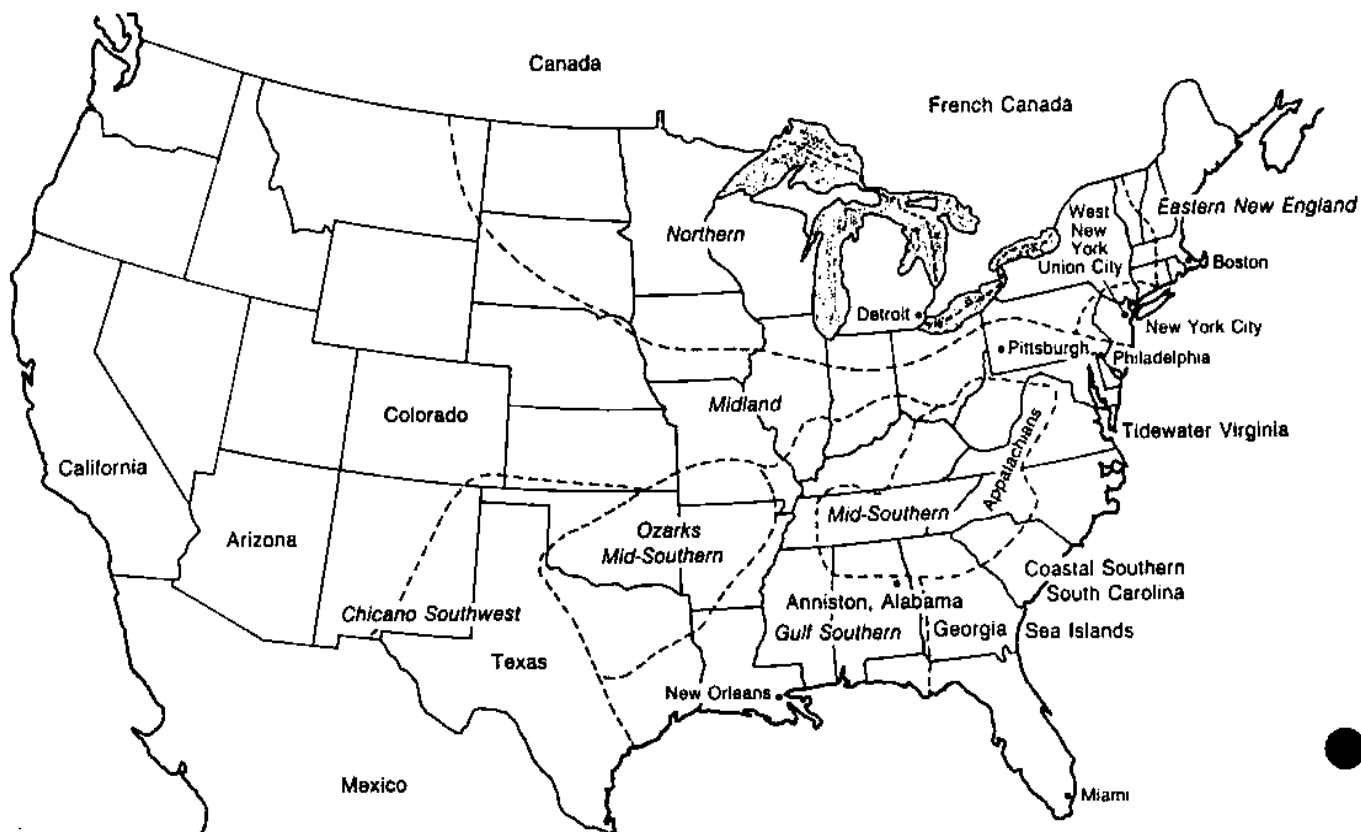
Irish, Kashubian Poles, Germans and Americans). The eastern Canadian region is characterized overall as resembling the English of New England as the earliest settlers came from England. In this part there is less /ɔ:/- /ɔ/ leveling. English of this area like all of Canada is *rhotic*, i.e. /r/ is pronounced where spelt while Eastern New England is *non-rhotic*. The final distinct region of Canadian English is *Newfoundland* with the population 568000. Some scholars (e.g. Wells) speak of traditional dialects in Newfoundland. The linguistic identity of Newfoundland is the result of:

- early (1583 and onwards) and diverse (especially Irish and Southern English) settlement;
- the stability of the population (93% native born);
- isolation.

This territory joined Canada in 1949 and the influence of the mainland pronunciation patterns has become stronger. Examples of the Irish English influence are:

- monophthongal /e/ instead of /ei/, /ɔ/-/ɔu/, /ʌ/ is rounded and retracted
- some speakers neutralize /ai/ and /ɔi/. They are realized as /ai/
- dental fricatives /θ/, /ð/ are pronounced as /t/ and /d/
- /h/ is generally omitted except in standard speech
- consonant clusters are regularly simplified: *post* - /pous'/, *land* - /læn/.

1.3.3. Regional varieties of English in the USA



Regional varieties of American English are:

- Northern of which Canadian English is a part of
- Midland
- Southern

Each of these areas may be subdivided into subregions. Grammar is of relatively little importance for these three areas as most of dividing and subdividing is based on vocabulary and pronunciation. The lexical distinctions are evident in the more old-fashioned and rural vocabulary but some urban terms continue to reinforce the older regional terms.

Hero (NY), submarine (Pittsburgh), hoagie (Philadelphia), grinder (Boston), po' boy (New Orleans). All these words mean an average sandwich made of split loaf or bun of bread.

Vocabulary on the whole offers distinction which do not often occur and can be easily replaced by more widely used term.

Pronunciation differences in contrast to lexicon are evident in everything a person says and they are less subject to control.

The **southern accents** realize /ai/ as /aⁱ/ or /a/. Lack of rhoticity is typical of Eastern New England and New York City but Inland North. **Rhoticity** is also typical of Coastal Southern, Gulf Southern but not of Mid Southern areas. Opposition /ɔː/- /ɔ/ is maintained in the South but has been lost in the North Midland and is weakening in the North.

The pronunciation of north Midland is referred to as **General American**. It is used to designate a huge area with numerous local differences but in which there are no noticeable sub-regional divisions. General American English is used on nation broadcasting networks.

The most **vivid contrast** is between North and South. There are differences in vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. In Southern varieties including Black English such non-standard features occur:

- perfective "done" E.g. *I done seen it*.
- future "gon" E.g. *I'm gon tell you something*.
- multiple negation, E.g. *I can't see nothing*.

Some American scholars speak about Appalachian English and Ozark English which are found in the Southern Highlands. The English of these regions is characterized by relatively frequent occurrence of older forms which have passed out of other types of American English:

- syntactic phenomena: e.g. a-prefixing on verbs: *I'm a-fixin' to take her to town*.
- morphological-phonological: initial /h/ is used where it shouldn't be:
e.g. *ain't - hain't, it - hit*
- lexical: e.g. *before - afore, not any - nary*

1.4. SOCIAL VARIATIONS OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

Within anyone region there is more than one form of English. Besides differences according to the gender and race there are differences according to economical and social factors of education and social class.

In North America socio-economic status shows up in pronunciation as middle-class speakers are on the whole more likely than those of the working class to adopt forms which are in agreement with the norms of the society. The now classic research of W. Labov in New York City in 1960s provided the first insight into these relations. W. Labov's findings are: initial voiceless /θ/ is realized more often as /t/ or /tθ/ than as a fricative /θ/ as the classification of speakers changes from upper-middle to low middle class and to working class /t/.

Social distinctions are especially perceptible in the area of grammar where a remarkable number of stigmatized features (often referred to as shibboleths /'ʃɪbələθs/) apply supraregionally. A person who uses the following is regarded as uneducated, unsophisticated and uncouth:

- ain't: e.g. *I ain't done yet.*
- double modal: e.g. *I might could help you.*
- multiple negation: e.g. *We don't need none.*
- “them” as a demonstrative pronoun: e.g. *Hand me them cups.*
- no subject relative pronoun in a defining relative clause: e.g. *The fellow wrote that letter is here.*
- “don't” in the third person singular: e.g. *She don't like it.*
- “was” with the plural subject: e.g. *We was there too early.*
- such words as “*come, done, seen, knowed*” for the Simple Past Tense
- “*took, fell, tore, went, wrote*”, etc. as the Past Participle.

Usage research has revealed that those and other non-standard forms are used most by less educated working class of rural and urban districts and frequently they are the oldest speakers. The above mentioned non-standard forms are still very common. E.g. in Anniston, Alabama “*don't*” was found more than 90% of the time by all the working-class groups in contrast to the upper class usage where it accounts for only 10%.

1.5. ETHNIC VARIETIES OF AMERICAN ENGLISH



As it may be expected in countries of immigration there are many millions of inhabitants in the US and Canada whose native language is not English. And there are much more people whose ethnic background is not English. In the immigrant generation and sometimes in the second generation people spoke and speak English which was/is characterized by their native language interference. But the fourth generation has become monolingual English and all signs of interference of their native mother tongue have disappeared. Yet there are some groups of speakers who

speak English that is distinct from that of their neighbors.

They are:

- Native American Indians;
- Chicanos;
- American blacks who speak ethnic dialect Black English.

1.5.1. Native American English

Today the majority of the Indians are monolingual speakers of English. For most of them there is probably no divergence between their English and that of their non-Indian fellows of equivalent age, sex, education and social status. However, among Native Americans who live in concentrated groups (in reservations) there are also as many different kinds of American Indian English as there are American Indian language traditions. It is the result of the on-going influence of the substratum (the traditional languages) on English. Many of the special features of this English are such familiar phenomena as:

- word-final consonant cluster simplification, e.g. west > wes’;
- uninflected “be”;
- multiple negation;
- the lack of subject-verb concord.

Although mainstream non-standard English has the same sort of “surface phenomena”, they are the products of “different grammatical systems”. For example, some traditional Indian languages require identical marking of the subject and verb. Indian English has such forms as “*some peoples comes in*”.



1.5.2. Spanish-influenced English

Hispanic Americans are one of the two largest ethnic groups. They consist of three major groups:

- Puerto Ricans /'pwɜ:təu 'ri:kənz/
- Cubans
- Chicanos (or Mexican American)

Approximately 300.000 of roughly 1 mln **Cuban Americans** live in Dade County in Florida. Another 20% live in West New York and Union City, New Jersey. Because of this areal concentration they have been able to create unified communities with

ethnic boundaries, i.e. so called Little Havanas. But integration with the surrounding native Anglo communities is relatively great. Only 6++% of the second generation of Cuban Americans, as is usually the case with the second generation Hispanics, speak English fluently with North American Accent. And only the presence of loan words such as "bad grass" - "gerba mala" may indicate the origin of speaker.

As American citizens **Puerto Ricans** have long moved freely



between their native island and the mainland US. Most originally they went at first to New York city. Many members of their community are bilingual and only 1% of the second generation are monolingual Spanish speakers. Some research showed that those brought up in Puerto Rico speak English marked by interference phenomena.

Chicanos numbered 10.8 mln people in early 1985 and are a rapidly growing group. Chicanos are most numerous in California where they are urban population and in Texas where they are relatively rural. Spanish is more commonly maintained in the Texas environment than in California. Some of them are bilingual, others monolingual English speakers. Among the bilinguals their language is characterized by frequent code-switching which is referred to as Tex-Mex. The linguistic habits of a large portion of the Chicano community are continually reinforced by indirect and direct contact with Spanish. Most important for regarding Chicano English as an ethnic variety of American English is that it is passed onto children and serves as an important function in the speech community and has its own norms. The linguistic features of Chicano English are most prominent in the pronunciation including stress and intonation but there seems to be little syntactic and lexical deviation from English. As the with the Puerto Ricans contact with blacks may result in the use of various features of Black English. Pronunciation shows obvious signs of Spanish influence:

- the shift of stress in compounds (*mini'skirt*)
- rising pitch contours
- rising pitch in declarative sentences
- devoicing and hardening of final voiced consonants (e.g. *please /s/*)
- realization of labio-dental fricative /v/ as bilabial /b/
- realization of /θ/ - /ð/ as /t/ - /d/
- realization central /ʌ/ as low /a/
- simplification of final consonant clusters
- merge of /tʃ/ - /ʃ/ to /ʃ/: e.g. /tʃek/ - /ʃek/ (*check – sheck*)

1.5.3. Black English

The most widely recognized and researched is American Black English. Most middle class blacks do not speak Black English and are indistinguishable from the white people. It is the poorer and working lower class both in rural South and urban North who speak the most distinctive form of this variety. It is often associated with the values of vernacular culture including performance style especially associated with black males (as boasting, ritual insults, preaching). One of the main debates connected with Black English concerns its origin. Some maintain that Black English derives from an early creol that itself derives from West African pidgin English. The term “pidgin” is used by linguists as the label for speech varieties that develop when speakers of two or more different languages come into contact with each other and do not know each other’s language. Pidgin is not the native language of any group. Where pidgins still exist, their use may be confined to the marketplace or similar domain (trade languages/trade jargons).

Black English contains grammatical categories especially of the verbs which are different from American grammar. Some scholars believe that Black English derives from the English of the white slave owners and slave drivers which ultimately derives from the English of Great Britain and Ireland. There are a great number of researchers that take the position between these two maintaining that both have had influence on Black English.

It has generally been believed that Black English has phonological system that differs greatly from that of American English though it is often similar to white southern vernacular English. They share following features:

- /ɪ/, /e/ sound similar: *pin* = *pen*
- merger of /ɔɪ/ and /ɔ/ especially before /l/: *boil* = *ball*
- merger of /ɪ/ and /æ/ before /ŋk/: /θɪŋk/, /θæŋk/ sound as /θæŋk/ *think* = *thank*
- merger of /ɪr/ and /er/: *cheering* = *chairing*



Both Black English and Southern English are non-rhotic and simplify consonant clusters: e.g. /desk - des' - desiz/. But only Black English regularly deletes the inflectional endings /s/ and /t/, /d/: e.g. *looked* > *look*, *eats* > *eat*, *Fred's* > *Fred*.

Some scholars have called the existence of the category of tense into question because the Past Tense marker *-ed* is frequently missing. However the Past Tense forms of the irregular verbs where there is no *-ed* are always present (e.g. *wrote*). A number of other grammatical features of Black English include:

- “*been*” as the marker of the present perfect: e.g. *I been known him*. – *I have known him*.
- “*be done*” is used as future resultative: *I'll be done killed that man if he tries to lay a hand on my kid again*.

The most discussions have centered on what is called invariant or distributive “*be*”. In Black English there are two distinct usages of the copular “*be*”: The first involves zero use of the copular: “*She smart*”, “*She tired*”. It is used to describe intermittent state and it is often goes with the appropriate adverb such as “*sometimes*”: e.g. *Sometimes she be sad*.



1.6. MALE-FEMALE DIFFERENCES

Many Americans have now confronted the issue of language sexism. Concern for gender equality in American society encompasses language issues along with other sociopolitical concerns. In most studies of male-female differences the term

“gender” is used in the meaning of “**the complex of social, cultural and psychological phenomena affected to sex**” (Mc Connel - Ginet 1988). The term “sex” refers simply to female and male physiology.

One of the general findings regarding male-female differences is that women tend to use more standard language features than men, whose speech tends to be more vernacular:

- In one of the earliest studies of sex-based language variation, John Fischer (1958) showed that among the group of New England children girls tended to use more word-final *-ing* than boys.
- Walt Wolfram (1969) demonstrated the greater use of standard variants by African American females than males.

The second finding is that women tend to adopt innovative language features much more quickly than men. In other words, women tend to lead in linguistic change.

1.6.1. Approaches to the Explanation of Cross-Sex Difference

The “Female Deficit” approach

There are different approaches to explanation of cross-sex differences. The female deficit approach to language and gender studies can be traced as far back as the early 1920s when Otto Jespersen devoted a chapter of his influential book “Language: Its Nature, Development and Origin” (1922) to “The Woman”. In this chapter he claims that women in a number of cultures throughout the world exhibit speech patterns which differ from those of men and that these differences derive from differences in biological make-up. Among the features of “women’s speech” Jespersen notes that

- women have less extensive vocabularies than men
- they use simpler sentence constructions
- they speak with little prior thought.

In other words, women’s speech was held to be deficient when compared with the male “norm”. O. Jespersen’s ideas remained unchallenged within the field of linguistics for nearly half a century, even though most of his evidence comes from art, literature rather than from real-world behaviour.

In 1973 Robin Lakoff published her important article “Language and Women’s Place” and the language researchers returned to an examination of differences between men’s and women’s speech. R.Lakoff’s work was highly influential for a number of years but now it has been discredited because R.Lakoff, like O.Jespersen, subscribes to the female deficit theory as she views women’s speech as weak in comparison with men’s speech. She, like O.Jespersen, relies on literary texts for her data.

However, unlike O.Jespersen, R.Lakoff is sympathetic to women and says that women’s deficient speech patterns are not the result of inherent biological or mental deficiency but rather of differential experience. She believes that men’s greater power in society may be a factor in woman’s weaker use of language.

A sampling of women's speech features, per Lakoff (1973)

- *Heavy use of "tag questions"*

R.Lakoff claims that women use more structures such as, "That sounds OK, doesn't it?" than men. The little questions which women often "tag onto" the ends of statements have the effect, R.Lakoff says, of diminishing the force of the statement; in addition, they convey a lack of confidence, or even a lack of personal opinions or views, on the part of the speaker.

- *Question intonation on statements*

R.Lakoff maintains that women often end statements with the rising intonation which is characteristic of questions rather than with the falling intonation which characterizes assertions. The effect of "question intonation" is similar to that of tag questions, in that it turns utterances into questionable propositions rather than definitive statements.

- *"Weak" directives*

According to R.Lakoff, women tend to frame directives or commands as requests rather than direct commands. For example, women are more likely to get someone to close an open door by saying "Would you mind shutting the door?" than by saying "Shut the door!" Requests, R.Lakoff maintains, carry less authoritative force than directives which are framed as imperatives.

The "Cultural Difference" Approach

As a counter to the view that women's language is deficient compared to men's, a number of researchers maintain that women's language is not inferior but simply different. The CULTURAL DIFFERENCE approach to language and gender is grounded in the belief that women's and men's speech is different because girls and boys in America grow up in essentially separate speech communities, because they typically are segregated into same-sex peer groups during the years in which they acquire many of their language-use patterns. This approach is central to the work of a number of researchers, including Deborah Tannen, a sociolinguist who is well known as the author of several best-selling books on language and gender for non-experts, including *That's Not What I Meant! How Conversational Style Makes or Breaks Relationships* (1987) and *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation* (1990).

Girls grow up in groups in which heavy emphasis is placed on cooperation, equality, and emotionally charged friendships, and so girls develop conversational styles which are **cooperative** and **highly interactional**, with each girl **encouraging** the speech of others and building on others' communications as she converses. In addition, girls learn to read others' emotions in quite subtle ways, because forming strong friendships is of key importance to them. On the other hand, boys grow up in groups which are **hierarchical** in nature and in which **dominance** over others is of central importance. Thus, boys develop conversational styles which are **competitive** rather than cooperative, and they place a heavy reliance on **"proving themselves"** through their words rather than on encouraging the ideas of other speakers.

D. Tannen's books have been well received by general audiences, who seem to be glad to have discovered that there are explanations for the miscommunications that they frequently experience in their own cross-sex interactions. At the same time, her works have met with some opposition by researchers. For example, like R. Lakoff, D. Tannen has been criticized because she emphasizes that women need to learn to "read" men without placing a corresponding emphasis on men's learning to understand the conversational conventions which guide female speech. D. Tannen has also been criticized for overemphasizing the differences between women's and men's conversational styles and hence perpetuating the artificial dichotomy between women's and men's language.

A number of proponents of the cultural difference theory, including the earliest advocates of this approach (Maltz and Borker 1982), maintain that by the time males and females reach adulthood, their conversational styles are actually quite similar. And even in childhood, it is maintained, similarities in conversational strategies far outweigh differences. For example, it has been shown that girls use the same strategies to win arguments as boys and that they are just as skillful at arguing as boys (Goodwin 1990).

The Dominance Theory

The notion that male-female conversation differences are due to societal power differences between men and women has been termed by the **Dominance theory**. Researchers point out the features of so-called "male conversational style" which is characterized by:

- uncooperative or disruptive speech
- taking up more conversational time than women
- introducing new topics rather than building on old ones
- more directness

In such a way they **dominate** women in conversational interaction.

A number of researchers suggest that men's misunderstandings of women's conversational style are often quite intentional.

Men's dominance in society derives from the roles which have been ascribed to men by society. Current researches are intent on investigating as a social construct.

1.6.2. Differences encoded in language

Many differences in how men and women talk may be grounded in power differences between men and women. Power of men and women's lack of power are encoded in the language.

Generic "he" and "man"

"He" and its forms "his", "him" refer to a sex-indefinite antecedents:

e.g. *If anybody reads this book he will learn about dialects.*

Alternatives:

- informal **they** that refers to singular antecedents
- to pluralize sex-indefinite antecedents: e.g. *If people ... they will ...*

- to use *he/she*

Increased usage of the noun “man” to refer to “humankind”

e.g. “*Man shall not live by bread alone*”

Opponents argue that the use of generic “he” and “man” in no way excludes women or obscures their role in society, however experiments show that in reality, there is a tendency for readers to associate “he” and “man” with males alone, particularly when the readers themselves are male. It has been noted that unchecked usage of generic “he” can have far-reaching social implications:

e.g. Women tend to avoid responding to job advertisements containing generic “he” because they feel that they do not meet the qualifications outlined in the ads (Miller 1994)

Family Names and Addresses

Family names and addresses show that male-female differences are encoded in language.

D. Spender (1980) writes that traditional adoption by women the husband’s family name may signify “that women’s family names do not count and there is one more device for making women invisible”. Women have to use titles which indicate their marital status: *Mrs /Miss*, but both married and unmarried men are using *Mr*. This indicates that women are defined according to their relationship to men, but men are more autonomous.

Other address forms indicate that men typically are more respected and treated with more formality than women.

e.g. Men are more likely to be addressed with formal “*sir*” than women as “*ma’am*”.

Women are more frequently addressed informally as “*dear*”, “*honey*”, “*sweetie*” in social contexts where men would not be addressed in this way.

Relationships of Association

Certain language forms suggest relationships in which women are defined in terms of the men with whom they are associated, but the other way round does not take place.

e.g. *man and wife vs woman and husband*

(officially) *Walt’s wife vs Margaret’s husband*

This is indicative of relationship between the owner and the owned (Eakins, 1978)

The conventional placement of male before female in coordinate constructions *husband and wife vs. wife and husband, host and hostess vs. hostess and host* indicates a pattern of male precedence.

The prescriptive grammarians in the middle of 1600s indicated that the male gender should be always placed first because it is the worthier (Spender, 1980)

Labeling

Many examples of differential labeling, which are the evidence of unequal male-female power relations, are encoded in the English language.

The age span covered by such items as “*boy-girl*”/”*man-woman*” illustrates that semantic range of analogous lexical items is not always comparable for males and

females. Older women are much more likely to be referred to as “*girls*” than older men as “*boys*”.

e.g. One would hardly say “*I met this nice boy*” to refer to 30-year-old-male.

e.g. TV announcers still refer to the NCAA “*girls’ basketball tournament*” but never “*boys’ basketball tournament*”.

In paired masculine-feminine lexical items the feminine member of pair often undergoes semantic derogation. The feminine member of the pair often acquires connotation of subservience or diminished importance.

e.g. *mister* – *mistress*

governor – *governess*

bachelor – *spinster*

In some cases the feminine item may acquire connotation of improper sexual behavior (e.g. *mistress*).

1.6.3. How to Avoid Sexist Language

The linguistic manifestations of inequality and stereotyping based on sex are hardly disputable. The question that remains is whether changing the language will alter the unequal position of men and women in society or whether achieving increased social equality must precede increased linguistic equality. One answer might be that language simply mirrors sociocultural patterns: If a society treats women as unequal, then language will simply provide the symbolic mechanism for displaying society's underlying discriminatory base. Changing to alternate, more neutral forms will not really stop underlying sex stereotyping, as items characteristically undergo semantic derogation when associated with a feminine referent. After all, at one point, words like *mistress* and *governess* were neutral counterparts of their male equivalents *mister* and *governor*. So changing language-use patterns may simply be a linguistic cosmetic for an underlying problem of social inequality. From this vantage point, language dutifully follows a symbolic course set for it by the established social system; language can hardly be blamed for the more fundamental social inequity to be confronted.

However, it must be noted that just as language mirrors the prevailing social order, the use of language may reinforce and perpetuate the acceptance of these social conditions. Thus, whereas it may seem pointless to begin using *he or she* in place of generic *he* or to change one's title from *Mrs* or *Miss* to *Ms*, there is a sense in which if we do not make these changes, we continue to endorse the notion that women don't "count" as much as men and that women can only be defined in relation to the men who surround them. There is an obvious interdependence between language as a reflection of social differences and language as a socializing instrument. Changing language-use patterns may thus go hand-in-hand with changing social conditions. In other words, language reform may actually serve as an impetus for social change.

While there remains some discussion among linguists and other scholars of language concerning what constitutes "realistic" language reform with respect to sex reference in English, there seems to be a consensus on a number of proposed reforms. In fact, the Linguistic Society of America, the most influential organization for

language scholars in the United States, has adopted a clear policy statement regarding non-sexist language usage, which includes the following strategies for avoiding sexist language:

1. Whenever possible, use plurals (*people, they*) and other appropriate alternatives, rather than only masculine pronouns and "pseudo-generics" such as *man*, unless referring specifically to males.
2. Avoid generic statements which inaccurately refer only to one sex (e.g., "Speakers use language for many purposes — to argue with their wives ..." or "Americans use lots of obscenities but not around women").
3. Whenever possible, use terms that avoid sexual stereotyping. Such terms as *server, professor, and nurse* can be effectively used as gender neutral; marked terms like *waitress, lady professor, and male nurse* cannot.

(from the Linguistic Society of America Guidelines for Nonsexist Usage, approved by the LSA Executive Committee, May 1995)

1.7. BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH: DIFFERENCES IN PRONUNCIATION

Although the majority of language forms are common to both British English and American English are a great number of points where they are different. It is the area of **pronunciation** that American English and British English differences are most obvious while divergent patterns of grammatical usage, of vocabulary choice and spelling differences crop up only sporadically. Pronunciation colors every aspect of oral communication. Much of this is due to the differences in what is called articulatory set, i.e. a predisposition to pronounce sounds and words in a particular style. Many American speakers especially from Middle West have a nasal "**twang**". This is caused by the habit of leaving the velum /'vi:ləm/ open so that the nasal cavity forms the resonance chamber. Southern Americans are stereotyped by other American their "**drawl**". This drawling out of sounds is due perhaps to the overall lack of tension in articulation. British accents are often thought of as clipped possibly because of greater tension and lesser degree drawling in stressed vowels.

1.7.1. Differences in Phonetic Inventory

The consonants of Received Pronunciation and of General American English are identical. Both variants contain the same 24 phonemes, the only possible difference lies in maintenance of /hw/ - /w/ distinction. In some regions it is a recessive component. Some Received Pronunciation speakers retain this distinction too.

Within vowels there is a clear difference in the number of phonemes available: Received Pronunciation has twenty and the general American English has fifteen.

Simple Vowels and Diphthongs of American English

Simple vowel		Diphthong		Simple vowel		Diphthong	
pit	/ɪ/	heat	/ɪj/	cut	/ʌ/	lose	/uɪ/
set	/ɛ/	say	/ej/	bought	/ɔ/	grow	/oʊ/
cat	/æ/	buy	/aj/	put	/u/	boy	/ɔj/
pot	/ɑ/	cow	/aʊ/	suppose	/ə/		

In all cases, the American English diphthongs are somewhat longer than the simple vowels.

This maybe credited to the fact that General American English has no central diphthongs while Received Pronunciation has /ɪə/ and /zu/. General American English has a combination of /ɪr/: *learn* /lɪrn/; /ɛr/ *lair* (барлога); /ur/ *lure* (спокыса).

In addition General American English doesn't have phoneme /ɒ/. Whenever Received Pronunciation has this sound General American English has either /ɑ/ or /ɔ/, e.g. *clock* /ɑ/, *Washington* /ɑ/. Correspondingly to /ɒ/ (R.P.) General American English has /ɑ/ especially in the Middle West and neighbouring Canada. Before such consonants as *l, m, n* and before stops AmE have /ɑ/: *top, rob, bomb, don*. But before *g* in the words *dog, fog* /ɔ/, before /ŋ/ they have /ɔ/ as well.

1.7.2. Differences in Quality of the Phonemes

The chief consonant which may be noticeably different in realization in two accents is /r/. In General American English there is a strong tendency for /r/ to be retroflex, i.e. pronounced with the tip of the tongue turned back.

Sound /l/ differs as General American English tends to use a dark /l/ in most positions where Received Pronunciation has clear /l/ before vowels and dark /l/ before consonants and at word ends (e.g. *sale*) and where /l/ is syllabic (e.g. *bottle*).

Among the vowels there are far more of different articulation. The first element of /əʊ/ is a central vowel /ə/ (schwa) in RP, but a back vowel in General American /ou/ or /ow/. In fact the degree of diphthongization in General American English /ou/ may be non-existent and it turns into /ɔ/. The same with /ei/ that turns into /ɛ:/.

/ʌ/ is more or less midcentral in General American English but it is front Received Pronunciation.

Both General American English and Received Pronunciation have a long midcentral realization of /ə:/. However, in Received Pronunciation this vowel is never followed by /r/ except for “*furry*” while in General American English it is often followed by /r/. In General American English /æ/ is longer than in Received Pronunciation. /æ/ in General American English is often subject to nasalization before a nasal consonant, e.g. *bank* /bæŋk/ > /bæk/

1.7.3. Phonotactic Differences

Rhoticity

Received Pronunciation has /r/ where there is a following vowel, e.g. *red*. When this includes vowel in the following words it can connect the two words into a single phonetic unit (e.g. *tear up*). Such linking may occur where no letter "r" in spelling, e.g. *law officer* /lɔːrɒfɪsə/. There is no intrusive /r/ in General American English.

Southern speech and Eastern New English speech are non-rhotic. Between vowels /r/ may be lost as in *Ca'ol* < *Carol*, *sto'y* < *story* (this is found in southern vernaculars rural) in upper Southern varieties (Appalachian Ozark) the intrusive /r/ occurs when a word has final unstressed -ow

e.g. *hollow* > *holler*

yellow > *yeller*

It also occurs when suffix flexions are attached:

e.g. *fellows* > *fellers*

narrows > *narrers*

Post consonantal /r/ loss may also be found if /r/ occurs in an unstressed syllable:

e.g. *p'ofessor* < *professor*

sec'etary < *secretary*.

It is found primarily in Southern-based varieties.

There are also occasional instances in which an intrusive /r/ may occur:

e.g. *wash* > *warsh*

idea > *idear*

Intervocalic /t/

General American English realizes what is written as /t/ with the flap of the tongue tip against the alveolar ridge and when it comes between two vowels it turns into /d/. E.g. *latter* > *ladder*.

Post nasal /t/

The post-nasal /t/ in words "*winter*", "*enter*" where an unstressed vowel follows, /t/ is not pronounced: *winter* = *winner*

Dental and alveolar consonants + /j/

Such combinations of sounds as /nj/ /sj/

/tj/ /zj/

/dj/ /θj/

/lj/

do not occur in the most varieties of General American English. All those words spelt with *u*, *ew*, *eu*, *ui*, *ue* usually have simple /u/. The combination /nj/ and /lj/ are possible in **General American** if there is an intervening syllable boundary: e.g. *January*, *monument*, *value*.

Palatalization

In General American English palatalization is regular when the following syllable is unstressed. There are a few well-known cases of palatalization before the stressed syllable, e.g. *sure*, *sugar*, *assure*. Received Pronunciation agrees in most cases with general American English but it has the additional possibility of unpalatalization /dj/, /tj/, /sj/, /zj/ in those cases where letter “u” follows, e.g.:

<i>education</i>	<i>issue</i>
RP /,edju:ˈkeɪʃən/	RP /ɪʃu:/
GenAm /,edʒəˈkeɪʃn/	GenAm /ˈɪsju:/

A number of place names are unpalatalized in Received Pronunciation and palatalized in general American English, e.g.:

<i>Tunisia</i>	<i>Indonesia</i>
RP /tju:ˈnɪziə/	RP /ɪndəˈni:ziə/
GenAm /tu:ˈni:zə/	GenAm /ɪndoˈni:zə/

1.7.4. Divergent Patterns of Phoneme Use in Sets of Words

Intervocalic combination –si- plus unstressed syllable is pronounced as /ʒ/ in General American English. In Received Pronunciation only the first group has /ʒ/, the second /ʒ/ and /ʃ/, the third /ʃ/:

RP		AmE
/ʒ/	vision, confusion, measure	/ʒ/
/ʒ/, /ʃ/	Asia, impression	
/ʃ/	version	/ʒ/

At least some areas of America especially the South have /l/ in words with such combinations of letters as -alm, e.g. Received Pronunciation *calm*, *palm* /kɑ:m/, /pɑ:m/, General and South American English /kɔlm/, /pɔlm/.

There are four important sets of words in which Received Pronunciation and General American English generally differ in vowel selected. The largest and better known is the set called "**bath words**". In spelling these words have

<i>a+f (after)</i>	<i>a+m+consonant (example)</i>
<i>a-th (path)</i>	<i>a+n+consonant (dance)</i>
<i>a+ss (pass)</i>	

The second set of words that vary comprises those in which an intervocalic /r/ follows midcentral vowel, e.g.:

<i>courage</i>
RP /ˈkʌrɪdʒ/
GenAm /ˈkə:ridʒ/

The third set includes words derived from Latin which end in *-ile*, e.g.:

<i>missile</i>	<i>textile</i>
RP /mi'saɪl/	RP /'tekstaɪl/
GenAm /mɪsɪl/	GenAm /'tekstɪl/

The final set includes the names of some countries, e.g.:

Nicaragua
 RP /nɪkə'ræɡjuə/
 GenAm /nɪkə'ra:ɡuə/

Individual words differ in pronunciation:

	RP	General American
Schedule	<i>ʃ</i>	<i>sk</i>
Erase	<i>ʒ</i>	<i>s</i>
Herb	<i>h</i>	<i>No consonant</i>
Aesthetic	<i>i:</i>	<i>e</i>
Squirrel	<i>ɪ</i>	<i>ɜ̃</i>
Neither	<i>aɪ</i>	<i>ɪ</i>
Dynasty	<i>ɪ</i>	<i>aɪ</i>
Progress Process	<i>əu</i>	<i>ɔ</i>
Date Apparatus Status	<i>eɪ</i>	<i>eɪ, æ</i>
Wrath	<i>ɒ</i>	<i>æ</i>
Produce Shone Yoghurt	<i>ɒ</i>	<i>ou</i>
Tomato	<i>ɑ:</i>	<i>eɪ</i>
What Was Of	<i>ɒ</i>	<i>ʌ</i>
vase	<i>va:z</i>	<i>veɪz/veɪs</i>

1.7.5. Stress and Intonation

The **stress patterns** in Received Pronunciation and General American English are generally the same. One of well-known differences is the pronunciation of words ending in *-ary*, *-ery*, *-ory*. In Received Pronunciation they contain a single stressed syllable, in General American English the stress is on the first syllable and in addition the stress falls on the last but one syllable, e.g.:

RP	GenAm
<i>ˈstationary</i>	<i>ˈstatio, nary</i>
<i>ˈsecretary</i>	<i>ˈsecre, tary</i>
<i>ˈdormitory</i>	<i>ˈdormi, tory</i>
<i>ˈlibrary</i>	<i>ˈli, brary</i>

The number of individual words carry stress on different syllable, e.g.:

RP	GenAm
<i>ˈballet</i>	<i>bal ˈlet</i>
<i>ˈdetail</i>	<i>de ˈtail</i>
<i>ˈgarage</i>	<i>ga ˈrage</i>
<i>ˈresume</i>	<i>resu ˈme</i>

Intonation of RP and GenAm functions according to the same principle. The intonation of Received Pronunciation is often characterized as more varied and that of General American English is flatter. Received Pronunciation uses more frequently sharp jumps downwards but has more gradual rises. In lengthy sentences General American English will repeat the overall contour leaving the final rise or fall until the very end. Received Pronunciation in contrast draws out the rise and fall in small increments from stressed syllables to stressed syllables. General American English has usually falling intonation in why-questions while Received Pronunciation frequently uses an alternative pattern with the low rise at the end. Yes-no questions have a rapid rise in General American English, they remain high and finish with the further small rise.

1.8. BRITISH ENGLISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH: DIFFERENCES IN MORPHOLOGY

1.8.1. Differences in the Verb

A number of verbs ending in a nasal sound (e.g. *dream, learn*) or l (e.g. *spill*) have two forms for Past Tense and Past Participle: one is regular, the other irregular: *burn - burned, burnt; dream - dreamed, dreamt*. American English is more likely to have the regular form and British English - the irregular form, e.g. *learnt* is rare in American English in contrast to *learned*.

A further widespread phenomenon is the tendency in American English for non-standard Past Tense forms: *sprung* for *sprang*, *sung* for *sang*. Most other differences in the Past Tense forms are singular, incidental including the differences in pronunciation:

e.g. Past Indefinite *ate* /æɪ/ - /eit/, *shone* RP /ʃon/ - GenAm /ʃʊn/



American English uses sometimes “*proven*” and “*shaven*” next to common “*proved*” and “*shaved*”.

American English has the Past Participles *beat* and *shook* instead of *beaten* and *shaken*. *Get* has two Past Participle forms in American English: *got* and *gotten*. They are used with different meaning. *Have got* is used for possession and to denote obligation and logical necessity in both varieties, e.g. *I've got a book on the subject. You 've got to read it. It's got to be interesting.* “*Have got*” meaning logical necessity is common in American English but it is less widespread in British English. *Have gotten* doesn't occur in British English, in American English it means “receive”, e.g. *She has just gotten a letter.* In its modal sense it means “be able”, “have an opportunity”, e.g. *I've gotten to do more reading lately.* *Have got* is barely possible in the modal meaning of obligation in British English.

“Do” and “Have”.

British English treats “*have*” in expressions of possession and obligation as a lexical verb and uses “*do*” for negation, in questions. “*Do*” is obligatory in both languages in the expressions *to have lunch, dinner...* Exclusively British English is the use of “*do*” to replace a lexical verb:

E.g. Did you write to the hotel?

Yes, I have done. < AmE *Yes, I have.*

Modal verbs

Should, shall, ought to, dare, need, must are relatively infrequent in both varieties. **Dare** and **need** are to be used as blends between operators and lexical verbs in American English. They will take “*do*” in negative and interrogative form but an unmarked infinitive, e.g. *I don't dare think about this.*

Frequent in American English and British English is the use of “**ought**” without “to” in questions and negations: “*He ought not do that*”.

Modal “**would**” is used in if-clauses when it indicates willingness, e.g. *If you would agree, everything would be fine.* But American English extends the use of “**would**” to if-clauses where no volition is involved, e.g. *If it wouldn't rain everything would be nice.* Expression “**'d rather**” which is a contraction of “would rather” sometimes turns into *had rather* (chiefly in AmE).

“**Shall**” is fixed in American English almost only to questions inquiring about the desirability of the speaker's doing something, e.g. *Shall I get you a cup?* But more common are *Would you like... ? Should I... ? Can I?*

“**Must**” is losing its ground to “**have to**” or “**have got to**” in its obligation meaning in American English.

The subjunctive is more common in AmE than in BrE. Typically American usage is called **mandative subjunctive** and it is used after the predicates of command and recommendation and some other predicates that mark desirable future action:

e.g. We suggest that you be on time tomorrow. It is important that you not misunderstand me.

While this is somewhat formal usage in AmE it is by no means unusual in the everyday language. In BrE, on the contrary, it is largely restricted to formal written

usage. What BrE uses in its place is either *putative should* (e.g. *It is mandatory that you should not misunderstand me*), which is also available in AmE, or the *indicative* (e.g. *It is mandatory that you don't misunderstand me*).

The Perfect Tenses. The use of Perfect is interpreted somewhat differently in the two varieties. While there is basic agreement, American English speakers can choose to use the Past Indefinite in the sentences with "just", "yet", "already", e.g. *He just came*.

Tag questions are common both in American English and British English. But American English seems to prefer the non-grammatical type, e.g. *I'll return tomorrow, right/O'kay?*

1.8.2. Differences in the Noun and Pronoun

Collective nouns *government, team, committee* are singular in American English. American English has plural for *accommodations, sports* where British English has abstract and non-countable *accommodation, sport*. In British English they use *fish – fishes, shrimp – shrimps* but plural is impossible in American English. BrE has the plural *overheads* and *maths* where AmE has singular *overhead, math*. In American English *committee, council* correlate with the relative pronoun "which".

e.g. BrE *the Committee who are considering...*

AmE *the Committee which is considering.*

In Southern AmE "**you all**" and the possessive "**you all's**" is widespread. It denotes second person plural (**y'all**). Although such pronoun as *youse* has the relative acceptance of *you all*. Traditionally, AmE uses indefinite pronouns **one** on the first reference, but uses **he / his / him** as appropriate to continue the reference.

Let's have a closer look at this example: e.g. *One tends to find himself/herself in agreement in order to maintain his or her self-respect*. American English speakers find the use of masculine form needlessly sexist. British usually use: **oneself** and **one's**.

To identify oneself on the phone British say: *speaking*; Americans - *this is he (him) or she (her)*.

AmE uses pronominal apposition which is the structure in which a pronoun is used in addition to a noun in the subject position:

e.g. *My father, he made my breakfast.*

This feature is found in practically all social groups of American speakers.

1.8.3. Differences in the Preposition and the Adverbs

Prepositions. Common in British English and American English are *behind, apart from, on top of*. But American English uses instead of *apart from* - *aside from, on top of* - *atop*. American English uses *in behalf of* in addition to shared **on behalf of**.

BrE
opposite
alongside

AmE
opposite of
alongside of

American English omits prepositions more freely in time expressions, e.g. *She starts work Monday.*

Round- British English, *around* - American English. The preposition *through* as in “*Volume 1 of the dictionary goes from "A" through "G"*” is not current in British English.

Time Expressions:

For clock time informal AmE uses *of* or *till* for common *to*

e.g. *It's quarter of / till ten.*

The usage with *of* is unknown in BrE; *till* is rare there. Informal BrE has the preposition *gone* (= past)

e.g. *It's gone eight.*

AmE frequently uses *after* (past)

e.g. *It's twenty after nine*

but favours *past* in combination with *quarter* and *half*

e.g. *a quarter past ten*

Time expressions without a preposition are more common in AmE:

e.g. *The meeting started seven- thirty.*



Forms such as “*of the evening*” (in the evening), “*upside the head*” (on the side of the head), “*leave out of there*” (leave there), “*the matter of him*” (the matter with him), “*to*” for “*at*” are common for AmE.

e.g. *She's to the store right now.*

Adverbs. There is the greater tendency in AmE, especially in speech and in informal writing to use adjectives rather than adverbs:

e.g. *You did that real good.*

Some adverbs which used to be formed by adding *-ly* suffix no longer take *-ly*: “*They answered wrong*” instead of “*wrongly*”.

The use of adverbs formed from nouns + *-wise*: e.g. *time-wise* (from the point of view of time) or *word-wise* (as far as words are concerned) is considered more typically American.

One more morphological difference is the use in American English *-ward*: e.g. without *-s* > *toward*, *backward*.

Preferences in AmE are *sure(ly)*, *why then*, *okay now*, *anyways*, *still*, *all*.

In standard American the adverb “*right*” is currently limited to contexts involving location or time:

e.g. *He is right around the corner.*

However, in the Southern-based vernaculars “right” may be used to intensify the degree of the other types of attributes: e.g. *She is right nice*.

1.9. BRITISH ENGLISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH: DIFFERENCES IN LEXIS

The lexical relations between British English and American English have been analyzed in many different ways.

The development approach. The development approach takes the criteria of use, intelligibility and regional status. It sets up four groups.

The first group comprises words that are neither understood nor used in other variety: Am. *meld* = *merge*, Br. *hive off* = separate from the main group.

The second group contains items understood but not used elsewhere: AmE – *cookie, checkers, howdy*, British English – *draughts, scone, cheerio*.

In the third group there are items both understood and used in either language but they still have a distinctively American English or British English flavor: *figure out, movie* (AmE), *telly, car, park* (BE).

The fourth group embraces lexical material that is completely intelligible and widely used in both varieties but had lost American English or British English flavour it once had: *semi-detached* (originally British), *boost* (originally American).

The casual approach. 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. In this causal approach, the vivid and expressive nature of a number of words and phrases is held to have helped them expand, for example, many of the informal or slang items from AmE such as *fiend* (as in *dope fiend* or *fitness fiend*), *joint* ('cheap or dirty place of meeting for drinking, eating etc.') and *sucker* ('gullible person'). Secondly, many borrowings are short and snappy and often reinforce the trend in common Standard English towards the monosyllabic word, such as AmE *contact* (beside *get in touch with*), *cut* (next to *reduction*) and *fix* (in addition to *prepare, repair*) or BrE *chips* (beside AmE *french fries*) and *dicey* (beside AmE *chancy*). The third reason has to do with the fact that some loans provide a term for an idea or concept where there was none before. Borrowings of this latter sort are particularly valuable because they fill a conceptual gap. Examples are originally AmE *boost, debunk, know-how* and *high/low brow* or originally BrE *brunch, smog, cop, tabloid* or *gadget*.

The semantic approach. It compares words and phrases with their referents in terms of sameness and differences.

1st group: most words and their meanings are the same (no difficulty in understanding)

2nd group: words that are present in only one variety because they refer to things unknown in the other culture: BE - *moor, heath*, AmE – *prairie, canyon*.

3rd group: different words and phrases used to express the same meaning: AmE - *truck*, BE – *lorry*; BrE – *petrol*, AmE – *gas (oline)*.

4th group: words shared by both varieties but they have fully different meaning: *vest* - AmE - waistcoat, BrE - *undershirt*.

5th group: both languages share an expression and its meaning and one or either have the further expression of the same thing not shared by the other language:
e.g. *taxi* in BE and AmE but *cab* only in AmE;
BrE and AmE *pharmacy*, but *chemist's* only in BrE and *drug store* is typically American.

Let's undertake a brief comparison of **University lexis**.

American English

faculty
full professor
associate professor
assistant professor
instructor
freshman
sophomore
junior
senior
department
head of department
president
to major
dormitory
term paper
semester
to grade a paper
exams are supervised by a proctor
BS
graduate student
MA- thesis
Doctoral dissertation

British English

staff
professor
reader
senior lecturer
lecturer
the first year student
the second year student
the third year student
the final year student
faculty
dean
chancellor
learn main or subsidiary subject
halls of residence, hostel
a long essay
term
to mark a paper
exams are invigilated by invigilator
BSc
past graduate
MA dissertation
Doctoral thesis

1.10. BRITISH ENGLISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH: SPELLING AND PUNCTUATION

Spelling and punctuation differences are, much like the majority of differences in pronunciation, not merely haphazard and unsystematic. Instead, certain principles are involved, including simplification, regularization, derivational uniformity and reflection of pronunciation. Of course, there are also a number of individual, unsystematic differences.

Simplification

This principle is common to both the British and the American traditions but sometimes it is realized differently in each. AmE has a greater reputation for simplification as often attested (удостоверять) by such standard examples as

Am.E	Br.E
<i>program</i>	- <i>mme</i> (Br. E “ <i>program</i> ” for computer software)

The same with measurement words ending in

Am.E	Br.E
- <i>gram</i>	- <i>gramme</i>
e. g. Am.E	Br.E
<i>kilogram</i>	- <i>mme</i>
<i>counselor</i>	<i>counsellor</i>

Simplification of **ae** and **oe** to **e** in words taken from Latin and Greek (heresy, federal) is the rule for all of English, but this rule is carried out less completely in BrE, where we find **mediaeval** next to **medieval**, **foetus** /fi:tes/ next to **fetus** and **paediatrician** next to **pediatrician**. This is especially noticeable in view of the existence of AmE forms with simple **e** compared with the non-simplified forms of BrE, for example,

<u>AmE</u> <i>esthetics</i>	<u>BrE</u> <i>aesthetics</i> (also AmE)
<i>maneuver</i>	<i>manoeuvre</i>
<i>anemia</i>	<i>anaemia</i>
<i>anapest</i>	<i>anapaest</i>
<i>egis</i>	<i>aegis</i>
<i>ameba</i>	<i>amoeba</i>

But many words have only **ae** and **oe** in AmE:

e.g. *aerial*
Oedipus

A further simplification in AmE is one which has not been adopted at all in BrE: **the dropping ue of -logue** in words such as *dialog*
monolog
catalog

This simplification, which does not extend to words such as *Prague*, *vague*, *vogue* is not accepted for use in formal AmE writing. Note the simplification of words such as BrE *judgement* to AmE *judgment* (though both spellings occur in both varieties).

BrE employs some simplified spellings which have not been adopted in AmE:

BrE <i>skilful</i>	AmE <i>skillful</i>
<i>wilful</i>	<i>willful</i>

BrE *fulfil, instil* may be interpreted as simplification. In AmE we find double “ll” in *fulfill, instill*, but both forms are used in AmE *install(l), install(l)ment*.

BrE may simplify *-ection* to *-exion*:

e.g. *connexion, retroflexion, inflexion*

Here AmE uses “*connection*”, “*reflection*”, thus following the principle of derivational unity: *connect* > *connection, connective*; *reflect* > *reflection, reflective*.

Regularization

This principle is employed more completely in AmE than in BrE. It shows up most obviously in the regularization of the endings **-or/-our** to the single form **-or**.

There are no systematic criteria for distinguishing between the two sets in BrE:

BrE <i>neighbour</i>	but	BrE <i>donor</i> <i>professor</i>
<i>honour</i>	but	<i>metaphor</i>
<i>savour</i> <i>flavour</i>	but	<i>manor</i> /'mænə/
<i>behaviour</i> <i>colour</i>	but	<i>anchor</i>

In BrE the suffixes **-ation** and **-ious** usually lead to a form with **-or**: *coloration, laborious*, but suffixes **-al** and **-ful** as in *behavioural* and *colourful* have no such effect. However, AmE may keep **-our** in such words as *glamour* (next to *glamor*) and *Saviour* (next to *Savior*).

But in such words as *contour*
tour
amour | **-our** is never simplified.

<u>AmE</u> <i>mold</i>	<u>BrE</u> <i>mould</i>
<i>mustache</i>	<i>moustache</i>
<i>molt</i>	<i>moult</i>

The second well-known case concerns **-er** and **-re**. British words in **-re** are regularized to **-er** in AmE. E.g.: BrE *centre* AmE *center* (but *central*)
metre *meter*

This rule applies everywhere in AmE except where the letter preceding the ending is **c** or **g**. In these cases **-re** is retained: *acre* /'eikə/
mediocre
ogre /'eugə/

Derivational Uniformity

BrE writes *defence*
offence
pretence

AmE has -s > *defense* > *defensive*
-s > *offense* > *offensive*
-s > *pretense* > *pretension*

but *to practise* (v)

but *to practice* (v) > *practical*

In another case BrE observes this principle and AmE violates it:

BrE *analyse* AmE *analyze*
paralyse *paralyze*

And their derivation cognates in BrE are “*analysis*”, “*paralysis*”.

Reflection of Pronunciation

This principle has been widely adopted in spelling in both varieties for verbs ending in **-ize** and the corresponding nouns ending in **-ization**. The older spellings with **-ise** and **-isation** are, however, also found in both AmE and BrE (in publishing style – preference for z). However, some words such as

to advertise
to advise
to compromise
to revise
to televise

appear only with **-ise**

In AmE “**l**” is doubled if the final syllable of the root carries the stress and is spelled with a single letter vowel **e/o**. If the stress does not lie on the final syllable “**l**” is not doubled

<i>to re'bel</i>	-	<i>re'belling</i>	<u>but</u>	<i>'travel</i>	-	<i>'traveler</i>
<i>com'pel</i>	-	<i>com'pelling</i>		<i>'marvel</i>	-	<i>'marveling</i>
<i>con'trol</i>	-	<i>con'trolling</i>		<i>'revel</i>	-	<i>'reveling</i>
<i>pa'trol</i>	-	<i>pa'troller</i>		<i>'yodel</i>	-	<i>'yodeled</i>

Hence AmE spelling closely reflects pronunciation. The AmE spelling *fulfill*, *distill* may be favoured over simplified Br *fulfil*, *distil* because they indicate end stress. BrE, in contrast, follows the principle of regularization since all final “**l**’s” regardless of stress are doubled (e.g. *traveller*, *marvelling*). In a few cases BrE doubles the final “**p**” where AmE does not, e.g. *kidnap(p)er*, *worship(p)er*.

Perhaps the best-known cases of spellings adapted to reflect pronunciation are those involving **-gh-**. Here AmE tends to use a “phonetic” spelling so that

BrE *plough* turns into AmE *plow*
draught *draft*
(a flow of air)

AmE *thru* (BrE *through*) and AmE *tho* (BrE *though*) are not uncommon in AmE but restricted to more informal writing and sometimes show up in official use.

Such spellings as AmE *lite*, *hi*, *nite* (BrE *light*, *high*, *night*) are employed in very informal writing and in advertising language.

Individual Words which Differ in Spelling

<u>BrE</u>	<u>AmE</u>
<i>ensure</i>	<i>insure</i>
<i>enclose</i>	<i>inclose</i>
<i>endorse</i>	<i>indorse</i>

The practice of writing compounds as two words, as a hyphenated word or as a single unhyphenated word varies, however, there is a marked avoidance of hyphenation in AmE.

<u>BrE</u>	<u>AmE</u>
<i>make-up</i>	<i>make up</i>
<i>neo-colonialism</i>	<i>neocolonialism</i>

Many Americans write compound numbers without a hyphen (*e.g. twenty five*), but most retain a hyphen (*e.g. twenty-five*), as do most British writers.

AmE drops French accent marks in some words (*e.g. cafe, entree*) while BrE may be more likely to retain them (*e.g. café, entrée*).

The most common differences in spelling

<u>BrE</u>	<u>AmE</u>
<i>aluminium</i>	<i>aluminum</i>
<i>cheque</i>	<i>check</i>
<i>jewellery</i>	<i>jewelry</i>
<i>storey (of a building)</i>	<i>story</i>
<i>tyre</i>	<i>tire</i>
<i>kerb</i>	<i>curb</i>
<i>pyjamas</i>	<i>pajamas</i>
<i>whisky</i>	<i>whiskey</i>

Nonce (випадкові) spellings (especially in advertising)

<u>AmE</u>
<i>kwik (quick)</i>
<i>donut (doughnut)</i>
<i>e-z (easy)</i>
<i>rite (right, write)</i>
<i>blu (blue)</i>
<i>tuff (tough)</i>

Punctuation

There are only a few differences worth mentioning:

- different names

BrE *full stop*

AmE *period*

brackets

parentheses

square brackets

brackets

quotation marks

quotation mark

(+ *inverted commas*)

BrE uses single quotation marks ‘.....’ in the normal case and resorts to double one “.....” for quotation within a quotation (‘..... “.....”’).

AmE starts with double quotation marks and goes to single ones for a quote within a quote. *Exclamation mark* is also called *exclamation point* in AmE.

The *slash /* may be termed an *oblique* (BrE *stroke*) and a *diagonal* in AmE.

BrE usage sets a *comma* between the house number and the street name in addresses (331, High Street), something which is not practiced in AmE.

The usage or not of a *dot* (*period, full stop*) after abbreviations, especially titles, also differs. AmE uses a dot, BrE distinguishes abbreviations which end with the same letter as their unabbreviated form and which therefore have no dot:

e.g. *Mister* > *Mr*

Missus > *Mrs*

Sergeant > *Sgt*

Lieutenant > *Lt*

In contrast, abbreviations which end with a letter different from the final letter of the full form have a dot:

e.g. *General* > *Gen.*

captain > *capt.*

the Reverend > *Rev.*

editor > *ed.*

editors > *eds.*

In business letters, the salutation (*Dear Sir, Dear Madam, Dear General Jones*) is followed by **a colon in AmE**, but by **a comma in BrE**. Salutations containing a name may have a comma in AmE.

When a colon is used to introduce lists it may sometimes be followed by a *hyphen* in BrE, this is never the case in AmE:

e.g. *Several commodities have fallen in price significantly: - coffee, cocoa, tea and tobacco.*

In BrE *per cent* (is written as two words), in AmE - as a single one *percent*.

In addition, BrE uses the abbreviation *%*, *p.c.* or *pc* as in *16 pc drop in unemployment.*

Dates can be the source of misunderstanding since BrE uses *date/month/year* between slashes or separated by dots and AmE *month/day/year* (no dots in AmE).

Clock times use a dot in BrE *3.45 p.m.*, but a colon in AmE *3:45 p.m.*

Both varieties abbreviate number as *No*, *Nos* (capitalized or not). *E.g. No. 8 (BrE), No 8 (AmE without a dot).* However only AmE uses for number the symbol *#* and the possible plural *## 5 and 8.*

PART 2

EXERCISES



Exercise 1

Consider some commonly held beliefs about dialects demonstrated by popular uses of this term in the following quotes:

- 1) “We went to the Outer Banks of North Carolina for a vacation and the people there sure do speak a dialect”.
- 2) “I know we speak a dialect in the mountains, but it’s a very colorful way of speaking”.
- 3) “The kids in that neighborhood don’t really speak English; they speak a dialect”.
- 4) “The kids in this school all seem to speak the dialect”.

What does the term “dialect” refer to in these quotes?

Exercise 2

In the following sets of sentences identify which sentences characterize:

- *nonstandard English*
- *informal standard English*
- *superstandard English (forms which are too standard for everyday conversation)*

- 1
 - a He's not as smart as I.
 - b He's not so smart as I.
 - c He ain't as smart as me.
 - d He not as smart as me.

- 2
 - a He's not to do that.
 - b He not supposed to do that,
 - c He don't supposed to do that,
 - d He's not supposed to do that.

- 3
 - a I'm right, ain't I?
 - b I'm right, aren't I?
 - c I'm right, am I not?
 - d I'm right, isn't I?

- 4
 - a If I was going to do that, I would start right now.
 - b If I were going to do that, I would start right now.
 - c Were I to do that, I would start right now.
 - d I would start right now, if I was going to that

- 5 a A person should not change her speech,
b One should not change one's speech.
c A person should not change their speech.
d A person should not change his or her speech.

Exercise 3

Which is preferable for you?

The person who responded to an inquiry about a boss' whereabouts by saying:

- a) She's not here. What do you want?
b) I'm sorry, she not in now. She be back this afternoon.

Exercise 4

Give Standard American English version of the following. African American vernacular English version

No matter what neighborhood you be in – Black, White or whatever – young dudes be having they wheels. Got to have them. Well, anyway, there happen to be a young brother by name of Russell. He had his wheels. Soul neighborhood, you know. He had this old '57 Ford. You know how brothers be with they wheels. They definitely be keeping them looking clean, clean, clean.

Exercise 5

Give Standard American English version of the passage that portrays the vernacular dialect of an African American preacher.

“fergit ever’thing but yo’soul, son. Take yo’mind off ever’thing but eternal life. fergit what newspaper say. Fergit yuh’s black. Gawd looks past yo’ skin ‘n inter yo’soul, son. He’s lookin’ at the only parta yuh tha’s His. He wants yuh ‘n’ He loves yuh. Give yo’s’e’f’t’ ‘Im, son. Lissen, lemme tell yuh why yuh’s here; lemme tell yuh a story tha’ll make yo’ heart glad.”

Exercise 6

A Southern vowel pronunciation

In some Southern dialects of American English, words like *pin* and *pen* are pronounced the same. Usually, both words are pronounced as *pin*. This pattern of pronunciation is also found in other words. **List A** has words where the *i* and *e* are pronounced the **SAME** in these dialects.

List A: *i and e pronounced the same*

1. *tin* and *ten*
2. *kin* and *Ken*
3. *Lin* and *Len*
4. *windy* and *Wendy*
5. *sinned* and *send*

Although *i* and *e* in **List A** are pronounced the **SAME**, there are other words where *i* and *e* are pronounced differently. **List B** has word pairs where the vowels are pronounced **DIFFERENTLY**.

List B: *i* and *e* pronounced differently

1. *lit* and *let*
2. *pick* and *peck*
3. *pig* and *peg*
4. *rip* and *rep*
5. *litter* and *letter*

Is there a pattern that can explain why the words in **List A** are pronounced the **SAME** and why the words in **List B** are pronounced **DIFFERENTLY**? To answer this question, you have to look at the sounds that are next to the vowels. Look at the sounds that come after the vowel. What sound is found next to the vowel in all of the examples given in **List A**?

Use what you know about the pronunciation pattern to pick the word pairs in **List C** that are pronounced the **SAME** and those that are pronounced **DIFFERENTLY** in some Southern dialects. Mark the word pairs that are pronounced the same with S and the word pairs that are pronounced differently with D.

List C: *same or different?*

1. *bit* and *bet*
2. *pit* and *pet*
3. *bin* and *Ben*
4. *Nick* and *neck*
5. *din* and *den*

Exercise 7

Define the following:

- Canadian raising
- accent
- consonant cluster
- dialect
- variety
- multiple negation
- Network Standard
- nonstandard dialect
- orthography
- Received Pronunciation
- General American
- vernacular
- pidgin
- creol

Exercise 8

Avoid Sexist Language:

1. Running for city council are Jake Stein, an attorney, and Mrs. Cynthia Jones, a professor of English and mother of three.

2. If you are a senior government official, your wife is required to report any gifts she receives that are valued at more than \$ 100.
3. A journalist is stimulated by his deadline.

Exercise 9

Read the words below. Mind the place of primary and secondary stress.

GenAm	RP
'apple, souce	, apple'souce
'elsewhere	, else'where
'midday	, mid'day
'peanut , butter	, peanut 'butter
'savings , bank	'savings bank
'apple , pie	, apple 'pie
'other, wise	'otherwise
'out, fit	, out'fit

Exercise 10

Read the place names below. Mind a single primary stress in RP and a primary and a tertiary stress in GenAm.

RP	GenAm
'Birmingham	'Birming, ham
'Bloombury	'Bloom, bury
'Buckingham	'Bucking, ham
'Dartmoor	'Dart, moor
'Moorgate	'Moor, gate

Exercise 11

Read the words according to the GenAm standard.

not, crop, dock, nod, father, palm, mister, sister, Webster, farm, bird, leave, let, late, berry, merry, very, Betty, city, certainly, which, what, when, due, new, suit, excursion, version, Persia, man, name, noun, national.

Exercise 12

Read the words below. Mind the stress differences in RP and GenAm.

RP	cemetery
dictionary	monastery
February	matrimony
ordinary	testimony
category	necessary
territory	
	GenAm

dictionary
February
ordinary
category
territory

cemetery
monastery
matrimony
testimony
necessary

Exercise 13

Give gender neutral terms:

chairman
clergyman
congressman
fireman
foreman
mailman
mankind

manpower
policeman
salesman
to man
weatherman
workman

Exercise 14

Read the words they are read in GenAm.

address
adult
Asia
cigarette
clerk
combat (v)
data

herb
leisure
neither
nephew
research
tomato
wrath

Exercise 15

Give American spelling of the following British words:

arbour
armour
candour
colour
favour
harbour
honour
humour
labour
odour
parlour
vigour

defence
offence
licence
practice
pretence
centre
fibre
luster
metre
theatre
metre
macabre

Exercise 16

Give British spelling of the following American words:

impanel
incase
incrusted
infol

acknowledgement
judgment
lodgment
esthetic

encyclopedia
fetus
maneuver
prolog

monolog
dialog
café
entree

Exercise 17

Lexical differences between British and American English are numerous enough and may be confusing enough that mass market books, especially those meant for younger readers, are often revised before publication in the “other” market. The following lexical differences between the UK and US editions of four Harry Potter books were compiled. Distribute the following words into two columns those used in the UK edition and those used in the US edition:

dustbin – trashcan
motorcycle – motorbike
stove – cooker
roundabout – carousel
sellotape – scotch tape
VCR – video recorder
sweater – jumper
ice lolly – ice pop
comprehensive school – public school
mail slot – letter-box
vacationing – holidaying
motorway – highway
multilevel parking garage – multi-storey car park
soccer – football
trolley – cart
sneakers – trainers
lining up – queuing
jacket potato – baked potato
sweet – candy
locker room – changing room
mad – crazy
reporter – newsreader
line – queue
clapping them – applauding them
two weeks – fortnight
holiday – vacation
nurse – matron
an excellent form – in excellent form
cookies – biscuits

Exercise 18

Distribute these words and word combinations into two columns: those pertaining to British English and those pertaining to American English.

1. airplane - aeroplane
2. block of flats - apartment house/building
3. dialing code - area code
4. baby carriage - pram, perambulator
5. cashpoint - ATM (automated teller machine)
6. backpack/backbag - rucksack
7. baked potato - jacket potato (cooked without removing the skin)
8. ring road, circular road (a road circling a city) - belt way
9. braid - plait (hair style)
10. bus - coach (for journey between towns, single decker; bus = double-decker)
11. engaged tone - busy signal
12. sweet - candy
13. carriage (railway) - car (railway)
14. carousel - merry-go-round
15. trolley (shopping), cart
16. cell phone - mobile phone
17. checkers - draughts (board game)
18. current account (banking) - checking account
19. reverse charge call (telephone) - collect call
20. condominium, condo (individually owned) - block of flats
21. biscuit - cookie
22. sweet corn, maize - corn
23. town centre - downtown
24. driver's license - driving licence
25. drug store - pharmacy, chemists
26. elevator - lift
27. rubber - eraser
28. autumn - fall
29. rubbish - garbage, trash
30. garbage can - dust bin
31. ground meat - minced meat
32. crossroads - intersection
33. socket /connector for phone/ - jack
34. kindergarten - nursery
35. surname - last name
36. liquor - spirits (whisky, brandy, vodka)
37. lost and found - lost property
38. semi skimmed milk - low fat milk
39. trousers - pants
40. parking lot - car park
41. penitentiary - prison
42. state school - public school

Exercise 19

Study the following diagnostics of the regional varieties of American English. Be prepared to speak about Eastern New England, Middle Atlantic, Southern, North Central and Southern Mountain varieties.

REGIONAL DIALECTS OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

1. Eastern New England

- (1) **non-rhotic: *car, cart* have no [r]**
- (2) when *r* is not pronounced, it is often replaced by schwa: [kaə], [foə] *car, four* or long vowel [ka:], [fo:]. Note: length marked by:
- (3) linking-r
- (4) intrusive-r
- (5) *orange, etc.* with [ɑ]
- (6) **front [a] rather than [ɑ] in words in which r is not pronounced** (also some other words such as *bath*)
- (7) *tune, due, new* with [j], but this is not consistent
- (8) occasionally [hw]

2. Middle Atlantic

- (1) rhotic (consistently, unlike NYC)
- (2) ***orange, etc.* with [ɑ]**

3. Southern

- (1) **non-rhotic**
- (2) when *r* is not pronounced, it is often replaced by schwa or the vowel is lengthened:
four [foə],[fo:],[fɔ:]
- (3) linking-r, but rather rarely
- (4) intrusive-r, but rarely
- (5) *orange, etc.* with [ɑ]
- (6) *tune, due, new* with [j]
- (7) diphthongization of monophthongs, *can't* [keɪnt]
- (8) and the reverse: monophthongization of diphthongs, *mile* [ma:l]. Note: monophthongization before [r] is not a diagnostic as, depending on the style of speech, *our*, etc. can be pronounced either [avr] or [[ar] in most dialects of English.
- (9) **word-finally [ɪ] rather than [i]**
- (10) sometimes [hw]
- (11) before a nasal consonant [ɛ] and [ɪ] are pronounced the same: as a nasalized [ɪ],
pen = *pin* [pɪn]

(12) the words *greasy* and *grease* are pronounced with [z] rather than [s]

4. North Central

(1) rhotic

(2) [ɛ] instead of [æ] before r, [mɛri] *marry*. So, in this dialect *marry* = *merry* = *Mary*.

(3) [hw] is frequent but limited to the older generation

(4) Canadian [ɜv] for [av], but only in the areas bordering on Canada, *mouse* [mɜvʊs]

(5) often [ar] rather than [ɑr], *car* [kar]

(6) Iowa and further West: [ɑ] rather than [ɔ] in words such as *caught*, that is, *caught* = *cot*. The vowel [ɔ] is thus restricted to the context of [r], as *in pour*. Note: some speakers make a distinction between *cot* [ɑ] and *caught* [ɔ]. The vowel [ɔ] is like [ɑ] but it has slight lip rounding. Since the distinction is so small, it is very difficult to hear the difference between [ɑ] and [ɔ]

5. Southern Mountain

(1) rhotic

(2) diphthongization of monophthongs, *can't* [keɪnt]

(3) and the reverse: monophthongization of diphthongs, *mile* [ma:l]

(4) word-finally [ɪ] rather than [i]

(5) sometimes centralization of round vowels: [ou]

(6) the words *greasy* and *grease* are pronounced with [z] rather than [s].

Exercise 20

Study carefully the diagnostic characteristic of RP from this scheme and prepare to speak about diagnostic characteristic of GenAm.

1. Non-rhotic, that is, no postvocalic-r (as in ENE, NYC and Southern)
car /ka:/, cart /ka:t/
2. Back /ɑ:/ and not /a:/, i.e. unlike ENE (examples above)
3. Development of /ə/ before r (no matter whether the letter r is pronounced or not):
/ɪə/, /və/, /aɪə/

Compare:

example	RP	American (most dialects)
hear	hiə	hir
hearing	hiəriŋ	hirɪŋ
tour	tʊə	tʊr
fire	faɪə	faɪr

4. The use of /ɒ/ in words spelled with o where most American dialects have /ɑ/

Compare:

example	RP	American
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pot

pɒt

pɑt

5. /j/ in *tune, due, new* type of words:
/tʃun/, /dʒu/, /nju/

6. /ɑ:/ where American has /æ/

Compare:

example

RP

American

pass

pɑ:s

pæs

Master Card

mɑ:stə kɑ:d

mæstər kɑrd

can't

kɑ:nt

kænt or kæt (the /æ/ is nasalized;
the /n/ isn't pronounced)

7. The American diphthong /ou/ is represented as /ɜʊ/

Compare:

example

RP

American

go

gɜʊ

gou

note

nɜʊt

nout

8. /ɔ:/ where American has /ɑ/ or /ɔ/

Compare:

example

RP

American

caught

kɔ:t

kɑt or kɔt (or some intermediate vowel)

water

wɔ:tə

wɑtər or wɔtər (or some intermediate
vowel)

NOTE: RP does not have the flap /r/.

9. The distinction between the stressed schwa /ʌ/ and the unstressed schwa /ə/

Compare:

example

RP

American

cup

kʌp

kəp

hurry

hʌrɪ

həri

banana

bənɑ:nə

bənəɲə note: means nasalization

NOTE: RP has final /ɪ/, like Southern, and not /i/. Also, RP has no nasalization of vowels before nasal consonants, but that's a little detail.

10. /e/ for American /ɛ/

Compare:

example

RP

American

bet

bet

bɛt

ten

ten

tɛn (the vowel is nasalized)

Exercise 21

Study the sample sentence as pronounced in different regional varieties. Single out the diagnostic phonetic features of these regional varieties.

1. Eastern New England

/ wən hərəd reɪni deɪ / ræðə leɪt ɪn febjueəri / wi stɑ:tɪd səvθ /

2. Middle Atlantic

/ wən hərəd reɪni deɪ / ræðər leɪt ɪn februəri / wi stɑ:təd səvθ /

3. Southern

/ wən hərəd reɪni deɪ / ræðə leɪt ɪn febjueəri / wi stɑ:rɪd səvθ /

4. North Central

/ wən hərəd reɪni deɪ / ræðər leɪt ɪn febjueəri / wi stɑ:təd səvθ /

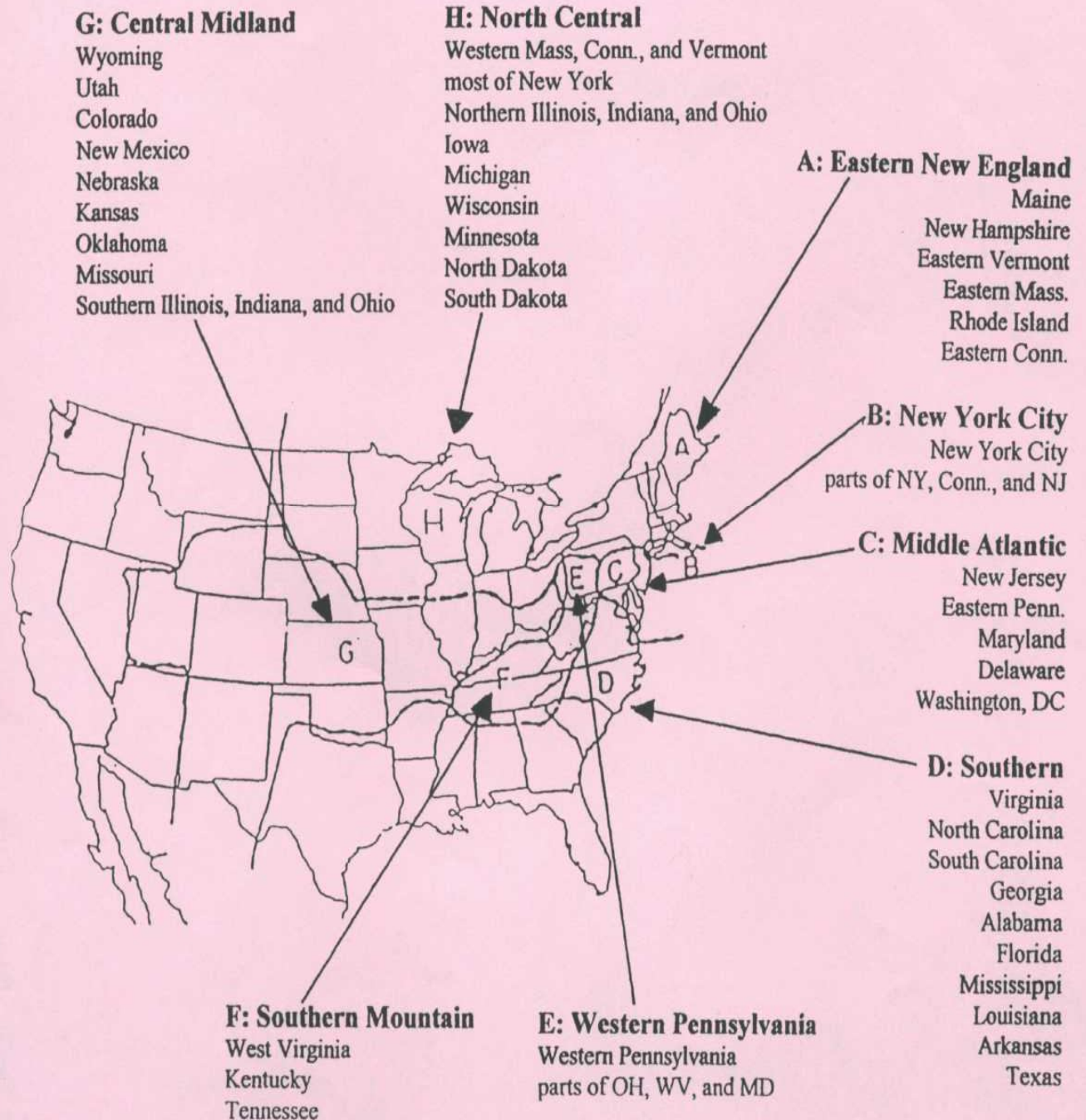
5. Southern Mountain

/ wən hərəd reɪni deɪ / ræðər leɪt ɪn febjueəri / wi stɑ:təd səvθ /

6. RP (Received Pronunciation, British English)

/ wʌn hɒrɪd deɪ / rɑ:ðə leɪt ɪn febrʊəri / wi stɑ:tɪd səvθ /

REGIONAL DIALECT AREAS



PART 3

Recommended Literature for the American English Course

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List of Abbreviations

1. AmE – American English
2. BrE – British English
3. GenAm – General American
4. RP – Received Pronunciation

Glossary

Leveling. The reduction of distinct forms within a grammatical paradigm, as in the use of *was* with all subject persons and numbers for past tense *be*

(e.g. *I/you/(s)he/we/you/they was*).

Canadian raising. The raising of the nucleus of the /aɪ/ and /aʊ/ diphthongs to /ə/, as in /rəɪt/ for *right* or /əʊt/ for *out*.

Creole language. A special contact language in which the primary vocabulary of one language is superimposed upon a specially adapted, somewhat restricted grammatical structure; this language system may be used as a native language.

Cultural difference theory. An approach to language and gender that views differences in men's and women's speech as a function of differential socio-cultural experiences by men and women.

Deficit theory. With reference to language and gender studies, the theory that considers female language traits as deficient versions of male language.

Dialect. A variety of the language associated with a particular regional or social group.

Dialect awareness programs. Activities conducted by linguists and community members that are intended to promote an understanding of and appreciation for language variation.

Dominance theory. With respect to language and gender, the consideration of male-female language differences as the result of power differences between men and women.

Double modal. The co-occurrence of two or even three modal forms within a single verb phrase, as in *They might could do it* or *They might oughta should do it*.

Flap. A sound made by rapidly tapping the tip of the tongue to the alveolar ridge, as in the usual American English pronunciation of t in *Betty* /bedi/ or d in *ladder* /lædɔ̃/.

Formal Standard English. The variety of English prescribed as the standard by language authorities; found primarily in written language and the most formal spoken language (e.g. spoken language which is based on a written form of the language).

- Gender.** The complex of social, cultural and psychological factors that surround sex; contrasted with sex as biological attribute.
- Generic *he*.** The use of the masculine pronoun *he* for referents which can be either male or female; for example, *If a student wants to pass the course, he should study*. The noun *man* historically has also been used as a generic, as in *Man shall not live by bread alone*.
- Hypercorrection.** The extension of a language form beyond its regular linguistic boundaries when a speaker feels a need to use extremely standard or “correct” forms.
- Informal Standard English.** The spoken variety of English considered socially acceptable in mainstream contexts; typically characterized by the absence of socially stigmatized linguistic structures.
- Multiple negation.** The marking of negation at more than one point in a sentence (e.g. They didn’t do nothing about nobody.). Also called **double negation, negative concord**.
- Network Standard.** A variety of English relatively free of marked regional characteristics; the ideal norm aimed for by national radio and television network announcers.
- Nonstandard.** With reference to language forms, socially stigmatized through association with socially disfavoured groups.
- Nonstandard dialect.** A socially disfavoured dialect of a language.
- Pidgin language.** A language used primarily as a trade language among speakers of different languages; has no native speakers. The vocabulary of a pidgin language is taken primarily from a superordinate language, and the grammar is drastically reduced.
- Prescriptive standard English.** The variety deemed standard by grammar books and other recognized language “authorities”.
- Regional standard English.** A variety considered to be standard for a given regional area; for example, the Eastern New England standard or the Southern standard.
- Schwa.** A mid central vowel symbolized as /ə/; for example, the first vowel in *appear* /ə`pir/. Generally occurs in unstressed syllables in English.

Socially prestigious. Socially favoured; with respect to language forms or patterns, items associated with high-status groups.

Socially stigmatized. Socially disfavoured, as in a language form or pattern associated with low-status groups (e.g. *He didn't do nothing to nobody*).

Standard American English. A widely socially accepted variety of English that is held to be the linguistic norm and that is relatively unmarked with respect to regional characteristics of English.

Superstandard English. Forms or styles of speech which are more standard than called for in everyday conversation (*It is I who shall write this*).

Superstrate. A language spoken by a dominant group which influences the structure of the language of a subordinate group of speakers. Often used to refer to the dominant language upon which a creole language is based.