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**Порівняльна характеристика
варіантів
англійської мови**

*Методичний посібник
для студентів вузу*

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Посібник містить теоретичний матеріал, навчальні тексти, лексичні, граматичні та фонетичні вправи, а також додатки, які складаються з лексичних таблиць порівняльного характеру та добірки американських ідіом. Призначений для студентів I курсу факультету іноземної філології денної та дистанційної форм навчання.

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ПОЯСНЮВАЛЬНА ЗАПИСКА

Даний посібник призначений для студентів 1 курсу факультету іноземної філології денної та дистанційної форм навчання. Посібник допоможе студентам опанувати дисципліною “Порівняльна характеристика варіантів англійської мови”, яка за кредитно-модульною системою відноситься до уніфікованого блоку змістовних модулів вибіркового циклу.

Посібник містить теоретичний матеріал, навчальні тексти, лексичні, граматичні та фонетичні вправи, а також додатки, які вміщують лексичні таблиці порівняльного характеру та добірку американських ідіом.

Методичний посібник складений з урахуванням основних положень “Конвенції про визнання кваліфікацій з вищої освіти в Європейському регіоні” (Лісабон, 11 квітня 1997р.).

Були також враховані положення декларації “Формування майбутнього” (29-30 березня 2001 року, м.Саламанка) про те, що Європейські вищі навчальні заклади знову підтверджують свою підтримку принципів Болонської декларації і свої зобов’язання зі створення до кінця десятиліття Зони європейської вищої освіти. Так, РДГУ бачить у заснуванні в Саламанці Асоціації європейських університетів (EUA) як символічне, так і практичне значення для більш ефективного донесення свого голосу урядам і суспільству і, тим самим, для підтримки формування свого майбутнього в Зоні європейської вищої освіти. Складаючи методичний посібник, ми прийняли до уваги принципи, сформульовані в даній декларації, а саме:

– автономія з відповідальністю. Розвиток потребує, щоб у європейських університетів була можливість діяти відповідно до керівного принципу автономії у поєднанні з відповідальністю. Як автономні і відповідальні юридичні, освітні й соціальні об’єкти, вони підтверджують свою прихильність принципам *Magna Charta Universitatum* 1988 року і, зокрема, академічній свободі. Тому університети повинні мати право формувати свою стратегію, вибирати свої пріоритети в навчанні й впровадженні наукових досліджень, витрачати свої ресурси, профілювати свої програми й встановлювати свої критерії для прийому професорів і студентів. Європейські вищі навчальні заклади готові до конкуренції вдома, у Європі й у світі, але для цього вони мають потребу в необхідній організаційній свободі,

ясних і доброзичливих рамках регулювання й достатньому фінансуванні. За протилежного випадку вони не будуть мати можливості співробітничати й змагатися. Плани завершення створення Зони європейської вищої освіти залишаться невиконаними або призведуть до нерівної конкуренції, якщо в багатьох країнах будуть здійснюватися безпосереднє регулювання, детальний адміністративний і фінансовий контроль стосовно вищої освіти;

– вища освіта, заснована на наукових дослідженнях. Оскільки наукові дослідження є рушійною силою вищої освіти, то й створення Зони європейської вищої освіти має відбуватися одночасно й паралельно зі створенням Зони європейських наукових досліджень.

1. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN AMERICA. AMERICANISMS

The English language was brought to the Northern America by immigrants which were persecuted in England. That was a group of English Puritans sailed from Plymouth in 1620, in a ship called "Mayflower".

Later the main part of the immigrants were poor peasants from England, Scotland and Ireland. At the end of the 17-th century the colonists started bringing convicts from the prisons of Europe as labour, and also Negroes from Africa as slaves.

The population of the USA developed rapidly. Before the Civil War of 1861 more than 1,5 mln. of Irish immigrants and more than 1 mln. German immigrants arrived to the country.

At the end of the 19-th century the immigrants were mostly the Italians, the Serbians, the Poles, the Ukrainians from Western Ukraine, and the Jews. Before the World War I nearly 1 mln. People arrived to the country every year.

As we can see the USA is a multinational state and English is its state language. But do Americans speak English or American? In one of his stories Oscar Wilde said that the English "have really everything in common with America nowadays, except, of course, language".

Bernard Shaw, on the contrary, seemed to hold a different opinion on the point, but he expressed it in such an ambiguous way that, if one gives it some thought, the idea is rather the same as that of Wilde. Show said that America and England are two great nations separated by the same language.

Of course, both these statements were meant as jokes, but the insistence on a certain difference of the language used in the USA to the language spoken in England is emphasized quite seriously.

Viewed linguistically, the problem may be put in this way: do the English and Americans speak the same language or two different languages? Do the United States of America possess their own language?

The hypothesis of the so-called "American language" has had several champions and supporters, especially in the USA (H.L. Mencken. *The American Language*. – N.-Y., 1957).

Yet, there are also other points of view. There are scholars who regard American English as one of the dialects of the English language. This theory can hardly be accepted because a dialect is usually opposed to the literary variety of the language whereas American English possesses a literary variety of its own. Other scholars label American English "a regional variety" of the English language.

Before accepting this point of view, though, it is necessary to find out whether or not American English, in its modern stage of development, possesses those characteristics which would support its status as an independent language.

In the 17-th century the New Englanders in the North, as well as the Virginians in the South, spoke the language of Shakespeare and Milton. It was the London dialect which in the 16-th century in Britain was the model language for cultured Englishmen and was accepted as standard English. But in America standard English suffered a change: the Puritan communities in the North differed in character from Virginia. This distinction led to the development of various American dialects. In the search for immediate means of expression for new experiences and occupations, the language of Americans in each locality branched away from the standard British English. We must also remember that during the 17-th century there was practically little contact between the colonies. By the end of the 18-th century there were sixteen dialects in America.

Americanisms. The new words and combinations of words that have appeared in American English and have not been accepted in Britain are called “Americanisms”. There are three types of Americanisms:

1. The names of plants and animals which were unfamiliar to the immigrants, and they either borrowed the Indian names or invented names of their own. Some of the English inventions are: *bull-frog*, a very large species of frog which makes a noise like the bellowing of a bull; *canvas-back*, a duck with grey-and-white mottled back feathers; *live-oak*, an evergreen tree; such combinations as *frontiersman* came in, and *frontier-country*, which meant lands seized from the Indians but not yet fully conquered; *back-country*, lands far from the Indians. Later it was used for lands far from centers.

Among the borrowed Indians words we find *moose*, the North-American elk; *raccoon*, the North-American small carnivorous animal with a bushy tail and grayish-brown fur; *possum* (from opossum), a small animal with dark grey fur and long tail capable of grasping things. Many other words came in as the pioneers gained familiarity with Indian life: *pone*, a cake made of maize flour; *moccasins*, deerskin shoes; *squaw*, Indian woman; *tomahawk*, a weapon that looks like an axe.

2. Archaisms. These are words and combinations of words that were out of use in England in the 18-th century but have survived in America. Some of the archaisms are: *I guess* instead of “I suppose”; *clear* – good; *fall* – autumn; *flap jack* – a small flat cake; etc. Some archaic forms of

verbs are still used in the United States, such as the past participle of “get” – *gotten* instead of “got”; *stricken* instead of “struck”. An archaic feature of the American pronunciation is the sound [æ] instead of [a:] in such words as : glass, class, dance, etc.

3. Words made up by Negro slaves and words borrowed from European languages other than English.

Every year new immigrants came to America. The non- English settlers introduced words from Dutch, such as: *boss*, *cookie*, *Yankee*; from the French: *prairie*, *bureau*; many words came in from German and Spanish, the latter words were widely used in the south- west of North America.

A decisive step towards the development of single national language was the formation of the United States as the result of the American Revolution (1775-1783). But so many European languages went into the melting-pot that in the first decade of the 19-th century some American literary men noticed that American English was becoming almost unintelligible to the average Englishmen. Moreover new words connected with the administration of the country had been introduced, such as *congress*, *senate*, *president* and others, which were used in America alone. What worried the philologists was that a great number of simple English words began to have a different meaning in America and were misleading. Thus the word *corn* did not mean grain but maize; *lumber* meant timber; *rock* – any kind of stone; *sick* meant to be ill; *baggage* – luggage; *dress* – frock; *store* –shop; *druggist* –chemist; *buffalo* – bison; etc. Attempts were made to “purify” the language but life was changing so rapidly that this proved impossible. Instead there appeared a new and vigorous American slang. The words were bold and lawless and they even penetrated into Britain over the Atlantic. In 1828 Noah Webster a progressive-minded man, published an “American Dictionary of the English Language” into which he introduced all the new words and phrases that reflected life in America.

After the American Civil War of 1861-1865, the abolition of slavery and the unification of the country, literary norms for the English language of the nation began to established. America’s writers refused to accept British blindly: Fenimore Cooper, Walt Whitman, Mark Twain, O.Henry and Jack London used the vivid language of the people. America now has its norms of pronunciation, spelling and syntax; and the language of the United States is called the American variant of the English language.

Questions and Tasks:

1. Enlarge on the conditions that led to the formation of the population of the USA.
2. In what different ways might the language spoken in the USA be viewed linguistically?
3. Can we say that the history of the country supports the hypothesis that there is an “American language”? Give a detailed answer.
4. What changes suffer standard English in America in the 17-th century?
5. Mention the three types of Americanisms that sprang up on the new continent, and add other examples to those already given .
6. Why did the writers in America consider classical British English unsuitable for their writings?
7. Give the British equivalents for the following Americanisms:
Apartment, store, baggage, street car, full, truck, elevator ,candy, corn, pants, toilet, vanity table, Mom, gasoline, duplex, floor lamp, dishwashing liquid.
8. Translate the following words giving both the British and American variant:
Канікули, осінь, радіо, трамвай, консервна банка, тротуар, домогосподарка, пошта, метро, багатоквартирний будинок.

2. VOCABULARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

It is quite true that the vocabulary used by American speakers, has distinctive features of its own. More than that: there are whole groups of words, so called Americanisms, which belong to American vocabulary exclusively and constitute its specific feature.

The first group of such words may be described as *historical Americanisms*. It was then when English was first spoken on American soil, and it is but natural that it was spoken in its 17-th century form. For instance, the noun *fall* was still used by the first migrants in its old meaning “autumn”, the verb to *guess* in the old meaning “to think”, etc. In American usage this words still retain their old meaning whereas in British English their meanings have changed.

These and similar words, though the Americans and the English use them in different meanings, are nevertheless found both in American and in British vocabularies.

The second group of Americanisms includes words which one is not likely to discover in British vocabulary. They are specifically American, and we shall therefore call them *proper Americanisms*. The oldest of these were formed by the first migrants to the American continent and reflected, to a great extent, their attempts to cope with their new environment.

It should be remembered that America was called “The New World” not only because the migrants severed all connections with their old life. America was for them a truly new world in which everything was strikingly and bewilderingly different from what it has been in the Old Country (as they called England) : the landscape, climate, trees and plants, birds and animals.

Therefore, from the very first, they were faced with the serious lack of words in their vocabulary with which to describe all these new and strange things. Gradually such words were formed. Here are some of them:

- backwoods* – wooded, uninhabited district ;
- cold snap* – a sudden frost ;
- blue grass* – a sort of grass peculiar to North America ;
- blue – jack* – a small American oak ;
- egg-plant* – a plant with edible fruit ;
- sweet potato* – a plant with sweet edible roots ;
- redbud* – an American tree having small budlike pink flowers, the state tree of Oklahoma;
- red cedar* – an American coniferous tree with reddish fragrant wood;
- cat-bird* – a small North-American bird whose call resembles the mewling of a cat ;
- cat-fish* – called so because of spines likened to a cat’s claws;
- bull-frog* – a huge frog producing sounds not unlike a bull’s roar;
- sun-fish* – a fish with a round flat golden body.

If we consider all these words from the point of view of the “building materials” of which they are made we shall see that these are all familiarly English, even though the words themselves cannot be found in the vocabulary of British English. Yet, both the word-building pattern of composition and the constituents of these compounds are easily recognized as essentially English.

Later proper Americanisms are represented by names of objects which are called differently in the USA and in England. For instance:

the British

chemist's
 sweets
 luggage
 underground
 lift
 railway
 carriage
 car
 spectacles
 shop assistant
 full stop
 holiday

the American

drug store or druggist's
 candy
 baggage
 subway
 elevator
 railroad
 car
 automobile
 reading glasses
 salesclerk
 period
 vacation

If historical Americanisms have retained their 17-th century meaning (e.g. fall, n., mad, adj., sick, adj.), there are also words which, though they can be found both in English and in American vocabulary, have developed meanings characteristic of American usage. The noun *date* is used both in British and American English in the meaning “the time of some event”; “the day of the week or month”; “the year”. On the basis of these meanings, in American English only, another meaning developed: an appointment for a particular time (transference based on contiguity: the day and time of an appointment) appointment itself.

American vocabulary is rich in borrowings. The principal groups of borrowed words are the same as for English vocabulary. Yet, there are groups of specifically American borrowings which reflect the historical contacts of the Americans with the other nations on the American continent. For instance:

Spanish borrowings: *ranch, sombrero, canyon, cinch*;

Negro borrowings: *banjo*,

Indian borrowings: *wigwam, squaw, canoe, moccasin, toboggan, caribou, tomahawk*.

There are also some translation-loans of Indian origin: *pale-face* (the name of the Indians for all white people), *war path, war paint, pipe of peace, fire water*

These words are used metaphorically in both American and British modern communication. A woman who is too heavily made up may be said to wear *war paint*, and a person may be warned against an enemy by: *Take care: he is on the war path* (i. e. he has hostile intentions).

Many of the names of places, rivers, lakes, even of states, are of Indian origin, and hold, in their very sound, faint echoes of the distant past of the continent. Such names as, for instance, *Ohio* [əu haɪəu], *Michigan* [mɪdʒɪqən], *Tennessee* [tene si], *Illinois* [ili noi(s)], *Kentucky* [ken taki] sound exotic and romantik. These words seem to have retained in their sound the free wind blowing over the prairie or across the great lakes, the smokes rising over wigwams, the soft speech of dark-skinned people.

One more group of Americanisms is represented by American shortenings. It should be immediately pointed out that there is nothing specifically American about shortening as a way of world-building. It is a productive way of words-building typical of both British and American English. Yet, this type of word structure seems to be especially characteristic for American word-building. The following shortenings were produced on American soil, yet most of them are used both in American English and British English: *movies*, *talkies*, *auto*, *gym*, (gymnasium), *dorm* (dormitory), *perm* (permanent wave, ‘kind of hairdo’), *mo* (moment, e.g. *Just a mo*), *circs* (circumstances, e.g. *under the circs*), *cert* (certainty, e.g. *That’s a cert*), *n.g.* (no good), *b.f.* (boy-friend), *g.m.* (grandmother), *okay*. (All these words represent informal stylistic strata of the vocabulary.)

More examples could be given in support of the statement that the vocabulary of American English includes certain groups of words that are specifically American and possesses certain distinctive characteristics. Yet, in all its essential features, it is the same vocabulary as that of British English, and, if we made use of the terms “the vocabulary of British English” and “the vocabulary of American English”, it was done only for the sake of argument. Actually, they are not two vocabularies but one. To begin with, the basic vocabulary, whose role in communication is of utmost importance, is the same in American and British English, with very few exceptions.

On the other hand, many Americanisms belong to colloquialisms and slang, that is to those shifting, changeable strata of the vocabulary which do not represent its stable or permanent bulk, the latter being the same in American and British speech.

Questions and tasks:

- 1) What distinctive features of its own has the vocabulary used by American speakers ?
 - a) historical and proper Americanisms;

- b) borrowings and shortenings.
- 2) Can we say that the vocabulary of the language spoken in the USA supports the hypothesis that there is an “American language”? Give a detailed answer.
 - 3) Explain the differences in the meanings of following words in American and British English:
corn, apartment, homely, guess, lunch.
 - 4) Identify the etymology of the following words :
ohio, ranch, squash, mosquito, banjo, toboggan, pickaninny, Mississippi, sombrero, prairie, wigwam.
 - 5) Comment on the formation of the following words :
rattlesnake, foxberry, auto, Americanism, Colonist, addressee, ad, copperhead, pip of peace, fire-water.
 - 6) Write the full forms of the following American shortenings and give their British synonyms: *gym, mo, circs, auto, perm, cert, n.g., b.f., g.m., dorm, cause.*

3. SOME AMERICAN DIALECTS

Standard English is defined by the Random House Dictionary as the English language as it is written and spoken by literate people in both formal and informal usage and that is universally current while incorporating regional differences.

American philologists define a dialect as a form of a language distinguished from the standard or literary language by pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary, which prevails in district. So dialects are regional forms of English. The United States is a large country and it has many dialects which have their distinctive features. Here are some of them:

1. *The dialects peculiar to the inhabitants of Midland:*

armload	в'язанка, охапок дрів
blinds	віконні фіранки
buck	баран
coal oil	гас
fishworm	дощовий червяк
a little piece	невелика відстань
side meat	солонина
skillet	сковорідка

2. *The dialects peculiar to the inhabitants of the South:*
- | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------|
| bottoms | земля издовж річки |
| clabber cheese | домашній сир |
| corn pone | великий корж |
| dog irons | підставка для дрів у камині |
| roasting ears | молода кукурудза |
| slop | помії |
3. *The dialects of the inhabitants of the Southern Mountains:*
- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------|
| fork | струмок, потічок |
| hobbies | кукурудзяні пластівці |
| coffee sack | полотняна торба |
| big room | вітальня |
| galloping fence | суцільна огорожа |
| rick | копиця сіна |
| johnnycake | кукурудзяний корж |
4. *The dialects peculiar to the inhabitants of the North (except Alaska):*
- | | |
|------------|------------------------------|
| baby buggy | дитячий візок |
| belling | шум, гамір, веселощі |
| boughten | щось куплене не домашнє |
| lamp oil | гас |
| run | струмок |
| sawbuck | перекладина для пиляння дрів |
| whinny | іржання голодних коней. |

As you can see, given examples reflect the language of mainly the inhabitants of the villages from the different geographical parts of the country. It is necessary to notice that in the USA the process of the language's urbanization takes place, the inhabitants concentrate mainly in the towns and cities, where the dialects are vanishing. Thus, the dialectal peculiarities of American English have social and geographical basis. The district varieties of language diverge from the British standard differently, but none of them follow the British standard. Even in the literary language of the Atlantic coast, which was first inhabited by migrants from England, London dialect wasn't kept.

Questions and Tasks:

- 1) What are the main features of dialect words?
- 2) Find the corresponding standard words where it is possible to the words from your list.
- 3) Make up 6 sentences with the words from your list.
- 4) Make up a dialogue using dialects from you list.
 - a) in the first dialogue Nick has come to visit his Granny, who lives somewhere in the Midland.
 - b) in the second dialogue two boys from the Southern mountains are going on fishing. They are discussing where to go and what food-stuffs to take.
- 5) Find 6 sentences with dialects in your book for individual reading.

4. THE GRAMMAR SYSTEM OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

Here we are likely to find even fewer divergencies than in vocabulary system.

The first distinctive feature is the use of the auxiliary verb *will* in the first person singular and plural of the Future Indefinite Tense, in contrast to the British normative *shall*. The American "*I will go there*" does not imply modality, as in similar British utterance (where it will mean "*I am willing to go there*"), but pure futurity. The British-English Future Indefinite shows the same tendency of substituting "*will*" for "*shall*" in the first person singular and plural.

The second distinctive feature consists in a tendency to substitute the Past Indefinite Tense for the Present Perfect Tense, especially in oral communication. An American is likely to say "*I saw this movie*" where an Englishman will probably say "*I've seen this film*" though, with the mutual penetration on both varieties, it is sometimes difficult to predict what Americanisms one is likely to hear on the British Isles. Even more so with the substitution of the Past Indefinite for the Present Perfect which is also rather typical of some English dialects.

Just as American usage has retained the old meanings of some English words (*fall, guess, sick*), it has also retained the old form of the Past Participle of the verb 'to get': *to get – got – gotten* (cf. the British "got").

That is practically the whole store as far as divergencies in grammar of American English and British English are concerned.

The grammatical system of both varieties is actually the same, with very few exceptions.

Questions and Tasks:

1. What are the grammatical peculiarities of the American variety of English?
 - a) the peculiarity of the usage of the auxiliary verb “will (shall)”;
 - b) the peculiarity of the usage of the Past Indefinite and the Present Perfect;
 - c) the peculiarity of formation of the Past Participle of some verbs.
2. Read the following passage. Give some more examples illustrating the differences in grammar between the two varieties of English.

Q: I thought Americans always said *gotten* when they used the verb *get* as a full verb. But you did say “*I’ve got your point*”, didn’t you?

M: Yes, I did. You know it’s a common English belief – almost a superstition – about American usage, but it does turn out on examination, as many other things do, that we are closer together than appear on the surface. Actually, we, Americans, use *gotten* only when our meaning is “to acquire” or “to obtain”. *We’ve gotten a new car since you were here last*. Now, when we use *get* to mean “possess” or “to be obliged to” we have exactly the same forms as you do. *I’ve got a pen in my pocket. I’ve got to write a letter*.

5. PHONETIC PECULIARITIES OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

Nowadays in the USA there are three basic norms of pronunciation: general American (GA), eastern American (EA), and southern American (SA).

We shall consider those their characteristic features distinguished from the British English which may complicate understanding of speech of inhabitants of the USA.

1) General American Norm of the Pronunciation. Pronunciation of Vowels

Letter A

1. Practically in all positions in the closed stressed syllable is pronounced as a sound [æ]. It concerns also such words as *last, ask, aunt, half* where in the British variant the sound [a:] is observed. The sound [æ] according to the general American norm is more front and long, than its analogue in the British English.
2. Before [d], [m] and [n] the phoneme becomes nasal, for example, *bad, ram, man*.
3. Before combinations of letters -rr + vowel instead of [æ], the sound [e] is pronounced, for example, in the words *carry, narrow, parrot*.
4. In such words as *calm, palm* (before -lm) and in the word *father* the sound [a:] is more shorter, than in the same words of the British English.
5. In an open stressed syllable before the voiceless consonants it is pronounced as the sound [e]: *late, mate*.

Letter O

In the closed stressed syllable, for example: *pot, lot, not*, instead of British [o], the sound [a] is pronounced in the American variant.

Letter U

1. In closed, even stressed syllable in very many cases the sound [ʌ] is close to the sound [o], for example, *bus, cut*.
2. In the combinations of letters -urr + vowel instead of [ʌ] or [ɜ:] the sound [ɜ] is pronounced, for example, *furrow, hurry, current*.
3. Especially it is necessary to point out the loss of [j] after d, n, s, t, for example, in such words, as *duty, nude, suit, student*.

Letter E

1. Under an accent er + consonant in such words as *clerk, derby* is not pronounced as the sound [a:], but as the sound [ɜ], which is closer to Ukrainian [e].
2. Before [k], [p], [t] (*bet, let*) the sound may be longer and change its quality. Such words as *new, news* are usually pronounced as [nu].

Letter **I**

1. The characteristic difference of the pronunciation of this letter is the occurrence of [j] (Ukrainian equivalent of [й]) in the endings -ia, for example, California, Pennsylvania, Virginia.
2. According to the GA norm of a pronunciation all vowels in a position near to [m] and [n] become nasal: *America, innovation*.

2) The Pronunciation of Consonants

Letter **D**

In the words with -ld, -nd, -nds, for example, *cold, kind, kinds*, the Americans may omit the sound [d] in speech.

Letter **H**

The letter is seldom pronounced in the combinations of letters *hu* (*huge, human*), in forms of a verb *to have*, and also in pronouns *he, him, his, her*.

Letter **K**

It may not be pronounced in a latter-combination *-sk*, for example *ask*

Letter **L**

According to the general American norm of pronunciation it is not palatalized and is pronounced always firmly. Before r, u, w, the sound [l] may be omitted, for example, *all right, volume, always*.

Letter **R**

This is one of the main phonetic differences of British English and GA norm of pronunciation.

American [r] is pronounced with more intension and the voice is involved in its articulation. Before vowels (*raid, rice*) the sound is pronounced by rounded off lips. The main difference, however, is that this letter is pronounced in all positions (*card, mother*).

Letter **S**

In combinations of letters -sion and -sia it is read as a sound [z], for example, *excursion, Asia*. At the end of the words after -sp, -sk (*wasps, tasks*) and also in a word *yes* the Americans may not pronounce this letter in general.

Letter **T**

May be pronounced: a) as a hardly heard sound [d] (*better*); b) made with the help of the tip of the tongue [t] (*Betty*); c) it may not be pronounced in general: *plenty, twenty, directly, mostly*; d) it may be "swallowed": *that one, mountain*.

Letter **W**

In such words as *where, what* a sound is pronounced with the participation of the voice.

3) The Pronunciation of Letter - combinations

In such words as *Monday, holiday, -day* is pronounced as [deɪ]; -oa before voiceless consonants (*boat, coat*) sounds as [o]; -ng often sounds as not nasal [ŋ] (*thing, strength*)

General American norm of pronunciation is a speech norm for the American TV and radio. More than 90 mln. inhabitants of the country use this norm of pronunciation.

4) The Eastern American Norm of Pronunciation

Features of speech of inhabitants from the eastern areas of the USA in many respects are determined by that historic fact, that the first immigrants, have begun to arrive from the Southern England in the XV century. At that time in the south of England the letter "r" before consonants and at the end of a syllable was not read. The basic stream of immigrants has taken place in the 17-18-th centuries when the pronunciation of [r] in all positions in mother country became the norm. These immigrants went further to the west, and at the eastern coast there were those who has got used to read this letter only before vowels.

Among other features of the southern- American pronunciation it is possible to distinguish the following:

- a) characteristic for the British English reading of such words as *ask, half, dance*, and also *not, hot, clock*.
- b) the pronunciation of the short sound [ʌ] in such words as *raw, horse, thought* etc.; the words with -ir, -urr have the same sound (*burry, first* [f st])
- c) the pronunciation of -oi, -oy, -(coin, joy) like [ai], and such words as *loud, now* are pronounced with the sound [eu];

d) reading in an open stressed syllable letters -i, -y like [ɜi]: *rice, tries, wife*.

The inhabitants of New England to the east of the river Connecticut use this speech norm.

5) The Southern American Norm of Pronunciation

The speech of the southern inhabitants is the most difficult for understanding. Here it is possible to meet very many differences both from the British English and from the general-American norms. Thus, there are completely opposite tendencies in the pronunciation.

On the one hand, in the southern- American speech, as well as in the British English at the end of the words and before a consonant (bar, card), the letter “r” is not pronounced. But there is no linking [r] in such word-combinations as *far away*. Moreover, the southerners do not read this letter even in such words as *very, Carolina*. On the other hand, on a joint of two vowels (*the idea of; China and*) the sound [r] can be heard frequently.

Very typically for the southern- American norms is the phenomenon of diphthongization:

a) appearance of the diphthong [ai] in such words as *ask, can't, lad, class, man, mess, lead, yes, bird, burn, lit, pit*;

b) appearance of the diphthong [ou] in such words as *on, want, cot, coffee*

c) In a word “good” before vowels [o] may sound;

At the same time [i] frequently is omitted in the diphthongs: *my, lie, fine, cake, make, oil, coil*.

Words *tire* and *tie* are pronounced [ta:], and a word and *fire-* [fa:]

It is necessary to note also:

a) the omitting of [l] before consonants: *twelve, film*; and [t], [d] at the end of the words: *left, next, old, kind*;

b) changing of interdental [θ] and [ð] into [t], [d].

The articulation of practically all sounds in the southern-American norm of pronunciation is very negligent. Such speech is characteristic for inhabitants of extensive territory from a southern part of Maryland up to the eastern areas of Texas. Such speech is used in Alabama, Arkansas, Virginia and the Western Virginia, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Maryland, Oklahoma, Northern and Southern Carolina, Tennessee, Texas and in Florida. Look at the table of different types of reading of letters according to the considered norms of a pronunciation.

Норма ВИМОВИ	A [ei]	O [ou]	E [i:]	I [ai], Y [wai]	U [ju]
GA EA SA	<i>late</i> [let] [leit] [let]	<i>pole</i> [poul] [poul] [poul]	<i>be</i> [bi:] [bi:] [bii]	<i>line, type</i> [lain taip] [lein teip] [lan tap]	<i>student</i> [student] [student] [studen]
GA EA SA	<i>last calm</i> [last kam] [la:st ka:m] [laist kaim]	<i>lot not</i> [lat nat] [lot not] [lou(t) nou(t)]	<i>ten, let, plenty</i> [ten let pleni] [ten let plenti] [tein leit plein(t)i]	<i>pit, myth</i> [pit mis] [pit mis] [pijt mijt]	<i>bus</i> [bes] [b^s] [b^s]
GA EA SA	<i>card</i> [ka:rd] [kad] ka:d]	<i>fork</i> [fo:rk] [fak] [fo:k]	<i>term, clerk</i> [term klerk] [t3:m kla:k] [t3:em kl3:k]	<i>firm, byrne</i> [ferm bern] [fam ban] [f3:jm b3:jn]	<i>curtain</i> [k3:rtn] [k3:tn] [k3:jtn]
GA EA SA	<i>Mary</i> [meri] [meri] [mez ri]	<i>more</i> [mo:r] [mo] mour]	<i>mere</i> [mir] [mia] [mija]	<i>tire, tyre</i> [tajr] [taja] [ta:]	<i>during</i> [d3urin] [djuriŋ] [d3uin]

Questions and Tasks:

- The General American Norm of Pronunciation.
 - pronunciation of vowels;
 - pronunciation of consonants and letter-combinations.
- The East-American norm of pronunciation.
- The South-American norm of pronunciation.
- Read the following extract and give more examples illustrating the Same group of Americanisms. What do we call this group?

M: Well, now, *homely* is a very good word to illustrate the Anglo-American misunderstanding. At any rate, many funny stories depend on it, like the one about the British lecturer visiting the USA; he faces his American audience and very innocently tells them how nice it is to see so many *homely* faces out in the audience.

Homely in Britain means, of course, something rather pleasant, but in American English “not very good looking”. This older sense is preserved in some English dialects.

- Read the following joke and find examples of words which are Characteristic of American English.

The Bishop of London, speaking at meeting recently, said that when he was in America he had learned to say to his chauffeur, “Step on the gas,

George”, but so far he had not summoned sufficient courage to say to the Archbishop of Canterbury, ”O.K., Chief.”

6. Spelling differences

One of the first linguists of the USA who offered to refuse to accept British spelling, was N.Webster. He wanted to simplify spelling of some English words. And though not all proposals were accepted, some of them have remained. It concerns, first of all, such words, as *defense* (instead of *defence*), *jail* (instead of *gaol*), *traveler* (instead of *traveller*), *plow* (instead of *plough*). Changes in spelling of the American English were directed, mainly, to simplification and referred to phonetic instead of historical bases.

The great part of words that have differences in spelling are Latin and French borrowings with ending - **our** without pointing out of the doer of action. A part of these words has lost a letter “u” in the use in British English still in Great Britain, for example: *ambassador*, *actor*, *emperor*, *governor* etc. The majority of words have kept this letter which in American English is not written, for example: *armor*, *clamor*, *endeavor*, *humor*, *labor*, *parlor*, *vapor* etc. Exception is formed by words *glamour* and *saviour*, moreover, *glamour* is used in the USA both with letter “u” and without it, but *saviour* -always with letter “u”. That is because -**our** here is a kind of suffix -**er** (-**or**), but not of the suffix -**or** (-**our**).

Simplification sometimes take place in the double use of letter “l” and in some combinations of vowels. Single “l” in American English have such words as *apparel*, *bevel*, *cancel*, *chisel*, *counsel*, *cudgel*, *dial*, *duel*, *equal*, *fuel*, *label*, *libel*, *model*, *panel*, *quarrel*, *rival*, *signal*, *snivel*, *spiral*, *stencil*, *symbol*, *total*, *travel*. Moreover, there are words which have both usage of “l”- double and single one: *distil* (*distil*), *install* (*install*).

In American English one letter is written also:

1) in the words of the Greek origin with the letter-combinations – **ae,-oe** which are used as medical terms: *anemia* (*anaemia*), *anesthetic* (*anaesthetic*), *diarrhea* (*diarrhoea*), *esophagus* (*aesophagus*), *fetus* (*foetus*), *hemoglobin* (*haemoglobin*);

2) in the words with combination of letters –**ou**. In these words letter “u” is omitted: *mold* (*mould*), *molder* (*moulder*), *molt* (*moult*), *smolder* (*smoulder*).

At last, the simplification takes place in the letter-combinations –**gue**, -**que**, borrowed from French *barque* (*Br*)- *bark* (*Am*), *cathalogue* (*Br*) – *catalog* (*Am*), *cheque* (*Br*) – *check* (*Am*), *gauge* (*Br*) – *gage* (*Am*).

The following feature of spelling is a change by places of letters, namely **-er (-re)**, that is sometimes seems the essential feature of American spelling. Thus it is necessary to mean, that it is not the general rule because the suffix **-er** in the English language has five meanings. Some English words especially borrowed from French, historically had the suffix **-re**. The suffix **-er**, on the contrary is of German origin and was added only to the English stems: *archer, miller*.

Part of words with final **-re** in the British standard, changer it into **-er** in the USA, for example: *cadaster, caliber, center, fiber, luster, somber, theater*.

Other part of words has a combination of letters **-re** after the letter “c”, which sounds like hard [k] in both languages. After the letter “g” which, is like “c”, may be hard and soft, **-re** may change into **-er**: *meager* (Am) - *meager* (Br). In both countries advantage is given to the form **-re** in words *cadre, macabre, mitre, timbre* (тембр, тон). The word *timber* with the meaning “деревинаб будівельний ліс” has the suffix **-er** in both countries. A word *meter* (*metre*) as a unit of measurements (Greek *metron*) and British compounds with this word, have the letter-combination of **-re**, for example: *centimeter, decimeter, millimeter*, etc. The form *meter* in the meaning “counter” has the suffix **-er** in both countries; it is kept also in the words *altimeter, barometer, gasometer, speedometer, voltmeter*. The word *theatre* has the suffix **-re** in the British standard, and the suffix **-er** – in American English; however in New York where there is a most part of the American theatres, the form *theatre* is used. The words *neuter* and *sober* are used with the suffix **-er** in both countries.

In special theories the idea about divergences of spelling of prefixes **-em, -en, -im, -in** is expressed: in Great Britain the advantage to prefixes **-em** and **-en**, and in the USA to **-im** and **-in** is given. Really some hundreds of words which are used with these prefixes, have no such changes and their spelling is kept in both countries though historically these prefixes changed the letter “e” into “i” almost in all words. Changing of the first vowel is observed in the verbs *empale, emplane, encrust, enfold, embed, empanel, encase, endue, engruf, engulf*, that have the same forms with the letter “I” almost in all words, and the use of these forms are typical for both languages.

Changing of the letter “s” into “z” is observed in the suffixes **-ise (-ize)**. The modern English suffix is of Old Greek origin (suffix **-izein**) which later, in vulgar Latin, has changed its form into **-izare**, and then in French – into **-iser**. English borrowed verbs with the suffix of all three languages, for

example: *ostracise*, *pulverize*, *moralise*. Except this, the suffix is used in connection with the English stems, for instance: *angicise*, *victorianise*, *londonise*. In the USA the suffix almost always has the form **-ize**. The exceptions are:

- 1) the words *chastise*, *exorcise* which have “s” in American English;
- 2) the form *advertise* prevails in both countries;
- 3) in the British standard the letter “z” prevails in the words *amortise*, *assize*, *recognize*, *cognize*, *gormandize*;
- 4) the verb *merchandize* sometimes in the USA has the letter “z”, the nouns have it very rare; the letter “s” is in the words: *addise*, *comprise*, *compromise*, *demise*, *despise*, *devise*, *disguise*, *enterprise*, *excise*, *franchise*, *improvise*, *revise*, *supervise*, *surmise*, *surprise*. In a small group of words of Greek origin with the suffix **-lyse** (from the Greek noun “**lysis**”), in the British standard the letter “s”, in the American English “z” is written.

A number of words do not change “c” into “s”. Often the words: *cleatance*, *obedience*, *patience*, *remittance* have “c” in both countries. The word *defense* (-se), *licence* (-se), *offence* (-se) in both languages have double forms but in the USA the forms *defence*, *licence*, *offense* prevails. Exception is the word *licence* as a noun, and *license* as a verb in the British standard.

At last it is necessary to mention about a small amount of words which historically have the suffix **-xion**, borrowed from the classic languages. In the British standard these words sometime have the letter “x”, for example *deflexion*, *inflexion*, *connexion* which in the American variant changes into “-ct”: *deflection*, *inflection*, *connection*.

Questions and Tasks:

1. The main differences in spelling of American English:
 - a) spelling of Latin and French borrowings;
 - b) double usage of letter “l”;
 - c) usage of one letter in the words of Greek origin ;
 - d) changing by places of letters in the suffixes –er(-re);
 - e) spelling of prefixes –em, -en; -im,-in;
 - f) changing of letters “s” and “z” in the suffixes –ise(-ize);
 - g) spelling of words of Greek origin with the suffix –lyse;
 - h) spelling of the words with the suffix –xion.

2. Write the following words according to the British norms of spelling:

Judgment, practise, instill, color, flavor, check, program, woolen, humor, theater.

3. Write the following words according to the American norms of spelling:

Honour, labour, center, metre, defence, offence, catalogue, abridgement, gram, enfold, marvelous.

7. The English language in Canada

The English language of the population of Canada is not homogeneous. Inhabitants of Canada consider, that there is some standard (or correct) language which scientists and authors of textbooks use. The English language is different in regions, but identical in the cities. Except of this, it is the second language for significant group of French-speaking population which gives it some separative functions.

Exaggerating the difference between Canadian and American variants of language, Canadian philologists consider, that the British variant is better. Language of official bodies, press, radio, educational institutions is closer to the British standards, sometimes even blindly accepts it. The national economy is deeply dependent on northern neighbor - USA that cannot affect the language habits of all sections of the population. USA constantly press to Canada by the technology, popular culture and impudent businessmen who consider, that Canada should be only an appendage up to the American resources and the markets.

The Canadian variant of the English language has its own features which reflect the following phenomenon:

1) In the oral form the Canadian variant reveals the tendency to replacement of combinations “**th**” into “**t**” and “**d**”, up to instability of sounds [**r**] and [**i:**].

2) Canadians consider, that the Canadian English language, in general, is characterized by the use of an element **eh?** at the end of the sentences, even, in middle of a language stream. The tendency to use narrative sentences with some raising intonation is observed. This feature, most likely, resembles from Ireland, though (it is observed among the English-speaking population of Jamaica and New Zealand.

3) In language of Canadians there is a number of words (**connection, curb, jail, net, recognize, tire, wagon**) for which little-known

in Canada the British variants exists: **connexion, kerd, gaol, neet, rekognise, tyre, waggon.**

4) the American spelling prevales in newspaper language, but in all scientific and professional magazines – British one. In school textbooks the British spelling is accepted. Teachers and teachers of educational institutions prefer the British spelling too.

5) Canadians are sure, that Americans always use forms «**toon**» instead of «**tune**», «**doo**» instead of «**dew**», «**nooz**» instead of «**news**». They also consider, that the population of Great Britain do not do this. Therefore, when Canadians want to emphasize, that language in Canada differs from the American variant, they especially allocate it on the British standard of pronunciation

6) Canadians always tried to avoid American slang. Also now they use **donation** instead of **gift**, **hung** instead of **hanged**, **limbs** instead of **legs**, **pants** instead of **trousers**. Even when they use **tap** instead of **faucet**, or **porridge** instead of **oatmeal** they are sure, that so the Britans do. But influence of the American variant is stronger, than the British one that is why Canadians use **truck** instead of **lorry**, **fender** instead of **mudguard**, **trunks** instead of **boots**, **locomotive** instead of **engine**, **caboose** instead of **guard's van**.

Official of two languages in Canada causes such phenomenon, as inscriptions in English and French on all kinds of things that may be harmful to people with bad sight. It especially concerns medicines, grocery packages, bottles.

The point of vew to the English language in Canada is connected the representation of it, as the language of trading success, wide conversation, rest and entertainments, scientific and technical achievements, the industry of tourism and the language in which greater amount of printed material exists.

Questions and Tasks:

1. What are the state languages of Canada?
2. What its own features has Canadian varuant of the English language?
3. Do the Canadians accept British English or American variant of English? Why?

8. Translation-loans of Lexical Elements in Ukrainian in Northern America

Investigation in 1976, shows that 41 language is considered to be native among the population of Canada. These are such languages as German, Ukrainian, Icelandic, Italian, Greek, Portuguese, Polish and a lot of others. Between languages of national minorities and two official languages of Canada - French and English - process of borrowing takes place constantly. One of such processes is the translation of loan- words.

Lexical translation-loan (translation, loan-word, calk, calkin) is a borrowing of etymological structure (without its sound form) of foreign words which are realized by means of perceiving language with preservation of the appropriate meaning, for example: *sky-scrapers* (Eng.) – *хмарочос* (Ukr.), *training* – *тренування*, *mass-media* – *засоби масової інформації*.

Tracing of language units of different structure:

a) separate words, for example: *Briefing* – брифінг, *forward* – форвард, *goal-keeper* – голкіпер in these cases the morpheme copy of a loan word is formed;

б) word-combinations; for example, in the Americo-Canadian Ukrainian language from English *water colours* – *водяні фарби, акварельні фарби*; *White paper* – *білий папір, Біла книга*; *blind alley* – *сліпа вулиця, тупик*; *mass media* – *мас-медіа, засоби масової інформації*;

в) phraseological units, for example: *to go to dogs* – *сходити на пси, гинути, руйнуватися*; *to take a picture* – *взяти фотографію, сфотографуватися*.

Translations-loan differs according to the way of formation of model structure. There are such subtypes among them:

a) own translation - loans which display the structure of foreign model in its word-building, for example: *have dinner* – *мати обід* (Amer.-Ukr.); *outer space* – *зовнішній простір, космос* (Amer.-Ukr.);

b) translation- loans- interpretations which have the general point of meaning which transfer in a word- model, for example: *sky-scrapers* – *хмарочос*, *tax-payer* – *податковець*;

c) translation- loan -formations which transfer the meaning that has a separate term in contact language for example: *the Soviets* – *радянці, радянські люди* (Amer.-Ukr.).

At mixing of two types of languages semi translation- loans or mixed borrowings are formed, for example: *bomber* – *бомбовик*,

бомбардувальник; **grocery**- гросерня, бакалійна крамниця; **store-keeper** - сторник, крамар. In such semi loan-words a root of a word is borrowed and a suffix is a loan-word; sometimes one stem of a complex word is transferred, and another is replaced with a suffix.

Loan-translation is peculiar to the situations of two languages when a significant part of philologists of one society have so learned the other language, that automatically transfers its models to the system of their own language as it has taken place in language of the population of the Ukrainian origin in the USA, Canada and Australia.

Loan-word-запозичене слово, translation- loan - калька, borrow as a translation loan word-калькування.

9. The English language in Australia

The English language for the first time has appeared in Australia at the end of the XVIII century, in connection with the circumstances, that England sent criminals to the state of Northern Wales

The greatest intensity of processes of the English language's formation in Australia was at the beginning of XIX century (colonization of the country, "a gold fever", the formation of the nation). It was time of interaction and alignment of different dialects delivered from Great Britain, language contacts with aborigines, and also with emigrants of the not English origin. In that time the beginning of national variant of literary English took place. There were lexical units which served for definition of natural-geographical environment, floras, faunas, conditions of life and housekeeping, entertainments etc.

Till 30-ths years of the XIX century the "white" history of Australia almost did not remain written memoirs, except of separate memoirs and the first dictionary of the Australian slang made in 1812 by the prisoner named James Vo. A number of words and expressions of this dictionary (**awake-to see through or comprehend; chum – a fellow prisoner; anew chum – a new immigrant; to put a down upon – to dislike**) were included in the dictionary fund of the English language in Australia.

According to the Australian encyclopedia the number of Australianisms is 10 000 units. To this group such words as **boomerang** and **kangaroo** belong which are Australianisms according to their etymology. Toponymic, floristic names and names of fauna are not of one thousand terms. Australianisms are included to the lexic of many poetic compositions, especially to folklore, national songs etc.

Among the original lexical elements of language of the Australian population it is necessary to note:

1) the name of cities: Aussieland; the Land of the Wattle; Kangarooland; Westralia; the Wheat State(the Southern Australia); Cabbage Garden (State of Vuctoria); the Swan city(Pert); Banana City (Brisben);

2) the geographical and natural names: Albany doctor – південно-східний бриз; Darling shower – пилова буря; southerly buster – шквальний вітер; creek – ручай; bush- хащі etc.

3) the names of plants : gum-tree (eucalyptus); wattle; scub;

4) the names of animals: kangaroo; dingo; emu; echidna; koala; bandicoot; brumby;

5) ethnic and professional names: sheila, lubra – a young woman; cocky – a farmer, who lives in the forest; grazer – a farmer, who grows sheep; digger – a gold miner;

In the Australian language variant transferring names from animals and plants on people is strongly distributed. So the noun **dingo** is used in meaning “coward”; **galah** – “booby (idiot)”; **koala** – “diplomat, a car of a diplomat”; (it means, that the koala bear is under the protection of the state); **kiwi** – “an inhabitant of New Zeland”.

The original Australian phrases formed on local names are also numerous. Phraseological units can be divided according to their parts of formation:

a) the names of wild animals, for example: to be on the tiger – бути засватаним під час пиятики; to have kangaroos in one’s top paddock – з’їхати з глузду, мати джмеля у голові (compare with English “to have bees under one’s bonnet”); lousy as a bndicoot – огидний;

b) the names of domestic animals, for example: to undress asheep – обдурити когось; to run like a hairy goat – погано виступити на верхових перегонах; Pig Islands – Нова Зеландія; to run the rabbit – запастись напоями;

c) the names of birds, for example: Sidney ducks – переселенці, які потрапили до Австралії під час золотої лихоманки; the duck’s dinner –одна вода, cocky’s coal – качан кукурудзи, що використовується як паливо;

d) the names of amphibious and insects, for example: to flat out like a lizard on a log – швидко працювати; a frog skin – однодоларовий банкнот; to drink with the flies- випивати на самоті;

e) the names of plants and trees, for example: to be a gumtree – бути корінним мешканцем, a bush lawyer – гостроязика людина.

Hence, the local names of the remote geographical territories may give a push to penetration into the English language of lexical units which are typical parts of the English word-combinations. Thus they have no essential influence on the structure of language.

Questions and Tasks:

1. How has the English language appeared in Australia?
2. What original lexical elements of language of Australian population are distinguished?
3. What kind of fraseological units are there in Australian variant of English?

EXERCISES

I. Read the following extract and give more examples illustrating the same group of Americanisms. What do we call this group?

M: Well, now, homely is a very good word to illustrate Anglo-American misunderstanding. At any rate, many funny stories depend on it, like the one about the British lecturer visiting the United States; he faces his American audience and very innocently tells them how nice it is to see so many homely faces out in the audience.

Homely in Britain means, of course, something rather pleasant, but in American English 'not very good looking'. This older sense is preserved in some British dialects.

(From *A Common Language* by A. H. Marckwardt and R. Quirk')

II. Read the following extract. What are the three possible ways of creating names for new species of plants and animals and new features of the landscape? Give more examples of the same. What do we call this group of Americanisms?

Q: I think that this time we ought to give some attention to those parts of the language where the differences in the vocabulary are much more noticeable.

M: Yes, we should. First, there are what we might call the 'realia' — the real things — the actual things we refer to in the two varieties of the language. For example, the flora and fauna — that is to say the plants and animals of England and of the United States are by no means the same, nor is the landscape, the topography.

Q: All this must have created a big problem for those early settlers, mustn't it?

M: It surely did. From the very moment they set foot on American soil, they had to supply names for these new species of plants and animals, the new features of landscape that they encountered. At times they made up new words such as *mockingbird*, *rattlesnake*, *eggplant*. And then occasionally they used perfectly familiar terms but to refer to different things. In the United States, for example, the robin is a rather large bird, a type of thrush.

Q: Yes, whereas with us it is a tiny little red-breasted bird.

M: And a warbler, isn't it?

Q: Yes.

M: It sings. *Corn* is what you call *maize*. We never use it for grain in general, or for wheat in particular.

Q: Or oats. Well, wouldn't foreign borrowings also be important in a situation like this?

M: Oh, they were indeed. A good many words, for example, were adopted from the American Indian languages – *hickory*, a kind of tree, *squash*, a vegetable; *moccasin*, a kind of footwear. We got *caribou* and *prairie* from the early French settlers. The Spanish gave us *canyon* and *bronco*.

(From *A Common Language* by A. H. Marckwardt and R. Quirk)

III. Read the following passage. Draw up a list of terms denoting the University teaching staff in Great Britain and in the USA. What are the corresponding Russian terms?

Q: But speaking of universities, we've also got a different set of labels for the teaching staff, haven't we?

M: Yes, in the United States, for example, our full time *faculty*, which we call *staff* incidentally – is arranged in a series of steps which goes from *instructor* through ranks of *assistant professor*, *associate professor* to that of *professor*. But I wish you'd straighten me out on the English system. *Don* for example, is a completely mysterious word and I'm never sure of the difference, say, between a *lecturer* and a *reader*.

Q: Well, readers say that lecturers should lecture and readers should read! But seriously, I think there's more similarity here than one would imagine. Let me say, first of all, that this word *don* is a very informal word and that it is common really only in Oxford and Cambridge. But corresponding to your instructor we've got the rank of *assistant lecturer*, usually a beginner's post. The assistant lecturer who is successful is promoted, like your instructor and he becomes a lecturer and this lecturer grade is the main teaching grade throughout the university world. Above lecturer a man may be promoted to *senior lecturer* or *reader*, and both of these – there's little difference between them – correspond closely to your associate professor. And then finally he may get a chair, as we say – that is a professorship, or, as you would say, a full professorship. It's pretty much a difference of labels rather than of organization, it seems to me.

(From *A Common Language* by A. H. Marckwardt and R. Quirk)

IV. Give the British equivalents for the following Americanism.

Apartment, store, baggage, street car, full, truck, elevator, candy, corn.

V. Explain the differences in the meanings of the following words in American and British English.

Corn, apartment, homely, guess, lunch.

VI. Identify the etymology of the following words.

Ohio, ranch, squash, mosquito, banjo, toboggan, pickaninny, Mississippi, sombrero, prairie, wigwam.

VII. Comment on the formation of the following words.

Rattlesnake, foxberry, auto, Americanism, Colonist, addressee, ad, copperhead, pipe of peace, fire-water

VIII. Translate the following words giving both the British and American variant.

Канікули, бензин, осінь, консервна банка, радіо, трамвай.

IX. Give the synonyms for the following American shortenings.

Gym, mo, circs, auto, perm, cert, n. g., b. f., g. m., dorm.

X. In the following sentences find the examples of words which are characteristic of American English. State whether they belong to the group of a) historical Americanisms; b) proper Americanisms; c) American shortenings; d) American borrowings. Take note of their spelling peculiarities.

1. As the elevator carried Brett downward, Hank Kreisel closed and locked the apartment door from inside. 2. A raw fall wind swirled leaves and dust in small tornadoes and sent pedestrians scurrying for indoor warmth. 3. Over amid the bungalows a repair crew was coping with a leaky water main. 4. We have also built, ourselves, experimental trucks and cars which are electric powered. 5. In a plant bad news travelled like burning

gasoline. 6. May Lou wasn't in; she had probably gone to a movie. 7. The bank was about equal in size to a neighbourhood drugstore, brightly lighted and pleasantly designed. 8. Nolan Wainwright walked towards the apartment building, a three-storey structure probably forty years old and showing signs of disrepair. He guessed it contained two dozen or so apartments. Inside a vestibule Nolan Wainwright could see an array of mail boxes and call buttons. 9. He's a barber and one of our bird dogs. We had twenty or so regular bird dogs, Smokey revealed, including service station operators, a druggist, a beauty-parlor operator, and an undertaker. 10. Barbara put a hand to her hair — chestnut brown and luxuriant, like her Polish Mother's; it also grew annoyingly fast so she had to spend more time than she liked in beauty salons. 11. He hadn't had an engineering degree to start, having been a high school dropout before World War II. 12. Auto companies regularly invited design school students in, treating them like VIP's, while the students saw for themselves the kind of aura they might work in later.

XI. Read the following joke and find examples of words which are characteristic of American English.

The Bishop of London, speaking at a meeting recently, said that when he was in America he had learned to say to his chauffeur, "Step on the gas, George," but so far he had not summoned sufficient courage to say to the Archbishop of Canterbury, "O. K., Chief."

XII. Read the following extract. Explain the difference in the meanings of the italicized words in American and British English.

In America just as in English, you see the same shops with the same boards and windows in every town and village.

Shopping, however, is an art of its own and you have to learn slowly where to buy various things. If you are hungry, you go to the chemist's. A *chemist's* shop is called a drugstore in the United States. In the larger *drugstores* you may be able to get drugs, too, but their main business consists in selling stationery, *candy*, toys, braces, belts, fountain pens, furniture and imitation jewellery. You must be extremely careful concerning the names of certain articles. If you ask for *suspenders* in a man's shop, you receive a pair of *braces*, if you ask for a pair of *pants*, you receive a pair of *trousers* and should you ask for a pair of braces, you receive a queer look.

I should like to mention that although a *lift* is called an *elevator* in the United States, when hitch-hiking you do not ask for an elevator, you ask for a lift. There's some confusion about the word *flat*. A flat in America is called an *apartment*; what they call a flat is a puncture in your tyre (or as they spell it, tire). Consequently the notice: 'Flats Fixed' does not indicate an estate agent where they are going to fix you up with a flat, but a garage where they are equipped to mend a puncture.
(From *How to Scrape Skies* by G. Mikes)

XIII. Read the following passage. Do you share Professor Quirk's opinion about neutralizing the differences between the two forms of English? If so, give your own examples to prove it.

M: ...and finally I notice that although we used to think that *baggage* was somehow an American term and *luggage* an English term, we have now come to adopt *luggage* much more, especially in connection with air travel.

Q: Well, I think it is equally true that we in Britain have more and more to adopt the word *baggage*. I have certainly noticed that on shipping lines, perhaps chiefly those that are connected with the American trade. But this blending of our usage in connection with the *luggage* and *baggage* would seem to me to be rather typical of this trend that we've got in the twentieth century towards neutralizing the differences between our two forms of English.

(From *A Common Language* by A. H. Marckwardt and R. Quirk)

XIV. Look through the following list of words and state what spelling norms are accepted in the USA and Great Britain so far as the given words are concerned.

1. favour – favor

honour – honor

colour – color

3. centre – center

metre – meter

fibre – fiber

5. to enfold – to infold

to encrust – to incrust

to empanel – to impanel

2. defence – defense

practice – practise

offence – offense

4. marvellous – marvelous

woollen – woolen

jewellery – jewelry

6. cheque – check

catalogue – catalog

programme – program

7. Judgement – judgment

abridgement – abridgment

acknowledgement – acknowledgment

XV. Write the following words according to the British norms of spelling.

Judgment, practise, instill, color, flavor, check, program, woolen, humor, theater.

XVI. Write the following words according to the American norms of spelling.

Honour, labour, centre, metre, defence, offence, catalogue, abridgement, gramm, enfold, marvellous.

XVII. Read the following passage. Give some more examples illustrating the differences in grammar between the two varieties of English.

Q: I thought Americans always said *gotten* when they used the verb *get* as a full verb. But you did say *I've got your point*, didn't you?

M: Yes, I did. You know, it's a common English belief — almost a superstition — about American usage, but it does turn out on examination, as many other things do, that we are closer together than appears on the surface. Actually, we, Americans, use *gotten* only when our meaning is "to acquire" or "to obtain". *We've gotten a new car since you were here last.* Now, when we use *get* to mean "possess" or "to be obliged to" we have exactly the same forms as you do. *I've got a pen in my pocket. I've got to write a letter.*

(From *A Common Language* by A. H. Marckwardt and R. Quirk)

XVIII. Read the following extract. What is a citizen of the USA called? Analyse the suggested variants of names from the point of view of word-building.

It is embarrassing that the citizens of the United States do not have a satisfactory name. In the Declaration of Independence the British colonists called their country the United States of America, thus creating a difficulty. What should the inhabitant of a country with such a long name be called?

For more than 150 years those living in the country have searched in vain for a suitable name for themselves. In 1803, a prominent American physician, Dr. Samuel Mitchill, suggested that the entire country should be called *Fredonia* or *Fredon*. He had taken the English word *freedom* and the

Latin *colonia* and from them coined *Fredonia* or *Fredon*. Dr. Mitchill thought that with this word as the name for the country as a whole, the derivative *Fredlsh* would follow naturally, corresponding to British, etc. In the same way, he thought, *Frede*, would be a good name for the inhabitant of Fredonia. But his fellow-citizens laughed at the doctor's names.

Such citizen names as United Statesian, shortened to Unisian and United Statian were proposed but quickly forgotten. No better success has greeted Usona (United States of North America) as a name for the country and Usonian — for a citizen.

Usage overwhelmingly favours American, as a name for an inhabitant of the USA, though all Americans realize it covers far too much territory.

(From *American Words* by M. Mathews)

XIX. Read the following jokes and comment on the linguistic phenomenon with which they are associated.

A. A visitor from England startled at dead of night by a terrifying hoot asked his American host: "What cawn that terrifying sound mean?"

"It's an owl," the host explained. "I know, but who's "owling?"

B. *American traveller (to hall-porter of an Irish country hotel) -* "How many mails a day are there n this hotel?"

Hall-porter - "Three, sir; breakfast, dinner, and tay."

XX. Read the following text. Comment on some instances of American English. Notice some humorous hints in the text.

In America, just as in England, you see the same shops with the same boards and windows in every town and village.

Shopping, however, is an art of its own and you have to learn slowly where to buy various things. If you are hungry, you go to the chemist's. A chemist's shop is called a drug-store in the Unites States; it is a national institution at that. In the larger drug-stores you may be able to get drugs, too, but their main business consists in selling stationery, candy, toys, braces, belts, fountain pens, furniture and imitation jewellery. Every drug-store has a food counter with high stools in front of it and there they serve various juices, coffee, sundaes, ice-cream, sandwiches, omelets and other egg dishes.

If you want cigarettes, go to the grocer; if you want to have your shoes cleaned, go to the barber; if you want a radio, go to a man's shop; if you want a suitcase, go to the chemist's.

Whatever you buy, it may be exchanged later for something in the same shop. This is a great pastime with the Americans. A great many people do not really buy things - they only acquire some raw material for later exchanges.

You do not need to time your shopping very carefully because you will find some shops stay open in New York all night. The big department stores keep open till 9 p. m. once a week. Should you want a meal at any time of the day or night, that is quite easy.

You must be extremely careful concerning the names of certain articles. If you ask for suspenders in a man's shop, you receive a pair of braces, if you ask for a pair of pants, you receive a pair of trousers and should you ask for a pair of braces, you receive a queer look.

I should like to mention that although a lift is called an elevator in the United States, when hitch-hiking, you do not ask for an elevator, you ask for a lift.

There is some confusion about the word/fa/. A flat in America is called an apartment; what they call a flat is a puncture in your tyre (or as they spell it, tire). Consequently the notice: FLATS FIXED does not indicate an estate agent where they are going to fix you up with a flat, but a garage where they are equipped to mend a puncture.

(From "How to Shop" by George Mikes)

SUPPLEMENT
SOME DIFFERENCE IN A MANNER OF SPEAKING

Do Americans and Englishmen really speak the same language? It isn't only a question of accents. Spelling and vocabulary are different on either side of the Atlantic, too.

Variety is the spice of life and it's impossible to say that British or American English is wrong or right.

The differences in spelling are well known - for instance, words like "colour", "honour" and "neighbour" are spelt without the "u" in the United States. While the British have kept the original spellings of many foreign words now used in the English language, Americans have made a point of simplifying spelling, for example, "catalogue" becomes "catalog".

There are a lot of differences in vocabulary. Some of them could lead to amusing situations. American buildings have no ground floor. This does not mean you have to jump up ten feet to get into them, simply that what the British call the "ground floor" is what Americans call the "first floor" and so on.

If an American says he is wearing his new "pants" and "vest" to a party - do not be alarmed. He is not going in his underwear, but "pants" and "vest" are the American words for "trousers" and "waistcoat".

When an Englishman goes on his "holidays", an American will go "on vacation". And whereas an Englishman will be "ill in hospital", an American will be "sick in the hospital".

1. PRONUNCIATION

Received Pronunciation (RP)	General American (GA)
Which [witʃ]	Which [witʃ] [h witʃ]
[r] is post-alveolar	[r] is retroflex
Butter ['bʌtə]	Butter [t] is intermediate between [t] and [d]
Twenty ['twenti], plenty ['plenti]	Twenty ['tweni], plenty ['pleni]
That one [ðæt wʌn]	That one [dæ? wʌn]
Office ['ofis]	Office ['?fis]
Supermarket ['sju:pəma:kit], student['stju.dənt]	Supermarket ['su:pəma:kit], student ['stu:dənt]
Version ['vɜ:ʃən], Asia ['eiʃə]	Version, Asia [ʃ] is vocalized

Get, bet [e]	Get, bed [e] resembles [æ] [qɛ't]
Ask, past, dance [a:sk]	Ask, past, dance [æsk]
Bird, fir [bɜ:d]	Bird, fir [e:']
Hop, not, on [ɒ]	Hop, not, on [o]
Law, quality [o:]	Law, quality [ɒ]
	The pronunciation of words in GA is close to the reading rules and is therefore different from that of RP

2. SOME DIFFERENCE IN VOCABULARY

BRITISH ENGLISH	AMERICAN ENGLISH
All right	OK
Anorak	Wind breaker
Aubergine	Egg plant
Autumn	Fall
Banknote	Bill
Beetroot	Beet
Bill	Check
Bin	Wastebasket
Biscuit	Cookie
Block of flats	Apartment building
Braces	Suspenders
Brooch	Pin
Car	Automobile
Carriage	Car
Carrier bag	Tote bag
Centre	Center
Cinema	Movies
Chemist's	Drugstore
Coach	Bus
Colour	Color
Cot	Crib

Court shoe	Tennis shoe
Cupboard	Closet
Curtains	Drapes
Cutlery	Silverware
Dressing table	Vanity table
Dustbin	Garbage can (trash can)
Fence	Picket fence
Flat	Apartment
Frying pan	Skillet
Full stop	Period
Grocer's	Provision store
Gymshoes	Sneakers
Hall of residence	Dormitory
Handbag	Purse
Housewife	Homemaker
Holiday	Vacation
111	Sick
Jug	Pitcher
Knickers	Panties
Laundry basket	Hamper
Lavatory	Toilet
Lift	Elevator
Left luggage office	Baggage room
Lorry	Truck
Marrow	Squash
Motorbike	Motorcycle
Motorway	Freeway
Mum	Mom
Noticeboard	Bulletin board
Pavement	Sidewalk
Pen friend	Pen pal
Petrol	Gasoline
Pillar box	Mailbox

Plait	Pigtail / braid
Post	Mail
Postbox	Mail box
Pram	Baby bueev
Programme	Program
Purse	Wallet
Pushchair	Stroller
Public toilet	Rest room
Queue	Line
Rubber	Eraser
Scales	Scale
School report	Report card
Semi-detached	Duplex
Shop	Store
Shop assistant	Salesclerk
Shopkeeper	Storekeeper
Spectacles	Reading glasses
Spring onions	Green onions
Standard lamp	Floor lamp
Sweet	Candy
Tap	Faucet
Terraced houses	Row houses
Tea towel	Dishcloth
Theatre	Theater
Tick	Check
Tin	Can
Tram	Street-car
Trainer	Tennis shoe
Trousers	Pants
Towelling	Terrycloth
TV aerial	TV antenna
Underground	Subway
Underpants	Pants

Vest	Undershirt
Washing-up liquid	Dishwashing liquid

3. AMERICAN ENGLISH. VOCABULARY

Ace	to do very well in an exam, a piece of written work, etc; to ace the English test
Esthete (BrE - aesthete) Esthetic (BrE - aesthetic) Esthetics (BrE - aesthetics)	someone who loves and understands beautiful things, art, music
Aide / aid	someone whose job is to help someone in an important job
All-nighter	an occasion when someone spends the whole night studying or doing written work in university
Alum Alumna (pl. Alumnae) Alumnus (formal)	a former student of a school, college, university, etc a woman who is a former student of a school, college, university a former student of a school, college, university, etc
Anesthetic (BrE - anaesthetic) Anesthetist (BrE - anaesthetist)	under anaesthetic
Analyze (BrE - analyse)	to examine or think about sth carefully
Anyplace	anywhere
Apple polisher	someone who tries to gain something, become popular by praising or helping someone else without being sincere
Ardor (BrE - ardour)	very strong positive feelings
Artsy (BrE - arty)	someone who is arty knows a lot about art or does a lot of art
Artsy craftsy (BrE - arty-crafty)	someone who is arty-crafty makes things at home, does all kinds of art, esp in a way that is not very professional

ATM (BrE - cashpoint)	a machine outside a bank that you see to get money from your account
Lawyer (attorney)	someone whose job is to advise people about laws, represent people in court
(A) babe in the woods	someone who can be easily deceived
Bachelor party (BrE - stag night)	a party for men only, esp the night before a man's wedding
Backpack (BrE - rucksack)	a bag carried on a person's back
Bad-off	not having much money; poor
Bad-mouth	criticize someone or something
Baggage (BrE - luggage)	the cases, bags, etc carried by someone who is travelling
Ball game	a baseball game; (BrE - any game played with a ball)
Ballsy	brave and determined
Barrio	a part of an American town or city where many poor, Spanish-speaking people live
Beach chair	a folding chair with a seat and back made of cloth or plastic, which is used outdoors, esp at the beach
Behavior (BrE - behaviour)	good / bad behaviour
Bellhop (BrE - bellboy)	a young man who carries bags, takes messages, etc in a hotel
Big ticket	expensive; big ticket items (cars, e.g.)
Blast	an enjoyable and exciting experience (the concert was a blast)
Bleachers (pl)	seats arranged in rows with no roof covering them, where people sit to watch sport
Blood type (A, B, AB, O) (BrE - blood group)	one of the classes into which human blood can be separated

Blue ribbon	a small piece of blue material that you give to the first-prize winner of a competition
Bookstore (BrE - bookshop)	a shop that sells books
Newsstand (BrE - bookstall)	a place on a street where newspapers and magazines are sold
Brainstorm (sing) (BrE - brain-wave)	a sudden clever idea; to have a brainstorm
The brass (BrE - top brass)	people who hold the most important positions
Bridal shower	a party for a woman who is going to be married, given by her friends and family
Broiling	broiling weather / sun . . . makes a person feel extremely hot
Buck	dollar; feel / look like a million bucks = feel / look very healthy, happy, beautiful
Buckle up	to fasten one's seat belt in a car, aircraft, etc
Bull session	an occasion when a group of people meet to talk in a relaxed and friendly way
The burbs	the suburbs (areas around a city)
Business suit (BrE - loungesuit)	a suit that a man wears during the day, esp in the office
Cabstand (BrE - taxi rank)	a place where taxis wait for customers
Cakewalk	a very easy victory
Call-in (BrE - phone-in)	a radio or TV programme in which people telephone to give their opinions
Calisthenics (BrE - callisthenics)	a set of physical exercises that are intended to make a person thin and healthy
Campground (BrE - campsite)	an area where people can camp

Care package	a package of food, sweets that is sent to someone living away from home, esp a student at college
Car pool	if a group of people car pool, they agree to drive everyone in the group to work, school, etc on different days so that only one car is used at a time
Catalog (BrE - catalogue)	a list of all the books in a library, etc
Certified mail (BrE - recorded delivery)	a method of sending mail in which the fact that someone has sent it is recorded and the person it is sent to must sign his / her name to prove he / she has received it
Checkroom (BrE - cloakroom)	a place in a restaurant, etc where one can leave one's coat
Coach	the cheapest type of seats on a plane or train; to fly coach out to (somewhere)
Coffee shop	a restaurant that serves cheap meals
Comp	a ticket for a play, sports game etc that is given away free
Contrail	a line of white steam made in the sky by a plane
Cookout	a party or occasion when a meal is cooked and eaten outdoors
Day camp	a place where children can go in the day during the school holidays to do sports, art, etc
Day care center (BrE - day care centre; creche)	a place where babies are looked after while their parents are at work
Dean's list	a list of the best students at a university
Dime store	a shop that sales many different kinds of cheap goods, esp for the house

Diploma	a document showing that a student has successfully completed his / her high school, college, or university education (a master's diploma)
Diskette	a floppy disk
Double feature	a cinema performance in which two films are shown one after the other
Driver's license (BrE – driving licence)	an official document that allows a person to drive on public roads
Drugstore (BrE - pharmacy, chemist's)	a shop where one can buy medicines, beauty products, etc
Duplex	a type of a house divided into two parts, with two separate homes in it; an apartment with rooms on two levels
Dutch treat	an occasion when you share the cost of something such as a meal in a restaurant
Elevator (BrE - lift)	a machine that takes people from one level to another in a building
Elevator music	the type of music that is played in shops and public places, and is usually thought to be boring
Emergency room (BrE -casualty)	a place in a hospital where people who have been hurt in accidents are taken for treatment
Ethnic	someone who belongs to a different race from the main group in a country
Expiration date	the date on which something can no longer be used or is no longer safe to eat
The faculty	all the teachers in a university
Family practice	a part of medical practice in the US in which doctors learn to treat general health problems and problems connected with families and people of all ages

Ferris Wheel (BrE - big wheel)	a large upright wheel with seat on it for people to ride on in an amusement park
Field day (BrE - sports day)	a day when pupils at a school have sports competitions and parents watch
Movie star (BrE - film star)	a famous actor / actress in cinema films
Financial aid	money given or lent to students at college or university to pay for their education
Flag stop	a place where buses stop only if they are asked to do so
Flatware (BrE - cutlery)	knives, forks, spoons
Freshman	a student in the first year of high school or university
Full professor	a teacher at an American university who has reached the highest position and has gained tenure (the right to keep the job as long as he / she wants it)
Gal (BrE - girl, woman)	a girl or woman
From the get-go	from the beginning
Graduate school	a college or university where a person can study for a master's or a doctorate degree after receiving his / her first degree, or the period of time when a person studies for these degrees
Gurney	a long narrow table with wheels used to moving sick people in a hospital
Happenstance	something good that happens by chance
Headline	to appear as the main performer in a show (to headline this week's production)
Health center	a building where students go to get medical help or advice

Heavy hitter	someone who has a lot of power, esp in business or politics
Home room	a classroom where students have to go at the beginning of every school day
Be a hot ticket	to be a very popular and fashionable person whom everyone wants to see
Hodgepodge (BrE - hotchpotch) (sing)	a number of things mixed up without any sensible order or arrangement
Hot dog	to do a fast and exciting sport, esp skiing, in a way that will attract a lot of attention and admiration (skiers hot dogging down the slopes)
Installment plan (sing)	a system of paying for goods by a series of small regular payments; to pay by installments
Intern (BrE - houseman)	someone who has nearly finished training as a doctor and is working in a hospital
Internal medicine	a type of medical work in which doctors say what is wrong with a person and treat illnesses but do not do operations; internist (n)
Interpretive center	a room or building where visitors can receive historical information about the place they're visiting
Jump in line (BrE -jump the queue)	to join a line of people in front of others who were already waiting
The main drag	the main street in a town or city where big shops and businesses are
Major in	to study something as one's main subject at college or university (to major in History)

The new rich	people who have recently or suddenly become very rich, as opposed to people whose families have always been rich
Office building (BrE - office block)	a large building with many offices in it
Old Glory	the flag of the US
Peanut gallery (humorous)	the cheap rows of seats at the back of a theatre or cinema
Preschool (BrE - nursery school)	a school for young children between two and five years of age, where they learn such things as numbers, colours, letters (preschooler (n))
Skycap	someone who carries passengers' cases at an airport
Slump	a period when a player or team does not play well (to be in a slump)
Be a snap	to be very easy to do (the test was a snap)
Be socked in	if an airport, road, or area is socked in, it's very difficult to see far because of bad fog, snow or rain
Sopped	very wet
Streetcar (BrE - tram)	tram
A / B / C student	someone who always earns A's etc for his / her work
Student body	all of the students in a high school, college, university, considered as a group
Student government / student council	an elected group of students in a high school, college, university who represent the students in meetings and who organize school activities
Student teaching (BrE - practice)	the period of time during which students who are learning to be teachers practise teaching in a school

Study hall	a period of time during a school day in which a student does not have classes and usually goes somewhere to study
Substitute teacher (BrE - supply teacher)	a teacher who teaches a class when the usual teacher is ill
Somebody's strong suit	something that a person is good at
Talk show (BrE - chat show)	a radio or TV show on which famous people talk to each other and are asked questions
Ticker tape parade	an occasion when someone important or famous arrives in an American city and pieces of paper are thrown from high buildings to welcome that person
Have a tin ear	to be unable to hear the difference between musical notes
Tollway	a large long road that you pay to use
Unit	an amount of work that a student needs to do in a particular course
Vacation	a holiday, or time spent not working (on vacation); one of the periods of time when universities are closed
Vacation (v)	to go somewhere for a holiday
White space	free time

4. AMERICAN IDIOMS

IDIOM	MEANING
Young people don't take care of their parents <i>in this day and age</i> .	Nowadays.
Mary is <i>the apple of her father's eye</i> .	Someone's favourite person.
<i>Beauty is only skin deep</i> .	A proverb meaning that looks are only superficial.

What's wrong with you? Did you <i>get up on the -wrong side of the bed</i> today?	To get up in the morning in a bad mood.
Jack <i>goes to bed with the chickens</i> .	To go to bed at sundown / very early (when the chickens do).
I don't have time to talk to you. I'm as busy <i>as a bee</i> .(<i>beaver</i>)	Very busy.
<i>The early bird gets the worm</i> .	A proverb meaning that the early person will get the reward.
His grandparents <i>brought him up</i> .	To raise a child.
It's not easy to teach people. But it's my <i>bread and butter</i> .	A person's livelihood or income.
She <i>bought a pig in a poke</i> when she ordered a vase by mail.	To purchase something without having seen or examined it.
We could <i>buy the house for a song</i> because it was far from the town.	To buy something cheaply.
Helen calls at this store every day, <i>as regular as clockwork</i> .	Dependably regular.
We like <i>to eat a meal out every now and then</i> (<i>dine out</i>).	To eat a meal at a restaurant.
Translating this text is <i>as easy as apple pie</i> .	Very easy.
John is <i>the black sheep of the family</i> . He hangs out with a bad crowd.	The worst member of the family.
She only told her mother about it because she wanted it to remain <i>in the family</i> .	Restricted to one's own family, as with private information.
You cannot trust <i>a fair-weather friend</i> .	Someone who is your friend only when things are going well for you.
We had a dull day - <i>nothing to write home about</i> .	Nothing exciting or interesting.
Read a book <i>to while away the time</i> .	To spend or waste time.

5. AMERICAN IDIOMS

Alive and kicking	well and healthy	- How is John? - He's alive and kicking.
All over but the shouting	decided, concluded; finished except for a celebration	Ben got his diploma. It's all over but the shouting.
All walks of life	all social, economic, ethnic groups	The people who came to the meeting represented all walks of life.
An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure	it is easier and better to prevent something bad than to deal with the results	You should be vaccinated against the flu. An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure.
Appear as something	to act a certain part in a play, opera, etc	Diana appeared as Mrs Cohen in the play.
As a last resort	as the last choice	Ask them for help only as a last resort.
As fit as a fiddle	healthy, physically fit	The child is as fit as a fiddle.
At leisure	resting	When I'm at leisure I read books.
Babe-in-the-woods	a naive person; an inexperienced person	Alice is a babe-in-the-woods when it comes to dealing with teenagers. Kate is a babe-in-the-woods as an actress.
Back to the drawing board	time to start over again	Bill flunked his mid-year exams. Back to the drawing board.
Base one's opinion on something	to form an opinion from something	I base my opinion on previous experience.
Be the teacher's pet	to be the teacher's favourite student	Jane is the teacher's pet. She always gets excellent marks.
Begin to see the light	to begin to understand something	Math is hard, but I'm beginning to see the light.

Break a leg!	good luck (theatrical slang; this is said to actors before a performance instead of "good luck")	Saying "Break a leg!" before a performance is an old theatrical tradition.
Break new ground	to begin to do something which no one else has done	Dr Johnson is breaking new ground in AIDS research.
Bring the house down // bring down the house	to excite a theatrical audience to laughter, applause	The actor's joke brought the house down.
Brush up on something // brush up	to learn something; to review something	You should brush up on your English.
Coast-to-coast	from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean (in the USA); all the land between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans	We made the coast-to-coast trip in eighty hours.
Cover a lot of ground	to travel over a great distance;	We can cover a lot of ground in one day.
Cut and dried // cut-and-dried	fixed; usual and uninteresting	The students were bored by the cut and dried lecture.
Cut corners	to reduce efforts, expenditures; to do things poorly, incompletely	Do the job right. Don't cut corners.
Cut out for something	well-suited for something	Tom is cut out for the medical profession.
Cut out to be something	well-suited for a particular occupation	Tom is cut out to be a doctor.
Down in the mouth	sad, depressed	Helen has been down in the mouth since the road accident.
Dream come true	a dream which has become real	Going to London is a dream come true.

Either feast or famine	either too much of something or not enough of something	Sometimes we have much work to do, and sometimes we have nothing to do. It's feast or famine.
Enlarge on something // expand on something	to make a more detailed explanation of something; to explain one's previous comments	Please, enlarge (expand) on your remarks.
Equal to someone or something	the same as someone or something	Ben is equal to Brian as a tennis player.
Every minute counts // every moment counts	time is very important	Work rapidly. Every minute counts.
Feel fit	to feel well and healthy	I go in for sports to feel fit.
Feel like a new person	to feel refreshed, renewed	Jane felt like a new person when she came back from the seaside.
Feel up to something	to feel well enough to do something	I don't feel up to working today.
Fight against time	to hurry to do something quickly, to meet a deadline	The students fought against time to complete the test.
Fluff one's lines // blow one's lines // muff one's lines	to speak one's speech badly or forget one's lines when one is in a play	The young actress fluffed her lines in the last act.
Food for thought	something to think about	This plan is food for thought.
Get sick	to become ill	Don got sick with the flue.
Get stars in one's eyes	to be obsessed with show business	Mary has stars in her eyes. She wants to become an actress.
Get well	to become healthy again	I'm sure you'll soon get well.
Go along with someone	to travel along with someone	I'll go along with Peter to London.

Go in a body	to move in a group	The basketball team went in a body to talk to the coach.
Have a bad effect on someone or something	to be bad for someone or something	This medicine has a bad effect on me.
Have a familiar ring	to sound familiar	This story has a familiar ring. Have you copied it out?
Have a heart-to-heart talk // have a heart-to-heart	to have a sincere, intimate talk	Let's have a heart-to-heart.
Hope against all hope	to have hope even when the situation appears to be hopeless	We hope against all hope that Nick will get well.
In a vicious circle	in a situation in which the solution of the problem leads to a second problem, and the solution of the second problem brings back the first problem	I'm afraid, my life has got into a vicious circle. I am in a vicious circle.
In full swing	in progress	The tourist season is in full swing now.
In light of something	because of certain knowledge	In light of the host's rudeness, we won't come back.
In the best of health	very healthy	As far as I know, Jack is in the best of health.
In the lap of luxury	in luxurious surroundings	The Stevensons live in the lap of luxury. They are very rich.
In the limelight // in the spotlight	at the center of attention	Most politicians spend a lot of time in the limelight.
In the nick of time	just in time; just before it's too late	We reached the railway station in the nick of time.
In the public eye	publicly	Elected officials find themselves in the public eye.

Jump the gun	to start before the starting signal (originally used in sports contests which are started by firing a gun)	The sportsmen had to start the race again because one of them jumped the gun.
Just what the doctor ordered	exactly what is required	The cake was tasty. Just what the doctor ordered.
Keep abreast of something // keep abreast	to keep informed about something; keep up with the times	We should try to keep abreast by reading the journals daily.
Live in an ivory tower	to be aloof from the realities of living	Professor Brown lives in an ivory tower. He doesn't know what the real world is like.
Make a name for oneself// make a name	to become famous	Betty is a talented person. She can easily make a name for herself.
Make up for lost time	to do much of something; to do something fast	John spent much time watching TV. Now he has to work fast. He's making up for lost time.
Nine-to-five job	a job with regular, normal hours	Jack has a nine-to-five job.
Not someone's cup of tea	not something one prefers	Going in for sports isn't Sally's cup o tea.
On schedule	at the expected / desired time	The plane came in right on schedule.
Set off for somewhere // set off// set out for somewhere // set out	to begin a journey to a place	The Smiths set off for the station early in the morning.
Strike up a conversation	to start a conversation with someone	Bill struck up a conversation with a beautiful girl on the bus.
Take a break // take one's break	to have a short rest period in one's work	I usually take a break at 1 1 :30.

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