Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education

SELECTED CHAPTERS OF ENGLISH PHILOLOGY

Method Guide for MA students

ILONA HUSZTI

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Beregszász

Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine

Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education

Department of Philology

ILONA HUSZTI

Selected Chapters of English Philology

Method Guide for MA students

Beregszász, 2021

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The aim of this method guide is to present four outstanding ‘chapters’ of English philology and provide useful information on them for MA students.

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Foreword

According to the curriculum, students at the College have to study both theoretical and practical disciplines that are the integral parts of the training program for English major bachelor students. These disciplines cover a wide range of philological orientation starting with the very origins of the history of the English language. The theoretical courses are offered to students over the four years of the studies for a bachelor degree at the College. Then, in the Masters' course, students are offered a possibility to revise the theoretical knowledge that the studied disciplines provided for them and widen and deepen this knowledge within the frames of the course titled "Selected Chapters of the English philology".

The course aims at clarifying all those issues that were not examined or discussed in detail during the theoretical disciplines (e.g. issues in lexicography).

By the end of the program, participants will have reviewed, synthesized and expanded the knowledge that was covered during the theoretical courses of their studies (namely, The History of English, Phonetics and Phonology, and Lexicology). In addition, students will have had the opportunity to examine issues that were not covered in the theoretical courses and will have had the chance to explore the most crucial questions.

The aims of the course are:

- review and summarize the most outstanding and memorable CHAPTERS of the development of English;
- examine in details theoretical issues that were not thoroughly analysed in the course of the studied theoretical disciplines at the bachelor level;
- investigate questions that were left out from the core syllabi of the theoretical disciplines because of the defined time limit at the bachelor level.

SELECTED CHAPTERS OF ENGLISH PHILOLOGY

MA I/2

(Course syllabus)

Aims of the course:

- review and summarize the most outstanding and memorable CHAPTERS of the development of English, as well as teaching it as a foreign language;
- examine in details theoretical issues that were not thoroughly analysed in the course of the studied theoretical disciplines;
- investigate questions that were left out from the core syllabi of the theoretical disciplines because of the defined time limit;
- study certain issues in more detail, e.g. why and how to teach British and American literature in the English classroom in the school.

Learning outcomes:

- formulate and explain one's own opinion about the studied material;
- design and conduct lessons of different types in accordance with the requirements of modern methodology;
- apply basic knowledge of English philology in educational activities;
- practically use the methods and techniques of linguistic analysis;
- to use in practical work the ideas and experience of progressive linguists of the past and present.

Subject competencies and learning outcomes

The study of the discipline involves the formation and development of competencies and program learning outcomes of higher education students in accordance with the educational program of the specialty 035 "Philology", namely:

General competencies:

1. Ability to analyse, evaluate and apply modern scientific achievements in the field of philology (history of language, lexicography, etc.) of the English language.

2. Ability to plan and solve problems of personal and professional development.

3. Ability to search, process, systematize, contextualize and interpret general scientific information from various sources, as well as generate new ideas to solve practical problems, in particular in interdisciplinary fields.

Professional competencies:

4. Ability to use basic knowledge of theoretical principles, philological principles, practical application and interdisciplinary connections of modern pedagogical science.

5. Mastering techniques and means of philological research.

Program learning outcomes:

1. Organization and implementation of educational activities based on a holistic and systematic scientific worldview using knowledge in the field of philosophy of education, analysis, evaluation and application of modern scientific achievements in the field of English philology.

2. Planning and organization of personal and professional development. Realization in one's own professional activity of effective psychological and pedagogical strategies of existence of the person in a society in the conditions of the modern globalized sociocultural environment.

3. Independent search, processing, systematization, contextualization and interpretation of general scientific information from various sources, generation of

new ideas for solving scientific and practical problems, in particular in interdisciplinary fields.

4. Logical and consistent thinking, analysis and synthesis of various ideas, points of view, scientific phenomena in their relationship and interdependence to ensure the educational process with appropriate educational and methodological documentation, programs, plans and innovative projects.

5. Conducting one's own philological research.

Course requirements:

- selecting an excerpt from a British or American literary work and planning a lesson based on it, with an appropriate lesson plan;
- recitation of the famous balcony scene from Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet* in the original;
- preparing an audio report on the various accents of English (PPT with audio accompaniment);
- literature review on types of dictionaries and their use in language teaching.

SYLLABUS

Topic 1: The history of English

Topic 2: Fundamentals of English Lexicography

Topic 3: Variants of the English Language

Topic 4: Local dialects in the British Isles and the USA

Basic literature of the discipline and other information resources

1. Chorba, M., Huszti, I., & Iváncsó, V. (2007). The theory of English. Rákóczi-füzetek 26. Ungvár: PoliPrint.
2. Culpeper, J. (1997). *History of English*. London and New York: Routledge.
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4. Квеселевич Д. І., Сасіна В. П. (2003). Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови. Вінниця: Нова Книга.
5. Мостовий, Л. (1992). Лексикологія англійської мови. Київ. (255pp)
6. www.thehistoryofenglish.com
7. https://historyofenglishpodcast.com/
8. https://cudoo.com/blog/different-varieties-of-english-language/

Questions for the pass-and-fail exam in

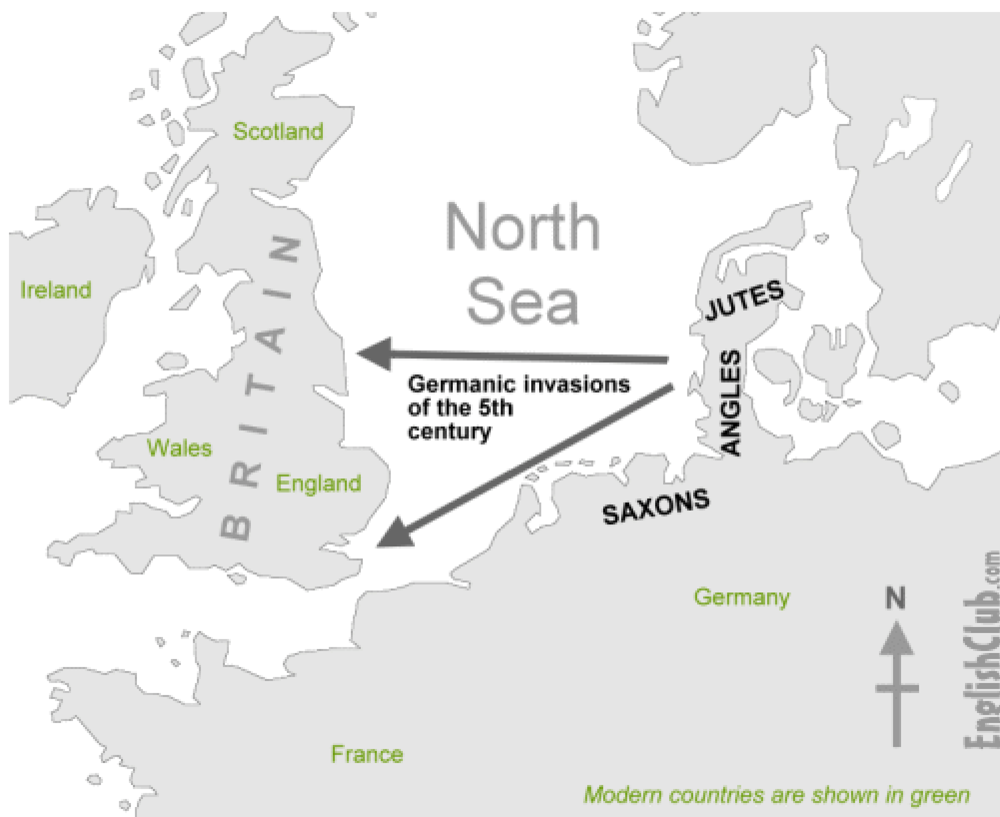
SELECTED CHAPTERS OF ENGLISH PHILOLOGY

1. Various approaches to delimiting the periods in the history of English
2. The history of Old English and its development
3. The heptarchy as explained in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle
4. Old English phonetics
5. The Old English Substantive
6. The Old English Adjective
7. The Old English Pronoun
8. The Old English Numeral
9. The Old English Adverb
10. Middle English
11. The Middle English Noun
12. The Article in Middle English
13. The Middle English Adjective
14. The Middle English Adverb
15. The Middle English Pronoun
16. The Middle English Verb
17. Middle English Syntax
18. Middle English Lexicon
19. Early Modern English
20. Early Modern English Grammar
21. Early Modern English Vocabulary
22. Late Modern English
23. Etymological Survey of the English Word Stock
24. Words of native origin
25. Causes and ways of borrowing
26. Interrelation between native and borrowed elements
27. Replenishment of Modern English Vocabulary
28. Ways and means of enriching vocabulary

29. Fundamentals of English Lexicography
30. Main types of English dictionaries
31. Classification of linguistic dictionaries
32. Explanatory dictionaries
33. Translation dictionaries
34. Specialised dictionaries
35. Some basic problems of dictionary compiling
36. Variants of the English language
37. Dialects of English
38. History of the territorial variants and lexical interchange between them
39. Lexical differences of territorial variants in Modern English
40. Local dialects in the British Isles
41. Local dialects in the USA

Topic 1: The history of English

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from "Englaland" [*sic*] and their language was called "Englisc" - from which the words "England" and "English" are derived.



Germanic invaders entered Britain on the east and south coasts in the 5th century

Old English (450-1100 AD)

The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be*, *strong* and *water*, for example, derive from Old English. Old English was spoken until around 1100.

Part of *Beowulf*, a poem written in Old English (public domain)

Albert Baugh, a notable English professor at the University of Pennsylvania notes amongst his published works(1) that around 85% of Old English is no longer in use; however, surviving elements form the basis of the Modern English language today.

Old English can be further subdivided into the following:

Prehistoric or Primitive[1] (5th to 7th Century) – available literature or documentation referencing this period is not available aside from limited examples of Anglo-Saxon runes;

Early Old English (7th to 10th Century) – this period contains some of the earliest documented evidence of the English language, showcasing notable authors and poets like Cynewulf and Aldhelm who were leading figures in the world of Anglo-Saxon literature.

Late Old English (10th to 11th Century) – can be considered the final phase of the Old English language which was brought about by the Norman invasion of England. This period ended with the consequential evolution of the English language towards Early Middle English.

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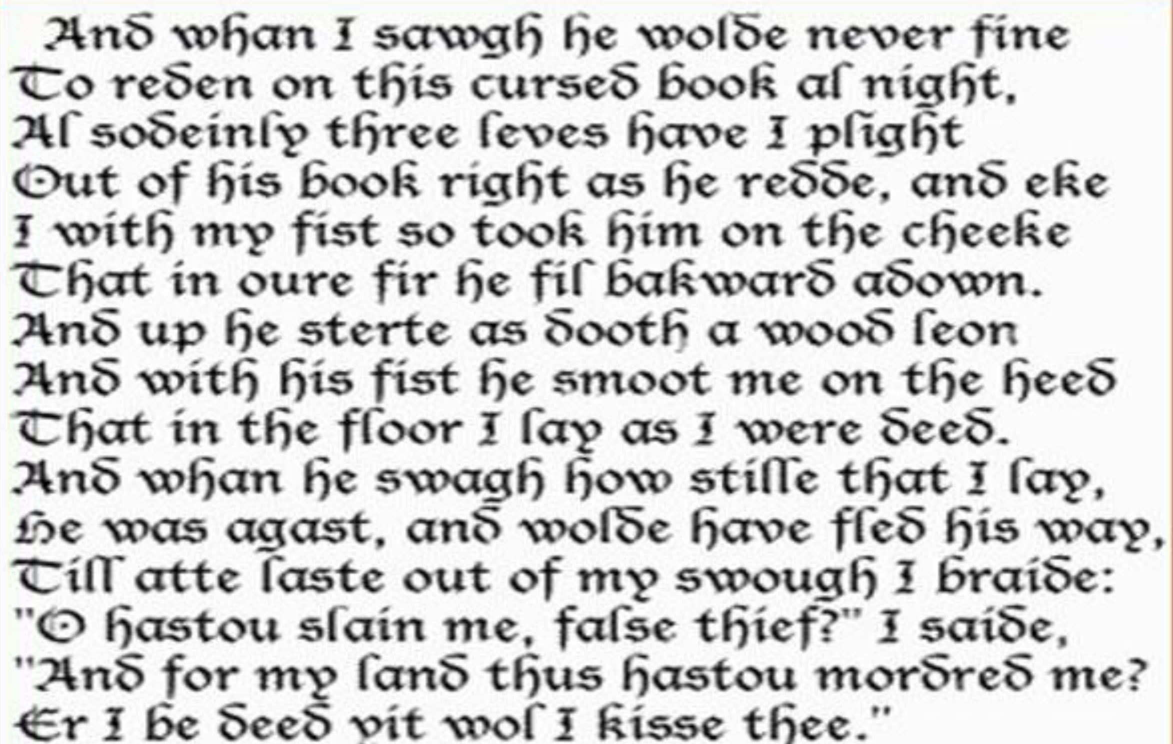
[1] Stumpf (1970, p. 7). 'We do not know what languages the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons spoke, nor even whether they were sufficiently similar to make them mutually intelligible, but it is reasonable to assume that by the end of the sixth century there must have been a language that could be understood by all and this we call Primitive Old English.'

Middle English (1100-1500)

In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors (called the Normans) brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes. For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. In the 14th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. This language is called Middle English. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.



And whan I sawgh he wolde never fine
To reden on this cursed book al night,
Al sodeinly three leves have I plight
Out of his book right as he redde, and eke
I with my fist so took him on the cheeke
That in oure fir he fil bakward adown.
And up he sterte as dooth a wood leon
And with his fist he smoot me on the heed
That in the floor I lay as I were deed.
And whan he swagh how stille that I lay,
He was agast, and wolde have fled his way,
Till atte laste out of my swough I braide:
"O hastou slain me, false thief?" I saide,
"And for my land thus hastou mordred me?
Er I be deed yit wol I kisse thee."

An example of Middle English by Chaucer (public domain)

Early Middle English

It was during this period that the English language, and more specifically, English grammar, started evolving with particular attention to syntax. Syntax is "*the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language,*" and we find that while the British government and its wealthy citizens Anglicised the language, Norman and French influences remained the dominant language until the 14th century.

An interesting fact to note is that this period has been attributed with the loss of case endings that ultimately resulted in inflection markers being replaced by more

complex features of the language. *Case endings* are "*a suffix on an inflected noun, pronoun, or adjective that indicates its grammatical function.*"

Charles Laurence Barber comments, *"The loss and weakening of unstressed syllables at the ends of words destroyed many of the distinctive inflections of Old English."*

Similarly, John McWhorter points out that while the Norsemen and their English counterparts were able to comprehend one another in a manner of speaking, the Norsemen's inability to pronounce the endings of various words ultimately resulted in the loss of inflectional endings.

Late Middle English

It was during the 14th century that a different dialect (known as the *East-Midlands*) began to develop around the London area.

Geoffrey Chaucer, a writer we have come to identify as the *Father of English Literature* and author of the widely renowned *Canterbury Tales, was* often heralded as the greatest poet of that particular time. It was through his various works that the English language was more or less "approved" alongside those of French and Latin, though he continued to write up some of his characters in the northern dialects.

It was during the mid-1400s that the Chancery English standard was brought about. The story goes that the clerks working for the Chancery in London were fluent in both French and Latin. It was their job to prepare official court documents and prior to the 1430s, both the aforementioned languages were mainly used by royalty, the church, and wealthy Britons. After this date, the clerks started using a dialect that sounded as follows:

- gaf (gave) not yaf (Chaucer's East Midland dialect)
- such not swich
- theyre (their) not hir [6]

As you can see, the above is starting to *sound* more like the present-day English language we know.

If one thinks about it, these clerks held enormous influence over the manner of *influential* communication, which ultimately shaped the foundations of Early Modern English.

Modern English

Early Modern English (1500-1800)

The changes in the English language during this period occurred from the 15th to mid-17th Century, and signified not only a change in pronunciation, vocabulary or grammar itself but also the start of the *English Renaissance.*

The English Renaissance has much quieter foundations than its pan-European cousin, the Italian Renaissance, and sprouted during the end of the 15th century. It was associated with the rebirth of societal and cultural movements, and while slow to gather steam during the initial phases, it celebrated the heights of glory during the *Elizabethan Age*.

It was William Caxton's innovation of an early printing press that allowed Early Modern English to become mainstream. The Printing Press was key in standardizing the English language through distribution of the English Bible.

Caxton's publishing of Thomas Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur* (the Death of Arthur) is regarded as print material's first bestseller. Malory's interpretation of various tales surrounding the legendary King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table, in his own words, and the ensuing popularity indirectly ensured that Early Modern English was here to stay.

It was during Henry the VIII's reign that English commoners were finally able to *read* the Bible in a language they understood, which to its own degree, helped spread the dialect of the common folk.

The end of the 16th century brought about the first complete translation of the Catholic Bible, and though it did not make a markable impact, it played an important role in the continued development of the English language, especially with the English-speaking Catholic population worldwide.

The end of the 16th and start of the 17th century would see the writings of actor and playwright, William Shakespeare, take the world by storm.

Why was Shakespeare's influence important during those times? Shakespeare started writing during a time when the English language was undergoing serious changes due to contact with other nations through war, colonisation, and the likes. These changes

were further cemented through Shakespeare and other emerging playwrights who found their ideas could not be expressed through the English language currently in circulation. Thus, the "adoption" of words or phrases from other languages were modified and added to the English language, creating a richer experience for all concerned.

It was during the early 17th century that we saw the establishment of the first successful English colony in what was called *The New World*. Jamestown, Virginia, also saw the dawn of *American English* with English colonizers adopting indigenous words, and adding them to the English language.

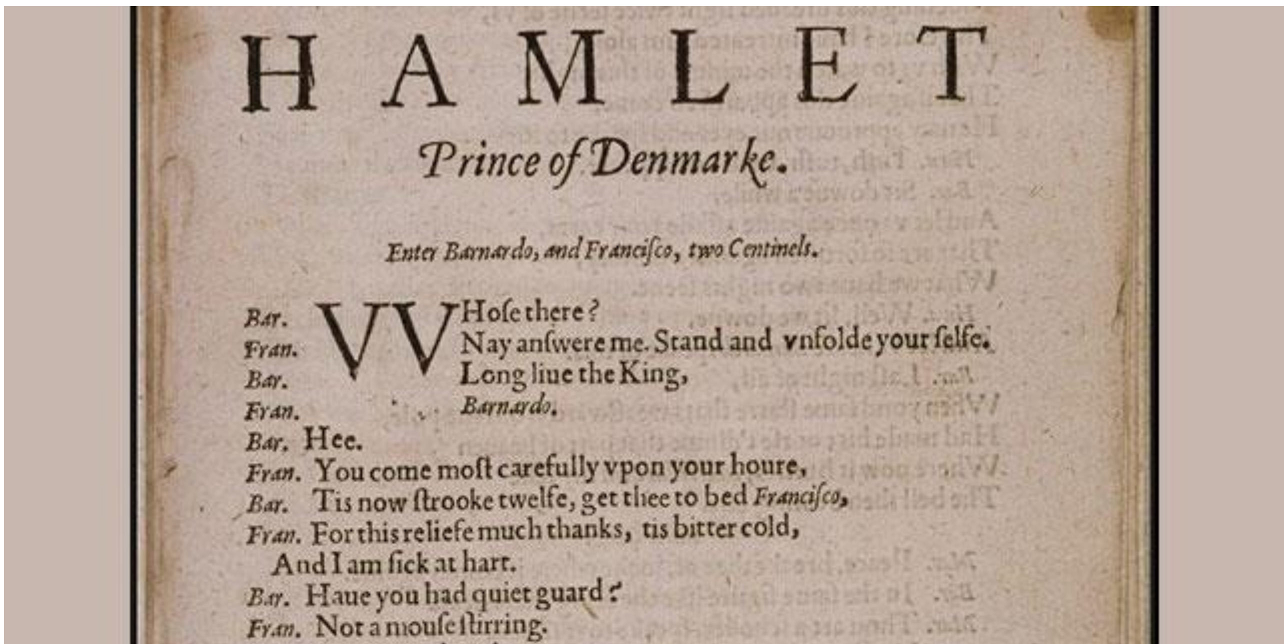
The constant influx of new blood due to voluntary and involuntary (i.e. slaves) migration during the 17th, 18th and 19th century meant a variety of English dialects had sprung to life, this included West African, Native American, Spanish and European influences.

Meanwhile, back home, the English Civil War, starting mid-17th century, brought with it political mayhem and social instability. At the same time, England's puritanical streak had taken off after the execution of Charles I. Censorship was given, and after the Parliamentarian victory during the War, Puritans promoted an austere lifestyle in reaction to what they viewed as excesses by the previous regime. England would undergo little more than a decade under Puritan leadership before the crowning of Charles II. His rule, effectively the return of the Stuart Monarchy, would bring about the Restoration period which saw the rise of poetry, philosophical writing, and much more.

It was during this age that literary classics, like those of John Milton's Paradise Lost, were published, and are considered relevant to this age!

To summarise, towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the 16th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world.

This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common language in print. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published.



HAMLET

Prince of Denmarke.

Enter Barnardo, and Franciſco, two Centinels.

Bar. WHoſe there?
Fran. Nay anſwere me. Stand and vnfolde your ſelfe.
Bar. Long liue the King,
Fran. *Barnardo.*
Bar. Hee.
Fran. You come moſt carefully vpon your houre,
Bar. Tis now ſtrooke twelfe, get thee to bed *Franciſco,*
Fran. For this reliefe much thanks, tis bitter cold,
And I am ſick at hart.
Bar. Haue you had quiet guard?
Fran. Not a mouſe ſtirring.

Lines from Hamlet, written in Early Modern English by Shakespeare (public domain)

Late Modern English (1800-Present)

The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

The Industrial Revolution and the Rise of the British Empire during the 18th, 19th and early 20th-century saw the expansion of the English language.

The advances and discoveries in science and technology during the Industrial Revolution saw a need for new words, phrases, and concepts to describe these ideas and inventions. Due to the nature of these works, scientists and scholars created words using Greek and Latin roots e.g. bacteria, histology, nuclear, biology.

Colonialism brought with it a double-edged sword. It can be said that the nations under the British Empire’s rule saw the introduction of the English language as a way for them to learn, engage, and hopefully, benefit from “overseas” influence. While scientific and technological discoveries were some of the benefits that could be shared, colonial Britain saw this as a way to not only teach their language but impart their culture and traditions upon societies they deemed as backward, especially those in Africa and Asia.

The idea may have backfired as the English language walked away with a large number of foreign words that have now become part and parcel of the English language e.g. shampoo, candy, cot and many others originated in India!

English in the 21st Century

If one endevours to study various English language courses taught today, we would find almost no immediate similarities between Modern English and Old English. English grammar has become exceedingly refined (even though smartphone messaging have made a mockery of the English language itself) where perfect living examples would be that of the current British Royal Family. This has given many an idea that speaking *proper* English is a touch snooty and high-handed. The basic history and development of a language that literally spawned from the embers of wars fought between ferocious civilisations. Imagine everything that our descendants went through, their trials and tribulations, their willingness to give up everything in order to achieve freedom of speech and expression.

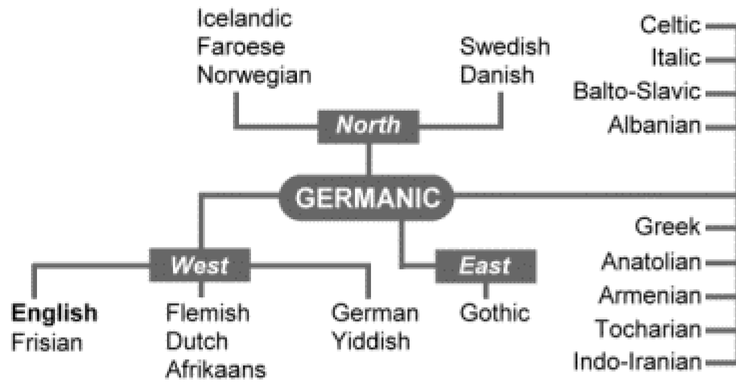
Everything has lead up to this point where English learners *decide* to study the language at their fancy, something we take for granted as many of us have access to courses to improve English at the touch of a button!

Varieties of English

From around 1600, the English colonization of North America resulted in the creation of a distinct American variety of English. Some English pronunciations and words "froze" when they reached America. In some ways, American English is more like the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some expressions that the British call "Americanisms" are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain (for example *trash* for rubbish, *loan* as a verb instead of lend, and *fall* for autumn; another example, *frame-up*, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies). Spanish also had an influence on American English (and subsequently British English), with words like *canyon*, *ranch*, *stampede* and *vigilante* being examples of Spanish words that entered English through the settlement of the American West. French words (through Louisiana) and West African words (through the slave trade) also influenced American English (and so, to an extent, British English).

Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA's dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology (including the Internet). But there are many other varieties of English around the world, including for example Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Indian English and Caribbean English.

The Germanic Family of Languages



English is a member of the Germanic family of languages. Germanic is a branch of the Indo-European language family.

A brief chronology of English		
55 BC	Roman invasion of Britain by Julius Caesar	Local inhabitants speak Celtish
AD 43	Roman invasion and occupation. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain	
436	Roman withdrawal from Britain complete	
449	Settlement of Britain by Germanic invaders begins	
450-480	Earliest known Old English inscriptions	Old English
1066	William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, invades and conquers England	
c1150	Earliest surviving manuscripts in Middle English	Middle

A brief chronology of English		
1348	English replaces Latin as the language of instruction in most schools	English
1362	English replaces French as the language of law. English is used in Parliament for the first time	
c1388	Chaucer starts writing *The Canterbury Tales*	
c1400	The Great Vowel Shift begins	
1476	William Caxton establishes the first English printing press	Early Modern English
1564	Shakespeare is born	
1604	*Table Alphabeticall*, the first English dictionary, is published	
1607	The first permanent English settlement in the New World (Jamestown) is established	
1616	Shakespeare dies	
1623	Shakespeare's First Folio is published	

A brief chronology of English		
1702	The first daily English-language newspaper, *The Daily Courant*, is published in London	
1755	Samuel Johnson publishes his English dictionary	
1776	Thomas Jefferson writes the American Declaration of Independence	
1782	Britain abandons its colonies in what is later to become the USA	
1828	Webster publishes his American English dictionary	Late Modern English
1922	The British Broadcasting Corporation is founded	
1928	The *Oxford English Dictionary* is published	

By Josef Essberger from https://www.englishclub.com/history-of-english/

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Topic 2: Fundamentals of English Lexicography

Lexicography, the science, of dictionary-compiling, is closely connected with lexicology, both dealing with the same problems: the form, meaning, usage and origin of vocabulary units and making use of each other's achievements.

On the one hand, the enormous raw material collected in dictionaries is widely used by linguists in their research. On the other hand, the principles of dictionary-making are always based on linguistic fundamentals, and each individual entry is made up in accordance with the current knowledge and findings of scholars in the various fields of language study.

1. Encyclopedic and linguistic dictionaries. Classification of linguistic dictionaries.
2. Basic problems of dictionary-compiling.
3. Learner's dictionaries and some problems of their compilation.

Lexicography is the science of dictionary compiling.

Lexicography is closely connected with Lexicology

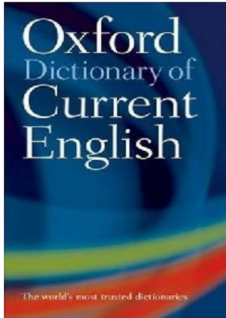
The object of lexicography and lexicology: vocabulary of a language

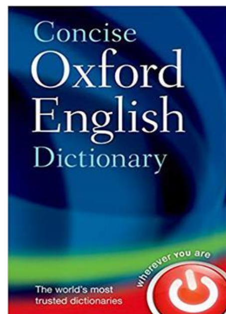
- The material collected in dictionaries is widely used by linguists in their research.
- The principles of dictionary making are always based on linguistic fundamentals.

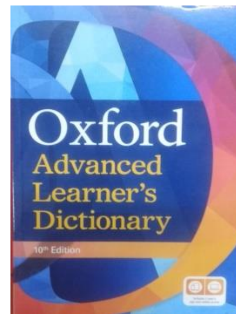
A dictionary is a word-book with lists of vocabulary units and their specific semantic, structural and functional characteristics.

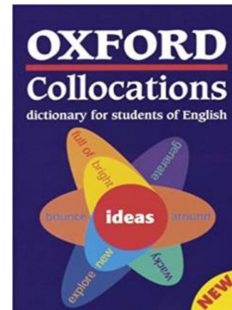
There are about 250 different kinds of dictionaries and their typology is not easy.

Oxford dictionaries

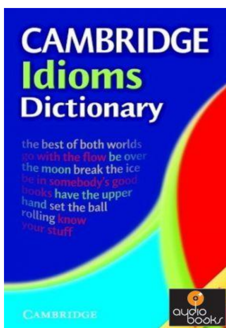


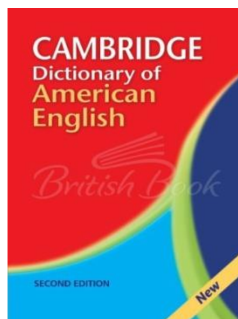


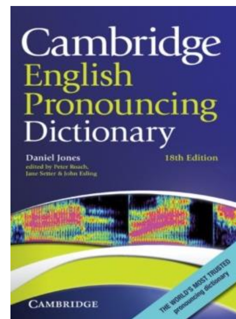


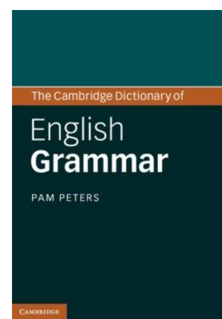


Cambridge dictionaries

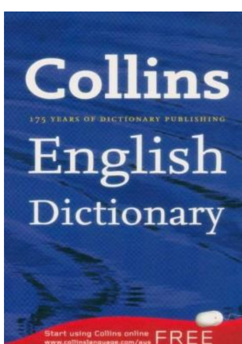


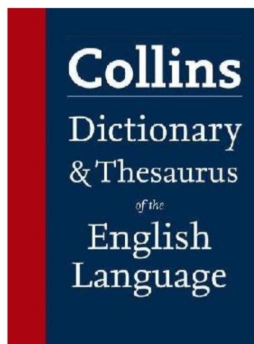


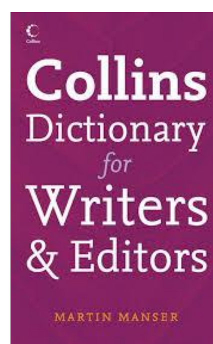


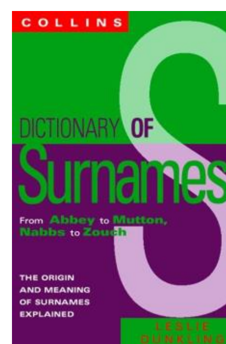


Collins dictionaries

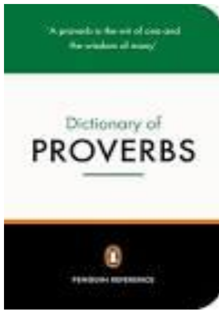


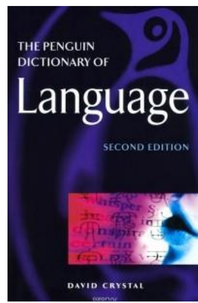


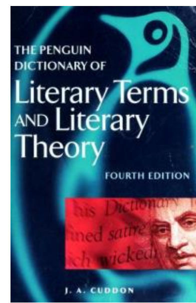


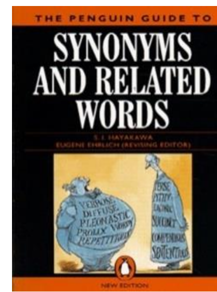


Penguin dictionaries

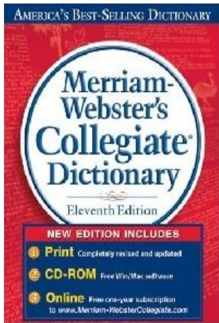


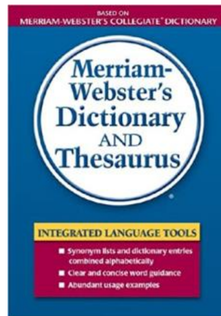




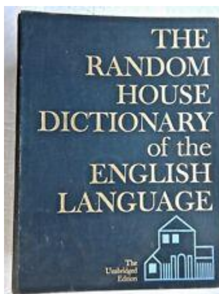


Merriam-Webster's dictionary





Random House dictionaries



According to the choice of items included and the sort of information given about them:

- Encyclopedic dictionaries
- Linguistic dictionaries

Linguistic dictionaries are word-books.

Subject matter: lexical units and their linguistic properties (pronunciation, meaning, peculiarities of use, etc.)

Encyclopedic dictionaries are thing-books that give information about the extra-linguistic world.

Subject matter: concepts, their relations to other objects and phenomena, etc.

For example, **influenza**

In a linguistic dictionary:	in an encyclopedic dictionary:
• spelling	the symptoms
• pronunciation	the causes
• grammar characteristics	characteristics and varieties of this disease
• synonyms, etc.	treatment, etc.

Reference books: books confined for definite fields of knowledge

Encyclopedic and linguistic dictionaries often overlap.

Linguistic Dictionaries:

1. nature of the word-list:

- general – contain lexical units in ordinary use with this or that proportion of items from various spheres of life;
- restricted – contain lexical units from a certain part of the word-stock (terminological, phraseological, dialectal, etc.).

2. the information provided:

- explanatory – present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered;
- specialized – deal with lexical units only in relation to their etymology or frequency or pronunciation.

3. the language:

- monolingual (information is given in the same language);
- bilingual.

No dictionary can be a general-purpose word-book. Each is designed for a certain set of users.

Characterization of a Dictionary:

1. the nature of the word-list;
2. the information supplied;
3. the language of the explanations;
4. the prospective user.

Main types of linguistic dictionaries:

Explanatory Dictionaries:

provide information on all aspects of the lexical units entered: graphical, phonetical, grammatical, semantic, stylistic, etymological, etc.

Synchronic: deal with the form, usage and meaning of lexical units in modern English, taking no account of its past development.

- *Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English;*
- *Universal Dictionary of the English Language.*

Diachronic: concerned with the development of words occurring within the written history of the language.

- *New English Dictionary on Historical Principles;*
- *The Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles.*

Translation dictionaries

word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language.

- Országh László: Magyar-angol Nagyszótár, Akadémiai Kiadó
- Országh László: Angol-magyar Nagyszótár, Akadémiai Kiadó

Phraseological dictionaries

have vast collections of idiomatic or colloquial phrases, proverbs.

- *An E.-R. Phraseological Dictionary by A.V. Kunin*

New Words Dictionaries

reflect the growth of neologisms in the English language.

Dictionaries of neologisms

- A *Dictionary of new English. A Barnhart Dictionary (1973*) (covers the period of time from 1963 – 1972);
- *The Longman Register of New Words (1990);*
- *Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words (1996*);
- *Beyond the Dictionary* by *Brian Locket (*1998).

Dictionaries of Slang

contain elements from areas of substandard speech (vulgarisms, jargonisms, taboo words, curse-words, colloquialisms, etc.)

- *Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English by E. Partridge;*
- *The Dictionary of American Slang by H. Wentworth and S.B. Flexner*.

Usage dictionaries

investigate usage problems of all kinds:

- the difference in meaning between words – *e.g. formality and formalism*;
- give the proper pronunciation of words;
- give the plural forms.
    - *Dictionary of Modern English Usage by N.W. Fowler.*

Dictionaries of Word-frequency:

inform the user about the frequency of occurrence of lexical units in speech.

Reverse Dictionary:

a list of words in which the words are arranged in alphabetical order starting with their final letters.

- *Rhyming Dictionary of the English Language by John Walker.*

Pronouncing dictionaries:

record contemporary pronunciation, indicate various pronunciations.

- *English Pronouncing dictionary by Daniel Jones.*

Etymological Dictionaries:

trace present-day words to the oldest forms available, establish their original meaning, point out the source of borrowing.

- *Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology by C.T. Onions*

Ideographic dictionaries

contain words grouped by the concepts.

- *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases by P.M. Roget*.

Dictionaries of Synonyms

- *A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions by R. Soule*;
- *Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms*;
- The best known bilingual dictionary of synonyms is *English Synonyms* compiled by Y. Apresyan.

Types of dictionaries

Aspect	Dictionaries
Semantics	Explanatory
Word –structure	Reverse dictionaries
Semantic ties	Ideographic dictionaries
Combinability with a) free collocations b) set collocability	a) dictionaries of collocations b) phraseological dictionaries
Division according to a) similarity of meaning b) polarity of meaning	a) dictionaries of synonyms b) dictionaries of antonyms
Value of occurrence	Frequency dictionaries

2. Basic problems of dictionary-compiling

1. Selection of lexical units

2. Arrangement of entries

3. Selection and arrangement of meanings

4. Definition of meanings

5. Illustrative examples

6. Choice of adequate equivalents

7. Setting of the entry

8. Structure of the dictionary

No dictionary of any size can register all lexical units.

The choice of lexical units depends on:

- the type of the dictionary;
- the aim of the compiler;
- the user of the dictionary.

A dictionary compiler chooses:
the type of lexical units;

the number of items;

what to select and what to leave out in the dictionary.

2. Arrangement of Entries

Types of arrangement

1) **alphabetical**: the basic units are given as main entries that appear in alphabetical order while the derivatives are given as subentries or in the same entry (run-outs).

Run-outs – in the same entry

- ***despicable**, adj. Vile, contemptible*

  Hence – LY adv.

Subentry – includes definitions

- ***despicable** adj. that is or should be despised; contemptible.* ***despicably**, adv. in a despicable manner.*

Advantage: easy finding of any word and establishing its meaning, frequency value, etc.

2) **cluster type**: words are arranged in nests, based on this or that principle

Advantage: it requires less space and presents a clear picture of the relations of this unit with other words.

3. Selection and Arrangement of Meanings

The number of meanings and their choice depend on:

- the aim of compilers;
- their decisions about archaic, dialectical words, etc.

Diachronic dictionaries list more meanings than synchronic dictionaries.

3 ways of meaning arrangement:

- in the sequence of historical development (historical order);
- frequency of use (empirical or actual order);
- logical connection (logical order).

4. Definition of Meanings

Types of definitions

1. **encyclopedic definition** – determine not only the word-meaning, but also the underlying concepts;
2. **descriptive definitions or paraphrases** – determine only the word-meaning;

3. **synonymous words and expressions** – consist of words or word-groups with nearly equivalent meaning;
4. by means of **cross-references**.
    1. *decrescendo = diminuendo*
    2. *waggle = wiggle*

7. Setting of the Entry

Explanatory Dictionaries of Synchronic Type Contain:

- accepted spelling and pronunciation;
- grammatical characteristics
  (a part of speech, irregular grammatical forms);
- definitions of meanings;
- modern currency
- illustrative examples
- derivatives
- phraseology
- etymology
- synonyms and antonyms

Explanatory Dictionaries of Diachronic Type Include:

- chronological arrangement of entries
- the etymology of the word
- the dates which indicate the time of the 1st registration of the word or its last registration

Parts of a dictionary

1. **introduction** or **preface** (some separate sections designed to help the user in handling the dictionary);
2. **dictionary itself**;
3. **addendum** (usually contains a key to pronunciation, the list of abbreviations, geographical and personal names, etc.)

3. Learner's dictionaries and some problems of their compilation

- specially compiled dictionaries to meet the demands of the learners for whom English is not their <u>mother tongue</u>

Features:

- a strictly limited word-list;
- a great attention to the functioning of lexical units in speech;
- a strong normative character of the lexical units included;
- their compilation is focused on the native linguistic background of the user.

Problems of The Compilation

1. **the selection of entry words**

- information of currently accepted usage;
- no archaic, dialectal words;
- only the most accepted pronunciation forms;
- words are chosen on the frequency principle.

2. the arrangement of meanings

- the actual order (the main meanings before minor ones),

- literal uses before special,
- easily understandable uses before difficult.

3. the definition of meanings

- descriptive definitions are mostly used;
- encyclopedic definitions and cross-references are rare;
- definitions are in simple terms.

4. setting of the entry

The attention is to the ways words are used in speech.

5. the supplementary

- lists of irregular verbs, common abbreviations, geographical names, etc.
- common forenames,
- numerical expressions,
- the works of William Shakespeare, etc.

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STOP & CHECK

1. How can you characterize the first English dictionaries?

2. What is a glossary?

3. What dictionary is eighteenth century standard?

4. What encyclopedic dictionaries are known to you?

5.What is the number of entries in a good-size translating dictionary?

6. What kind of information can you derive from dictionary usage?

7. Do general dictionaries habitually exclude slang?

8. What is a capital investigation of phraseologisms in the form of a dictionary?

9. When did American lexicography begin to develop?

10. What dictionaries of new words do you know?

11. What is the role of supplementary notes?

12. What is the order of arrangement of different meanings of polysemantic words?

ASSIGNMENT

Characterize the following dictionaries:

1. The English-Hungarian Dictionary ed. by Országh László (Akadémiai Kiadó, Budapest)

2. A Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English by E. Partridge.

3. A Dictionary of Modem English Usage by N.W.Fowler.

4. English Pronouncing Dictionary by D Jones.

5.Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases by R.M.Roget.

6. An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary by J.Bosworth.

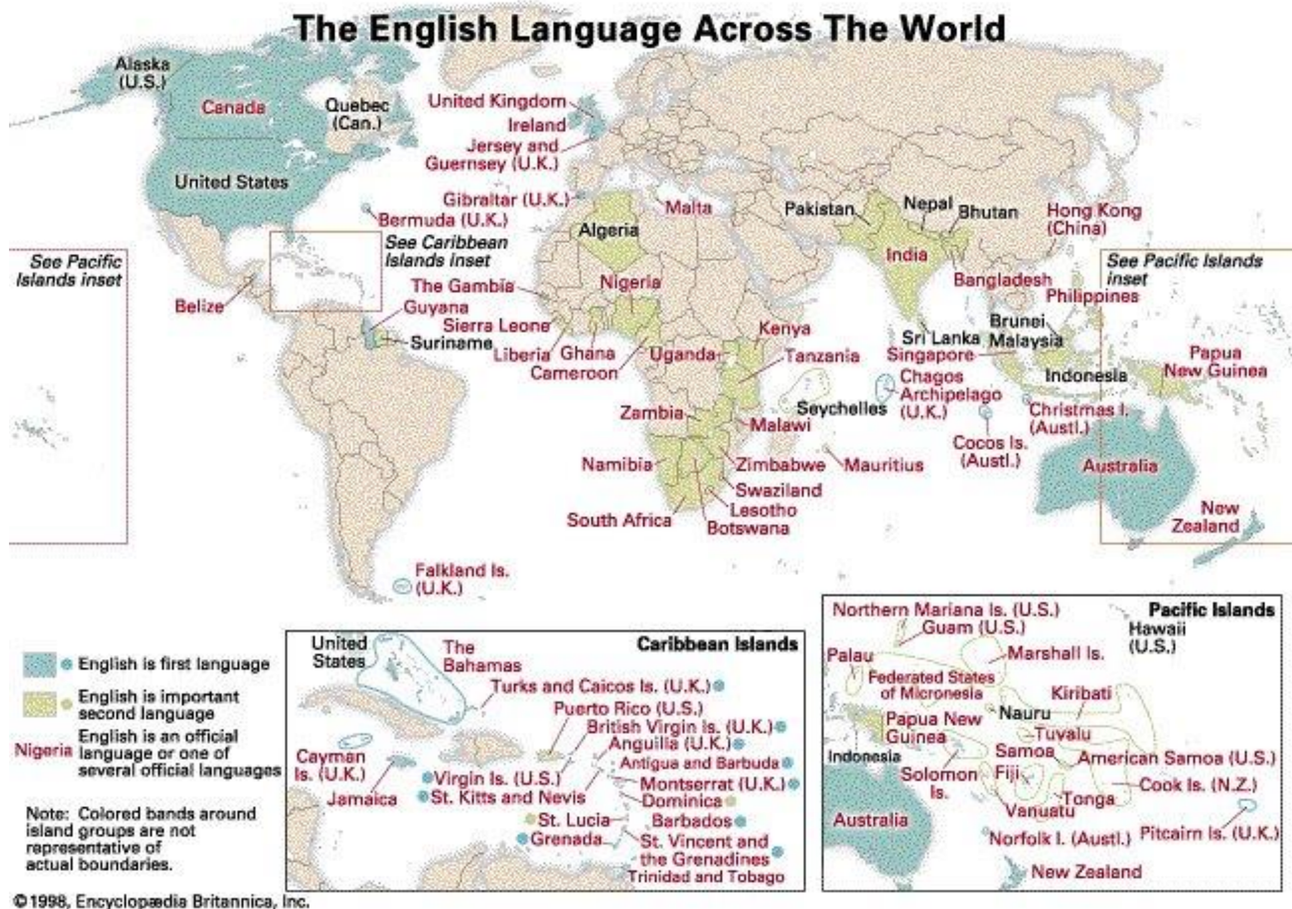
7. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. (A. S. Hornby)

8. Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology by Ch.T.Onions.

9. The Second Bamhart Dictionary of New English.-N.Y. 1980.

10.The Oxford English Dictionary (OED). A corrected reissue of the New English Dictionary on Historical Principles (NED): In thirteen vols/ Ed. By Y.A.H. Murray, H. Brndley, W.A. Craigie, Ch.T. Onions.- Oxford, 1977.

Topic 3: Variants of the English Language



Varieties of English

British English

The abbreviation RP (Received Pronunciation) denotes what is traditionally considered the standard accent of people living in London and the southeast of England and of other people elsewhere who speak in this way. RP is the only British accent that has no specific geographical correlate: it is not possible, on hearing someone speak RP, to know which part of the United Kingdom he or she comes from. Though it is traditionally considered a "prestige" accent, RP is not intrinsically superior to other varieties of English; it is itself only one particular accent that has, through the accidents of history, achieved a higher status than others. Although acquiring its unique standing without the aid of any established authority, it was fostered by the public schools (Winchester, Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and so on) and the ancient universities (Oxford and Cambridge). Other varieties of English are well preserved in spite of the leveling influences of film, television, and radio. In several Northern accents, RP /a:/ (the first vowel sound in *father*) is still pronounced /æ/ (a sound like the *a* in *fat*) in words such as *laugh, fast,* and *path*; this pronunciation has been carried across the Atlantic into American English.

In the words *run, rung,* and *tongue*, the RP pronunciation of the vowel is like the *u* in *but*; in some Northern accents it is pronounced like the *oo* in *book*. In the words *bind, find,* and *grind*, the RP pronunciation of the vowel sound is /ai/, like that in "bide"; in some Northern accents, it is /i/, like the sound in *feet*. The vowel sound in the words *go, home,* and *know* in some Northern accents is /ɔ:/, approximately the sound in *law* in some American English accents. In parts of Northumberland, RP *it* is still pronounced "hit," as in Old English. In various Northern accents the definite article *the* is heard as *t*, *th*, or *d*. In those accents in which it becomes both *t* and *th*, *t* is used before consonants and *th* before vowels. Thus, one hears *t'book* but *th'apple*. When, however, the definite article is reduced to *t* and the following word begins with *t* or *d*, as in *t'tail* or *t'dog*, it is replaced by a slight pause as in the RP articulation of the first *t* in *hat trick.* The RP /tʃ/, the sound of the *ch* in *church*, can become *k*, as in *thack* ("thatch, roof") and *kirk* ("church"). In some Northern dialects strong verbs retain the old past-tense singular forms *band, brak, fand, spak* for standard English forms *bound, broke, found,* and *spoke*. Strong verbs also retain the past participle inflection *-en* as in *comen, shutten, sitten,* and *getten* or *gotten* for standard English *come, shut, sat,* and *got*.

In some Midland accents the diphthongs in *throat* and *stone* have been kept apart, whereas in RP they have fallen together. In Cheshire, Derby, Stafford, and Warwick, RP *singing* is pronounced with a *g* sounded after the velar nasal sound (as in RP *finger*). In Norfolk one hears *skellington* and *solintary* for *skeleton* and *solitary,* showing an intrusive *n* just as does *messenger* in RP from French *messager*, *passenger* from French *passager*, and *nightingale* from Old English *nihtegala*. Other East Anglian words show consonantal metathesis (switch position), as in *singify* for *signify,* and substitution of one liquid or nasal for another, as in *chimbly* for *chimney* and *synnable* for *syllable*. *Hantle* for *handful* shows syncope (disappearance) of an unstressed vowel, partial assimilation of *d* to *t* before voiceless *f*, and subsequent loss of *f* in a triple consonant group.

In some South Western accents, initial *f* and *s* are often voiced, becoming *v* and *z*. Two words with initial *v* have found their way into RP: *vat* from *fat* and *vixen* from *fixen* (female fox). Another South Western feature is the development of a *d* between *l* or *n* and *r*, as in *parlder* for *parlour* and *carnder* for *corner*. The bilabial semivowel *w* has developed before *o* in *wold* for *old*, and in *wom* for *home*, illustrating a similar development in RP by which Old English *ān* has become *one*, and Old English *hāl* has come to be spelled *whole*, as compared with Northern *hale*. In some South Western accents *yat* comes from the old singular *geat*, whereas RP *gate* comes from the plural *gatu*. Likewise, *clee* comes from the old nominative *clea*, whereas RP *claw* comes from the oblique cases. The verbs *keel* and *kemb* have developed regularly from Old English *cēlan* "to make cool" and *kemban* "to use a comb," whereas the corresponding RP verbs *cool* and *comb* come from the adjective and the noun, respectively.

In Wales, people often speak a clear and measured form of English with rising intonations inherited from ancestral Celtic. They tend to aspirate both plosives (stops) and fricative consonants very forcibly; thus, *two* is pronounced with an audible puff of breath after the initial *t*, and *while* may be heard with a voiceless /w/.

Scots, or Lowland Scottish, was once a part of Northern English, but the two dialects began to diverge in the 14th century. Today speakers of Scots trill their *r*'s, shorten vowels, and simplify diphthongs. A few Scots words, such as *bairn, brae, canny, dour,* and *pawky*, have made their way into RP. Scots is not to be confused with Scottish Gaelic, a Celtic language still spoken by about 60,000 people (almost all bilingual) mostly in the Highlands and the Western Isles. Thanks to such writers as Robert Burns and Sir Walter Scott, many Scottish Gaelic words have been preserved in English literature.

Northern Ireland has dialects related in part to Scots and in part to the southern Irish dialect of English. The influence of the Irish language on the speech of Dublin is most evident in the syntax of drama and in the survival of such picturesque expressions as *We are after finishing*, *It's sorry you will be*, and *James do be cutting corn every day*.

American and Canadian English

The dialect regions of the United States are most clearly marked along the Atlantic littoral, where the earlier settlements were made. Three dialects can be defined: Northern, Midland, and Southern. Each has its subdialects.

American English dialects

The Northern dialect is spoken in New England. Its six chief subdialects comprise northeastern New England (Maine, New Hampshire, and eastern Vermont), southeastern New England (eastern Massachusetts, eastern Connecticut, and Rhode Island), southwestern New England (western Massachusetts and western Connecticut), the inland north (western Vermont and upstate New York), the Hudson Valley, and metropolitan New York.

The Midland dialect is spoken in the coastal region from Point Pleasant, in New Jersey, to Dover, in Delaware. Its seven major subdialects comprise the Delaware Valley, the Susquehanna Valley, the Upper Ohio Valley, northern West Virginia, the Upper Potomac and Shenandoah, southern West Virginia and eastern Kentucky, western North Carolina and South Carolina, and eastern Tennessee.

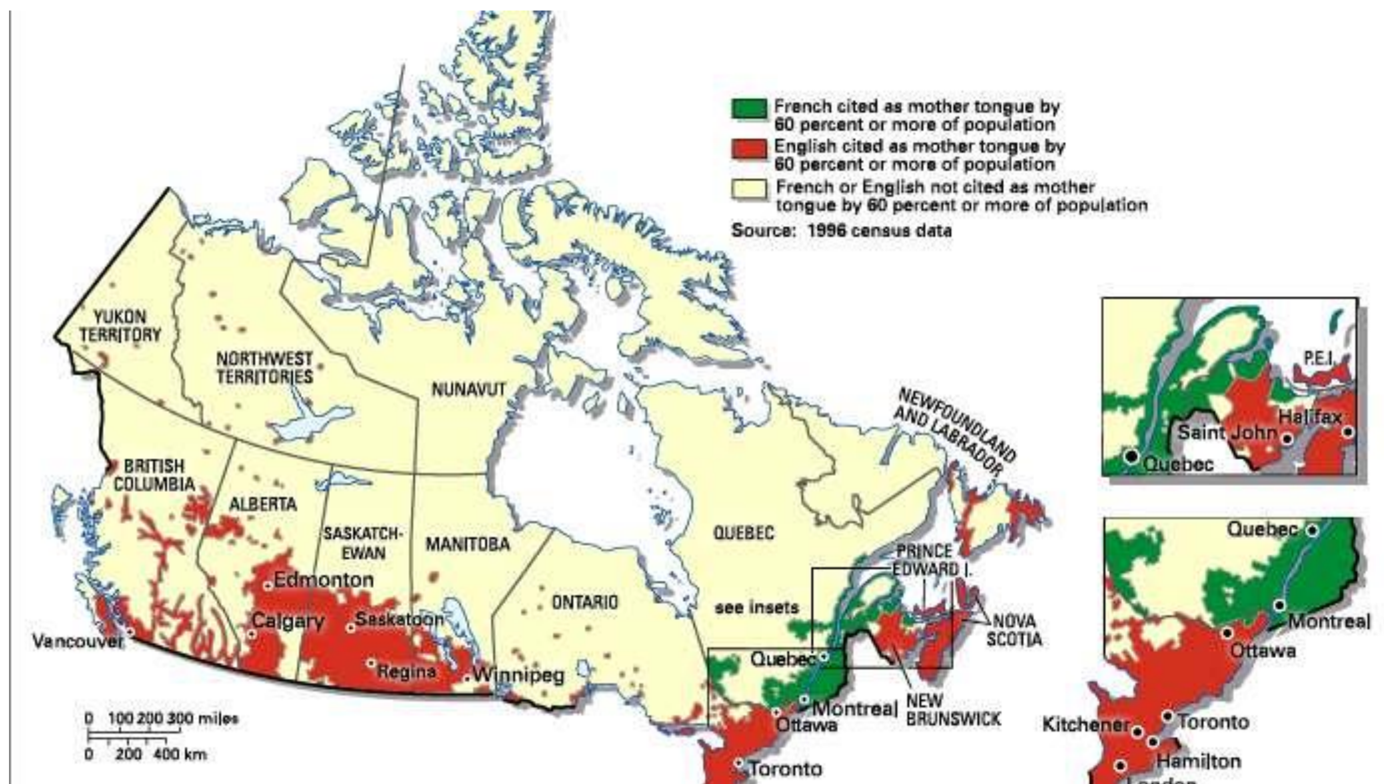
The Southern dialect area covers the coastal region from Delaware to South Carolina. Its five chief subdialects comprise the Delmarva Peninsula, the Virginia Piedmont, northeastern North Carolina (Albemarle Sound and Neuse Valley), Cape Fear and Pee Dee valleys, and the South Carolina Low Country, around Charleston.

These boundaries, based on those of the *Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada*, are highly tentative. To some extent these regions preserve the traditional speech of southeastern and southern England, where most of the early colonists were born. The first settlers to arrive in Virginia (1607) and Massachusetts (1620) soon learned to adapt old words to new uses, but they were content to borrow names from the local Indian languages for unknown trees, such as *hickory* and *persimmon* and for unfamiliar animals, such as *raccoon* and *woodchuck*. Later they took words from foreign settlers: *chowder* and *prairie* from the French, *scow* and *sleigh* from the Dutch. They made new compounds, such as *backwoods* and *bullfrog*, and gave new meanings to such words as *lumber* (which in British English denotes disused furniture, or junk) and *corn* (which in British English signifies any grain, especially wheat) to mean “maize.”

Before the Declaration of Independence (1776), two-thirds of the immigrants had come from England, but after that date they arrived in large numbers from Ireland. The Great Famine of 1845–49 drove 1.5 million Irish to seek homes in the New World, and the European revolutions of 1848 drove as many Germans to settle in Pennsylvania and the Midwest. After the close of the American Civil War, millions of Scandinavians, Slavs, and Italians crossed the ocean and eventually settled mostly in the North Central and Upper Midwest states. In some areas of South Carolina and Georgia, enslaved Africans working on rice and cotton plantations developed a contact language called Gullah, or Geechee, that made use of many structural and lexical features of their native languages. This variety of English is comparable to such contact languages as Sranan (Taki-taki) of Suriname and Melanesian Pidgins.

The speech of the Atlantic Seaboard shows far greater differences in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary than that of any area in the North Central states, the Upper Midwest, the Rocky Mountains, or the Pacific Coast. Today, urbanization, quick transport, and television have tended to level out some dialectal differences in the United States. On the other hand, immigrant groups have introduced new varieties in which the influence of ethnic origins is evident, and some immigrant languages are widely spoken (notably Spanish, in the southeastern and southwestern states).

The boundary with Canada nowhere corresponds to any boundary between dialects, and the influence of United States English is strong, being felt least in the Maritime Provinces and Newfoundland and Labrador. Nevertheless, in spite of the effect of this proximity to the United States, British influences are still potent in some of the larger cities; Scottish influences are well sustained in Ontario. Canada remains bilingual. Less than one-fourth of its people, living mostly in the province of Quebec, have French as their mother tongue.



Distribution of Majority Anglophone and Francophone Populations in Canada

The 1996 census of Canada, from which this map is derived, defined a person's mother tongue as that language learned at home during childhood and still understood at the time of the census.

Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc.

Australian and New Zealand English

Unlike Canada, Australia has no concentration of a European language other than English within its borders. There are still many Aboriginal languages, though they each are spoken by small numbers and their continued existence is threatened. More than 80 percent of the population is of British descent, but significant growth in the numbers of immigrants, especially from Europe and the Pacific Rim countries, took place in the last quarter of the 20th century.

During colonial times the new settlers had to find names for fauna and flora (e.g., *banksia, iron bark, whee whee*) different from anything previously known to them: trees that shed bark instead of leaves and cherries with external stones. The words *brush, bush, creek, paddock,* and *scrub* acquired wider senses, whereas the terms *brook, dale, field, forest,* and *meadow* were seldom used. A creek leading out of a river and entering it again downstream was called an *anastomizing* branch (a term from anatomy), or an *anabranch,* whereas a creek coming to a dead end was called by its native name, a *billabong*. The giant kingfisher with its raucous bray was long referred to as a *laughing jackass*, later as a *bushman's clock*, but now it is a *kookaburra*. Cattle so intractable that only roping could control them were said to be *ropable*, a term now used as a synonym for "angry" or "extremely annoyed."

A *deadbeat* was a penniless "sundowner" at the very end of his tether, and a *no-hoper* was an incompetent fellow, hopeless and helpless. An *offsider* (strictly, the offside driver of a bullock team) was any assistant or partner. A *rouseabout* was first an odd-job man on a sheep station and then any kind of handyman. He was, in fact, the "down-under" counterpart of the *wharf labourer*, or *roustabout*, on the Mississippi River. Both words originated in Cornwall, and many other terms, now exclusively Australian, came ultimately from British dialects. *Dinkum*, for instance, meaning "true, authentic, genuine," echoed the *fair dinkum*, or *fair deal*, of Lincolnshire dialect. *Fossicking* about for surface gold, and then rummaging about in

general, perpetuated the term *fossick* ("to elicit information, ferret out the facts") from the Cornish dialect of English. To *barrack*, or "jeer noisily," recalled Irish *barrack* ("to brag, boast"), whereas *skerrick* in the phrase *not a skerrick left* was obviously identical with the *skerrick* meaning "small fragment, particle," still heard in English dialects from Westmorland to Hampshire.

Some Australian English terms came from Aboriginal peoples and Torres Strait Islander peoples: the words *boomerang, corroboree* (warlike dance and then any large and noisy gathering), *dingo* (reddish brown wild dog), *galah* (cockatoo), *gunyah* (bush hut), *kangaroo, karri* (dark red eucalyptus tree), *nonda* (rosaceous tree yielding edible fruit), *wallaby* (small marsupial), and *wallaroo* (large rock kangaroo). Although there is remarkably little regional variation in pronunciation throughout the entire continent, there is significant social variation. The neutral vowel /ə/ (as the *a* in *sofa*) is frequently used, as in London Cockney: *arches* and *archers* are both pronounced [*a*:tʃəz], and the pronunciations of the diphthongs in RP *day* and *go* are more like (RP) *die* and *now*.

Although New Zealand lies over 1,000 miles away, much of the English spoken there is similar to that of Australia. The blanket term Austral English is sometimes used to cover the language of the whole of Australasia, but this term is far from popular with New Zealanders because it makes no reference to New Zealand and gives all the prominence, so they feel, to Australia. Between North and South Islands there are observable differences. In particular, Maori, which remains a living language (related to Tahitian, Hawaiian, and the other Austronesian [Malayo-Polynesian] languages), has a greater number of speakers and more influence in North Island.

South Asian English

In 1950 India became a federal republic within the Commonwealth of Nations, and Hindi was declared the first national language. English, it was stated, would

"continue to be used for all official purposes until 1965." In 1967, however, by the terms of the English Language Amendment Bill, English was proclaimed "an alternative official or associate language with Hindi until such time as all non-Hindi states had agreed to its being dropped." English is therefore acknowledged to be indispensable. It is the only practicable means of day-to-day communication between the central government at New Delhi and states with non-Hindi speaking populations, especially with the Deccan, or "South," where millions speak Dravidian (non-Indo-European) languages—Telugu, Tamil, Kannada, and Malayalam. English is widely used in business, in higher education, and in scientific research.

In 1956 Pakistan became an autonomous republic comprising two states, East and West. Bengali and Urdu were made the national languages of East and West Pakistan, respectively, but English was adopted as a third official language and functioned as the medium of interstate communication. (In 1971 East Pakistan broke away from its western partner and became the independent state of Bangladesh.) English is also widely used in Sri Lanka and Nepal.

African English

Africa is one of the world's most multilingual areas, if people are measured against languages. Upon a large number of indigenous languages rests a slowly changing superstructure of world languages (Arabic, English, French, and Portuguese). The problems of language are everywhere linked with political, social, economic, and educational factors.

The Republic of South Africa, the oldest British settlement in the continent, resembles Canada in having two recognized European languages within its borders: English and Afrikaans, or Cape Dutch. Both British and Dutch traders followed in the wake of 15th-century Portuguese explorers and have lived in widely varying war-and-peace relationships ever since. Although the Union of South Africa,

comprising Cape Province, Transvaal, Natal, and Orange Free State, was for more than a half century (1910–61) a member of the British Empire and Commonwealth, its four prime ministers (Louis Botha, Jan Smuts, J.B.M. Hertzog, and Daniel F. Malan) were all Dutchmen. The Afrikaans language began to diverge seriously from European Dutch in the late 18th century and gradually came to be recognized as a separate language. Although the English spoken in South Africa differs in some respects from standard British English, its speakers do not regard the language as a separate one. They have naturally come to use many Afrikanerisms, such as *kloof*, *kopje*, *krans*, *veld*, and *vlei*, to denote features of the landscape and employ African names to designate local animals, plants, and social and political concepts. South Africa’s 1996 constitution identified 11 official languages, English among them. The words *trek* and *commando*, notorious in South African history, are among several that have entered world standard English.

Elsewhere in Africa, English helps to answer the needs of wider communication. It functions as an official language of administration in, and is an official language of, numerous countries, all of them multilingual. Liberia is among the African countries with the deepest historical ties to English—the population most associated with the country’s founding migrated from the United States during the 19th century—but English is just one of more than two dozen languages spoken there by multiple ethnic groups. English’s place within that linguistic diversity is representative of English in Africa as a whole.

Simeon Potter, David Crystal, The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica

Topic 4: Local dialects in the British Isles and the USA

1. Territorial variants of the English language.

S t a n d a r d E n g l i s h is the official language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and spoken by educated people; it is commonly defined as that form of English which is literary, uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood.

Every language allows different kinds of variations: geographical or territorial, stylistic, the difference between the written and the spoken form and others. We shall be concerned here with the territorial variations, the others being the domain of stylistics.

For historical and economic reasons the English language has spread over vast territories. It is the national language of England proper, the USA, Australia, New Zealand and some provinces of Canada. It is the official language in Wales, Scotland, in Gibraltar and on the Island of Malta. The English language was also at different times enforced as an official language on the peoples of Asia, Africa, Central and South America who fell under British rule. It is natural that the English language is not used with uniformity in the British Isles and in Australia, in the USA and in New Zealand, etc. The English language also has some peculiarities in Wales, Scotland, in other parts of the British Isles and America.

Modern linguistics distinguishes territorial variants of a national language and local dialects.

Variants of a language are regional varieties of a standard literary language characterized by some minor peculiarities in the sound system, vocabulary and grammar and by their own literary norms.

We speak of the 5 variants of the English national language: British, American, Australian, Canadian, and Indian.

The differences between American English (AE), British English (BE), Australian English (AuE), Canadian English (CnE) are immediately noticeable in the field of phonetics, i.e. articulatory - acoustic characteristics of some phonemes, the differences in the rhythm and intonation of speech. The dissimilarities in grammar are scarce.

For the most part these dissimilarities consist in the preference of this or that grammatical category. E.g., the preference of Past Indefinite to Present Perfect in AE, the formation of the Future Tense with "will" for all the persons, etc. The Present Continuous form in the meaning of Future is used twice as frequently in BE as in AE, CnE, AuE.

The variations in vocabulary are not very numerous. The vocabulary of all the variants is characterized by a high percentage of borrowings from the language of the people who inhabited the land before the English colonizers came. Many of them denote some specific realia of the new country: local animals, plants or weather conditions, new social relations, new trades and conditions of labour.

In every variant there are locally marked lexical units specific to the present-day usage in one of the variants and not found in the others, i.e. Briticism, Americanisms, Australianisms, Canadianisms. They may be full and partial.

Full locally-marked lexical units are those specific to the British, American, etc. variant in all their meanings. E.g. fortnight, pillar-box are full Briticisms, campus, mailboy, drive-in are full Americanisms.

These may be subdivided into lexical units denoting some realia having no counterparts in other English-speaking countries, such as

a) the names of local animals and plants

AuE kangaroo, koala, dingo, gum-tree

AE bullfrog (a large frog), moose (the American elk), opossum, raccoon (an American animal related to the bears), corn, hickory (for plants)

b) names of schools of learning

AE junior high school, senior high school

CnE composite high school

c) names of things of everyday life, often connected with peculiar national conditions, traditions and customs

AuE boomerang, AE drugstore, CnE float-house

AE lightning rod, super-market, baby-sitter

CnE body-check, red-line, puck-carrier (hockey terms)

Partial locally-marked lexical units are typical of this or that variant only in one or some of their meanings. In the semantic structure of such words there are meanings belonging to general English. E.g. the word pavement has four meanings:

1) street or road covered with stone, asphalt, concrete (AE)

2) paved path for pedestrians at the side of the road (BE) (in America they use the word *sidewalk*)

3) the covering of the floor made of flat blocks of wood, stone, etc. (general English)

4) soil (geol) – general English

The next case of lexical differences is the case when different variants of English use different words for the same objects. E.g.

BE	AE	BE	AE
flat	apartment	lorry	truck
post	mail	tin	can
sweets	candy	pillar-box	mail-box
braces	suspenders	beer	ale
underground	subway	wireless	radio

railway	railroad	luggage	baggage

In the course of time due to the growth of cultural and economic ties between nations and development of modern means of communication lexical distinctions between the variants show a tendency to decrease. Locally marked lexical units penetrate into Standard English, e.g., a large number of ***Americanisms*** are widely used in BE, some of them are not recognized as aliens – *reliable*, *lengthy*, *talented*, *belittle*. Others have a limited sphere of application – *fan* "a person enthusiastic about a specific sport", *to iron out* "smooth out, eliminate", *gimmick* "deceptive or secret device", *to root* "support or encourage a team by applauding or cheering".

At the same time a number of ***Briticisms*** came into the language of the USA, e.g., *smog, to brief* "to give instructions". Sometimes the Briticisms in AE compete with the corresponding American expressions, the result being the differentiation in meaning or spheres of application. E.g. AE *store* – BE *shop*, but in AE its use is limited, it is applied to small specialized establishments, like *gift shop, hat shop, candy shop*. British *luggage* used alongside American *baggage* in America differs from its rival in collocability – *luggage compartment, luggage rack, but baggage car, baggage check, baggage room*. In the pair *autumn – fall* the difference in AE is of another nature: the former is bookish, while the latter colloquial.

Regional variants of the English language have the same grammar system, phonetic system and vocabulary, so they cannot be regarded as different languages. Nor can they be referred to local dialects, because they serve all spheres of verbal communication in society, they have dialectal differences of their own, besides they have their own literary forms.

2. Local dialects in the British Isles, in the USA

L o c a l d i a l e c t s are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities, they are set off more or less sharply from other

varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary; they are peculiar to some districts and have no normalized literary form.

In Great Britain there are five groups of dialects:

1) Northern (between the rivers Tweed and Humber);

2) Western;

3) Eastern (between the river Humber and the Thames);

4) Southern (south of the Thames);

5) Midland.

Every group contains several dialects, up to ten.

The dialect vocabulary is remarkable for its conservatism; it is characterized by the abundance of archaic words: many words that have become obsolete in Standard English are still kept in dialects.

Local lexical peculiarities are most noticeable in specifically dialectal words pertaining to local customs, social life and natural conditions, e.g., laird "landed proprietor in Scotland", burgh "Scotland charted town", kirk "church". There are many names of objects and processes connected with farming, such as the names of agricultural processes, tools, domestic animals, etc., e.g., galloway "horse of small strong breed from Galloway, Scotland", kyloe "one of small breed of long-horned Scotch cattle".

There are a considerable number of emotionally coloured dialectal words, e.g., bonny (Scot.) “beautiful, healthy-looking”, braw (Scot.) “fine, excellent”, daffy (Scot.) “crazy, silly”, cuddy “fool, ass”, loon “clumsy, stupid person”.

Words may have different meanings in the national language and in the local dialects, e.g., in the Scottish dialect the word to call is used in the meaning of “to drive”, to set – “to suit”, short – “rude”, silly – “weak”.

Dialectal lexical differences also embrace word-building patterns. E.g., some Irish words contain the diminutive suffixes –AN, –EEN, –CAN, as in bohaun “cabin”, bohereen “narrow road”. Some of these suffixes may be added to English bases, as in girleen, dogeen, squireen (squirrel), etc.

One of the best known Southern dialects is C o c k n e y, the regional dialect of London. The word “cockney” had the meaning of a “plucky chap”, a fine fellow with plenty of assurance; this name was applied by country people to those who dwelt in cities. Even today there is a marked difference between the inhabitants of a large town and people living in country places. But as the population gradually increased and means of communication became more favourable, this distinction became less acute. In the 17th century the word “cockney” was applied exclusively to the inhabitants of London.

According to E. Partridge and H. C. Wilde this dialect exists at two levels:

1) the variety of Standard English spoken by educated lower middle class people; it is marked by some deviations in pronunciation but few in vocabulary and syntax;

2) the variety of Standard English spoken also in London but by uneducated, semi-literate and quite illiterate people; it is characterized by peculiarities in pronunciation, vocabulary, morphology and syntax. (B. Shaw's play "Pygmalion").

Cockney is lively and witty; its vocabulary is imaginative and colourful. Its specific feature which does not occur anywhere else is the so-called rhyming slang, in which some words are substituted by other words rhyming with them. E.g. boots are called "daisy roots", head – "a loaf of bread", hat – "tit for tat", wife – "trouble and strife".

The local dialects in Britain are sharply declining in importance at the present time. Their boundaries have become less stable than they used to be; the distinctive features are tending to disappear with the shifting of population due to the migration of the working-class families in search of employment and the growing influence of urban life over the countryside. Dialects undergo rapid changes under the pressure of Standard English taught at schools and the speech habits cultivated by radio, TV and cinema.

On the other hand, dialectal words penetrate into the national literary language. Many frequent words of common use are dialectal in origin, such as girl, one, rapid, glamour, etc. the Irish English gave blarney "flattery", bog "a spongy, usually peaty ground of marsh". From Scottish English came bairn "child", billy "chum", bonny "handsome", brogue "a stout shoe", glamour "charm", etc.

Local Dialects in the British Isles

In the British Isles there exist many speech varieties confined to particular areas. These local dialects traceable to Old English dialects may be classified into six distinct divisions: 1) Lowland (Scottish or Scotch, North of the river Tweed),1 2) Northern (between the rivers Tweed and Humber), 3) Western, 4) Midland and 5) Eastern (between the river Humber and the Thames), 6) Southern (South of the Thames). Their sphere of application is confined to the oral speech of the rural population in a locality and only the Scottish dialect can be said to have a literature of its own with Robert Burns as its greatest representative.

The Scottish dialect of the English language is to be distinguished from the Scottish tongue, which is a Celtic language spoken in the Highlands.

Offsprings of the English national literary language, the British local dialects are marked off from the former and from each other by some phonetic, grammatical and lexical peculiarities. In this book we are naturally concerned only with the latter.

Careful consideration of the national and the dialect vocabularies discloses that the most marked difference between them lies in the limited character of the dialect vocabularies. The literary language contains many words not to be found in dialects, among them technical and scientific terms.

Local lexical peculiarities, as yet the least studied, are most noticeable in specifically dialectal words pertaining to local customs, social life and natural conditions: laird — 'landed proprietor in Scotland', burgh — 'Scottish chartered" town', kirk — 'church', loch — 'Scottish lake or landlocked arm of the sea', etc. There are many

names of objects and processes connected with farming, such as the names of agricultural processes, tools, domestic animals and the like, e.g. galloway — ‘horse of small strong breed from Galloway, Scotland’, kyloe — ‘one of small breed of long-horned Scotch cattle’, shelty — ‘Shetland pony’. There is also a considerable number of emotionally coloured dialectal words, e.g. Scot, bonny — ‘beautiful, healthy-looking’, braw — ‘fine, excellent’, daffy — ‘crazy, silly’, cuddy — ‘fool, ass’, loon — ‘clumsy, stupid person’.

In addition, words may have different meanings in the national language and in the local dialects, e.g. in the Scottish dialect the word to call is used in the meaning of ‘to drive’, to set — ‘to suit’, short — ‘rude’, silly — ‘weak’, etc.

Dialectal lexical differences also embrace word-building patterns. For instance, some Irish words contain the diminutive suffixes -an, -een, -can, as in bohaun — ‘cabin’ (from Irish both — ‘cabin’); bohereen — ‘narrow road’ (from Irish bothar — ‘road’); mearacaun — ‘thimble’ (from Irish mear — ‘finger’); etc. Some of these suffixes may even be added to English bases, as in girleen, dogeen, squireen (squirrel), etc. Some specifically dialectal derivatives are formed from standard English stems with the help of standard English affixes, e.g. Scot. flesher — ‘butcher’, suddenty — ’suddenness’.

A great number of words specifically dialectal appeared as a result of intense borrowing from other languages, others are words that have disappeared from the national literary language or become archaic, poetical, such as gang — ‘go’, OE зanзan; bairn — ‘child’, OE bearn, etc. Thus, the lexical differences between the English national language and its dialects are due to the difference in the spheres of application, different tempoes of development, different contacts with other peoples, and deliberate elaboration of literary norms.

Local Dialects in the USA

The English language in the United States is characterised by relative uniformity throughout the country. One can travel three thousand miles without encountering any but the slightest dialect differences. Nevertheless, regional variations in speech undoubtedly exist and they have been observed and recorded by a number of investigators.

The following three major belts of dialects have so far been identified, each with its own characteristic features: Northern, Midland and Southern, Midland being in turn divided into North Midland and South Midland.

The differences in pronunciation between American dialects are most apparent, but they seldom interfere with understanding. Distinctions in grammar are scarce. The differences in vocabulary are rather numerous, but they are easy to pick up. Cf., e.g., Eastern New England sour-milk cheese, Inland Northern Dutch cheese, New York City pot cheese for Standard American cottage cheese (творог).

The American linguist O. F. Emerson maintains that American English had not had time to break up into widely diverse dialects and he believes that in the course of time the American dialects might finally become nearly as distinct as the dialects in Britain. He is certainly greatly mistaken. In modern times „dialect divergence cannot increase. On the contrary, in the United States, as elsewhere, the national language is tending to wipe out the dialect distinctions and to become still more uniform.

Comparison of the dialect differences in the British Isles and in the USA reveals that not only are they less numerous and far less marked in the USA, but that the very nature of the local distinctions is different. What is usually known as American dialects is closer in nature to regional variants of the literary language. The problem of discriminating between literary and dialect speech patterns in the USA is much more complicated than in Britain. Many American linguists point out that American English differs from British English in having no one locality whose speech patterns have come to be recognised as the model for the rest of the country.

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