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ORTHOGRAPHIC, LEXICAL AND GRAMMATICAL DIFFERENCES IN BRITISH AND AMERICAN NEWSPAPERS

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The current article explores the nuanced distinctions between British and American English, particularly focusing on their systematic peculiarities as observed in online newspapers. It discusses how the evolution of newspapers has significantly influenced their style and language over time.

Orthographic, lexical, and grammatical variations are well-known features of both British and American English. This article highlights the primary systematic differences between the two. While historically there has been a clear demarcation between British and American English, recent research suggests that this boundary is becoming increasingly blurred.

Many prominent American newspapers are now adopting orthographic, lexical, and grammatical conventions traditionally associated with British English. Similarly, renowned British newspapers are showing a tendency to embrace simplified spelling and vocabulary more typical of American English. This mutual influence indicates that neither variety is entirely isolated or static; rather, there is a noticeable convergence between them, which is becoming more apparent over time.

Keywords: *British English, American English, newspaper style, headlines, orthography, grammar, vocabulary, convergence.*

Introduction

Languages are neither monolithic nor constant, and the English language is not an exception to the rule. Languages perpetually grow, evolve and change, and those that do not, become obsolete.

The linguistic landscape is rich with diverse varieties shaped by regional factors. This paper endeavors to delineate the two predominant national variations of the English language, namely British English (BrE) and American English (AmE), across historical precedents, speaker populations, and global influence. Additionally, these two variants perennially vie for prominence, given their status as primary subjects of study for foreign language learners.

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In this article, our focus is on exploring the linguistic similarities and disparities found in the language used in newspapers across British and American English. We delve into the fundamental distinctions between these two major variants of English, as outlined in different sections of the present article.

When it comes to spelling, the variations arise primarily because British English tends to retain the spellings of words borrowed from other languages, while American English adjusts the spellings to better match the spoken form. It's worth noting that some spellings now considered "American" were previously prevalent in Britain, and vice versa. Additionally, we endeavor to categorize these differences as systemic and non-systemic.

Turning to grammar, we examine variations in the use of prepositions, auxiliary verbs, tense structures, adjectives, adverbs, and phrasal verbs between British and American English.

Our analysis draws upon factual data sourced from newspapers in both British and American English. We aim to demonstrate the interconnectedness of these language varieties, as instances of Americanisms appearing in British newspapers and vice versa are commonplace. We conduct our analysis across multiple levels, including spelling, vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.

The spelling and grammatical differences in British and American English

The English language, spoken in North America, the British Isles, Australia or any other place in the whole world, is one language and its different varieties are "equal" siblings. Although the size of the territory where the varieties are used and the number of people living are not always comparable, linguistically, however, they enjoy equal status, and therefore it would be wrong to say that one of them is the sole representative of correct English with the others representing standard forms.

The English language of today reflects many centuries of development. The political and social events that have in the course of English history so profoundly affected the English people in their national life have generally had a recognizable effect on their language.

The world's total number of English speakers is more than a billion, although competence varies greatly and exact numbers are elusive (Algeo, 2010, p. 182). The two major national varieties of English – in historical precedent, in number of speakers, and in influence - are those of the United Kingdom and the United States - **British English** (BrE) and **American English** (AmE)**.** Together they account for upwards of 400 million speakers of English, with the United States having approximately four times the population of the United Kingdom. Americans constitute the majority of the world's native speakers of English (about 240 million people), compared with about 57 million speakers in Britain (Tottie, 2002, p.1).

As far as orthography is concerned it should be stated that there are several areas in which British and American spellings are different. The differences often come about because BrE has tended to keep the spelling of words it has absorbed from other languages (e.g. French), while AmE has adapted the spelling to reflect the way that the words actually

sound when they are spoken. Some spellings seen as "American" today were once commonly used in Britain, and vice versa.

For instance, *-re/-er* – BrE words that end in *–re* often end in *–er* in AmE, e.g. *centre/center, litre/liter, theatre-theater, mitre/miter, spectre/specter, fibre/fiber.* In Britain, both *–re* and *–er* spellings were common before Johnson's dictionary was published. Most English words that today use *–er* were spelled *–re* at one time, e.g. ***chapter, December, disaster, enter, letter, filter, number,*** *etc.* In AmE almost all of the abovementioned have become *–er*, but in BrE only some of them have. This difference relates only to root words; *-er* rather than *–re* is universal as a suffix for agentive *(reader, winner, user)* and comparative *(louder, nicer)* forms. It goes without saying that there are exceptions as well: Germanic and romance words have *–er*, e.g. *anger, mother, timber, danger, river etc.*; more recent French loanwords keep *–re* spelling in AmE, e.g. *cadre, macabre, piaster* and so on.

E.g. *-our/-or* – Most words ending in an unstressed *-our* in BrE end in –or in AmE, e.g. *colo(u)r, flavor(u)r, behavior(u)r, harbor(u), hono(u)r, humo(u)r, labo(u)r, neighbor(u)r, rumo(u)r, splendor(u)r and so on.* Most words of this kind came from Latin, where the ending was spelled *-or*. They were first adopted into English from early Old French, and the ending was spelled *-or* or *-ur*. After the Norman conquest of England, the ending became *-or* to match the Old French spelling. Webster's 1828 dictionary had only -or and is given much of the credit for the adoption of this form in the USA. Johnson, unlike Webster, was not an advocate of spelling reform, but chose the spelling best derived from among the variations in the sources preferring French over Latin spellings.

E.g. *-ise/-ize* – Verbs in BrE that can be spelled with either *-ize* or *-ise* at the end are always spelled with *-ize* at the end in AmE. E.g. *apologise/apologize, organize/organize, recognize/recognize, cinilise/civilize, civilization/civilization.* Worldwide, *-ize* endings prevail in scientific writing and are commonly used by many international organizations. However, the European Union switched from *-ize* to *-ise* some years ago in its English-language publications. The spelling *-ise* is more commonly used in UK mass media and newspapers, including The Times, which switched conventions in 1992, The Daily Telegraph and others.

E.g. *-yse/-yze* – The ending *-yse* is British and *-yze* is American, e.g. *analyse/analyze, catalyse/catalyze, hydroltyse/hydrolyze, paralyse/paralyze.*

E.g. Words ending in a vowel plus /l/ – In Britain spelling, verbs ending in a vowel plus /l/ double the /l/ when adding endings that begin with a vowel. In AmE, the /l/ is not doubled. E.g. *travelled/traveled, traveller/traveler, fuelled/fueled, fuelling/fueling.*

E.g *-ogue/-og* – Some nouns that end in *-ogue* in BrE end in either *-og* or *-ogue* in AmE, e.g. *analog(ue), catalog(ue), monolog(ue), pedagog(ue), prolog(ue).* Both BrE and AmE use the spelling *-gue* with a silent *-ue* for certain words that are not part of the *-ogue* set, such as *tongue, plague, vague and league.*

E.g. *-ce/-se* – For *advice/advise* and *device/devise*, AmE and BrE both keep the noun-verb distinction both graphically and phonetically. For *licence/license* and *practice/practice*, BrE also keeps the noun-verb distinction graphically. On the other hand, AmE uses *license and practice* for both nouns and verbs. AmE has kept the Anglo-French spelling for *defense* and *offense*, which are *defence* and *offence* in BrE.

E.g. Words spelled with double vowels – BrE words that are spelled with the double vowels *ae* or *oe* are just spelled with and *e* in AmE. E.g. *am(o)eba, hom(o)eopathy, (o)esophagus, (a)eon, arch(a)eology, (a)esthetics, an(a)emia.*

It is also important to mention that in AmE the spelling of words of foreign origin is very often simplified, e.g. *dialogue, catalogue, pedagogue, monologue* (usual in both) are sometimes rendered in AmE as *dialog, catalog, pedagog, monolog.* Also, AmE *gram* and *program* versus BrE *gramme* and *programme* serve as good examples of simplification.

British and American English are also quite unique in vocabulary. The differences between British and American vocabulary can lead to misunderstandings, particularly for non-native speakers who might blend elements of both variants in their speech. Creating an exhaustive list of the vast and ever-evolving vocabularies of British English (BrE) and American English (AmE) presents numerous challenges. Firstly, many words from British English have recently made their way into American English, and vice versa. Secondly, both British and American vocabularies undergo constant evolution. Attempting to encompass all lexical differences between the two would be impractical. Consequently, distinctions are often generalized into broader categories. Gunnel Tottie provides a succinct summary of the primary lexical differences, organizing them into four main "form-based classifications" (Tottie, 2002, p. 158).

The grammatical differences between BrE and AmE are mainly in terms of the usage of prepositions, auxiliary verbs, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs, and tense and subjunctive mood.

As far as verbs are concerned in BrE the past tense of "get" is "got", while AmE usually uses its past participle "gotten"**.** E.g.

John has got much better during the last week. (BrE)
John has gotten much better during the last week. (AmE)

When Americans use "got"**,** they mean "own, possess and dominate", such as *"They have got no pride".*

In BrE, the verb "to have" is frequently used in contexts where it has very little meaning in itself but occurs with an object noun that describes an action, e.g.

I'd like to have a bath.
She's having a little nap.
I'll just have a quick shower before we go out.

In AmE, the verb "to take" rather than "to have" is used in these contexts, e.g.

Joe's taking a shower.
I'd like to take a bath.
Why don't you take a rest now?

Prepositions represent a grammatical category with significant variations between American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). Various constructions highlight the distinct distribution of prepositions in each variant. Among the prepositions that notably

contribute to the disparities between the two varieties of English are those outlined by Algeo (2006, p. 159):

aside from – in AmE it may be used to mean **besides, apart from, in addition to,** e. g., *Aside from the first two pages I did not manage to read anything.*

for – In AmE versus **after** in BE in name for. For example, AmE: "*This university was named for him*" BrE: "*This university was named after him*", however, AmE: "*The child was named after (or for) his father*".

In – In AmE in is often used where **into** in BrE. In AE more often *"Tom ran in the kitchen"*, in BrE more often "*Tom ran into the kitchen".*

on – Where BrE has **in** AmE often has **on**, as in: AmE: "*There are fifteen people on the team.* BrE: "*There are fifteen people in the team*". AmE: "*He has been on the police force for twenty years"*. BrE: "*He has been in the police force for twenty years*". AmE: "*I live on Washington Street"*. BrE: "*I live in Washington Street".*

through – In AmE **through** occurs in sentences like: "*Monday through Friday",* meaning, from Monday until Friday. Through is never used in BrE in that sense.

With – In "to visit a person" Americans often insert **with** producing sentences like: "*We are accustomed to visiting with foreign diplomats*", "*She has been away visiting with relatives in the south of the country*", etc. In *"to talk to someone"* AmE may use **with** instead of **to** thus producing, e.g.: "*I want to talk with him*".

In AmE as opposed to BrE some prepositions in certain word combinations may be omitted. A classical example is that of *Sunday, Monday* etc., versus BrE *on Sunday, on Monday*, etc. AmE: "*I met him Tuesday"* will be BrE: "*I met him on Tuesday"*.

There are differences in the use of tense in BrE and AmE. When expressing the event that has just happened, BrE usually uses the present perfect tense. However, AmE adopts the past tense. Here are some examples:

E.g. *Now I know what it is! I've forgotten my husband.* (BrE)
Now I know what it is! I forgot my husband. (AmE)
He went home after he had finished his work. (BrE)
He went home after he finished his work. (AmE)

Most phrases of BrE have articles, while those of AmE do not have. The "the" in the standard expressions in BrE *"all the afternoon", "all the winter*", *"all the week"*, etc. are usually omitted in AmE.

In non-formal AmE, adjectives can be used as adverbs, e.g. *"a real good meal".* However, in BrE and formal AmE, only adverbs can be used, *"a really good meal".*

In AmE, adverbs can be used more freely in respect of position. They can either be placed in front of auxiliary verbs or after them, while the meaning of the sentences remains the same. For example, we can either say *"They never will agree to it"* or *"They will never agree to it".* For another example, *"You probably could have done it yourself"* means the same as *"You could probably have done it yourself".* However, in BrE, adverbs are usually placed after the first auxiliary verb. For example: "*They will never agree to it". "You could always have called us first*".

In BrE, the adverbs "yet" and "already" cannot be used in past tense and can only be used in past perfect. However, in AmE, they can be used both in past and past perfect tenses. E.g.

"I haven't bought one yet." (BrE, AmE)
"I didn't buy one yet." (AmE)
"Have you read it already?" (BrE, AmE)
"Did you read it already?" (AmE)

In short, there are three primary degrees of distinction in written discourse in British and American Englishes: orthographic, lexical, and grammatical.

Morphological, syntactical and lexical differences in British and American newspaper language

Language is a thoroughly social activity and newspapers extend that activity beyond the confines of face-to-face discourse to an extended, imagined community of kinship based on nation (Conboy, 2006, p.11). Newspapers over time have adapted to articulate particular variants of language for particular social groups. Newspapers have always created readers, not news, as their primary function (Bell, 1991, p.7). They are "language forming institutions", informing as well as responding to broader linguistic trends and contributing to the "emergent property of social interaction" (Pennycook, 2004, p.7).

The influence of American English on the evolution of language within English newspapers is particularly evident as these newspapers transitioned from catering to a politically engaged readership to a broader mass audience. The language's form and style in newspapers serve as reflections of evolving social and commercial dynamics (Wiener, 1996, p. 62). Moreover, newspapers adapted their style in response to advancements in broadcast journalism, especially with the advent of television news. These adaptations often align with the principles of public service broadcasting, as advocated by various government committees' reports and endorsed by institutions like the BBC (Conboy, 2010, p. 140).

Crystal sees the proliferation of English as the first truly global language and the related phenomenon of the language of the Internet as two fronts of a revolutionary system. He sees the Internet as being neither written nor spoken in its discourse but as a novel combination of the two; something *sui generis* and very much in formation at the present time (Crystal, 2004). This has interesting implications for the language of newspapers as they move online and as the internet has a flow-back influence on the content of newspapers in their continuing hard copy with a readership ever more used to online variants of news and other information and entertainment. Yet, global English and the English of characteristically British newspapers continue to be different enough to confirm that newspapers continue to thrive because they can provide a cultural approximation of the specifics of time and place in their idiom and values. This is their attraction and the secret of their continuing success, not to be swallowed whole within a globalized, technological monolith but to find ways to retain what makes them relevant to specific audiences.

Newspaper texts can be said to be a discourse of their own. There are certain features and characteristics that make them stand apart from other types of discourse.

We can distinguish hard news that focuses on politics, economy, war, disasters, accidents, science, technology, law crimes, protests, etc. and soft news focusing on people, places, issues that affect the reader's lives, community problems etc. In other words, hard news refers to stories which combine the concepts of seriousness and timeliness. A hard news story is usually an account of what happened, why it happened and how the reader will be affected. Hard news has little value after 24-48 hours. Soft news is usually timeless, that is the story happens over a longer time span. It could appear any day over reasonably long period without affecting its newsworthiness.

The language of newspapers is quite different from, for instance, business language or academic language. As is mentioned by Crystal "everything that happens to be printed in a newspaper or written by a journalist is not going to be linguistically homogenous" (Crystal, 1969, p.173). Crystal also claims that there is no reason to expect such a "homogeneity" since a newspaper is always very eclectic from the stylistic point of view. We come across a number of "journalises" in the pages of various daily press, and as a striking fact, while they are dealing with the same issue their overall styles are very different.

First of all, such media discourses should be analyzed in terms of their structures at various levels of description. In this way we are able, for instance, to describe the structures and textual functions of headlines or leads of news reports in the press, as well as the style, ordering, and thematic organization of such media stories (Van Dijk, 1988).

The newspaper language has certain characteristics of its own. Newspaper language is a combination of different stylistic features, a mixture of several kinds of material.

A special focus must be put on headlines and leads as they are the basis for how the story will develop. Their task is to give the most central, essential, relevant information of the story. The headline being practically the shorter of the two cannot convey as much information as the lead, hence it can express the very core of the important information. Thereby, the headline might be described as the ultimate summary or "super summary" of the story.

Due to their summary-like nature and their position as the initial elements in the news article, the headline and lead orient the story in a specific direction. The function is more obvious for the headline (Bell, 1991, p.152). In the final analysis, the lead summarizes the story and focuses in a specific direction, and the headline summarizes and focuses the story even more. The headline is an integral part of the news story. It is meant to arouse the reader's interest and make him read the whole article. In a way, headline has to "sell" the story to the reader. Since the headline is usually the first thing that a person reads in a news article, it provides a framework for the reading process and steers the reader in a certain direction. The reader begins to read the text with the headline (Fries, 1998). Thus, after reading a headline such as *"Houseprices up"*, he has some expectation of what the following lines will be about, and he will do everything possible to connect these lines to the headline (Van Dijk, 2004, p.61).

As a result of our analysis, it became clear that headlines in English language newspapers are usually short and they, thus, tend to leave out all the unessential words, such as articles and auxiliary verbs. Because of that, headlines use short words wherever

possible, in preference to long ones. Certain words are very common in headlines, e.g. *deal, cost, ban, hit, get, clash*.

Newspaper headlines generally use the simple tenses of verbs, and the present simple tense is very frequent*, e.g. "Primary Process Is Seen as in Conflict With Democracy", "Donald Trump Finds Support in Reddit's Unruly Corners", "Japan Leadership Struggle Hots up"* (Herrman, 2016).

The infinitive form is often used to express the future, e.g. "*European Union to Consider Requiring Visas for U.S. Travelers", "Agricultural Policy to be Discussed", "Two Presidents to Meet in September"*(The Times) and the passive form is employed where the action is more important than the agent, e.g. *Watch train smash into car at 100mph after it deliberately left on tracks by driver", "Shipwrecked sailors rescued after HELP sign made from palm leaves is spotted from the air""25 Charged after Clash".* (Sarnoff, 2024)

Inverted commas are inserted to show that a fact or an event is quoted or reported, e.g. *" 'I prefer to KILL them all': Noel Gallagher wants to KILL terrorists", " 'She never wears the same outfit twice': Mum so shaken by baby's premature birth that she vows to buy her whatever her heart desires".* (Wareing, 2016)

The style that newspapers use - whether British or American - is of paramount importance as has been mentioned. Hence, special attention must be paid to it. Accordingly, newspaper style should be discussed according to morphological, syntactical and lexical points of view.

As far as morphological aspect of newspaper style is concerned, we find the following characteristic features:

- use of non-finite verb forms, such as gerund, participle, infinitive. The latter is used to denote an action in the future. E.g. *"Troubled Hinkley hit by renewed controversy"* ("Troubled Hinkley Hit by Renewed Controversy", 2017), *"My secret father: DNA test revealing astonishing family past of Archbishop of Canterbury Justin Welby"* ("Archbishop Learns Identity", 2016).
- use of non-perfect verb forms, e.g. *"A Castro Met a Free Press, and the World Watched It Live"* ("A Castro Met a Free Press", 2016), *"Oxford antique dealer stabbed to death in home" "British guns sold to terrorists in secret on Facebook"* (Turner, 2016).
- the omission of articles, link verbs, auxiliaries, pronouns - This feature is very common for almost all types of newspapers, as it makes the article, especially headlines shorter and more emphatic. E.g. "Historian stabbed to death in Oxford Home" (Turner, 2016), *"*Woman, 50s, found dead inside house in Plymouth as man, 32, arrested on suspicion of murder*"* (Christodoulou, 2023).

Syntactically newspaper style can be described as having the following features:

use of impersonal sentences, elliptical constructions, interrogative sentences, infinitive complexes and attributive groups- This can be seen in the following examples from both British and American newspapers, *"Use it or lose it"* (Smith, 2016), *"Google and Apple: the High-Tech Hippies of Silicon Valley"* (Saval, 2016)

- prepositional phrases are used much more than synonymous gerundial phrases e.g., NHL Power Rankings: Penguins, Ducks and Blackhawks get better at trade deadline, which is bad news for the rest of the league (Leonard, 2019)
- active and passive - At its heart, news is about people doing things. Activity is interesting. The active voice gives the scripts some vitality and life. It can also make a weak sentence more emphatic and give it a greater impact, e.g., "Youths throwing stones clashed with police during riots in several towns in Northern England last night" (Pullum, 2014). However, in newspaper style passive voice is dominant. E.g., *"Indiana State Trooper Is Fired for Proselytizing During Traffic Stops"* ("Indiana State Trooper Is Fired", 2016).
- specific word order - Newspaper tradition, coupled with the rigid rules of sentence structure in English, has greatly affected the word order of brief news items. The word order in one-sentence news paragraphs and in what are called leads (the initial sentences in longer news items) is more or less fixed. Journalistic practice has developed the five-w-and-h-pattern rule (who-what-why-how-where-when) and for a long time strictly adhered to it. In terms of grammar, this fixed sentence structure may be expressed in the following way: Subject, Predicate, Adverbial modifier of reason (manner), Adverbial modifier of place, Adverbial modifier of time. E.g. *A famous actor, Nestor Kirchner granted a rare interview last month to NEWSWEEK's Joseph Contreras in Buenos Aires after he was hospitalized for six days for treatment of stomach bleeding* ("The Country It Should Be", 2004). What is ordinarily looked upon as a violation of grammar rules in any other kind of writing is becoming increasingly common as a functional peculiarity of newspaper style.

Lexical features of newspaper language can be summarized under the following headings:

- clichés and set phrases - there exists a saying which says, "By using stale metaphors, similes and idioms, a journalist saves much mental effort, at the cost of leaving the meaning vague, not only for your reader but for herself" (Allen, 2003, p. 23). In newspapers it is very common to use clichés, i.e., stereotyped expressions, commonplace phrases familiar to the reader, e.g., *public opinion, free markets, long-term agreements, a melting pot, to cast a veto over, crucial/pressing problems, zero tolerance, political correctness, quite but tense, bitter end, psychologically important, open secret, foregone conclusion, breakneck speed, daylight robbery, absolute rubbish* and so on. Clichés are indispensable in newspaper style: they prompt the necessary associations and prevent ambiguity and misunderstanding.
- *abbreviations and acronyms- News items, press reports and headlines are full of abbreviations of various kinds. Among them abbreviated terms are names of organizations, public and state bodies, political associations, industrial and other companies, various offices, etc. known by their initials - ACRONYMS - are very common; e.g., EU (European Union), UNO (United Nations Organization), WTO (World Trade Organization), EEC (European Economic Community), CNN (Cable*

News Network), BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), CEO (Chief Executive Officer), MBA (Master of Business Administration), BAC (Blood Alcohol Concentration). The widespread use of initials in newspaper language has been expanded to the names of persons constantly in the public eye, and one can find references to JFK (John Fitzgerald Kennedy). Sometimes the whole statements are referred to by their initials, e.g., WYSIWYG (What you see is what you get), FAQ (Frequently asked questions), BTW (By the way), 9/11 (September 11, 2001). *Here are some examples "Could cosmetics soon be used to track you? CIA funds beauty firm that makes face gels capable of collecting your DNA"* (Zolfagharifard, 2016)

- frequent use of pun (the clever or humorous use of a word that has more than one meaning), violated phraseology, vivid stylistic devices, parallel constructions. E.g., "*Apple to launch TV with 'ring' remote control, says analyst*", "*Obama the antichrist? Global warming a myth? Lizard people controlling the world? Conspiracy theory research reveals bizarre beliefs prevalent in US."* (Hall, 2013).
- neologisms - They are very common in newspaper vocabulary. The newspaper is very quick to react to any new development in the life of society, in science and technology. Hence, neologisms make their way into the language of the newspaper very easily and often even spring up on newspaper pages. Now, in the early 21st century, neologisms relating to computers and the Internet outnumber all others, for example, *cybersickness* (a feeling of illness caused by using a computer for long periods of time*), keypal* (someone with whom one regularly exchanges e-mail). Finance has also launched numerous new words, such as *dead cat bounce* (a situation in which the price of shares rises a small amount after a large fall, sometimes before falling further). Sometimes finance and computers come together, as with *dot-com* (a person or a company whose business is done using the Internet), *e-cash* (money that can be used to buy things on the Internet, but that does not exist in a physical form or belong to any particular country). Many new words have come from medicine and biological science, e.g., *biologically engineered, genetically modified*.
- foreign words - These come from different languages. Some are traditionally used in newspaper writing, others have recently come from the areas of new technology (computers, Internet, business, entertainment and changes in society), for example, *beaucoup* (= a lot of money; from French); *ad hoc* (= specialized; from Latin); *bona fide* (= real, true and not intended to deceive somebody (from Latin) , "*I wanted to prove my bona fides"* (The Times); *curriculum vitae* (CV) (= resume; from Latin); *sine qua non* (= something that you must have; from Latin); *carte blanche* (= complete freedom; from French); *nouveau riche* (= someone who has only recently become rich and spends a lot of money; from French)
- special political and economic terms - e.g., *stability, elections, anti-terror war, terrorist network, opinion polls, human rights, budget deficit, immigration, presidential vote, race, opponent, business, security, to devastate, officials, hostages, protest, breakdown, regime, local terror cells, emergency anti-terror funding*.

- Lofty, bookish words - including certain phrases based on metaphors and thus emotionally coloured: e.g. *war hysteria, escalation of war, overwhelming majority, a storm of applause, global hunt for terrorists, alto/eccelso, libresco/pedante.*
- omission of words - The words omitted are usually *function words,* that is grammatical words that do not carry intrinsic meaning: determiners (some, this, that, the, a, an, etc), pronouns (relative pronouns), auxiliaries. E.*g. Bush likely to name 2nd nominee next week* (*President, to be, the* are omitted) ("Bush likely to name 2nd court pick next week" , 2005)
- short word s- e.g. *row = argument, aid = assistance, raid = robbery, etc.*

When examining the written discourse of differences between vocabulary, spelling and grammar, it became quite obvious that there are a great number of words and grammatical forms that are strictly of British origin, and are used only in Great Britain. Some of those have their American variants and use only in the US. There are also words and grammatical forms that are used both in the US and the UK. Most of these words are British ones, but are also used in USA, though they have their American variants. This means that the American language tends to be more influenced by the Britishisms than the British language by Americanisms, however, nowadays we can see that there are a number of words that penetrated not only from British vocabulary into American English, but also vice versa.

Thus, our aim is to prove that items pertaining to AmE can be found in British newspapers and vice versa. The analysis of the factual data is carried out at the level of vocabulary, spelling and grammar. The factual data was taken from the British and American newspapers mentioned above. American words are chosen from British newspapers and their equivalents in British English are chosen from American newspapers. Within the scope of the current investigation, our goal will be to introduce words that are strictly British and strictly American and which don't have their equivalents in the other variety of language. For example, the word *corn* is used only in AmE, its equivalent is *maize*, which is used only in BrE. Nevertheless, here is an example that proves the use of the American variant in British newspapers and conversely.

1. Maize: *landrace maize* (Ferguson, 2016).
   Corn: Creamy *corn* from the decades-old-stall (Lepere, 2024).
2. Lorry: Take any industrial estate you'd find in the U.K. and in Europe — except you add a *lorry* with 39 bodies inside ("UK Police Retrace Fatal Journey after 39 Bodies", 2019).
   Truck: A man was arrested on suspicion of attempted murder after a large Army *truck* smashed through a police roadblock near a Royal Marines base in Somerset (Army Truck Rampage", 2023).
3. Queue: they don't have to physically stay in the *queue* (Chen, 2024).
   Line: Customers spent on non-leather goods to boost their chances of being among the first in *line* to buy a bag (Youde, 2024).
4. Autumn: When autumn rolls (Cappucci, 2015).

Fall: Covid-19 vaccine to become available for the upcoming *fall*-winter season**,** subject to regulatory approvals (Callum, 2023).

5. Chemist: *If GPs can't be bothered with us, let's go straight to the chemist* (Baxter, 2016).
   Druggist: Boot manufacturers and *druggists* have also been deprived of a good deal of their business ("Trade Boycott of Ulster", 2021).
6. Biscuit: *How to make perfect biscuits, plus 9 recipes* (Carter, 2016).
   Cookie: Bake Off winner Edd Kimber thinks he has created the perfect cookie (Heritage, 2018).
7. Petrol: Reports said the gunmen had lit the blaze using *petrol* from canisters they carried in rucksacks (Faulconbridge, 2024).
   Gasoline: The average cost of a gallon of regular *gasoline* could fall below $3 in the coming days ("US Petrol price fall brings relief", 2023).
8. Cinema: Inspector Sun review: A web of Cinema classics ("Cinema: Inspector Sun Review", 2023).
   Movie: Correct order to watch Star Wars movies and TV shows officially revealed by Disney (Keach, 2022).
9. Constable: *The violence began about 3 p.m. in Oak Beach, after the retired officer, Richard Brooks, 44, who worked part time as a constable for the Town of Babylon, tried to pull over a resident, identified by the police as James Wilson, because he thought Mr. Wilson was intoxicated* ("Driver Kills L.I. constable and is killed", 2004).
   Policeman: *A Spanish policeman rescued a woman who fell onto the tracks of the Madrid subway system moments before a train arrived* ("A Spanish policeman rescued a woman", 2023).
10. Insect: The spotted lanternfly, which can fly and is a plant-hopping *insect,* is believed to have the U.S. (Loehrke, 2023).
    Bug: Can eating bugs taste nice, be good for your health and save the planet (Hopps, 2020).

The grammatical differences are reflected in the use of indefinite pronouns + noun instead of adverbs in AmE e.g. *any place* instead of *anywhere.*

1. Any place – ("It's Odd that an Outpost like Milltown-Malbay Sould Hold Any Place", 2023).
2. Anywhere – *The Calais refugee camp known as the Jungle isn't anywhere you'd like to be living, a shantytown of plastic sheeting and bits of wood knocked together to make shelters for five or six thousand people on a waterlogged wasteland. Bags of rubbish are piled up here and there* (Steinbuch, 2016).

As it was stated above, the adverb *too* often stands at the end of the sentence in BrE while it's in the middle of the sentence in AmE. The examples taken from newspapers will prove that there can be some exceptions to the given rules.

1. Too – That is a sensible move but surely some mechanism will be found to control who becomes the new owner? Or will that *too* be sold to Beijing? The UK has pretty good relations with China (Butler, 2013).

2. Too – Make time in your busy schedule to visit a friend who needs cheering up – it will cheer you up *too* ("Make Time in Your Busy Schedule", 2013).

And finally, the instances of the use of American words in British newspapers and vice versa will be illustrated at the level of spelling. From the first and second groups; i.e. BrE (ou) – AmE (o) group and BrE re- AmE er group will be discussed. The following word pairs will be illustrated: BrE- labour, favourite, behavior, humour, centre versus AmE labor, favorite, behavior, humor, center.

1. Labour – John McDonnell wants to abolish the *Labour* unit that is fighting to stop hard-left entryists joining the party to shore up Jeremy Corbyn's leadership, it has emerged ("McDonnell Calls to Scap Unit", 2016).

Labor- that leaders from his party, Labor (Bernard, 2024).

It is obvious, that in spite of all differences between British and American varieties of English there are a number of words and grammatical forms that have penetrated from one language into another. In other words, we deal with two phenomena, namely the process of Americanization and Britishisation.

BrE is evolving at a faster rate than its transatlantic counterpart, meaning that in many instances it is the American speakers who are sticking to more 'traditional' speech. Both British and American fear the linguistic changes which are so vivid in each variety.

"American English is busily eroding a valuable and once firm distinction in British speech and writing" (Amis, 1997, p. 11). As we can tell from these words, Amis is concerned that the British English language is under attack by American influences and he does not seem to be happy about it. Secondly, Amis states that certain Americanisms are driving out their British equivalents in British English. These concerns are shared by the Fowler brothers: "There is a real danger of our literature's being Americanized, and that not merely in details of vocabulary-which are all that we are here directly concerned with-but in its general tone" (Fowler & Fowler, 1906, p. 89).

As is clear, the process of Americanization is superior. This fact troubles British newspapers as well. For instance, Daily Telegraph has recently published an article under the following headline: *"20 Americanisms we're using instead of British words"* stating that British use *cupcake* instead of *fairy cake*, *film* instead of *movie*, *"I'm good"* for *"I'm well", "a half hour*" instead of "*half an hour"* and so on ("20 Americanisms We're Using Instead of British Words", 2015). Besides, Daily Mail also referred to this issue with the articles *"How American words are changing the way we speak"* and *"No longer marvelous…now everything is awesome: How Britons are using more American words because traditional English is in decline"* (Graff, 2014).

Moreover, The Independent has an article which in details give specific examples showing that the majority of Americanisms were exported from BrE. E.g. the word *"fall",* which is purely English. Its counterpart *"autumn"* was an import into English from French *automne*, which did not become standard English usage until the eighteenth century.

Conclusion

In brief, the differences between British and American Newspaper language were analyzed in terms of spelling, grammar and vocabulary which lead us to a conclusion that in spite of

the fact that there are a number of strictly British or strictly Britain words, the penetration of these words is becoming more and more popular. However, this process is more vivid in British newspapers as far as vocabulary, spelling and grammar are concerned.

Thus, the analysis of factual data proves, that the division between the British English and the American varieties of English becomes less important in British and American press.

Conflict of Interests
The author declares no ethical issues or conflict of interests in this research.

Ethical standards
The author affirms this research does not involve human subjects.

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ՈՒՂՂԱԳՐԱԿԱՆ, ԲԱՌԱՅԻՆ ԵՎ ՔԵՐԱԿԱՆԱԿԱՆ ՏԱՐԲԵՐՈՒԹՅՈՒՆՆԵՐԸ ԲՐԻՏԱՆԱԿԱՆ ԵՎ ԱՄԵՐԻԿՅԱՆ ԼՐԱԳՐԵՐՈՒՄ

Նարինե Մաղոյան

Սույն հոդվածի նպատակն է լուսաբանել բրիտանական և ամերիկյան անգլերենի տարբերությունները առցանց լրագրերում: Փորձ է արվում վերլուծել բրիտանական և ամերիկյան առցանց լրագրերին բնորոշ խոսույթի յուրահատկությունները: Ինչպես գիտենք, քերականական, բառային և ուղղագրական նկատելի տարբերություններ կան անգլերենի վերոնշյալ երկու տարատեսակների միջև, որոնք էլ քննության են առվում սույն հոդվածում: Այնուամենայնիվ, ըստ մեր կատարած հետազոտության գալիս են այն երզրահանգման, որ այդ տարբերությունների առկայությունը առցանց լրագրերում չի նկատվում: Ավելին, որոշ դեպքերում բրիտանական լրագրերը կիրառում են այն քերականական, բառային և ուղղագրական միջոցները, որոնք հատուկ են ամերիկյան անգլերենին և հակառակը:

Բանալի բառեր՝ *բրիտանական, ամերիկյան անգլերեն, լրագրային ոճ, խորագիր, ուղղագրություն, քերականություն, բառապաշար, զուգամիտում:*