

HISTORICAL, SOCIOLINGUISTIC AND GRAMMATICAL TRAITS OF MORPHOLOGICAL CHANGES IN PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH

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The paper is devoted to a characterization of causes of forming grammatical, especially morphological, changes as basis of innovative processes in Present-day English, an establishing of the nature and prime causes of changes in the grammatical (proper morphological and morphological-syntactic) organization and at lexically-semantic and sociolinguistic levels of English at the stage of its modern development, a separation of functioning forms in British and American English, a classifying intralinguistic / extralinguistic reasons of morphological changes of innovative type in Present-day English.

Keywords: accidental usage, auxiliary verb, democratization of English, dialogical speech, equivalent, formal / unofficial correspondence, frequency of use, initial phrase, interrogative sentence, loss of lexical meaning, modal equivalent, modal verb, neutral (literary) speech, occasional use, phonetic reduction, semantic difference, semiauxiliary verb, specific marker, spoken synonym, stylistic markings.

Results of global integration (strengthening intercultural relations, development of world “live” languages, including English) are a rapid process, particularly not only at the lexical but at grammatical (including morphological) level

that are not always predictable. Analysis of patterns adjusted by many linguists, who are concerned about this fact (Labov 135-142; Leech et al. 159-178; Millward, Hayes 39-54; Romaine, Lange 19-41), revealed new structural types of lexical items, such as fragmented elements (splinters), a significant number of highly unstable compound nouns with a separate writing, but common unifying accent (block compounds) and a creation on their basis of compound words / pseudo-compound words (other parts of speech), whose self-morphological identity is usually defined only within a specific context for the fulfillment of their syntactic role, that is, their appearance has a strengthening influence of analogy in the formation of composites / quasi-composites that can lead to structural changes of lexical units, including the conversion of compound words in derivatives for potentially unlimited number of new words with unstable and unpredictable grammatically- categorical indicators (“Historical and Contemporary Factors of Innovative Processes in the Present-Day English Language in Comparison with Ukrainian One: Conflict or Cooperation?” 89-94; “Stages and Causes of Forming a Grammatical Structure of Present-day English Language (in Comparison with the Ukrainian One)” 229-234).

Dynamics of spreading any language necessarily led to the changes of its lexical and grammatical forms, but if the process of changes in vocabulary occurs naturally (due to word-formation and borrowing), the grammatical changes are more noticeable for a native speaker and especially for those who use a language as a second one (Müller 9). A set of grammatical changes caused “shifts” in all grammatical system of language (Lindquist, Mair 98), resulting may be particular difficulties that often arise in the modern media of English (especially in order to whom English is not native) in the process of reading art texts in lexical and sociolinguistic areas.

This process is one of the differential features of Present-

day English, especially British (BE) and American (AmE) variants as competitors that stand out against other variants of English (such as the Australian or Canadian ones) with multiplicity of media, geographical area due to extralinguistic factors of their spread – as the classic, ‘original’, ‘true’ English (as claimed by some supporters of BE) in the status of one of the languages of international communication and as less conservative language with signs of language-cosmopolitan, that absorbed into itself the elements of other languages, which directly contacted, and in the role of the language of the powerful state in the world (AmE), respectively. Lack of substantial research in this area makes **the relevance** of proposed research.

If in this context to analyze Early Modern English, a period of which coincides with the period of the English Renaissance (remember that the works of William Shakespeare is present this period of English), then we should mention the changes back touched not grammar, but this time – phonetics as between 1400-1600 in English there were two phonetic processes that influenced the language in general and distinction of Middle English and Modern English (except language Yola, enjoyed by the residents of two Irish baronies Forth and Bargy in County Wexford to the middle of 19th century): decline an unstressed vowel at the end of word and Great Vowel Shift, i.e. a systematic change of the long vowels in accented syllables, to which a pronunciation of vowels was similar to pronunciation in Latin, and phonetics is similar to the Netherlands or Low German (Low Saxon) (there is interesting that in Modern English spelling usually remained identical to the Middle English one). At the same time in the grammar changes have occurred caused by the introduction of the principle of normalization of the regional dialects of English by the first English publisher W. Caxton (70-80s years of the 15th century), resulting in a unification of

the case paradigm, sentence structure and syntactic relations between its components, which increased the break between spoken and written English variants.

The final fixing of spelling, pronouncing and grammatical rules held in late period of Early Modern English – at the beginning of the formation of Late Modern English, the fixation of it is a series of lexicographical works that do not lose their value up today, including dictionaries: Robert Cawdrey`s “A Table Alphabeticall”, 1604 (the first English explanatory dictionary), John Bullokar`s “An English Expositor”, 1616, Henry Cockeram`s “The English Dictionarie or a New Interpreter of Hard English Words”, 1623 (its name was first used the word *Dictionarie*), Thomas Blount`s “Glossographia”, 1656, John Kersey`s “A New English Dictionary”, 1702 and “Dictionarium Anglo-Britannicum”, 1708, Nathaniel Bailey`s “An Universal Etymological English Dictionary”, 1721 and “Dictionarium Britannicum”, 1736, Samuel Johnson`s “A Dictionary of English Language”, 1755, and, finally, establishing by the London Philological Society in 1859 publication “New English Dictionary on Historical Principles, NED” in 10 volumes, 1884-1928, with the republishing in 1933 in 12 volumes “Oxford English Dictionary” and 4 additional volumes, published from 1972 to 1986.

Currently in the process of learning English grammar should be considered two groups of factors at least: historical background and tendencies that have the force so far and provoke the appearance of changes including – grammatical, on the one hand, and interolarity and cosmopolitanism of English because of its regional distribution and ensure the functioning of socio-political and economic spheres of human activity, on the other. This leads to consider evolutionary changes of English from the “average” option, known in Britain 300 years ago, to a variety of variants and forms of existence in the lands where the British were offered this

language: America, Australia, New Zealand, Africa, India and others. And the English returned in modified form to the British Isles with immigrants, goods, technology, etc. (“Stages and Causes of Forming a Grammatical Structure of Present-day English Language (in Comparison with the Ukrainian One)” 231-232).

However, Christopher Mulvey says the English were not alone in correcting their language. The *Accademia della Crusca* (La Crusca) had been founded in Florence in 1583 with a mission to maintain the purity of the Italian language. *L'Académie française* had been founded in Paris in 1634 with a mission to establish a literary language based on the French of the Ile de France. The *Real Academia Española* had been founded in Madrid in 1715 with a mission to secure the Castilian language. Jonathan Swift's call in 1712 for the foundation of an English Academy with the task of ‘Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English Tongue’ might have been taken for a sign that the English were merely catching up, but neither the English nor, in their turn, the Americans took that route for correcting their language. Nonetheless, English was corrected quite as effectively as Italian, French and Spanish. It might also be said that it was corrected quite as ineffectively. Italian, French, Spanish and English continued to evolve, continued to take on new vocabularies, and continued to feel the tension between the energized varieties of spoken forms and the conservative version of written forms. English, at least, has continuing defects – an excessive vocabulary, an unreformed spelling, and a hapless punctuation – but it nonetheless has become the fast, efficient and universal medium that the reader reads today (Mulvey 79-93).

In 2010, the Great English Grammar Settlement of 1755 is threatened, and the stability of that grammar is under threat from three forces: new social attitudes, the internet, and globalization. The new social attitudes are not so new in fact, and

they can be dated to the 1960s and the permissive society. In the seventies, the teaching of grammar dropped out of the state school curriculum in England and Wales, and children were expected to find their own way to Standard English. It is worth noting that many of them did, but the right and wrong of grammar had been called into question.

Today, Great English Grammar Settlement is further threatened by the internet. English is the dominant language of the internet, and, from a linguistic point of view, one the most striking things is that much of the most available web material is in an English unmediated by professional editing. Blogs, chats, emails, texts and tweets pour out in a language that is an interesting intermediate between forms of spoken and written English. This informal English is of a kind once only to be found in personal letters and secret diaries, but now it is broadcast to the world.

It is too early to treat this latest stage in the development of English with any certainty, but guesses. The major change that net writing is likely to have on English is a merging of the grammars of spoken English and written English. In the 18th century, it was decided to censure double negatives, double comparatives, misplaced modifiers, terminal prepositions, and split infinitives. Today, those rules are on the slide with the exception of the one against double negative; that is holding up well. Soon English will have forgotten altogether the differences between *owing to* and *due to*, *less* and *fewer*, *who* and *whom*, different *from* and different *to*, *shall* and *will*, *that* and *which*.

All this leads the ambiguity of correctly interpreting changes and their causes that have occurred (and still going) over the past decades in the grammar and vocabulary of English (“Stages and Causes of Forming a Grammatical Structure of Present-day English Language (in Comparison with the Ukrainian One)” 232), i.e. if we consider historic changes that

took place in the grammar of English, the vast majority of those innovations about which today Anglicists debate, there is not a random phenomenon, caused only extralinguistic factors, but well-motivated in terms of internal organization of the language process, characterized by signs of consistency and continuity.

It should be noted that the changes that affect the syntactic level of English, are common to all variants of English, but the main producers of these processes are still AmE and BE, at that their number is constantly growing, and areas of functioning are mainly broadcast media, advertising, scientific and technical literature, political speeches and colloquial speech.

New processes and phenomena in a large number fixed by linguists from the second half of the 20th century, prompted researchers to expand the list of the factors that influence the development and progress of language, especially vocabulary, which on the principle of chain reaction provokes changes at other levels of language system.

One of the determining factors was considered social changes in society that rely certain language such as English. In this context, modern Anglicists distinguish 5 main tasks:

- 1) determination of ways of distinguishing new lexical items and new meanings of existing units;
- 2) an analysis of factors of their occurrence in relation to the pragmatic needs of society;
- 3) study of models of their creation and restrictions on their use;
- 4) development of principles of attitude to new units (their perception / rejection of society) in different social, professional, age groups, etc.;
- 5) lexicographic treatment with the definition of pragmatic restrictions on their usage in different situations of communication including social differentiation of language.

All this fits within the scope of functional approach to the study of innovations in English, i.e. the emergence of a new unit due to pragmatic needs of a particular social group. Depending on the role relationships between participants of communication all situational types of communication are divided into symmetric, which have the same social status of communicants, one gender, one age, the same level of education, etc., and asymmetrical, which are characterized by different social status of communicants, different gender, different age, and under. In addition, the focus is primarily on unofficial (relaxed) communication.

Generally, the modern English-language society shows an increasing tendency towards *social differentiation*, and best proof of it is the appearance of a large number of words to denote different walks of life, for example: *belonger* “well-off middle class”, “a supporter of conservative views, interested in material comfort and stability, devoid of adventurism” (a social type that includes different age categories); *yuppie* (*young urban professional person*) “young wealthy resident of the city who seeks a career, and want to achieve material success and thus he maintains an active social life, has a high-paying job and he is extremely picky about his looks (follows the business style), which is perceived as a name card” (this type includes the following subtypes as *buppie* (*black yuppie*) “representative of this group who are African American in origin”, *muppie* (*middle-aged urban professional person*) “middle-age representative of this type”, *ruppie* (*Republican urban professional person*) “yuppies who supports the Republicans”, etc.); *survivors* – representatives of the lowest social stratum, which includes *nilky* (*no income, lots of kids*) “jobless with a large family”; *sustainers* – in one sense, an intermediate type that is neither quite poor nor wealthy, *emulators* – those who want to succeed in life and try to emulate *achievers* – the successful, including *DINKY* (*double income, no kids yet*) “successful young

childless couple in which both spouses work”, *pippy* (a person inheriting parents` property) “middle-aged man”, *Whanny* (we have a nanny) “a person who hires a nanny (he can afford it)”, etc., – all these segments of society are combined with concept VAL (value and lifestyles).

However, social stratification of the vocabulary is also found in the presence of the words the usage of which is limited within a certain class, including:

- broadcasting the middle class is characterized by units starting morpheme *Mc* (by analogy to *McDonalds*), *fast*, *convenience*, *junk*, that is a measure of the meaning of “inexpensive, convenient, standard”, e.g.: *McLife* “ordinary / everyday life”, *McNews* “ordinary (uninteresting) news”, *fast food* “fast (low-quality) food or establishment where it offer”, *junk food* “food-garbage / unhealthy food / surrogates, as well as people who use these products and dishes”, *convenience-food* “concentrates / preserved food that do not require a long cooking / dishes prepared in a cafe”, etc.;

- for speech of the working class are inherent lexemes *cheers* “Goodbye”, *dozen* “quarrel with the relatives”, *to badmouth* “to curse / to use bad language”, etc.;

- in broadcasting of the unemployed were concepts *workfare* “those who receive unemployment benefits if they participate in the work that are not covered (public works), including street cleaning and the like”, *welfare mother* “single mother who does not work and live on unemployment benefits”, etc.

With professional differentiation of the language is associated the emergence of an entire group of words with morpheme *speak* denoting “the language of a certain professional group”, for example: *cablespeak* “the language of TV workers”, *educationspeak* “the language of education workers”, *sportspeak* “the language of sportsmen”, and so.

In addition, restrictions on the use of neologisms may be related to a belonging of native speaker to certain ethnic

society – the use of *racial profiling* – and it usually imposes on bargains lexeme a negative marking, e.g.: in broadcasting of Indians – *apple* “Injun, who cooperates with the Federal Government”; in the speech of African Americans – *whitie, paddy, blue-eyed devil, Mr Charley* “white man”; in the speech of white people can appear such lexemes to indicate the African Americans as *af, houtie, terr* or *banana* “Asian” on people from Asia.

The fact that the linguistic changes, that have sociolinguistic background, are systematic evidenced by the appearance of *specialized suffixes* of nouns that represent the condemnation by society the members of certain social groups or events, including: *-eer: profiteer* “speculator”; *-ster: wordster* “rhymers, rhymester, versemonger”; *-nik: noodnik* “downer”; and semisuffixes (*splinters*) *-hop: to jobhop* “to change jobs frequently” and *-gate: Clintongate* “scandal relationship of President Clinton and Monica Lewinsky”.

Overall, today can be characterized by a number of *functional-semantic groups* of vocabulary that emerged as a result of social processes and phenomena and firmly entrenched in the minds of the English language speakers, including:

- Euronotions (due to the emergence of the European Union): *MEP* (Member of the European Parliament); *Euro-sceptic* (a person who is skeptical about the value of closer connection among European countries);

- dress code (as a pledge of a prestigious job, and hence a higher status in society): *dress-down-Friday* (dress code that is allowed for the appearance at work on Fridays); *power dresser* (a person who adheres to a certain style of clothing for work);

- attitude to work: *fast-tracker* (a person who quickly rises through the ranks, sacrificing many things or all in his personal life); *downshifter* (a person who makes a change of career or lifestyle to a mode less pressured and demanding);

- computer technology: *bogusware* (program written for the destruction of other programs); *toolsmith* (expert on editing programs);
- exploration of Space: *link-up* (docking of spacecrafts); *chicken soup* as ‘solution of amino acids, vitamins, used in experiments to detect metabolic activity on Mars’;
- medicine: *Americanophobia* (fear of all American), *vanity surgery* (plastic surgery);
- ecology and its deterioration: *clean-up groups* (groups to clean up areas of contaminated district), *environmentalist* (campaigner for environmental protection);
- phenomena of social life that have changed under the influence of social movements, processes and groups – the tendency to undesignation of sex: *stewardess* → *flight attendant*; *fireman* → *fire fighter*. It also includes a large group of lexemes (compound nouns) with the second component *person* in the value ‘a person, a man *особа*’, for example: *freshperson* (beginner); *policeperson* (policeman, police officer);
- ethical standards: *open marriage* (marriage in which each spouse has a full freedom (social, ethical, etc.)), *contract marriage* (a marriage made in a certain period);
- discrimination on grounds of:
 - appearance: *fattism* (discrimination against fat people);
 - age groups: *youthism* (discrimination against young people in employment), etc.;
- politics: *velvet revolution* ‘безкровна революція’ (cf. concept of the Velvet Revolution, which is a copy (loan translation) of the English construction), *START* (*Strategic Arms Reduction Talks*) (negotiations on strategic arms reduction). To this group belong *euphemisms* – words that gained prominence in the period of social development related to activities of individual politicians or under the influence of certain political events, eg.: *Watergatism* (political scandals) (from the name of the hotel *Watergate*, which is connected with a

scandal that ended with the resignation of Richard Nixon, the President of the United States); *megadebtor* (a country with a large external debt) (the lexeme came during a discussion about the country's debt at the UN (the United Nations));

- art: *ABC art* (art of simplification and decomposition of color and form into elementary components), *action painting* (spray paint to create pictures);

- theater: *black theatre* (Negro Theatre), *revolve* (revolving stage);

- movie and television: *HDTV* (high definition TV), *chat show* (interviews with celebrity (mostly live as in the U.S. for years went Oprah Winfrey`s Show);

- music: *MC (Master of Ceremony)* (especially outstanding rapper); *sampling* (use of previously created music fragments in the new work in electronic music);

- changes in education: *sink schools (schools situated in deprived areas in inner city)*; *licensed teachers* (teachers who not have a higher education – this category was due to lack of teachers);

- life (mainly food): *longlife milk* (long-term storage milk), *clingfilm* (film for packaging of perishable foods);

- sport: *slimnastics* (gymnastics to reduce weight), *a free-fall* (parachute jump, combined with acrobatics), etc.

It is noteworthy that it is very difficult to make a detailed analysis of the new items that appear in English because responsiveness of native speakers to changes in social life is high, and many new lexemes for a long time can be exclusively in the spoken area, such as within the slang, so, only then they can go to the media through speech of which such units usually fall in the range of attention of linguists. Definitely we can assert only that the absolute champion in this process today remains AmE, while other variants of English gradually master new units providing that there is common

social situation in the sense that influenced the rise of new lexemes.

Thus, complex analysis of Present-day English is impossible without taking into account not only consistent intralinguistic but extralinguistic factors that influence of the speakers, and therefore – also on the language itself, thus and so a social factor is extremely important in the linguistic sense in English-language society and it demonstrates the national language specifics.

The whole development of Present-day English (without regard to a particular variant of it) at this stage shows the active cooperation of all levels of language, because the appearance of new lexical items consistently provokes the changes, at that systematic, at the grammatical level, often having sociolinguistic motivation, but the changes apply to all instances of verbal and semantic manifestations of a linguistic unit – from pronunciation to stylistic constraints and graphic design.

English is constantly changes in the process of development that affects not only the vocabulary, but also on the grammatical structure that is most resistant to change. One reason for this can be considered a domineering tendency toward democratization of English, for example, convergence of the written / literary speech with speech / spoken, intense interaction between BE and AmE, results in interviant borrowing and so on.

As for systematic of the processes that testifies that in this case is not about the occasional or accidental usage of forms but the formation of new patterns in the language, linguists began to speak at the end of 60s of the 20th century, in particular Ch. Barber wrote about the changes in the functioning case forms of pronouns and degrees of comparison of adjectives (Barber 17-21), S. Porter emphasizes on tendency of the increasing use of zero article and on the expansion of the

scope of Continuous tense form and change functions of some parts of speech (Dubenec 8).

In general, among the most characteristic of systematic patterns in the English language today should be called such, mainly concentrated around certain parts of speech (“Historical and Contemporary Factors of Innovative Processes in the Present-Day English Language in Comparison with Ukrainian One: Conflict or Cooperation?” 89-94; “Stages and Causes of Forming a Grammatical Structure of Present-day English Language (in Comparison with the Ukrainian One)” 229-234).

ADJECTIVE

1) Use of analytical form (instead of synthetic) one- and disyllabic adjectives in higher and superlatives degree in conversational speech (cf.: in the writing speech forms are kept with the suffixes *-er* and *-est* respectively), and quite often can be heard form as *more common* instead *commoner*, *more true* instead *truer*, *most busy* instead *busiest*: *This is **more short** way to the station*;

2) leveling the semantic differences between the forms of some adjectives in higher degrees of comparison: *older – elder*, *further – farther*:

- “elder” by age and family, i.e. the *older*-form used today in both senses, and the form *elder* perceived as archaic;

- “farther” in spatial and temporal meanings, i.e. the form *further* used in both senses, and the *farther*-form gradually out into disuse;

3) use of adjectives in the function of adverbial modifier of degree: *real crazy*, *real sick* (it is about mental state), *pretty good* and adverb – as a predicate: *She felt **very badly***.

ADVERB

4) Use of analytical form (instead of synthetic) one- and disyllabic adverbs in higher and superlatives degree, like adjectives: *Facts that should be made **more well-known***;

5) interaction of adverbs *yet* and *already* (Krug 134). Adverb *yet* functions not only in negative sentences, but also in interrogative sentences with meaning, for example: *Has your brother arrived **yet***?. Instead an adverb *already* in interrogative sentence conveys wonder and translated not as, but, cf.: *Has your brother arrived **already***?. An added value of this adverb is also: *Have you **already** met Professor Hawkins*?. However, in interrogative- negative constructions difference between two adverbs disappears: *Haven't you seen him **already***? and *Haven't you seen him **already***? = *Haven't you by this time seen him*?. In narrative sentences (and interrogative sentences without negation) *already* appears to indicate that something happened sooner than expected (*already* = *not yet*), cf.: *He hasn't finished yet; He's finished; He's **already** finished; He's finished **already***;

6) active use of adverbial construction (Adv + Adv) *very much* in several senses (Dubenec 87):

- “very”, for example: *Was is good for you? – Oh, **very much** so*;

- “typical, true” before the predicative with the value of quality, e.g.: *She is **very much** a lady* (cf., replacement of independent article *a* at definite *the* provides the irony to expressing: *She is **very much** the lady*). If the article is not, then the predicate expressed by the adjective: *This district is **very much** working-class*;

- “altogether; to a great extent; extremely important”, for example: *This is **very much** the case*'.

PRONOUN

7) Expand the scope of function demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that*. If they have traditionally performed their attribute role and usually translated in accordance with the implicit sense “known” close to the speaker (in terms of spatial location) (*this*) or distant, that to compare with the subject in relation to which appears *this* (*that*), now these pronouns begin to appear:

- in atypical construction with demonstrative semantics, closer in meaning to the demonstrative particle, example: ***This*** *here man*; ***That*** *there cat*;

- with attributive-affirmative value: ***That*** *kind of telescope* (Dubenec 9);

- as an analogue of pronoun *such*: *An investigation like **that*** (cf. ***Such*** *an investigation*);

- as the adverbial modifier of degree instead *so*, e.g., *It is not **that** simple* (cf. *It is not **so** simple*), or the adverbial modifier of comparison instead of the construction *as ... as*: *It can't be **this** cold tomorrow* (cf. *It can't be **as cold tomorrow as this***);

- the special case is the use of *this* to input character of a storytelling, e.g.: *There was **this** Scotsman, you see. And he wanted...*;

8) changing stylistic designation of construction *such + a + N* with pronoun *such*, for example, ***such a blunder***: *such a* compound in Present-day English has become a literary character, because native speakers often use a construction *any + such + N*, e.g., ***any such blunder***;

9) change of use of interrogative pronoun case forms *who*: form of the objective case of this pronoun *whom*, etc. almost disappeared and only used after prepositions, usually with emphasis: *To **whom** did you give it?*;

10) tendency to use of personal pronouns, especially *I*, in the vast majority of constructions in the objective case instead

of the nominative case, because constructions with *I* have a literary character, and with *me* – stylistically neutral, example: *Nobody but me* (instead *I*); *A person like me*; *It`s me*;

11) a subsidence of a possessive pronoun before the noun which it relates: *She shook head* (instead of *She shook her head*); *He took a book in hand* (in place of *He took a book in his hand*).

PREPOSITION

12) Influenced by AmE BE alters rules of usage of prepositions (Hoffmann 189), in particular:

- by analogy with compound *at night* there is compound *at evening*;

- prepositional temporal structures give way to non-prepositional: *I`ll see you Sunday*; *I should go there the end of June*.

ARTICLE

13) Tendency to use zero article rather than the definite / indefinite article in such cases as:

- on signboards: *Sale agreed*;
- in the instructions: *Lift handset*; *Dial number*; *Press blue button, then re-dial*;
- before the names of some countries: *in USA*;
- before the names of newspapers, magazines and books: *“National Public Radio”*, *“Angels & Demons” by Dan Brown*;
- before nouns denoting family relationships or specialty: *I can be more than sister to you*; *His father was foreman in steel works* (Houston Chronicle / Entertainment / Movies);
- before nouns denoting parts of the body (especially after prepositions): *with sad face*, *with back turned*;
- with nouns – names of schools (by analogy with nouns *school* and *college*): *to enter first grade*, *to go to university*.

NOUN

14) Borrowed nouns that create plural forms with the suffix *-a* perceived as singular, and they remain the property to combine with possessive pronouns in the plural, for example: *It is a pity that the Western **media** is not as flamboyant in their reporting of the US nuclear testing and bombing of Libya* (BBC News / World);

15) now nouns *understanding* and *knowledge* can form the plural when they act as homogeneous members of sentence that are in plural: *Her techniques of encouraging wholesome motivation for mastery of critical skills, habits, **understandings**, **knowledges**, and attitudes, [...] are, [...] rather eccentric* (BBC / UK / Education);

16) in a conversational style, there is no agreement in the plural of noun with a verb. This feature characteristic not only for noun forms after *Here`s* and *There`s*, but also on postposition *Where`s*, *What`s* i *How`s*, e.g.: *Here`s your papers; What`s her chances?*. It attracts the attention to the fact that the use of two or more similar nouns (homogeneous members of sentences) choice of singular / plural of verb-predicate is defined under “the proximity rule”, which today is guided by the majority of English that is happening verb agreement with the positionally nearest noun, cf.: *There **are** a girl and two boys in the room* (traditional usage) and *There **is** a girl and two boys in the room* (usage under “the proximity rule”), etc.

It should be noted that the list of morphological changes is much broader and covers all parts of speech, but so far the main area of their operation – is first and foremost spoken language and journalism in all manifestations, and partly – fiction texts.

Thus, complex analysis of Present-day English is impossible without taking into account not only consistent intralinguistic but extralinguistic factors that influence of the

speakers, and therefore – also on the language itself, thus and so a social factor is extremely important in the linguistic sense in English-language society and it demonstrates the national language specifics.

The whole development of Present-day English (without regard to a particular variant of it) at this stage shows the active cooperation of all levels of language, because the appearance of new lexical items consistently provokes the changes, at that systematic, at the grammatical (morphological) level, often having sociolinguistic motivation, but the changes apply to all instances of verbal and semantic manifestations of a linguistic unit – from pronunciation to stylistic constraints and graphic design.

Perspective of this study is to analyze the processes that deepen the internal stratification of Present-day English vocabulary as a whole system and its individual variants in English (AM) (British, American, Australian, etc.), the latter more deeper trends in the breeding options for English as a relatively independent entities and strengthening of the modern sociolinguistic factors that determine the formation of vocabulary as well as language forms exist mainly in the English (literary / common, colloquial) taking into account the relationships between regional, social and situational parameters that lead to the selection of specific lexical items by carriers of English based on communicative situation.

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