

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
КИЇВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ ЛІНГВІСТИЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ**

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**КУРС ЗІСТАВНОЇ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЇ
АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ ТА УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ МОВ**

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Навчальний посібник містить конденсований виклад основних положень із курсу “Зіставна лексикологія англійської та української мов”, який посідає важливе місце в системі професійної підготовки студента-перекладача першого (бакалаврського) рівня.

Навчальний посібник є комплексною розробкою, що може служити методичним забезпеченням усіх складників навчального процесу з курсу зіставної лексикології англійської та української мов, а саме: лекційного курсу, семінарських занять, самостійної роботи, модульного контролю.

Призначено для студентів філологічних факультетів педагогічних і мовних вищих навчальних закладів III та IV рівня акредитації.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчальний посібник має на меті комплексне методичне забезпечення як аудиторної, так і самостійної роботи студентів для підвищення своєї професійної компетентності з курсу “Зіставна лексикологія англійської та української мов”, який є базовим у навчальному плані професійної підготовки студентів-перекладачів першого (бакалаврського) рівня.

Посібник складається з трьох частин:

- лекційний матеріал, що містить основні теоретичні положення із зіставної лексикології англійської та української мов (Theoretical Fundamentals of Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Ukrainian Languages);
- матеріал до кожної теми для самостійного опрацювання (Supplementary Material for Self-study);
- практичні завдання для оптимізації семінарських занять (Practical Assignments for Seminars in Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Ukrainian Languages).

Супровідні до лекцій матеріали, що розкривають базові теоретичні положення з проблем становлення, еволюції та сучасного стану лексичних систем англійської та української мов, зорганізовано в теми відповідно до робочої програми і структури навчальної дисципліни “Зіставна лексикологія англійської та української мов”.

Матеріал для самостійної роботи має на меті формування професійно значущих навичок дослідницької роботи, що в комплексі забезпечує критичне осмислення структури та принципів функціонування лексикону, задає вектор поглиблення знань студентів у галузі зіставної лексикології англійської та української мов.

Різноманітні практичні завдання, проблемні запитання для самостійного розв’язання і творчі завдання, призначені для опрацювання на семінарських заняттях, спрямовано на оптимізацію засвоєння основних положень лекційного матеріалу, оволодіння теоретичними основами використання англійської мови як першої іноземної мови у зіставленні з українською мовою як мовою перекладу з огляду на синтагматичні, парадигматичні й епідигматичні зв’язки між їхніми елементами, здатність адекватно зіставляти лексичні і фразеологічні факти англійської та української мов, вміння користуватися різними типами словників у контексті провадження перекладацької діяльності.

Навчальний посібник призначено для студентів філологічних факультетів педагогічних і мовних вищих навчальних закладів III та IV рівня акредитації.

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Part I

THEORETICAL FUNDAMENTALS OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LANGUAGES

Thematic Module 1

SEMASIOLOGY. THE MEANING OF THE WORD

Theme 1

Contrastive Lexicology in the Systemic Structure of Language

1.1 Language as System and Structure

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of the society.

Human language is characterized by the systemic nature as a whole and of the elements making up the whole. The two notions “system” and “structure” are usually applied in the internal analysis of language. But there is no contradiction in applying these notions to language. Language is a structural system.

System implies the characterization of a complex object as a whole structure made up of separate parts, e.g., the system of sounds. Language is regarded as a system of elements (language units) such as phonemes, morphemes, words, etc. The elements of the structure are the components of the multitude. They possess the systemic value as the members of the given system which can be conceived through the systemic relations between the elements of the system.

Some linguists consider “sphericity” and “nucleation” to be the mode of language organization. Accordingly, the system of language is subdivided into separate spheres or basic subsystems: Grammar, Lexicon, and Phonetics, each of which displaying systemic characteristics too. Only the unity of these three subsystems forms a language; without any of them there is no human language. The phonetical subsystem includes the material units of which language is made up: phonemes, different intonation patterns, and accent patterns. The lexical subsystem includes all the nominative (naming) means of language –

words and set (stable) word-combinations. The grammatical subsystem includes the rules and regularities of using language units in the construction of utterances in the process of human communication.

Each of these constituent parts of language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline (*table 1.1*). The phonological description of language is effected by Phonology; the lexical description of language is the domain of Lexicology; the grammatical description of language is given by Grammar.

Table 1.1

Subsystems of Language Structure

Subsystems of Language	Linguistic Disciplines
Text organization in language	Textlinguistics
The syntactic description of language	Grammar
The lexical description of language	Lexicology
The morphological description of language	Lexicology / Grammar
The phonological description of language	Phonology

Language as a system is characterized as an orderly arrangement of cognate elements interrelated in the whole (structure).

Structure means hierarchical layering of parts in constituting the whole. In the structure of language, there are six main structural levels: phonemic, morphemic, lexemic, phrasemic, proposemic, and supra-proposic (or super-syntactic). The levels are represented by the corresponding level units.

The phonemic level is the lowest level of the language system. The unit of phonemic level is the phoneme. The **phoneme** is the smallest language unit. It has no meaning of its own but it is meaning distinctive: it differentiates morphemes and words as material bodies. Phonemes are represented by letters in writing, e.g., *tale* and *table* are differentiated by the phoneme (letter) “b”.

The morphemic level is located above the phonemic one. The unit of morphemic level is the morpheme. The **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful unit. It expresses abstract, generalized meaning, e.g., in the word *teacher*, the suffix *-er* has the meaning ‘a doer of an action’. The meanings of the morphemes in the structure of a word are used as constituent parts for the formation of more concrete, “nominative” meaning of the word, e.g., *un-faith-ful-ly* contains four morphemes.

The lexemic level is the third in the hierarchy of language levels. It is the level of words. The **word** is the smallest naming unit. The meaning of the word is concrete, “nominative”, it names things and their relations. Since words are built up by morphemes, the shortest words consist of one explicit morpheme only, e.g., *man, will, but*, etc.

The phrasemic level is the level of phrases (word-groups). **Phrases** are combinations of two or more notional words; they have a nominative function but represent the referent as a complicated phenomenon, e.g., *a picturesque village, the unexpected arrival of the chief, to start with a jerk*, etc. Phrases may be of a set type and of a free type. Free phrases are built up in the process of speech according to the existing productive patterns.

The proposemic level is the level of sentences. The **sentence** is the smallest communicative unit of the language. The sentence not only names a certain situation, but it expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality. Namely, it shows whether this event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, etc. The sentence is produced by the speaker in the process of speech. At the same time, it enters the system of language by its syntactic pattern which has both syntagmatic and paradigmatic characteristics.

The supra-proposemic (super-syntactic) level is the level of texts. The **text** is the highest form of language. It is characterized by some specific features: textuality, coherence, cohesion, and deixis. The text is a combination of separate sentences forming a textual unity (a *texteme*). The *texteme* is to be imagined as an ideal, abstract and generalized. The syntactic process by which sentences are connected into textual unities is called “cummulation”. Cummulation, the same as formation of composite sentences, can be both syndetic and asyndetic. In the printed text, the supra sentential construction commonly coincides with the paragraph.

Thus, there are six levels of language, each identified by its own functional type of segmental (language) units. The phonemic, lexemic and proposemic levels are most strictly identified from the functional point of view: the function of the phoneme is differential, the function of the word is nominative, and the function of the sentence is predicative. The system of language includes, on the one hand, the material units (*table 1.2*) – sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups; on the other hand, – the rules how to use these units in speech.

Table 1.2

Units of Language as the Object Matter of Linguistic Disciplines

Unit of Language	Aspect of Language	Linguistic Discipline
Text	Text organization	Textlinguistics
Sentence	Sentence organization	Syntax
Phrase	Phrase organization	Syntax
	Phrase semantics	Lexicology
Word	Lexical semantics	Lexicology
	Word-building	Morphology
Morpheme	Word-building	Morphology
Phoneme	Phonetics	Phonology

Units of language are divided into segmental and supra-segmental (figure 1.1).

Segmental units consist of phonemes, which form morphemes, words, phrases, sentences and texts.

Supra-segmental units do not exist by themselves. These are intonation contours, accents, pauses, patterns of word-order. They are realized together with segmental units and express different meanings.

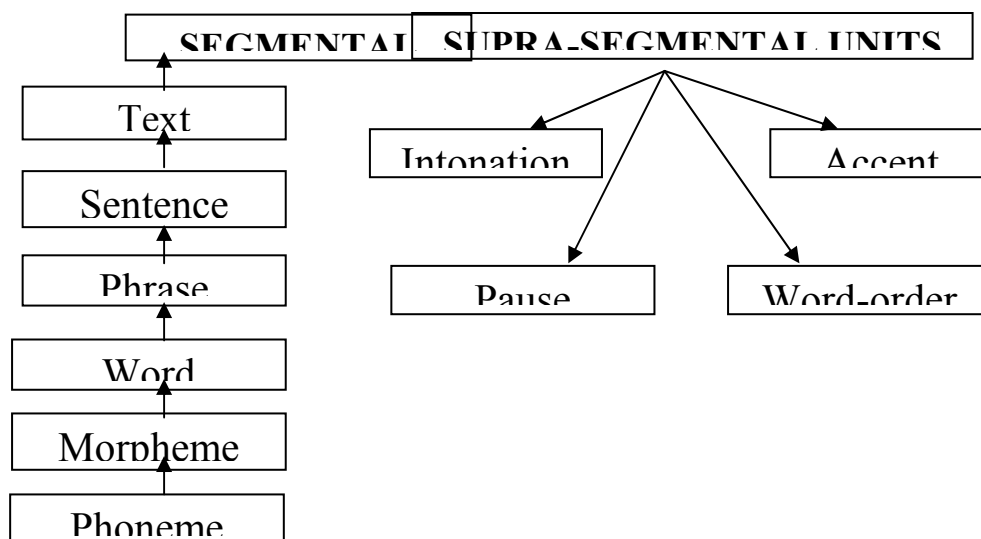


Figure 1.1. Hierarchy of Language Units

Language units are given in their generalized abstracted forms, they don't exist if not actualized and concretized by their **speech counterparts** in the process of intercourse. Human language exists through its speech manifestation. Language is analyzed in two different aspects: the system of signs (language proper) and the use of signs (speech proper). Special attention should be paid to the differentiation of “language” and “speech” planes (*table 1.3*).

Table 1.3

Levels of Language Structure and their Language Units
and Speech Counterparts

Levels of Language Structure	Units of Language (abstractions)	Units of Speech (instantiations)
Supra-proposemic	Text	Utterance
	Sentence-group (paragraph)	
	Sentence	
	Phrase	
Proposemic (syntactic)	Word	Word-form
Phrasemic (syntactic)	Morpheme	Morph
Lexemic	Phoneme	Phone
Morphemic		
Phonemic		

Language and speech are inseparable; they form together an organic unity. The generalizing term “language” is also preserved in linguistics showing the unity of these two aspects.

The linguistic structure is a highly organized system where we generally distinguish syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (speech). For instance, phonemes are connected within morphemes, morphemes within the words are also connected syntagmatically, e.g., *space / ship, launch / ed*. Words and word-groups are syntagmatically connected in a sentence. Syntagmatic relations are conditioned by the context and are usually observed in utterances.

Paradigmatic relations cannot be directly observed in utterances. They reveal themselves in the sets of forms constituting paradigms.

A **paradigm** in the lexical system is based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary, namely synonymy, antonymy, and hyponymy. For instance, a word *to tremble* enters into paradigmatic relations with other words forming the synonymic group *to tremble – to shiver – to shudder – to shake*.

Originally, the differentiation between paradigmatics and syntagmatics was based on the recognition of the two planes: “language” and “speech”. Accordingly, paradigmatics was identified with language whereas syntagmatics coincided with speech. Later on this idea underwent revision. Nowadays it is accepted axiomatic that every linguistic unit enters into the two types of systemic relations at a time which expose the systemic value of the element, and the establishment of these relations helps identify it as a member of a particular language system (*figure 1.2*).

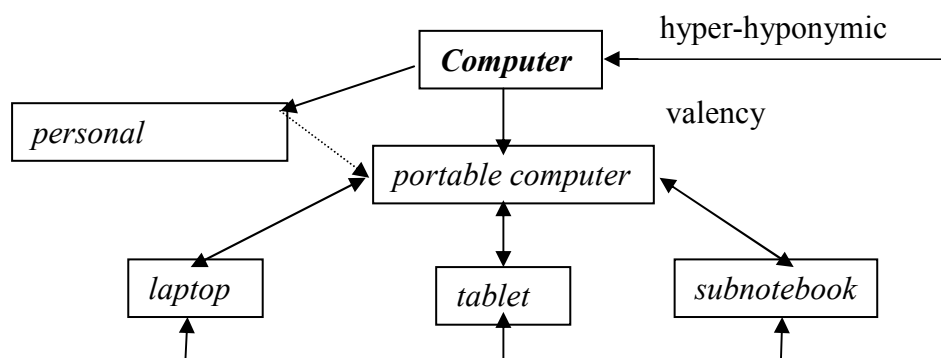


Figure 1.2. The Fragment of Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relations of the Word computer

In this connection, it is necessary to point out that some linguists consider that besides these two aspects (paradigmatics and syntagmatics), the lexical system has a third dimension – epidigmatics (Кочерган 2010). Epidigmatic relationships are associative derivative relations between words in form and content, which can be illustrated by the following example: the word *земля* in the meaning of ‘soil’ is associated with the word forms *земелька, земляний, землистий, землероб, землевласник, землеволодіння, землемір*, etc., whereas the same word in the meaning of ‘land’ is associated with *земний, наземний, підземний, земноводний*, etc. Hence, a word-building paradigm refers to a set of cognate words and can be deverbal, denominal, deadjectival, and deadverbial, e.g., *read – reading – reader – reading-hall / reading-room – reading-matter*.

To sum up, the following types of paradigms are to be distinguished in linguistics: morphological, lexical, word-building, and syntactic.

1.2 Essentials of Contrastive Linguistics

Synchronic contrastive investigations of two or more languages and typological investigations of a group of languages, which were vigorously

developed in the second half of the 20th century, gave rise to a new branch of linguistics – Contrastive Linguistics. Various other terms are also currently used to refer to this same discipline, such as Contrastive Analysis, Contrastive Studies, or Cross-Linguistic Studies. Contrastive Linguistics started developing in the 1940^s and 1950^s as an independent discipline within the field of Applied Linguistics to fulfill new needs arising in foreign language teaching (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1).

Contrastive Linguistics aims at establishing similar general linguistic categories which serve as a basis for the classification of languages of different types. The common and different phonetic, morphological, lexical, and syntactic features of languages contrasted may be viewed either synchronically or diachronically.

The feature (quality) which is common of the two languages which are being compared has traditionally been referred to as *Tertium Comparationis* (Lat. ‘the third [part] of the comparison’). It is the point of comparison which “prompted the author of the comparison in question to liken someone / something to someone / something else in the first place” (URL).

The **basic tasks** of Contrastive Linguistics are defined as following (Demenchuk 2018):

→ the systematic synchronic study of similarities and differences in the structure and use of two or more language varieties, carried out for theoretical or practical purposes;

→ the classification of the languages according to the common and divergent features;

→ the establishing of the language types on the basis of the isomorphic (common) and allomorphic (divergent) traits in the languages contrasted;

→ the performing a truly scientific classification of all languages of the world on the basis of the obtained practical data.

Some of the most relevant features related to Contrastive Linguistics are listed below:

→ the systematic comparison of two or more languages can be carried out at different levels, from phonetics to grammar, lexis or text linguistics; microlinguistic studies were the focus in the first years, but contrastive studies have also been carried out at higher levels;

→ a contrastive study can be said to consist of three steps: description (the particular phenomenon that is to be contrasted has to

be described in the languages involved), juxtaposition (the resulting descriptions have to be juxtaposed to observe similarities and differences) and, finally, comparison (the differences found are to be contrasted in order to determine the possible cross-language correspondences). Contrastive Linguistics focuses primarily on differences between languages;

→ the linguistic description of the two languages can be carried out according to any linguistic model, but the same model should be applied in both cases; the approaches that deal with Contrastive Linguistics include generative models (Krzeszowski 1990) and functional models (Chesterman 1998), among others.

Thus, Contrastive Linguistics attempts to discover similarities and differences in internal structures of both related and non-related languages. It is now universally recognized that this branch of linguistic studies is a field of particular interest to interpreters and teachers of foreign languages. Scholars working in the field of Applied Linguistics conclude that the most effective materials for training interpreters are those that are based upon a scientific description of the target language carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.

Contrastive Linguistics is based on the typological method of research that is why it is very close to **General Typology**. It is essential to distinguish between contrastive analysis and typology which are different parts of the same branch of linguistics. Yu. Zhluktenko in his article, “Contrastive analysis as a method of speech investigations” (1979) points out that Contrastive Linguistics is not an independent science but a part of General Linguistics that has the same subject and aim, investigates the nature and peculiarities of different languages and differs from linguistics only in its method – synchronous contrastive method.

Yu. Zhluktenko (ЖЛУКТЕНКО 1979) asserts that the main requirements to contrastive investigations are:

→ the choice of the most important and effective language elements for the analysis;

→ the choice of an adequate and reliable basis for contrastive analysis;

→ taking into consideration interlingual equivalence, which, as a rule, is not connected with the equality of form.

The primary task of the contrastive analysis of two or more languages is to choose the basis of comparison, i.e. the model with the help of which the languages will be compared. Two bases of contrastive analysis are usually mentioned by the linguists.

1. Contrastive analysis is termed unilateral when languages are contrasted on the basis of one of the analyzed languages and one of them is used as a model. Unilateral contrastive analysis is widely used in the analysis of foreign languages comparing them with the learners' native language.

2. Contrastive analysis, according to which both compared languages are studied from the point of view of some third language system, is termed bilateral. The third language may be:

→ a living language which may function as an intermediary in communication;

→ a dead language which is fixed in the invariable state (Latin, Ancient Greek);

→ an artificial language applied in the process of typological analysis of a number of languages;

→ a special metalanguage created as a system of methods to ensure most objective and exact description of other languages.

A unilateral method of contrastive analysis is the most widespread one. A bilateral method of contrastive analysis is less widespread than a unilateral one. Semantic and grammatical characteristics of the metalanguage are used as a model of analysis in the case when the explorer is in great need of absolutely exact results of the comparison.

The terms most widely applied while carrying out contrastive linguistic research are the following.

Language Universals are linguistic phenomena used to characterize all languages existing on the Globe on all levels taking into consideration their systems and structures. According to the statistic principle they are classified into unrestricted (absolute) universals and restricted (relative) universals (near-universals). Languages may possess unique features as well, e.g., the final position of prepositions in present-day English special questions as in *What do you depend upon?*

As for the language units analyzed, there exist phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic universals. The universal phonetic phenomenon is that all languages have vowels and consonants. As for morphology, in most languages a) words are structured into morphemes; b) morphemes function as full and auxiliary elements. As for lexis, in all languages a) vocabulary presents a system of semantic fields; b) there exist polysemy, synonymy, homonymy, and antonymy. As for syntax, all languages possess distribution of the subject, the predicate and the secondary elements (SVO) in the sentence.

Type denotes a generalized form of features characteristic of a number of languages, e.g., in syntactic typology they differentiate between several types according to the basic word order of a language. Thus, there are SOV, SVO, OVS, OSV, VOS and VSO types. English and Ukrainian belong to the SVO type, while Turkish represents the SOV type.

Typological dominant features are the phenomena registered very often either at the language level or in the structure of a certain language. Thus, analytical connection in English and synthetic connection in Ukrainian word groups are typological dominant features of these languages on the syntactic level.

Typological recessive features are those phenomena, which lose their former dominant roles: the dual number in Ukrainian, the case in Modern English. While comparing the languages, we single out their isomorphic (common) and allomorphic (divergent) features.

Isomorphism (Greek *morphe* ‘form or structure’, *iso-* ‘equal’) means “equal structure”. The term “isomorphism” meaning “similarity, likeness” or even “identity” was introduced by a Polish linguist J. Kurilovich (*Jerzy Kuryłowicz*) who borrowed it from mathematics. Initially referring to the structuralist, in particular glossematic, hypothesis that the expression and meaning of linguistic signs show structural parallelisms, the term “isomorphism” is used in current linguistic theory to designate the one-to-one correspondence between expression and meaning. Isomorphism can exist between different levels of linguistic analysis, e.g., between the syntactic and the semantic structure of expressions. In Contrastive Linguistics, isomorphism is observed in common traits in the languages contrasted, divergent (different) traits manifest allomorphy of the languages contrasted.

Metalinguage is a special instrument of comparison:

- any natural language;
- a linguistic category (e.g., gender, voice, person, etc.);
- any postulate of General Linguistics (e.g., polysemy, semantic field, etc.).

The etalon language is a hypothetical language created for the sake of contrasting languages.

A world language is a language spread throughout the world and understood by many people. Greek and Latin used to perform this function. Nowadays English and French are used for international communication in different spheres. English, French, Russian, Chinese, Arabic, and Spanish are officially recognized as the languages of the

United Nations Organization because they: 1) represent big nations; 2) possess great cultural heritage; 3) play an important role in world politics.

Artificial languages were considered to perform international functions at the end of the 19th century, though these attempts failed because they: 1) were not natural; 2) had no spoken norm; 3) lacked emotional colouring.

Language Norm (competence) is the correct form (conventionally recognized as correct) in the language system.

Speech Norm (performance) is the language form recognized in the process of communication without leading to misunderstanding.

The results of Contrastive investigations may be applied in 1) translation practice; 2) compiling dictionaries; 3) teaching foreign languages, though Contrastive Linguistics is not a purely practical branch of linguistics. It is a theory of language types and classification of languages according to their types.

Traditionally, Contrastive Linguistics is defined as a branch of General Linguistics, which reveals and studies specific individual linguistic characteristics of some phenomena of the given language and other languages and typological characteristics common to a group of languages. It should be taken into consideration that the division of contrastive investigations is formal to some extent. On the one hand, systematic contrastive researches may be not purely theoretical and are often supplied with some definite results of comparison between or among linguistic phenomena. On the other hand, systematic practical contrastive descriptions may contain some theoretical considerations and conclusions.

1.3 Contrastive Lexicology in the System of Linguistic Studies, its Subject-Matter and Basic Tasks

Lexicology (Greek *lexis* ‘word’ and *logos* ‘learning’) is a branch of linguistics – “the science of the word”. The literal meaning of the term “lexicology” gives, however, only a general notion of the aims of this branch of linguistic science.

Lexicology as a branch of linguistics is concerned with words and set phrases (phraseological units), and also morphemes, which make up words. Lexicology has its own aims and methods of scientific research.

The **basic task** of Lexicology is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and its current use.

The term “vocabulary” is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents (phraseological units) that the language possesses.

The term “word” denotes the basic unit of a given language (the largest on the morphological and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis) resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. A word therefore is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical, and phonological unit. It is a structural and semantic entity within the language system. These entities together form a vocabulary.

The term “system” as used in present-day Lexicology denotes a set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws. The lexical system is not homogeneous. Its central part is formed by lexical units possessing all the distinctive features of words. Phrasal verbs, complex prepositions, some compounds, phraseological units, etc. function as lexical items of the vocabulary of the language. The lexical system contains productive elements typical of this particular period, others that are archaic and are dropping out of usage, and, finally, some new phenomena, neologisms.

The elements of lexical system are characterized by their combinatorial and contrastive properties determining their syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships.

Syntagmatic (combinatorial, linear, speech) relations define the meaning of the word when it is used in combination with other words in the flow of speech. For instance, compare the meaning of the verb “to get” in the sentences: *He got a letter. He got tired. He got to London. He could not get the piano through the door.*

Paradigmatic (contrastive, language) relations exist between words belonging to one subgroup of vocabulary items (e.g., verbs of motion, of sense perception, sets of synonyms, etc.) that can occur in the same context and be contrasted to one another on the basis of similarity (rows of synonyms, e.g., *fine, nice, beautiful; красивий, чудовий, прекрасний*, etc.), opposition (pairs of antonyms, e.g., *day – night, hot – cold; праворуч – ліворуч, свій – чужий*, etc.), inclusion (groups of hyponyms, e.g., *mother, father, sister, brother; мати, батько, сестра, брат*, etc.). Paradigmatic relations are observed in the system of language, e.g., *to go (run, walk, stroll) a mile (a kilometer, a long distance).*

Distinction is made between General Lexicology and Special Lexicology. The general study of vocabulary, irrespective of the specific

features of any particular language, is known as **General Lexicology**. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally referred to as language universals. **Special Lexicology** devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. Thus, Special Lexicology is the Lexicology of a particular language (e.g., English or Ukrainian).

Vocabulary studies include such aspects of research as etymology, semasiology and onomasiology.

Etymology is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin or derivation of words. In many cases, the etymology of a word reveals itself in comparative historical studies.

Semasiology is the branch of linguistics whose subject-matter is the study of word meaning. The term “semantics” is used to denote the lexical meaning of words or phrases.

Onomasiology is the study of the principles of the signification of things and notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language. It is especially important in studying dialects where one and the same object finds its different signification in different regions of the country.

There are **two principal approaches** in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely, the **synchronic**, or descriptive, which is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time, for instance, in Old English or at the present time, and **diachronic**, or historical, which deals with the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time. Consequently, there are two types of Lexicology: Descriptive Lexicology and Historical Lexicology.

Descriptive Lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent in the system. Descriptive Lexicology deals with morphological and semantic structures of words, investigating the interdependence between these two aspects. These structures are identified and distinguished by contrasting the nature and arrangement of their elements.

Historical Lexicology deals with the evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements, as time goes by. Historical Lexicology discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, and investigates the lingual and extra-lingual forces modifying their structure, meaning, and usage. In the past, historical treatment was always combined with the comparative method. Historical Lexicology has been criticised for

its atomistic approach, i.e. for treating every word as an individual and isolated unit. This drawback is, however, not intrinsic to the science itself. Historical study of words is not necessarily atomistic. In the light of recent investigations, it becomes clear that there is no reason why Historical Lexicology cannot survey the evolution of a vocabulary as an adaptive system, showing its change and development in the course of time.

Closely connected with Historical Lexicology is **Contrastive and Comparative Lexicology**. This branch of study provides a theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages in their historic development can be compared and described. Of primary importance in this respect is the comparison of the historic development of the foreign language with that of the mother tongue. In the 19th century, with the use of sets of phonetic correspondence, philologists explored and proved genetic relationships between words in different languages. It became clear from intensive work on the great historical dictionaries that multiple meaning for words is normal, not an exception. Comparative studies showed that, save for specific technical terms, there are no two words in two languages that cover precisely the same area.

At the beginning of the present-day, vocabulary study was still mainly concentrated on historical problems. Only after Saussure, an entirely new approach to language had been evolved: it had come to be understood as a system of synchronous symbols deriving their meaning and significance from differences and oppositions within this system. The centre of interest in its turn has shifted to the synchronic level, the spoken utterance and structure. Lexicologists are now describing what the vocabulary of the language is like, rather than how it came to be that way.

Contrastive Lexicology is a new type of vocabulary studies aiming at establishing differences and similarities between present-day languages in the course of their systematic description (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

Therefore, **the subject-matter** of Contrastive Lexicology is the contrastive analysis of language vocabularies and lexical items in respect of their structural, semantic, and functional features. Contrastive analysis is for the most part synchronic and compares both related and unrelated languages. It deals with lexis in contrast as manifested in the development of the two unrelated languages, as Ukrainian and English (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 3).

Among the **basic tasks** of any research in the field of Contrastive Lexicology are the following:

- 1) to study lexical units of the languages compared;
- 2) to investigate the problems of word-structure and word-formation in the languages under consideration;
- 3) to study the problem of interrelation of a word and its meaning;
- 4) to identify and classify the main isomorphic and allomorphic features characteristic of lexicons of the languages studied;
- 5) to single out the isomorphic regularities and describe allomorphic singularities in the lexicons of the languages investigated.

Furthermore, Contrastive Lexicology also covers a number of fundamental issues, such as lack of one-to-one correspondence between expression and content, divergences in the semantic structure of the lexicons, variation in usage. There are also some decisive criteria in trying to estimate the relative range of lexis in contrast: socio-historical circumstances, borrowings and their assimilation, etc.

It is commonly assumed that all languages have vocabulary systems in which words differ in sound-form but refer to reality in the same way. From this assumption, it follows that for every word in the mother tongue, there is an exact equivalent in a foreign language. But a convincing counterargument is that, though the objective reality exists outside human beings, irrespective of the language they speak, every language classifies reality in its own way by means of vocabulary units. In English, for example, the word *foot* is used to denote ‘the extremity of the leg’. In Ukrainian there is no exact equivalent for *foot*; ‘стопа’ is a little bit smaller than *foot*, the word ‘нога’ denotes the whole leg including the foot. Differences in the lexical meaning of correlated words account for the differences of their collocability in different languages.

One more example is provided by the words *watch* and *clock*. It is natural for Ukrainian speakers to have a single word to refer to all devices that tell us what time it is; yet in English they are divided into two classes depending on whether or not they are customarily portable. We also find it natural in English to use the term *fortnight* to reflect the meaning ‘two weeks’. Yet in Ukrainian we fail to find one single word (in Ukrainian: *два тижні*). In other words, the contrastive analysis brings to light what can be labeled as problem pairs, i.e. words that correspond to two different words in another language, as you can see above.

Each language contains words which cannot be translated directly from this language into another. Traditional examples of untranslatable English words are *sophisticated* and *efficient*. But this is not to say that the lack of word-to-word equivalents implies the lack of what is denoted by

these words. In the English synonymic set *brave, courageous, bold, fearless, audacious, valiant, valorous, doughty, undaunted, intrepid*, each word differs in certain components of meaning from the others: *brave* usually implies resolution and self-control in meeting, without flinching, a situation that inspires fear, *courageous* stresses stout-heartedness and firmness of temper, etc. Comparing the corresponding Ukrainian synonymic set *хоробрий, безстрашний, сміливий, мужній, відважний*, etc., we see that the Ukrainian word *сміливий* may be considered as a correlated word to either *brave, valiant* or *valorous* and also that no member of the Ukrainian synonymic set can be viewed as an exact equivalent of any single member of the English synonymic set in isolation. Different aspects of this quality are differently distributed among the words making up the synonymic set. If we abandon the notion of word-for-word equivalence, we can assume that

1) anything which can be said in one language can be translated more or less accurately into another;

2) correlated polysemantic words of different languages are not, as a rule, co-extensive, e.g., *head of a coin* stands for *сторона* ‘орел’;

3) the meaning of any word depends, to a great extent, on the place it occupies in the set of semantically related words.

Thus, the **theoretical value** of Contrastive Lexicology becomes clear if we realize that it forms the study of one of the three main aspects of language, i.e. its vocabulary, the other two being its grammar and sound system. It is obvious that there are a lot of differences among English and Ukrainian lexical systems as even a superficial examination of their sound patterns, vocabularies, and word order reveals. But this does not mean that there are no limits on the type of lexical systems that human beings can acquire and use. Quite to the contrary, current research suggests that there are important lexical principles and tendencies shared by all human languages. Studying these principles contributes to the development of the general linguistic theory and is the main concern of Contrastive Lexicology.

Last but not least, Contrastive Lexicology came into being to meet the needs of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely of translation, lexicography, standardization of terminology, information processing, foreign language teaching, literary criticism and others. Its **practical value** cannot be overestimated as it stimulates a systematic approach to the facts of the vocabulary and plays a crucial role in the general training of every linguist.

1.4 Typological Isomorphism and Allomorphy of the English and Ukrainian Lexicon

All modern languages have developed common layers of lexicon which came into being under the influence mainly of social, economic, political, historical and other extra-lingual factors. They are the layers which form dialectal, international, specifically national, etc. lexicons.

The **lexicon** is a list of all the words in a language. It can be thought of as a list of all possible roots of a language, or all morphemes (parts of words that contain no smaller meaningful parts) that can stand alone or be combined with other parts to produce words. Each of them has distinctive features in common. Thus, the functioning of a dialectal lexicon is restricted to a definite territory.

Isomorphism of the English and Ukrainian lexicon is determined by the common linguistic **principles of contrastive classification of lexicon**, which are based in all languages on the following distinguishing features of words:

- a) their common lexical and grammatical nature;
- b) their belonging to a common lexical and semantic group;
- c) their peculiar stylistic function and meaning;
- d) their denotative or connotative (or both) meanings, etc.

In accordance with the most general lexical and grammatical meanings of words, they are grouped in the contrasted languages into:

- a) notionals;
- b) functionals.

The **notionals** serve as principal means of nomination and constitute the bulk of English and Ukrainian lexicon. The notionals have, apart from their often complicated semantic structure, different morphological, stylistic, and syntactic features of their own.

There are the same classes of notional words in both languages. A word may express the most general implicit (not clear at first sight) meanings of substantivity, verbiality, adverbiality, and deitic properties, thus representing nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and statives.

Common (isomorphic) therefore are 12 lexical and grammatical classes of words (parts of speech), each of which has mostly the same properties in the contrasted languages. But it is not always possible to state what part of speech the word belongs to, e.g., *blue*, *hand*, *house* may be both nouns and adjectives or verbs in English. It is mostly not so in

Ukrainian, whose words clearly display their lexical and grammatical meaning, e.g., *синій – синіти – синяк; рука – ручний – вручати; добрий – добре – добряк – доброта; хата – хатний – робити – робота – робітник; праця – працювати – працівник*, etc.

As to **functional words**, they are common except for the articles (allomorphic feature). Namely: prepositions, conjunctions, particles, interjections, modal verbs, and modal words / phrases.

Another isomorphic feature of the English and Ukrainian lexicon is represented by classes of words distinguished in both languages, which represent common **lexical semantic groups** (LSGs). Words of LSGs may have a regular hyponymic relationship in English and Ukrainian. Cf: the notion of “a dwelling” unites the following row of nouns denoting different kinds of shelter: *house, cottage, bungalow, villa, palace, apartment, dug-out* ‘печера, землянка’, *shanty* ‘халупа’, *mud-house* ‘глинянка’.

Common LSGs can be observed among English and Ukrainian adjectives denoting dimensions; verbs of saying; local prepositions.

The **morphological systems** of the English and Ukrainian languages are characterized by a considerable number of isomorphic as well as of several allomorphic features.

The isomorphic features are due to the common Indo-European origin of the two languages, while allomorphy has been acquired by the English and Ukrainian languages in the course of their historical development and functioning as independent national languages.

The principal typological constant of the morphological level is the **morpheme**. As to its structure, the morpheme may be:

a) simple (one-phoneme): **a-**, **-s**, **-t**, etc. (*alike, says, burnt*) in English and **-а**, **-и**, **-у**, **з-**, **с-**, etc. in Ukrainian (*весна, хати, беру, з’їсти, сховати*) or

b) compound, e.g., **-ment**, **-hood**, **-ward**, **-ство**, **-ський**, **-цький**, etc. as in *management, brotherhood, seaward, суспільство, сільський, ткацький*, etc.

The complexity of its nature, structure and meaning makes the morpheme one of the main objects of contrastive study at the morphological level. Moreover, the morpheme in English and Ukrainian has some peculiar features, which are characteristic of each of these contrasted languages.

Root morphemes

English has a much larger number of regular root morphemes than Ukrainian. Consequently, the number of inflexions expressing the morphological categories is much smaller in English than in Ukrainian.

Moreover, a lot of notionals in English lack even the affixes which can identify their lexical and morphological nature. Free root-morphemed words, though fewer in Ukrainian, are still represented in all lexical and morphological classes, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. of both contrasted languages. Cf. *arm, pen, boy, work, do, red, he, she, it, five, this, ten, here, far*, etc. Similarly in Ukrainian: *ніс, лоб, чуб, ти, хто, три, тут, де, він*, etc.

Free root morphemes in English and Ukrainian can also be functionals, e.g., *but, till, on, not, through, just (a moment), мов, геть, так, певне, може, ох, дзень, гав, не, ні, від, на, під*, etc.

Root morphemes can often form part of the stem, which is especially characteristic of present-day English and Ukrainian, e.g., *workers, friendliness, concerning, beautiful; робітництво, безмежність, переодягнутися, переробивши, тепленько, теплесенько*, etc.

Affixal morphemes

These are mainly suffixes and sometimes also prefixes.

The number of **suffixes** in the contrasted languages considerably exceeds the number of prefixes. The number of suffixes in English does not exceed 100, there being 60 noun-forming, 26 adjective-forming, 5 verb-forming and 3 adverb-forming suffixes.

Among the noun-indicating / forming suffixes in English are: **-acy, -ance, -ion, -dom, -er, -ess, -hood, -ics, -ism, -ity, -ment, -ness, -ship, -ty** and others, e.g., *democracy, alliance, delegation, freedom, writer, falsehood, politics, feudalism, government, management, fitness, likeness, penmanship, friendship, loyalty*, etc.

The adjective-indicating suffixes are: **-able, -al, -ial, -fold, -ful, -ic, -ile, -ish, -less, -ous, -some, -ward, -y** and some others, e.g., *capable, formal, presidential, manifold, grateful, laconic, futile, selfish, meaningless, dangerous, tiresome, eastward, happy, silly*, etc.

The verb-indicating suffixes are: **-ate, -en, -esce, -ify, -ise**, e.g., *negotiate, facilitate, blacken, shortene, acquiesce, beautify, purify, demobilize, organizate*, etc.

The adverb-indicating suffixes are: **-ly, -wards, -ward, -ways**, e.g., *quickly, slowly, southward / southwards, sideways*, etc.

Ukrainian word-forming suffixes are more numerous and also more diverse by their nature, there being special suffixes to identify different genders of nouns that are practically missing in English.

Thus, masculine gender suffixes of nouns in Ukrainian are: **-ник, -івник, -ільник, -ч, -ік / -їк, -ець / -єць, -ар / -яр, -ир, -ист, -іст, -тель, -аль** and others, e.g., *медик, господарник, рахівник, керманич, кравець, хімік, прозаїк, боєць, шахтар, муляр, бригадир, збирач, діяч, окуліст, вихователь, скрипаль*, etc.

Suffixes of feminine gender in Ukrainian usually follow the masculine gender suffix in the noun stem, the most frequent of the former being **-к / а /, -иц / я /, -ес / а /, -ух / а /, -ш / а /, -івн / а /**, etc., e.g., *виховат-ель-к-а, рад-ист-к-а, спів-ач-к-а, уч-ен-иц-я, ткач-их-а, поет-ес-а, коваль-івн-а, морг-ух-а, директ-ор-ш-а, Семенів-на*, etc. The corresponding English suffixes (**-or, -ess, -me, -rix, -ine, -ette**) identify the masculine and feminine sex and not the grammatical gender, e.g., *actor, emperor, actress, poetess, directrix, emperatrix, heroine*, etc.

English nouns with the so-called “gender suffixes” do not differ functionally from other nouns which have no such suffixes e.g., *The actor / actress sang* and *The bird sang*. Ukrainian gender nouns, however, always require corresponding gender forms in attributes and predicates e.g., *Молодий артист співав. Гарна артистка співала. Ранкове небо сіріло. Малі пташки співали. Чорний ворон сидів. Сива ворона сиділа. Сіре котеня нявкало*.

Suffixes of neuter gender are mostly used in Ukrainian to identify abstract and collective nouns and names of materials, babies, cubs, nurslings, as in the following nouns: *жіно-цтв-о, учитель-ств-о, нероб-ств-о, бади-лл-я, заси-лл-я, збі-жж-я, кло-чч-я, смі-тт-я, горі-нн-я, вели-нн-я, терп-інн-я*, etc.

The number of suffixes forming only diminutive nouns in Ukrainian is as many as 53, compared with 16 suffixes in English, only 4 of which are practically productive, e.g., *gooseling, girlie, booklet, daddy, granny*, etc.

Prefixes in the contrasted languages modify the lexical meaning of the word. They may sometimes change even the lexical and grammatical nature of the derivative word.

Word-forming prefixes pertain mostly to the English language where they can form different parts of speech, e.g.:

Verbs: *bedew, embed, encamp, enable, denude, disable, endear*, etc.

Adjectives: *antiwar, nonparty, prewar, postwar*, etc.

Statives: *aboard, alike, asleep*, etc.

Adverbs: *today, tomorrow, together*, etc.

Prepositions: *below, behind*, etc.

Conjunctions: *because, unless, until*, etc.

In Ukrainian, only some conjunctions, prepositions and adverbs can be formed by means of prefixes, e.g., *вдень, вночі, по-нашому, по-новому, набік, вдруге, втретє, оскільки, внаслідок, вгору, знизу, щонайменше*, etc.

Isomorphic is also the use of two (in English) and more (in Ukrainian) prefixes before the root / stem, e.g., *re-em-bankment, пере-роз-по-ділити*, etc. In Ukrainian, three prefixes may be used to modify the lexical meaning of nouns, adjectives, past participles, and verbs, e.g., *не-до-ви-молот, не-до-ви-торг, не-до-ви-молочений, не-пере-роз-поділений, не-до-ви-торгувати*, etc.

Agglutination

This is a mechanical adding of one or more affixal morphemes in pre-position, post-position or in inter-position to the root morpheme. Somewhat different, however, is the quantitative representation of the parts of speech that are formed in the contrasted languages by means of pre-posed agglutinating morphemes.

Pre-positive agglutinators, apart from forming new parts of speech or creating some shades in the lexical meaning of many such words (cf. *do – undo – overdo, lead – mislead*; Ukrainian: *схід – захід – вихід – дохід – прухід*, etc.), can also perform some purely grammatical functions. Thus, they can sometimes turn the intransitive verbs into transitive, e.g., *live – outlive, vote – outvote*; Ukrainian: *жити – дожити – прожити – пережити, спати – проспати – переспати, плакати – оплакати*, etc. In Ukrainian pre-posed affixes can change imperfective verbs into perfective (cf. *бити – збити – забити – добити – розбити; вчити – вивчити – довчити – завчити – перевчити*, etc.).

Post-positive agglutination is observed in both contrasted languages, being in Ukrainian even more frequent than in English. All Ukrainian infinitives without exception are formed by mechanical adding to the root the post-positive morphemes *-ти / -ть, -ся, -ки, -оньки, -тусі / -туні* (diminutive forms), e.g., *набити, пролити, змити, опрацювати, злитися, спатки, їстки, питоньки, спатусі / спатуні*, etc. In English, most of the indefinite form infinitives are pure root-morphemed words (e.g., *to come, to live, to love, to fly, to sit, to read, to swim, to warm*, etc.).

Post-positive agglutination is often used to form nouns in both contrasted languages as well. For instance, in English: *attendance*, *freedom*, *employee*, *hostess*, *boyhood*, *highness*, *friendship*, etc.

Similarly, in Ukrainian: *чужак*, *бідняк*, *дудар*, *гусяр*, *багач*, *борець*, *сонливість*, *холодок*, *ясність*, etc.

Among other parts of speech formed by means of post-positive agglutinators in both languages are adverbs, e.g., *nicely*, *sideways*, *westwards*; *гарно*, *швидко*, *вище*, etc. and numerals, e.g., *fifty*, *sixty*, *fifteen*, *eighteen*; *одинадцять*, *дванадцять*, *двадцять*, *сімдесят*, etc.

In English: relative adjectives, e.g., *economical*, *Polish*, *political*, etc.

In Ukrainian: statives, e.g., *треба*, *можна*, *прикро*, *краще*, etc.

Single post-positive affixal morphemes are also agglutinated in the contrasted languages with compound stems of verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, as in the following words: *back-bit-ing*, *cock-fight-ing*, *trust-worth-y*, *grass-hopp-er*, *sky-scrap-er*, etc. Similarly in Ukrainian: *одно-сел-ець*, *косо-ок-ість*, *одно-бічн-ість*, etc.

Isomorphic is also the post-posed agglutination of two affixal morphemes to a stem. The stems thus formed can be of different lexical and grammatical nature. Cf: nouns (*cap-able-ness*, *equal-iz-er*, *respons-ibil-ity*); adjectives (*commun-ic-able*, *mean-ing-ful*, *mot-ion-less*); numerals (*thir-teen-th*, *twen-tie-th*); adverbs (*fool-ish-ly*, *nation-al-ly*, *need-less-ly*, *power-ful-ly*).

Root morphemes in the contrasted languages can be agglutinated pre-posed and post-posed simultaneously as in the English words *dis-agree-able-ness*, *in-corrupt-ibil-ity*, *in-disput-able-ness*, *ir-res-pons-ibil-ity*, *in-communic-able-ness*, *un-real-ist-ic-ally*, etc.

Or in Ukrainian: *не-реал-іст-ич-н-о*, *за-по-біг-л-ив-ість*, *за-роб-іт-ч-ан-ин*, *не-пере-верш-е-но*, *без-відповід-альн-ість*, *не-комунік-абельн-ість*, *пере-шіт-ува-ти-ся*, etc.

Agglutination is also a productive means of compounding (especially in English) where different parts of speech may be formed in this way – nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, e.g., *present-day*, *short-sighted*, *broad-minded*, *long-range*, *hi-jack*, *to April-fool*, *goose-step*, *cross-examine*, *plate-rack*, *sideways*, etc.

Or in Ukrainian: *бурят-монгол*, *дизель-генератор*, *двійка-байдарка*, *шафа-холодильник*, *кахи-кахи*, *тиць-миць*, *човг-човг*, *сяк-так*, *хоч-не-хоч*, etc.

Highly productive in English is also the agglutination with the help of prepositions, e.g., *commander-in-chief*, *matter-of-fact*, *up-to-date*, etc.

Agglutination of predicative units is observed in both languages though more common it is still in English, e.g., *pick-me-up*, *forget-me-not*, *merry-go-round*, *push-me-pull-me*, *Gradgrind*, *Mr. Know-All*, etc.

Cf. Ukrainian family names as *Куйбіда*, *Неїжмак*, *Незовибатько*, *Непуйвода*, *Підкуймуха*, *Убийвовк*, etc.

Only in English, however, there observed agglutination of abbreviated parts with root nouns like *A-bomb*, *X-mas*, *X-ray*, etc.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

An Outline of Contrastive Linguistics Historical Development

The problem of synchronic comparison of different languages attracts the attention of the linguist at present. The first attempt to describe comparative characteristics of speech units of different European languages was registered at the beginning of the 20th century.

W. Wiëtor compared some phonetic characteristics of German, English and French. A. Tomson, a professor of Odessa University, published some articles and essays devoted to the comparative description of Russian, Ukrainian and Armenian languages.

I. Baudouin-de-Kourtenay, V. Bogoroditsky, E. Polivanov and others outlined some principles of language comparison and compared Russian with some other languages.

In 1936, V. Matesius, a representative of a well-known “The Prague Linguistic Circle”, pointed out the importance and the necessity of the synchronic comparative linguistic analysis. V. Matesius wrote that synchronic comparative method of investigations contributed to a more thorough analysis of the language.

In 1953, W. Weinrich, another representative of “The Prague Linguistic Circle”, put forward an important scientifically substantiated suggestion about differential description of the languages.

Another linguist, E. Naugen, brought forward a new theoretical conception. E. Naugen, in his two-volume monograph “Norwegian Language in America” (1953), brought up the concept of “dialinguistics” – synchronic comparative investigations of the individuals who have a complete command of two languages.

At the same time Daniel Jones, the “Father of English Phonetics”, was one of the first who systematically compared a foreign language with the pronunciation of the native tongue of his learners – French. In all the reprints and editions of his wellknown book “An Outline of English Phonetics”, comparing English pronunciation with the French one, he recommends French learners how to avoid mistakes in English which is a foreign language for them.

In Ukraine, typological analysis of different languages began to be applied in the middle of the 20th century.

In 1957, the first contrastive manual “Contrastive Grammar of the Ukrainian and English languages”, a textbook written by a group of linguists, appeared (Т. Баймут, М. Бойчук, М. Волинский, М. Жовтобрюх, С. Самойленко).

In 1958, systematic synchronic comparison of the foreign and the Ukrainian speech sounds based on experimental investigations were published: “Comparative analysis of consonants in contemporary Ukrainian and German languages” (Прокопова 1958) and “Comparative analysis of systems of English and Ukrainian vowels and consonants” (Бровченко 1958).

In the 1960^s, a fundamental textbook for teachers “Comparative Grammar of Ukrainian and English languages” (Жлуктенко, 1960) and the manual “English Phonetics” based on the experimental bilingual contrastive analysis of phonetic systems of English and Ukrainian languages (Brovchenko, Bant 1964) were published.

The scientific works mentioned above, the results of original contrastive investigations, were valuable not only for the teachers and learners of English and German languages whose native language was Ukrainian, for translators and interpreters, but contributed to some extent to the theory of contrastive phonetics.

In the collective monograph “Intonation of Speech” published by the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic (1963), an article written by I. Borisjuk “Intonation characteristics of rhetoric questions in Ukrainian and French dialogical speech” (Борисюк 1968) was the result of comparative experimental investigation of the intonation of rhetorical questions in French in comparison with the native language of the learners – Ukrainian.

The intonation structure of English and Ukrainian utterances in dependence on the position of the semantic centre was investigated by T. Brovchenko in the article “Intonation contour of semantic centre in English and Ukrainian speech” (Бровченко 1979). The comparative analysis made it possible to reveal acoustic characteristics of the intonation structure of the utterances with different positions of the semantic centre common in English and Ukrainian and those specific in each of the analysed languages.

V. Bublic, in his article “Gnoseological basis of Contrastive analysis” (Бублик 1979), analyses, from the point of gnoseology (theory of science), psychological treatment of the process of learning a foreign language on the basis of the native language and describes the peculiarities of this process, its difficulties and complexity.

The collective monograph “Comparative investigations of English, Ukrainian and Russian languages” published in 1980 (edited by Yu. Zhluktenko) was devoted to the problems of comparative analysis of phonological, morphological and syntactic peculiarities of the three languages.

In the introductory section “The foundation of the contrastive analysis of speech” (Жлуктенко 1981), Yu. Zhluktenko gives a survey of the history of development of contrastive linguistics, discusses and further develops its main problems – the subject of contrastive linguistics, the discrimination between contrastive and typological studies, connection between theoretical and pragmatic aspects of contrastive and typological analysis, the choice of the model of contrastive analysis and others.

In the section “Comparative analysis of English, Ukrainian and Russian phonological systems” (Бровченко 1981), Т. Brovchenko came to theoretically and practically well founded conclusions about the main specific and common phonetic peculiarities of the speech sounds characteristics of the phonemic systems of the two examined languages. A list of the most typical mistakes of Ukrainians learning English and the methods of avoiding them was presented.

Contrastive phonetics continued to be developed vigorously since the 1970^s up to the end of the 20th century in different countries of the world. Contrastive linguistic phonetic investigations may be divided into three main trends: a) the theory of contrastive linguistics; b) the methods of contrastive linguistic analysis of speech; c) comparative linguistic analysis of phonetic characteristics and the structure of different languages.

In the monograph “Typology of speech intonation” (Нушикян 1986), Е. Nushikyan gave a detailed analysis of acoustic characteristics of various types of emotions in English in comparison with the corresponding emotional variants in Ukrainian, and presented an original classification of English and Ukrainian emotions.

In the monograph “Intonation of modality in sounding speech” by Т. Koroljeva (Королёва 1989), the phonetic structure and functions of modal utterances in English and Ukrainian speech were investigated. Original systematic semantic approach and electronic experimental analysis made it possible to determine intonation peculiarities of the main types of modal utterances and their variants.

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Text 2

Fundamentals of Contrastive Lexicology Research

(http://navigator.rv.ua/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/Demenchuk_Contrastive-Lexicology.pdf)

According to the aim and object of investigation there are three branches of Linguistics that deal with comparison (Demenchuk 2018):

A. Comparative-Historical Linguistics, the aim of which is to study phylogenetic relations of languages in their development.

B. Areal Linguistics that focuses on a secondary affinity of languages, linguistic unions, relationship of linguistic phenomena irrespective of the degree of their phylogenetic relations.

C. Contrastive Linguistics and Typological Linguistics (or Linguistic Typology) that try to establish similarities and differences between languages irrespective of the degree of their phylogenetic relations.

There are five trends of Contrastive Linguistics, which according to Yu. Zhluktenko (Жлуктенко 1989) determine various approaches to the object of investigation. There are the following trends:

A. Characterological (the so-called “analytical comparison of languages” initiated in the works by I. Baudouin de Courtenay and the linguists of the Prague School), which aims at revealing the systemic features of language by comparing it with other synchronous linguistic systems and on this basis to provide it with a detailed linguistic description.

B. Typological, which aims at revealing in the contrasted languages isomorphic (common) features that are essential for establishing a language type.

C. Translational, which establishes functional correspondence and the degree of linguistic items’ equivalence and congruence in the contrasted languages. The specificity of this approach consists in reducing the comparison to only two languages, the analysis of which is unidirectional – from source to target language.

D. Didactic (Pedagogical), which lays foundation for methods of teaching a foreign language and reveals correspondences in native and foreign languages. It provides with elaborating an effective strategy for teaching a foreign language and working out preventive measures to avoid L1 interference with L2 learning.

E. Bilingual, which investigates the mutual relationships of languages in linguistic contacts and bilingualism.

Language as a system traditionally includes the following main levels: phonetic, morphological, lexico-semantic, and syntactic. The contrastive analysis of languages at those levels is accomplished based on two independent approaches: 1) microlinguistic contrastive analysis, aiming to proceed with investigations at the levels of phonology, grammar and lexicon, and 2) macrolinguistic contrastive analysis, intending to carry out a complex study at the level of text.

Contrastive Lexicology is a new branch of Contrastive Linguistics that aims to perform a contrastive description of lexico-semantic systems of languages that are contrasted. A complete contrastive analysis includes the comparison at all levels of the lexico-semantic system (the level of meanings, designations, lexico-semantic groups, lexico-semantic fields, etc.). The analysis is considered to be based on a “taxonomy” principle, i.e. the principle that takes into account the relations occurring between lexical units of the contrasted languages:

- paradigmatic relations (relations between words and groups of words based on the similarities and differences of their meanings);
- syntagmatic relations (linear, contextual relations of words);

- epidiigmatic relations (relations within a word, or between its formal characteristics).

Taking into consideration the relations contrastive analysis is based on, the following stages might be singled out:

a) ways of designation in the contrasted languages (words' inner-forms and onomasiological structures);

b) characteristics of semantic structures of words in the contrasted languages (denotative and significative meanings);

c) stylistic and associative features of words in the contrasted languages (expressive, evaluative, conceptual, etc. connotations);

d) intra-field (synonymic, antonymic, hyponymic, etc.) relations of words in the contrasted languages;

e) inter-field relations (semantic shifts) of words in the contrasted languages;

f) linear, contextual relations of words in the contrasted languages (distribution, context, valence).

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Text 3

Methods of Investigations in Contrastive Lexicology

According to I. Arnold (1986), different methods of investigation can be applied to contrasted languages. They are: methods of contrastive analysis, operational analysis, distributional analysis, immediate constituents analysis, componential analysis, transformational analysis, method of semantic differentiation.

Contrastive Analysis. Contrastive linguists attempt to find out similarities and differences in both related and non-related languages. Contrastive analysis grew as the result of the practical demands of language teaching methodology, where it was empirically shown that the errors which are made by foreign language students can be often traced back to the differences in structure between the target language and the language of the learner. This naturally implies the necessity of a detailed comparison of the structure of a native language and a target one.

Contrastive analysis can be carried out in three linguistic subsystems:
→ phonology,
→ lexicology,
→ grammar (morphology and syntax).

Thus, the fundamental technique of Contrastive Linguistics is to compare phonological systems, morphological systems, syntax and the lexicon of two or more languages. We will try to give a brief survey of the contrastive analysis on the level of lexis.

In Contrastive Lexicology investigations, contrastive analysis is applied to reveal the features of sameness and difference in the semantic structure of correlated words in languages contrasted.

Thus, on the level of lexical meaning, the contrastive analysis reveals that correlated polysemantic words are not co-extensive. Difference in the lexical meaning of correlated words also accounts for difference in their collocability in different languages. For instance, the English adjective *brown* and the Ukrainian adjective *коричневий*, when taken in isolation, are felt as correlated words in a number of cases, e.g., *brown hat* – *коричневий капелюх*. In collocation with some nouns, however, the Ukrainian adjective *коричневий* cannot be used in the same meaning in which the English word *brown* is currently used, e.g., *brown bread* – *чорний хліб*.

Contrastive analysis in Contrastive Lexicology investigations brings to light the essence of what is usually described as idiomatic English, idiomatic Ukrainian, i.e. the peculiar way in which every language combines and structures various concepts to denote extra-lingual reality.

Operational Analysis. The group of English linguists, referred to as London School of Linguistics, suggested operational analysis which encloses operation of taking lexical units from the text with their further segmentation and substitution. Within the method of contrastive substitution, all units are defined by placing them into larger units. The representatives of London school regarded the meaning of the word as a complex of functions that a unit can possess. To discover the meaning of the word it is placed into a wider context and observed in its relation to the surrounding words. As an example, the homophones *sow/sew* are analyzed: *sow* [sou] ‘сіяти’ *carrots, onions, radish*, etc. (words denoting vegetables); *sew* [sou] ‘шити’ *dresses, shirts*, etc. (words denoting articles of clothing). The difference is not due to the meaning and peculiarities of the nouns combined with the verbs but it lies in the meaning of the verbs *harvest* ‘збирати урожай’ and *mend* ‘зашивати’. The procedure is based on establishing a sort of associated paradigm for the unit analyzed.

Distributional Analysis in its various forms is commonly used nowadays. The term “distribution” is used to denote possible variants of the immediate lexical, grammatical and phonetic environment of a linguistic unit. The distribution of an element is the total of all environments in which it occurs, i.e. the sum of all the different positions of an element relative to the occurrence of other elements.

Observation of the word relations is facilitated by coding:

N – a noun, Np – a personal noun, Nm – a material noun, Ncoll – a collective noun, V – a verb, A – an adjective, D – an adverb. Prepositions and conjunctions are not coded.

When everything but the head-word of the phrase is coded, we obtain the distributional formula, e.g.:

English	Ukrainian
make smb laugh = make + N + V;	йде дощ = іти + N явище природи (rain falls)
make a coat = make + a + N;	йде поїзд = іти + N неістота (train runs)
make the machine go = make the N + V;	йде чоловік = іти + N істота (man goes)
make sure = make + A;	йде дим = іти + N неістота (it smokes)
make a good wife = make + a + A + N	йде зима = іти + N неістота (winter approaches)
	йде заміж – marries
	йде на пенсію – retires
	іде конем – moves the knight

A phrase all elements of which including the head-word are coded is called a distributional pattern: *to make smb laugh* → to V Np V₁.

The distributional analysis helps find out contextual meaning of a word depending upon its combinability. It allows elaborating efficient computer translation programs. Thus, analyzing distributional patterns of the word *miss* in its different meanings (‘to fail’; ‘to hit’, ‘to reach’; ‘to feel absence of smth with regret’ or ‘a title preceding the name of an unmarried woman’) it is easy to give a proper equivalent to this word in the sentence *I really had relations with Miss Anderson*:

Miss + N proper → address to a young woman.

Immediate Constituent Analysis. This method is aimed at analysis of a linguistic unit by presenting it as a hierarchy of the elements composing its structure. The theory of Immediate Constituents was originally elaborated as an attempt to determine the ways in which lexical units are relevantly related to one another. It was discovered that combinations of units are usually structured into hierarchical sets of binary constructions. For instance, in the word-group *a black suit in severe style*

the indefinite article *a* is not related to adjective *black*, *black to suit*, *dress to in* and so on. A structure which may be represented as *a black suit* and *in severe style* is set up.

Thus, the fundamental aim of immediate constituents analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into maximally independent sequences (in the given case, there are two of them). These maximally independent sequences are called immediate constituents. The further segmentation of immediate constituents results in ultimate constituents, which means that further segmentation is impossible as no meaning can be found. Therefore, the ultimate constituents of the phrase given are *a*, *black*, *suit*, *in*, *severe*, *style*.

The method of immediate constituent analysis is extremely fruitful in discovering the derivational structure of words, e.g.:

<i>non / govern / ment / al</i>	<i>un / gentle / man / ly</i>
проти / ракет / н / ий	без / по / серед / н / ий

It helps define the type of morpheme connections in a word, the word-building type and helps state the meaning of new forms created.

Componential Analysis. In this analysis, linguists proceed from the assumption that the smallest units of meaning are *semes* or *sememes*. So componential analysis is an attempt to describe the meaning of words in terms of a universal inventory of semantic components and their possible combinations. Distinctive features of meaning *d1*, *d2*, *d3* can be obtained by means of following procedure (Hjelmslev 1975):

d1 = boy = man = 'male'
girl = woman = 'female'
d2 = boy = girl = 'young'
man = woman = 'adult'
d3 = boy = girl = 'human'
bull = cow = 'animal'

Therefore the meaning of the word *a boy* contains semantic elements 'male', 'young', 'human'.

Consider the following definitions from A Thomas Hardy Dictionary (1992): *cow* – 'a full grown female of any animal of the ox family' (complete definition containing all elements from the proportional oppositions above); *calf* – 'the young of the cow' (incomplete definition, its missing elements can be substituted from the previous one).

Other examples of componential analysis:

Bachelor – 1 – (object), (alive), (a human being), (a man), (a grown-up), (one never got married); 2 – (object), (alive), (a human being), (a

man), (a grown-up), (one having academic degree after first four courses of college); 3 – (object), (alive), (a human being), (a man), (a grown-up), (a knight who served under supervision of the other knight).

Father – (object), (alive), (a human being), (a man), (a grown-up), (having at least one child).

Свекор – (object), (alive), (a human being), (a man), (a grown-up), (having a married son), (in relation to his son's wife).

Father-in-law – (object), (alive), (a human being), (a man), (a grown-up), (having a married son or daughter), (in relation to his son's wife or his daughter's husband).

Componential analysis helps define semantic fields and semantic rows. Semantic field is a group of words which have common semantic features, or semes, and can differ at least in one seme. A seme common to all the words of the semantic field is called archiseme. Thus archiseme for the verbs of movement (*go, walk, run, slide, crawl, fly, swim; йти, їхати, повзти, летіти, пливти*) is 'move in space' ('рухатись у просторі'). The rest of their semes are called distinctive features, such as 'speed', 'way', 'environment'. E.g., *swim* – (in water), (move), (by movements of the limbs, fins, tail, etc.); *плавати* – 1. (на воді), (пересуватись), (за допомогою рухів кінцівок); 2. (триматись), (на поверхні), (на воді), (внаслідок меншої питомої ваги). So the words *swim* and *плавати* cannot be viewed as full equivalents.

While translating, the difference in meaning should be considered and the absent semantic feature should be compensated by additional lexical elements. In case when the absent seme is not crucial for the whole meaning of the source text, it can be neglected while selecting an equivalent in the target language.

It is essential for the Contrastive Lexicology to take into consideration distinctive features of the meaning. It often happens that at presence of a number of common semantic features only one can justify the usage of the archisema, a word with a more general meaning in combination with other linguistic units which are used to convey the meaning of the source utterance more precisely. Thus, in translation *його тець* into English as *his father-in-law*, narrowing of the source meaning occurs as *father-in-law* means 'a man having a married son or daughter in relation to their wife or husband' while *тець* denotes 'a man having a married daughter in relation to her husband'. If one of the distinctive features which is the main in the meaning of the word is absent in the target language, it results in untranslatability.

Componential analysis is practically always combined with transformational procedures or statistical analysis. The combination makes it possible to find out which of the meanings should be represented first of all in the dictionaries of different types and how the words should be combined in order to make speech sensible.

Transformational Analysis in lexicological investigations may be defined as re-patterning (reorganization) of various distributional structures in order to discover difference or sameness of meaning of practically identical distributional patterns. As distributional patterns are in a number of cases polysemantic, transformational procedures are of help not only in the analysis of semantic sameness / difference of the lexical units but also in the analysis of the factors that account for their polysemy. Word-groups of identical distributional structure when re-patterned show that the semantic relations between words and consequently the meaning may be different. Thus, consider a pattern “possessive pronoun + noun” (*his car, his failure, his arrest, his kindness*, etc.). According to transformational analysis, the meaning of each word-group may be represented as: ‘he has a car’, ‘he failed’, ‘he was arrested’, ‘he is kind’. In each of the cases, different meaning is revealed: ‘possession’, ‘action’, ‘passive action’, ‘quality’. The rules of transformation are rather strict and shouldn’t be identified with paraphrasing in the usual sense of the term.

There are many restrictions both on lexical and syntactic levels. They are the following:

→ permutation, which is the re-patterning on condition that the basic subordinate relationships between words or word-stems of the lexical units are not changed. For instance, *His work is excellent* may be transformed into *his excellent work, the excellence of his work, he works excellently*; the relationships between lexical units are essentially the same;

→ replacement, which is the substitution of a component of the distributional structure by a member of a certain strictly defined set of lexical units, e.g., replacement of a notional verb by an auxiliary or link verb: *he will make a bad mistake* or *he will make a good teacher*. The sentences have identical distributional structure but only in the second one the verb *make* can be substituted by *become* or *be*. The fact of impossibility of identical transformations of distributionally identical structures is a formal proof of the difference in their meaning;

→ addition (or expansion), which may be illustrated by the application of the procedure of addition to the classification of adjectives into two groups: adjectives denoting inherent or non-inherent qualities,

e.g., *John is happy. John is tall.* We add a word-group *in London*. We shall see that *John is happy in London* has some meaning while the second one *John is tall in London* is senseless. That is accounted by the difference in the meaning of adjectives denoting John's inherent (*tall*) and non-inherent (*happy*) qualities;

→ deletion, which is a procedure that shows whether one of the words semantically subordinated to the other. Thus, in the word-group *red flowers* the word *red* may be deleted and transformed into *flowers* without making the sentence senseless: *I like red flowers* or *I like flowers*. In the other word-group *red tape*, no element can be deleted. So the sentence transformed either into *I hate tape* or *I hate red* loses its initial meaning as in both transformed sentences the meaning of the phrase *red tape* meaning 'bureaucracy' can't be divided into two parts.

Transformational analysis is frequently used to reveal semantic connections between constituents of the compounds. For instance, *heartache* 'heart aches' (subject-predicate relation); *schoolteacher* 'teacher at school' (place of work); *sunray* 'ray of the sun' (genitive case relation); *steamboat* 'boat set in motion by steam' (the means of the movement to be caused); *snowball* 'ball made of snow' (material); *skateboard* 'board for skating' (purpose of usage).

With the help of transformational analysis, it is possible to construct a map of all possible meanings of newly formed words if affixes have several meanings or in case of the morpheme homonymy. For instance, *болільник* 'той, хто уболює'; *зрадник* 'той, хто зраджує'; *чайник* 'те, що призначено для заварювання чаю'; *спільник* 'той, хто діє спільно з кимось'; *здирник* 'той, хто здирає, вимагає шляхом примусу'; *супутник* 'той, хто супроводжує'; *могильник* 'сховище непотрібного, зайвого'; *полярник* 'той, хто досліджує полярні регіони'; *ливарник* 'той, хто відливає металеві вироби'; *намордник* 'те, що надівають на морду тварині'; *хабарник* 'той, хто бере хабарі', etc.

Method of Semantic Differentiation. A word has not only one meaning. Even one word usually implies some additional information which differentiates one word from another. Thus the words *to like*, *to love*, *to adore*, *to worship* denote positive feelings characteristic of a human being. But each of them gives additional information on the so-called 'strength of feeling'. This is the connotative aspect which is singled out by the semantic differential, the method which was worked out by a group of American psycholinguists. Their technique requires the subjects to judge a series of concepts with respect to a set of antonymic

adjective scale. For instance, *division* can be: ‘good – bad’; ‘fast – slow’; ‘strong – weak’; ‘hard – soft’; ‘happy – sad’. The meaning of the divisions is that each of the quality may be gradated representing ‘extremely good’, ‘very good’, ‘neither good nor bad’, ‘slightly bad’, ‘extremely bad’. Therefore, division may be ‘very good’, ‘not bad’, etc.

The revealed gradations showing some portion of quality helps single out such words which are usually referred to as neutral, expressive, archaic or new (neologisms).

Practical data obtained from the researches in the Contrastive Lexicology contribute to General Lexicology, Typology, Semasiology, Translation Studies and other linguistic sciences.

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Theme 2

Contrastive Typology of Lexical Systems of the English and Ukrainian Languages

2.1 *Word as the Basic Linguistic Unit of the English and Ukrainian Lexicon*

The word is a basic unit of language. The definition of a word is one of the most difficult problems in linguistics because any word has many different aspects. It has a sound form and a morphological structure; it may occur in different word-forms and different syntactic functions having various meanings when used in actual speech. Thus, it is simultaneously a phonological, grammatical, and semantic unit.

Being the central element of any language system, the word is a sort of focus for the problems of Phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, Syntax, and also for some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech, such as Philosophy and Psychology. The word has been defined semantically, syntactically, phonologically, and by combining various approaches (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1). All attempts to characterize the word are necessarily specific for each domain of science and are therefore considered one-sided by the representatives of all the other domains.

For instance, the eminent French linguist Antoine Meillet (Meillet 1975) defined the word as the basic unit of a given language resulting from “the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment” (ibid.). But this definition does not permit us to distinguish words from phrases.

Edward Sapir (Сепир 1934) takes into consideration the syntactic and semantic aspects when he calls the word “one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated “meaning”, into which the sentence resolves itself.” Sapir also points out one more, very important characteristic of the word, its indivisibility: “It cannot be cut into without a disturbance of meaning, one or two other or both of the several parts remaining as a helpless waif on our hands.”

Many outstanding scholars of the former USSR, such as V. Vinogradov, A. Smirnitsky, O. Akhmanova, M. Stepanova, A. Ufimtseva, greatly contributed to creating a word theory based upon the materialistic understanding of the relationship between word and thought, on the one hand, and language and society, on the other. The main points may be summarized in the following definition.

A word is the smallest significant unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterized by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninterruptedness and semantic integrity.

All these criteria are necessary because they create a basis for the oppositions between the word and the phoneme and the morpheme, on the one hand, and between the word and the phrase, on the other. Their common feature is that they are all units of the language. Their difference lies in the fact that the phoneme is not significant (has no meaning of its own), the morpheme cannot function alone as a complete utterance because its meaning is abstract (generalized). The structural integrity (morphological uninterruptedness) of the word combined with the semantic integrity makes the word different from the phrase (word combinations).

Words are the central elements of language system. They face both ways: they are the biggest units on the morphological level and the smallest units on the syntactic level of linguistic analysis. Words can be separated in an utterance by other such units and can be used in isolation. Morphemes are also meaningful units but they can not be used independently, they are always parts of words whereas words can be used as a complete utterance (e.g., *Listen!*). Unlike words, morphemes cannot be divided into smaller meaningful units.

As any language unit, the word is a two facet unit possessing both its outer form (sound / graphic form) and content (meaning) which are not created in speech but used ready-made. Uniting meaning and form, a word is composed of one or more morphemes each consisting of one or more phonemes (spoken sounds or their written representation).

As the basic unit of language, the word is characterized by independence or separateness, as a free standing item, and identity. As an independent free standing language unit, the word is distinguished in speech due to its ability to take on grammatical inflections which makes it different from the morpheme. The identity of the word manifests itself in the ability of a word to exist as a system and unity of all its forms (grammatical forms creating its paradigm) and variants: lexical-semantic, morphological, phonetic, and graphic.

The modern approach to word study is based on distinguishing between the internal and the external structures of the word.

The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's semantic structure. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purpose of human communication solely due to their meanings. The area of Lexicology specializing in the semantic studies of the word is called Semantics.

By external structure of the word, we mean its morphological structure. For instance, in the word *post-impressionists*, the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-*, *im-*, the root *press*, the noun-forming suffixes *-ion*, *-ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*.

Another structural aspect of the word is its unity. The word possesses both external (or formal) unity and semantic unity.

Formal unity of the word is sometimes inaccurately interpreted as indivisibility. The example of *post-impressionists* has already shown that the word is not, strictly speaking, indivisible. Its component morphemes are permanently linked together in opposition to word-groups, whose components possess a certain structural freedom.

The formal unity of the word can best be illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents, e.g., *a blackbird* and *a black bird*. In the word *blackbird*, the first constituent *black* is not subject to any grammatical changes. In the word-group *a black bird*, each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: *the blackest birds I've ever seen*. Other words can be inserted between the components of the word-group (*a black night bird*) which is impossible so far as the word is concerned as it would violate its unity.

Semantic unity of the word may be illustrated by the same example. In the word-group *a black bird*, each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: *bird* 'a kind of living creature'; *black* 'a colour'. The word *blackbird* conveys only one concept 'the type of bird'. This is one of the main features of any word: it always conveys one concept, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure.

All that has been said about the word can be summed up as follows.

The word is the basic unit of language; used for purposes of human communication, the word is a speech unit materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

2.2 Problems of Word-Meaning. Referential and Functional Approaches to Word-Meaning

Semantics is the study of meaning, which is a complex matter in that it involves the relationship between words, ideas and things as well as the relationship between words of similar meaning. A distinction is often

made in this respect between reference, or the relations between language and the world, and sense, or the relationship between words of similar word-meaning.

Semantics also examines how sets of words are used to classify our experience. Geoffrey Hughes (Hughes 2000) points out that in English *black* and *blue* designate different colours, whereas in Old Norse the word *bla* served for both. The prism of colour terms tends to open up with time and cultural contacts: historically *black*, *white*, *red*, *yellow*, and *green* are Anglo-Saxon in origin, but *blue*, *brown*, *orange*, *azure* and *violet* entered the vocabulary from Norman French.

The problem of **word-meaning** is considered to be the most controversial one in the linguistic theory (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1, 2). There had been many attempts to give a definition of word-meaning in accordance with the main principles of different linguistic schools. In our country, the definitions of word-meaning given by various authors, though different in detail, agree in the basic principle: the word-meaning is the realization of concept (or notion) by means of a definite language system.

There are two main approaches in present-day linguistics representing contemporary thinking on the problem of word-meaning.

1. “Lexicentric” approach to word-meaning when meaning is treated as appearing from relations between the referent denoted by a designator and the sign which serves the designator for the referent. Hence another term – referential approach to word-meaning, which studies the connection between words and things or concepts / notions they denote (paradigmatics).

2. “Textocentric” approach to word-meaning which centres the links between the sign and other signs in a linear sequence as primary source for understanding what the word means. Hence another term – functional approach to word-meaning, which studies relations between words in the process of speech (syntagmatics).

Thus, word-meaning is studied from two different points of view:

→ through establishing the interrelations between words and concepts / notions which they denote – the referential approach;

→ through the observations of the functions of a word in speech – the functional approach.

Referential approach (founded by Ferdinand de Saussure) distinguishes between the three components connected with meaning: the sound form (or graphic form) of the linguistic sign, the

concept / notion (i.e. a generalized picture of the thing which the word denotes that appears in our mind when we hear / see a word) underlying this sound form and the actual referent (i.e. that part of reality to which the linguistic sign refers). The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called “basic semantic triangle” originally suggested by the German mathematician and philosopher Gotlieb Frege and further modified by English scholars C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards (1923).

It consists of:

- 1) the sound-form (Sign) of the word: [bɜ:d];
- 2) the referent (Denotatum) – the object which the word names: “the actual bird”;
- 3) the concept / notion (Designatum) – The essential properties of this object which are reflected in human mind: “a feathered animal with wings”.

In a simplified form the basic semantic triangle may be represented as follows (*figure 2.1*):

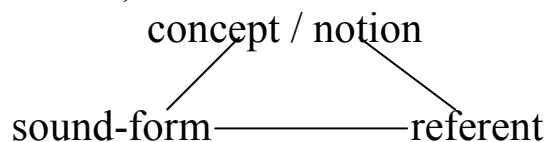


Figure 2.1. The “Basic Semantic Triangle”

As can be seen from the diagram, a sign is a two-facet unit comprising form and notion. Thus, the sound-form (or graphic-form) of the linguistic sign is connected with our concept / notion of the thing which it denotes and through it with the referent, i.e. the actual thing.

The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is in some form or other connected with referent. Establishing this relationship, the approach to the problem of word-meaning is referential because we refer to the sound form, to the concept / notion and to the referent and discuss their relationship.

Referent may be:

- the object of thought correlated with a certain linguistic expression,
- the element of objective reality as reflected in our minds and viewed as the content regularly correlated with certain expression,
- an object of our experience,
- a fact of the outer world which is encompassed by a given symbol.

In this sense, referent can be equated terminologically with denotatum, but the two terms can be distinguished as well in the following way: denotatum means a class of objects, while referent would mean a discrete representative of a class of denotata.

Reference (referential content) is derived from reality and depend on how the given referential area (conceptual space) is covered by a lexical item. “Reference” is “referring”, i.e. linkage of a linguistic unit with a non-linguistic entity to which it serves a name. This linkage can be of a different nature and is reflected in discrimination between specific referential functions / usage of words:

- existential;
- identifying;
- non-referential (usage);
- direct address to the communicant.

Referential meaning is

1) equivalent to denotation – part of the word's semantics which involves the relationship between a linguistic unit (a lexical item) and the non-linguistic entities to which it refers;

2) type of meaning actualized by lexical items when they denote a single representative of a class of denotata / referents; actualized primarily by proper names and common names supported by the individualizing (specifying) function of the articles.

The referential approach is criticized because the scholars in their theory use extra-linguistic terms, such as “concept / notion” and “referent”. Some advocates of the referential approach identify word-meaning with sound-form, concept / notion, and referent. Meaning is closely connected with all parts of the semantic triangle (sound-form, concept / notion, and referent) but cannot be equated with any of them. It is an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign. Generally speaking, meaning can be described as a component of the word through which a concept / notion is communicated, in this way endowing the word with the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions, and abstract notions.

To distinguish meaning from the referent is of the utmost importance. To begin with, meaning is lingual, whereas the referent, or the denoted object, belongs to extra-lingual reality. Then, we can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. Last but not least, there are words that have distinct meanings but do not refer to any existing thing, e.g., *angel*, *phoenix*, etc.

Besides, in referential approach to the problem of word-meaning, the linguistic elements (words) are discussed in isolation from each other (from other words). So referential approach is paradigmatic. We discuss the meanings of words in a certain system. But in speech, we use words in their environment and not in isolation. In this environment, we define the meanings of words.

The criticism of the referential theories of word-meaning may be briefly summarized as follows:

a) meaning, as understood in the referential approach, comprises the interrelation of linguistic sign with categories and phenomena outside the scope of language;

b) the mentalist approach to meaning oversimplifies the problem because it takes into consideration only the referential function of words. Actually, however, all the pragmatic functions of language (communicative, emotive, and esthetic, etc.) are also relevant and have to be accounted for in semasiology.

Functional approach introduced by Leonard Bloomfield (Bloomfield 1933) maintains that the meaning of a word may be studied only through its relations to other linguistic units and not through its relations to notion or referent.

For instance, we know that the meaning of *mother*, n and *mother*, v is different because they function in speech differently. Analyzing various contexts, in which these words are used, we can observe that they have different distribution, e.g., *my mother – I mother his children*. As the distribution of the two words is different, their meanings are different too. The meaning of the two words *move* and *movement* is also different because they function in speech differently: *move the chair, we move – movement of smth, slow movement*. As the distribution of the two words is different, we come to the conclusion that not only do they belong to different classes of words but that their meanings are different too. The same is true of a polysemantic word *look*, e.g., *Look at me – You look tired*. Consequently, semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of the difference or sameness of meaning.

In the functional approach, meaning is understood essentially as the function of the linguistic units in speech (syntagmatics).

Functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. There is no need to set two approaches against each other: neither is complete without the other. These two approaches should be used in peaceful combination. The

examination of meaning should start by collecting an adequate number of samples of contexts. On examination of the samples, the meaning will emerge from the contexts. Then it is logical to pass to the referential phase and try to formulate the meaning thus identified.

2.3 Isomorphism and Allomorphy of the Semantic Structures of English and Ukrainian Words

The word is the fundamental unit of language. It is a dialectal unity of form and content. Its content, or meaning, is not identical to notion, but it may reflect human notion and is considered as the form of its existence.

A unit which most people would think of as “one word” may carry a number of meanings, by association with certain contexts. Thus, *pipe* can be ‘any tubular object’, ‘a musical instrument’ or ‘a piece of apparatus for smoking’; *a hand* can be on a clock or watch as well as at the end of the arm. Most of the time, we are able to distinguish the intended meaning by the usual process of mental adjustment to context and register.

Isomorphism of the semantic structures of English and Ukrainian words is revealed in word-meaning, which is not homogeneous. Isomorphically, word-meaning in English and Ukrainian is made up of various components, which are described as types of meaning (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 3).

There are 3 types of meaning to be found in English and Ukrainian words and word forms. They are as follows.

The **grammatical meaning** is the component of word-meaning in identical sets of individual forms of different words, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs *asked*, *thought*, *walked*, etc. or in Ukrainian *іхав*, *ійшов*, *говорив*, or the meaning of plurality, e.g., *books*, *intentions*, *phenomena*, *столи*, *вікна*, etc.

The **lexical and grammatical meaning** (part-of-speech meaning) is the common meaning of words belonging to a lexical and grammatical class of words (i.e. one part of speech). The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning varies in different word-classes. In some parts of speech, the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning (e.g., in prepositions), in others – the lexical (e.g., in nouns, verbs, etc.).

The **lexical meaning** is the component of meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions. For instance, in the forms *go*, *goes*, *went*, *gone*; *чумає*, *чумає*, *чуматиме*, etc. we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement.

Both the lexical and the grammatical meanings make up the word-meaning as neither can exist without the other.

Lexical meaning is not homogeneous either; it includes denotative and connotative components.

The **denotative component** of lexical meaning of English and Ukrainian words expresses the conceptual content of a word. Fulfilling the nominative and the communicative functions of the word, it is compulsory, as it is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of the language.

The **connotative component** of lexical meaning of English and Ukrainian words expresses the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it is used. Unlike the denotative component, the connotative component is optional.

There are four main types of connotation in English and Ukrainian words. They are emotive, evaluative, stylistic, and expressive, or intensifying.

An **emotive connotation** is acquired by the English and Ukrainian word because the referent named in the denotative meaning is associated with emotions. Words contain an element of emotive evaluation as part of the connotative meaning, e.g., *голівонька, серденько, матуся*, etc. When we talk about emotive language, we're referring to the connotative meaning of words, i.e. the deeper meanings that these words convey and the emotions that they stir up. In the synonyms, e.g., *like, love, worship* and *подобатися, любити, обожнювати* the emotive charge of the words *worship* and *обожнювати* is heavier than that of the other words.

The emotive charge is one of the objective semantic features proper to words as linguistic units and it forms part of the connotative component of meaning evoking or directly expressing emotion. This does not depend on the "feeling" of the individual speaker but is true for all speakers of English. The emotive charge varies in different word-classes. In some of them, in interjections, e.g., the emotive element prevails, whereas in conjunctions, the emotive charge is as a rule practically non-existent.

The emotive charge should not be confused with emotive implications that the words may acquire in speech. The emotive implication of the word is to a great extent subjective as it greatly depends of the personal experience of the speaker, the mental imagery the word evokes in him. Words seemingly devoid of any emotional element may possess in the case of individual speakers strong emotive implications as

may be illustrated, e.g., by the word *hospital*. What is thought and felt when the word *hospital* is used will be different in the case of an architect who built it, the invalid staying there after an operation, or the man living across the road.

An **evaluative connotation** of English and Ukrainian words expresses approval or disapproval, e.g., *clique* – *group*, *magic* – *witchcraft*; *група* – *банда*; *магія* – *чари* – *чаклунство*. Words contain an element of evaluation as part of the connotative meaning. For instance, *a hovel* denotes ‘a small house or cottage’ and besides implies that it is a miserable dwelling place, dirty, in bad repair and in general unpleasant to live in. When examining words, such as *girl* – *girlie*; *dear* – *dearie*; *дівчинка* – *дівчисько*; *дорогий* – *любий*, we cannot fail to observe the difference in the evaluation of the members of these sets.

When associations concern the situation in which the word is uttered (formal, familiar, etc.), the social relationships between the interlocutors (polite, rough, etc.), the purpose of communication (poetic, official, etc.), the **connotation stylistic**. E.g., *parent* (bookish) – *father* (neutral) – *dad* (colloquial); *чоло* (poetic) – *лоб* (neutral) – *макітра* (low colloquial).

A fourth type of connotation is the **intensifying connotation** (also expressive, emphatic). Thus, *magnificent* – *splendid* – *superb*; *вітеп* – *вітерець* – *вітрище* – *вітряга* are all used colloquially as terms of exaggeration. When examining synonyms *large*, *big*, *tremendous*; *великий* – *величезний* – *приголомшливий* we cannot fail to observe the difference in the intensity of the members of these sets.

Lexical meaning of English and Ukrainian words with its denotative and connotative components may be found in morphemes of different types. The denotative meaning in affixal morphemes may be rather vague and abstract, the lexical meaning and the part-of-speech meaning tending to blend. It is suggested that in addition to lexical meaning morphemes may contain specific types of meaning: differential, functional and distributional.

2.4 Motivation as a Language Universal

The term “**motivation**” is used to denote the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word, on the one hand, and its meaning, on the other (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 4).

Motivation as a language universal is proper to both English and Ukrainian. There are three main types of motivation: phonetic motivation, morphological motivation, and semantic motivation.

The motivation is **phonetic** when there is a certain similarity between the sound that make up words and their meaning. All phonetically motivated words have their sounding structure somewhat similar to the sounds which they convey. Due to this, some of the words in English and Ukrainian, thus motivated, sound almost or quite alike. For instance, *to cade* ‘кудкудакати’, *cock-a-doodle-doo* ‘кукуруіку’, *bang* ‘бух / бухнути’, *bark* ‘гав / гавкати’, *buzz* ‘дзижчати’, *chirp / chirrup* ‘цвірінькати’, *cuckoo* ‘кукукати / кукувати’, *crack* ‘трісь / тріщати’, *gagle* ‘гелготати’, *hiss* ‘шипіти / сичати’, *hoop* ‘гукати (сигналити)’, *howl* ‘вити’, *smack (one's lips)* ‘цмокати’, *moan* ‘мукати’, *meow* ‘нявкати’, *baa / bar* ‘бе-е, бекати (вівці)’, etc. Here the sounds of a word are imitative of sounds in nature because what is referred to is a sound.

These are naturally far from all the words whose notional meaning in the contrasted languages is based on sound imitation. Nevertheless, their number in comparison to other types of motivated words is not large, constituting in English about 1,08% and in Ukrainian only about 0,8%.

It is also suggested that sounds themselves may be emotionally expressive which accounts for the phonetic motivation in certain words. Initial [f] and [p], e.g., are felt as expressing scorn, disapproval or disgust: *pooh! fie! fiddle-sticks*, etc. The sound-cluster [ij] is imitative of the sound or swift movement: *ring, sing, swing, fling*, etc.

The main criterion in **morphological motivation** is the relationship between morphemes. Hence, all one-morpheme words are morphologically non-motivated. Morphological motivation is “relative”, i.e. the degree of motivation may be different. The word *endless*, e.g., is completely motivated as both the lexical meaning of the component morphemes and the meaning of the pattern are perfectly transparent. The word *cranberry* is only partially motivated because of the absence of the lexical meaning in the morpheme “cran-”. The words *matter, repeat* are non-motivated because the connection between the structure of the lexical unit and its meaning is completely conventional.

The morphological motivation in the contrasted languages remains the major one. It is characteristic of numerous notional words, in which it is clearly indicated by the affixal morphemes. For instance, by suffixes: *doer* ‘one who does smth’; *flyer* ‘one who flies’; *detainee* ‘one who is detained’; *examinee* ‘one who is examined’; *changeable* ‘that which is

subjected to change / can be changed'; *movable* 'smth. that can be moved', etc. A similar function may be performed by some prefixal morphemes in both contrasted languages. Cf: *asleep* 'the one who is in the state of sleeping'; *bedew* 'to cover with dew'; *overturn* 'to turn smth. over'; *ex-president* 'the one who was president', etc.

Similarly in Ukrainian: *оповідач* 'той, хто оповідає / розповідає'; *писар* 'той, хто пише'; *співець* 'той, хто співає'; *ношений* 'якого (що) носили'; *смажений* 'якого (що) смажили'; *читаючий* 'який читає', *носач* 'той, що має великого носа'; *митець* 'той, хто творить якийсь вид мистецтва (швидко чи дуже якісно / майстерно) малює, будує, співає, танцює'; *переказати* '(щось) розповісти вдруге вже раз сказане чи написане'; *передісторія* 'історія, що була перед цією / відомою історією'; *вчетверте* 'те, що повторюється четвертий раз'; *поверх* (чогось) 'щось понад чимось чи додатково до чогось', etc.

Morphologically motivated words in the contrasted languages naturally constitute the largest part of their motivated lexicons: 88,5% in English and 91,8% in Ukrainian.

Semantic motivation of lexical units is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning of the same English or Ukrainian word within the same synchronous system. For instance, *mouth* denotes 'a part of a human face' and can be metaphorically applied to any opening, e.g., *the mouth of a river*, *the mouth of a furnace*, etc. This is expressed by many semantically motivated words and word-groups in both contrasted languages.

Cf. *foot of a mountain* 'підніжжя гори', *hand / hands of a watch* 'стрілка / стрілки (схожі на руки) годинника', *to keep house* 'вести домашнє господарство', *an ancient house* 'стародавній рід (династія)'; *the house of Tudor* 'династія Тюдорів'; *the first / second house* 'перший / другий сеанс (у кінотеатрі)'; *bed of roses* 'легке / розкішне життя'; *bed of a river* 'русло річки'; *bed of honour* 'поле бою'; *arm* 'рука', but: *secular arm* 'світська влада'; *the arm of the law* 'сила закону'; *the arm of the sea* 'вузька затока'; *the arms of a coat* 'рукава (піджака, пальта)'; *the arms of a tree* 'великі гілляки дерева'; *the arms of a chair* 'бильця (крісла)', *a coat of arms* 'герб', etc.

Many similar examples of semantic motivation of words are also observed in Ukrainian: *легка / важка рука* (легко / дошкульно б'є), *легкий / важкий на руку*, *липкі руки / липкий на руку* (злодій); *купатися в розкошах*, *купатися в славі / купатися в промінні*

південного сонця, братися за справу (діло), etc. Their meanings are very transparent and mostly need no further explanation.

Some words denoting in the contrasted languages popular names of flowers, trees, birds, and animals have a transparent etymological motivation as well. Thus, in English and Ukrainian *bluet* 'flower' is 'васильок', *bluebell* is 'дзвоник', *blue-bottle* is 'васильок' which is blue 'синій', *blackbird* is 'чорний дрізд', *blackcock* is 'тетерук', *black berry* means 'ожина', *horse-tail / cat's tail* means 'хвощ', *redwood* means 'секвоя', *umbrella-tree* means 'американська магнолія', *violet* means 'фіалка', etc. More similar examples may also be found in English and Ukrainian: *жовтець* 'yellow gold', *чорниця* 'bilberry', *чорнобривці* 'French marigold', *чорногуз* 'чорне гузно', *чорнослив* 'stomped prunes', *соняшник* 'sunflower', *куцохвостий* 'заєць', *круторогі* 'воли', *серпокрилець* 'стриж', etc.

A brilliant example of etymological semantic motivation is presented by Ukrainian names of months. Cf. *січень* (сніг січе), *лютий* (мороз лютує), *березень* (береза сік пускає), *квітень* (перші квіти – проліски з'являються і зацвітають), *липень* (липа зацвітає), *серпень* (серпами жали і жнуть збіжжя).

Semantically motivated lexical units constitute in English about 10% and in Ukrainian about 7,4% of their total motivated lexicons.

Compound words are either morphologically or semantically motivated in the contrasted languages. Their motivation is morphological if the meaning of the whole is based on the direct meaning of the components, e.g., *headache* is 'pain in the head', *air-crew* is 'a crew of an aircraft'; *after-effect* 'effect that occurs after some action'; *to blackboard* 'to write on a blackboard', etc. The motivation is semantic if the combination of components is used figuratively, e.g., *headache* 'anything or anyone very annoying', *good-neighbourhood* 'being near good neighbours', *classroom* 'room for classes or for schoolchildren', *mine-thrower* 'thrower of mines', *note-book* 'book for notes', *Zululand* 'land of the Zulus', *halfpenny*, *landowner*, *self-defense*, *a schoolboy*, etc.

Or in Ukrainian: *вільнодумець* (думає про волю), *добродійник* (робить добро), *домовласник* (володіє домом), *кожум'яка* (мне шкуру тварин), *користолюбство* (любить корисливість), *лизогуб* (облизує губи), *марнотратство* (витрата чогось без користі, марно), *електродояр*, *кораблеводіння*, *лісовоз*, *маслоробня*, etc.

Generally, however, a great many words in English and Ukrainian have no clear motivation, i.e. their etymology remains obscure, far from

explicable at present. It has been lost in the course of semantic development of these words. As a result, one cannot say why the “sun” is named *the sun* and the “head” or the “heart” has been named this way and not otherwise. Because of the obscure etymology most words and some collocations / idiomatic expressions remain non-motivated in the contrasted languages. In other words, their motivation is impossible to identify nowadays on the basis of their componential meanings.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

A Word as a Basic Linguistic Unit of the Lexicon

(<https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/word-meaning/#NotWor>)

1.1 The Notion of Word

The notion of word can be defined in two fundamental ways.

On one side, we have *linguistic* definitions, which attempt to characterize the notion of word by illustrating the explanatory role words play or are expected to play in the context of a formal grammar. These approaches often end up splitting the notion of word into a number of more fine-grained and theoretically manageable notions, but still tend to regard ‘word’ as a term that zeroes in on a scientifically respectable concept (e.g., Di Sciullo & Williams 1987). For example, words are the primary locus of stress and tone assignment, the basic domain of morphological conditions on affixation, compounding, and the theme of phonological and morphological processes of assimilation, vowel shift, and reduplication (Bromberger 2011).

On the other side, we have *metaphysical* definitions, which attempt to elucidate the notion of word by describing the metaphysical type of words. This implies answering such questions as “what are words?”, “how should words be individuated?”, and “on what conditions two utterances count as utterances of the same word?”. For example, D. Kaplan (1990, 2011) has proposed to replace the orthodox type-token account of the relation between words and word occurrences with a “common currency” view on which words relate to their occurrences as continuants relate to stages in four-dimensionalist metaphysics (see the entries on types and tokens and identity over time). For alternative views, see McCulloch 1991, Cappelen 1999, Alward 2005, and Hawthorne & Lepore 2011.

For the purposes of this entry, we can proceed as follows. Every natural language has a *lexicon* organized into *lexical entries*, which contain information about *lexemes*. These are the smallest linguistic expressions that are conventionally associated with a non-compositional meaning and can be uttered in isolation to convey semantic content.

Lexemes relate to *words* just like phonemes relate to phones in phonological theory. To understand the parallelism, think of the variations in the place of articulation of the phoneme /n/, which is pronounced as the

voiced bilabial nasal [m] in “ten bags” and as the voiced velar nasal [ŋ] in “ten gates”. Just as phonemes are abstract representations of sets of phones (each defining one way the phoneme can be instantiated in speech), lexemes can be defined as abstract representations of sets of words (each defining one way the lexeme can be instantiated in sentences). Thus, “do”, “does”, “done”, and “doing” are morphologically and graphically marked realizations of the same abstract lexeme *do*.

To wrap everything into a single formula, we can say that the *lexical entries* listed in a *lexicon* set the parameters defining the instantiation potential of *lexemes* as *words* in utterances and inscriptions (Murphy 2010). In what follows, we shall rely on an intuitive notion of word. However, the reader should bear in mind that, unless otherwise indicated, our talk of “word meaning” should be understood as talk of “lexeme meaning”, in the above sense.

1.2 Theories of Word Meaning

As with general theories of meaning (see the entry on theories of meaning), two kinds of theory of word meaning can be distinguished.

The first type of theory, that we can label ‘a semantic theory of word meaning’, is interested in clarifying what meaning-determining information is encoded by the lexical items of a natural language. A framework establishing that the word “bachelor” encodes the lexical concept ‘adult unmarried male’ would be an example of a semantic theory of word meaning.

The second type of theory, that we can label “a foundational theory of word meaning”, is interested in singling out the facts whereby lexical expressions come to have the semantic properties they have for their users. A framework investigating the dynamics of linguistic change and social coordination in virtue of which the word “bachelor” has been assigned the function of expressing the lexical concept ‘adult unmarried male’ would be an example of a foundational theory of word meaning.

Obviously, the endorsement of a given semantic theory is bound to place important constraints on the claims one might propose about the foundational attributes of word meaning, and vice versa.

Semantic and foundational concerns are often interdependent, and it is difficult to find theories of word meaning which are either purely semantic or purely foundational. For example, Ludlow (2014) establishes a strong correlation between the underdetermination of lexical concepts (a semantic matter) and the processes of linguistic entrenchment whereby

discourse partners converge on the assignation of shared meanings to lexical expressions (a foundational matter).

However, semantic and foundational theories remain in principle different and designed to answer partly non-overlapping sets of questions. Our focus will be on semantic theories of word meaning, i.e., on theories that try to provide an answer to such questions as “what is the nature of word meaning?”, “what do we know when we know the meaning of a word?”, and “what (kind of) information must an agent associate to the words of a language L in order to be a competent user of the lexicon of L?”. However, we will engage in foundational considerations whenever necessary to clarify how a given theoretical framework addresses issues in the domain of a semantic theory.

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Text 2

Dimensions of Word Meaning

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(<https://www.ukessays.com/essays/languages/dimensions-word-meaning-1674.php>)

1. Introduction

The issue of defining and clearing the meaning of the words is by no means an easy talk. In other words, words are names or labels for things.

Besides, linguists also realize the need to distinguish what a word or expression denotes from what they can be used to refer to, we will identify the difference between denotation and reference. There are many different ideas that the meaning of a word reflects reality or express human conceptualization of reality, as it were. However, we will discuss about various attempts designed to define probably one of the most difficult issues of semantics – meaning.

2. Problems

Depending on what it is understood by meaning, we can distinguish two main semantic theories:

- the *referential / denotational* approach: meaning is the action of putting words into relationship with the world;
- the *representational / conceptual* approach: meaning is the notion, the concept or the mental image of the object or situation in reality as reflected in man's mind.

The two basic types of meaning were first mentioned by S. Stati in 1971:

- referential definitions which analyse meaning in terms of the relation symbol: object / referent;
- conceptual definitions which regard the relation symbol: thought / reference.

2.1. Denotational / Referential Theories of Meaning.

Before describing the characteristics of these theories, a clarification of the terms used is necessary. All languages allow speakers to describe or model aspects of what they perceive. In semantics, the action of picking out or identifying individuals / locations with words is called “referring / denoting”.

To some linguists, the two terms “denote” and “refer” are synonymous. John I. Saeed (1997: 23) gives two examples of proper names whose corresponding referents are easily recognizable:

I saw Michael Jackson on TV last night.

We have just flown back from Paris.

The underlined words refer to denote ‘the famous singer’ and, respectively, ‘the capital of France’, even if in some contexts they may be used to designate a person different from the singer, or a locality other than the capital of France.

To John Lyons the terms “denote” and “refer” are not synonymous. The former (“denote”) is used to express the relationship of a linguistic expression to the world, whereas the latter (“refer”) is used for the action of a speaker in picking out entities in the world. In the example *A sparrow flew into the room* “a sparrow” and “the room” are NPs that refer to things in the world; “room” and “sparrow” *denote* classes of items.

In conclusion, “referring” is what speakers do and “denoting” is a property of words. Denotation is a stable relationship in a language; it doesn’t depend on anyone’s use of the word unlike the action of referring.

Returning to the problem of theories of meaning, they are called “referential / denotational” when their basic premise is that we can give the meaning of words and sentences by showing how they relate to situations: proper names denote individuals, nouns denote entities or sets of individuals, verbs denote actions, adverbs denote properties of actions, adjectives denote properties of individuals. In case of sentences, they denote situations and events. The difference in meaning between a sentence and its negative counterpart arises from the fact that they describe two situations, e. g. *There is a book on the shelf.*

There isn’t a book on the shelf.

Referential theories consider “meaning” to be something outside the world itself, an extra-linguistic entity. This means reducing the linguistic sign, i.e. the word, to its material aspect, be it phonic or graphic.

The impossibility of equating meaning with the object denoted by a given word can be explained considering three major reasons.

The identity meaning-object would leave meaning to a large extent undefined because not all the characteristic traits of an object as an extra-linguistic reality are identical with the distinctive features of lexical meaning; not all words have a referent in the outside world; there are:

– non-referring expressions: *so, very, maybe, if, not*, etc.

– referring expressions used generically, e.g., *A murder is a serious felony.*

– words like nouns, pronouns with variable reference depending on the context, e.g. *The president decides on the foreign policy.*

She didn’t know what to say.

– words which have no corresponding object in the real world in general or at a certain moment, e.g. *The unicorn is a mythical animal.*

She wants to make a cake this evening.

– different expressions / words that can be used for the same referent, the meaning reflecting the perspective from which the referent is viewed, e.g. *The morning star is the same thing as the evening star.*

The president of the USA (George Bush) Barbara Bush's husband was to deliver a speech.

Besides the referential differences between expressions, we can make useful distinctions among the things referred to by expressions – *referent* thing picked out by uttering the expression in a particular context. “Extension of an expression” = set of things which could possibly be the referent of that expression. In Lyon’s terminology, the relationship between an expression and its extension is called “denotation” (Saeed 2016: 26).

A distinction currently made by modern linguists is that between the “denotation” of a word and the “connotations” associated with it. For most linguists, denotation represents the cognitive or communicative aspect of meaning (Schaff 1965), while connotation stands for the emotional overtones a speaker usually associates with each individual use of a word. Denotative meaning accounts for the relationship between the linguistic sign and its denotatum. But one shouldn’t equate denotation with the denotatum. What is the denotation of a word which has no denotatum.

As far as the attitude of the speaker is concerned, denotation is regarded as neutral, since its function is simply to convey the informational load carried by a word. The connotative aspects of meaning are highly subjective, springing from personal experiences, which a speaker has had of a given word and also from his / her attitude towards his / her utterance and / or towards the interlocutors (Leech 1990: 14). For example, *dwelling, house, home, abode, residence* have the same denotation but different connotations.

Given their highly individual nature, connotations seem to be unrepeatable but, on the other hand, in many instances, the social nature of individual experience makes some connotative shades of meaning shared by practically all the speakers of a language. It is very difficult to draw a hard line between denotation and connotation in meaning analysis, due to the fact that elements of connotation are drawn into what is referred to as basic, denotative meaning. By taking into account connotative overtones of meaning, its analysis has been introduced a new dimension, the pragmatic one.

Talking about reference involves talking about nominal – names and noun phrases. They are labels for people, places, etc. Context is important

in the use of names; names are definite in that they carry the speaker's assumption that his / her audience can identify the referent (Saeed 2016: 26).

2.2. The Relationship between Sense and Reference.

The referent of an expression is often a thing or person in the world.

The sense of an expression is not a thing at all; it is an abstraction that can be entertained in the mind of language users.

It's difficult to say what sort of entity the sense of an expression denotes. It is useful to think of sense as that is a part of meaning of an expression that is left over when reference is factored out.

It's much easier to say whether or not expressions have the same sense.

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Text 3

Types of Lexical Meaning Viewed Synchronically

The encyclopedic view of lexical meaning is that there is no sharp dividing line between that part of a word's meaning which is “strictly linguistic” (the dictionary view of lexical meaning) and that part which is “nonlinguistic knowledge about the concept”. Ronald W. Langacker (1987) said this dividing line is difficult to maintain. It is clear that some semantic properties are more central to a word's meaning than others, particularly those properties that apply to (almost) all and only the instances of the kind, which are intrinsic to the kind, and which are conventional knowledge of (almost) all of the speech community.

Leonard Bloomfield (1935) considered meaning a weak point in language study and believed that it could be wholly stated in behaviourist terms. B. Malinowski and J. R. Firth argued that context of situation was an important level of linguistic analysis alongside syntax, collocation, morphology, phonology, and phonetics, all making a contribution to linguistic meaning in a very wide sense (Langendoen 1968).

Word meaning is made up of various components which are interrelated and interdependent. These components are commonly described as types of meanings. Two main types of word meaning are grammatical and lexical.

Grammatical meaning may be defined as “the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words” (Ginzburg, Khidekel, Knyazeva & Sankin 1979). The following words, such as *radios*, *babies*, *formulae*, and *studies* have the grammatical meaning of plurality. The grammatical meaning of tense may be observed in verbs, such as *bought*, *traded*, *slept*, *delivered*, and *understood*. The words *newspaper’s* (report), *sons’* (letters), *country’s* (debt), and *children’s* (toys) share the grammatical meaning of case (possessive case).

When a dictionary lists the function of a word, the definition does at least two things: it describes the word’s lexical meaning and also gives what is traditionally known as the part of speech of the word, which modern linguists call the word-class, e.g., *modern* will be marked as an adjective, *modernize* as a verb, and *modernization* as a noun. The word-class is essential, for when we use a word in a sentence, we have to take into consideration two factors: its specific lexical meaning and the position it normally occupies in a sentence, which is determined by the word-class to which the word belongs.

Lexical meaning is another component of word meaning, which is different from grammatical meaning in two aspects: first, the lexical meaning of a word is the same in all the forms of one and the same word while the grammatical meaning varies from one word-form to another; second, every word has a different lexical meaning, whereas the grammatical meaning is the same in identical sets of individual forms of different words. Hence, we may describe lexical meaning as the component of meaning proper to the word as a lexical item.

Lexical meaning has been defined by scholars in accordance with the main principles of different linguistic schools. Ferdinand de Saussure (1959) believes that lexical meaning is the relation between the object, or notion named, and the name itself. Leonard Bloomfield (1935) defines the meaning of a word as the situation in which the speaker utters it and the response it calls forth in the hearer. Irina V. Arnold (1986) criticizes Bloomfield’s and Saussure’s approaches for incompleteness and proposes that “lexical meaning is the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system”. This definition is broader because it takes into consideration not only uttered words but also human consciousness, which

comprises not only mental activity but also emotions, volition, and pragmatic functions of language: communicative, emotive, evaluative, and aesthetic.

Lexical meaning may be subdivided into denotative meaning, connotative meaning, social meaning, and affective meaning.

1. Denotative meaning

The English lexicon is so vast and varied that clear categories of meaning are, at times, elusive. According to David Crystal (1980), **denotation** is the “objective (dictionary) relationship between a lexeme and the reality to which it refers to”. Denotative meaning is sometimes called “the conceptual meaning”. It is the central factor in linguistic communication. One of the functions of words is to designate or describe something, such as an object, a property, a process or a state of affairs. Users of a language cannot talk about their knowledge of a physical object or a natural phenomenon, unless this knowledge is expressed in words which have the same meaning for all speakers of a given community. This is the denotative meaning of a word.

“Denotative meaning involves the relationship between a linguistic unit and the non-linguistic entities to which it refers...” (Crystal 1980: 104). Thus, if we talk about *a chair*, and there is no actual chair around for us to see, we can give the denotative definition: “It is a piece of furniture for one person to sit on, having a back and, usually, four legs”. This denotative meaning of the word *chair* can readily be understood by all people. Denotative meaning is used when the emphasis is on the relationship between language, on the one hand, and the thing, events, or processes, which are external to the speaker and his language, on the other.

The denotative meaning of a word is its definition given in a dictionary. It is that aspect of lexical meaning which makes communication possible. There is no doubt that a chemist knows more about *water* than a layman, or that a physician possesses a much deeper knowledge of what *edema* implies than a patient. Nevertheless, a layman and a chemist or a physician and his patient can both use the words *water* and *edema*, and understand each other. Therefore, denotative meaning is the central factor in linguistic communication.

John Lyons (1977: 208) mentioned that, the difference between denotation and reference is that “reference is an utterance-bound relation and does not hold of lexemes as such, but of expressions in the context”. Denotation, on the other hand, is “a relation that applies in the first

instance to lexemes and holds independently of particular occasions of utterance”.

2. Connotative meaning

David Crystal (1980) stated that **connotation** “refers to the personal aspect of lexical meaning, often emotional associations which a lexeme brings to mind”. Connotation creates a set of associations. These associations create the connotation of the lexeme, but they cannot be its meaning. Sometimes a lexeme is highly charged with connotations. We call such lexemes “loaded”, e.g., *dogma*, and others. Irina Arnold (1986) differentiates between connotation and denotation. She believes that “the conceptual content of a word is expressed in its denotative meaning; however, connotative component is optional” (Arnold 1986: 40).

Some scholars, such as Stephen Ullmann (1951), find a binary distinction between connotation and denotation. The best explanation of the relationship between denotation and connotation is given by Geoffrey N. Leech (1981): “The connotations of a language expression are pragmatic effects that arise from encyclopaedic knowledge about its denotation and also from experiences, beliefs, and prejudices, about the contexts in which the expression is typically used”. Connotations express points of view and personal attitudes; therefore, they may cause certain reaction, which will motivate semantic extension and creation of a new vocabulary.

As part of the connotative meaning, lexemes may contain an element of **emotive evaluation**. The words *console*, *condole*, *solace*, *comfort*, *cheer up*, and *sympathize* refer to the assuaging of unhappiness and grief, but the emotive charge of the words *console*, *condole*, *solace* are heavier than in *comfort*, *cheer up*, and *sympathize*. *Condole* and *solace* are formal, and *condole* sounds fusty and pompous, whereas *condole* may sound more precious. *Console* may suggest the attempt to make up for a loss offering something in its place. “The emotive charge is one of the objective semantic features proper to words as linguistic units and forms part of the connotative component of meaning” (Ginzburg, Khidekel, Knyazeva, & Sankin 1979).

Connotative meaning refers to the emotional association which a word or a phrase suggests in one’s mind; it is the supplementary value which is added to the purely denotative meaning of a word. Connotations may be considered on two levels: connotations pertaining to individuals and connotations pertaining to a group. E.g., *father* will have different connotations for different people because of their individual experiences.

Tradition, physical environment, education, and a common cultural background link people into a whole. And the people who form such an entity share much in the way of outlook and attitudes. So, the same word or expression may not possess the same connotation to people of different countries.

Sometimes the connotative meaning is not limited to one speech community; semanticists write about “semantic universals”, e.g., *white*, to most Chinese and Westerners, has certain similar favorable connotations: ‘morally or spiritually pure; spotless, innocent’. In most cases, however, connotations are apt to vary considerably not only from age to age.

Hence, connotation is relatively unstable, as compared with denotation, which changes too, but not so quickly.

3. Social, or stylistic meaning

Language must be adjusted to fit different contexts or situations where it is used for a specific purpose. One adjusts one’s language so as to make it appropriate in various situations in terms of social relationship between the speakers or correspondents which may be that of friend to friend, or professor to student; the occasion which may be a class reunion or an official reception; subject matter which may be about serious political issues or about films, swimming or food; the mode of discourse spoken or written.

Martin Joos (1967) provided one of the most common classifications of speech styles using criterion of formality. This criterion tends to subsume subject matter, the audience, the mode of discourse, and the occasion. Joos recognized five different levels of formality, each implying different forms of speech to fit separate functions: (1) oratorical, or “frozen”, (2) deliberate, or formal, (3) consultative, (4) casual, (5) intimate”.

The oratorical (“frozen”) and deliberate (formal) styles generally occur in written report or in dignified public speech prepared beforehand with a written draft. Words marked in dictionaries as formal, literary, poetic or archaic are to be used in these two styles. Consultative and casual styles occur in everyday use. Consultative style is a polite and fairly neutral style. It is used when we are talking to a person whom we do not know well, or to someone who is senior to ourselves in terms of age or social position. Common words are used in this style. Casual style is used in conversation between friends or in personal letters, when the language is informal, familiar, relaxed, warm and friendly. A word or meaning labeled colloquial or informal is

appropriate in the casual or intimate style. The “frozen” and intimate styles do not have much practical use for us. We may further simplify the style into three levels: formal, neutral and informal. None of these styles is better than any other; appropriateness is the key to the good use of the various styles.

4. Affective meaning

Affective meaning is concerned with the expression of feelings and attitudes of the speaker or writer. There are a small number of words in English whose main function is to express emotion. Some words are used not as a mere statement of fact, but to express the speaker’s approval of the person or thing he is talking about. They are “purr words”. On the other hand, words like *gang*, *niggardly*, and *to boast* always show disapproval or contempt on the part of the speaker. They are “snarl words”. Such words are permanently charged with emotion, even when they appear in isolation. Therefore, affective meaning is one of the objective semantic features proper to words as lexical items, and forms part of the word meaning, independent of the associations of the individual.

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Text 4

The Notion of Motivation

(from Günter, Radden & Panther, Klaus-Uwe. An Attempt at Explicating 'Motivation in Language'. *Studies in Linguistic Motivation* / ed. by Günter, Radden & Panther, Klaus-Uwe. (Cognitive linguistics research; 28), 2004. P. 1–46).

These insightful ideas on motivation make Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) appear as a precursor of cognitive linguistics rather than the “founding father of structural linguistics”. Motivation, in his view, is a cognitive principle that makes language meaningful to its speakers and is necessary as a counterbalance to arbitrariness. De Saussure’s notion of relative motivation is in the spirit of cognitive linguistics, but his view of motivation differs from modern cognitive approaches mainly in the perspective taken: he views motivation as a limiting case of arbitrariness (Saussure 1977), while cognitive linguists tend to see motivation as the norm and consider arbitrariness as the last resort (Lakoff 1987: 346). Similarly, Bernd Heine (1977) places the burden of proof on those who cling to the dogma of arbitrariness. He argues that since “human behavior is not arbitrary but [...] driven by motivations”, language structure, which is a product of behavior, “must also be motivated” (Heine 1997).

Still, the term “motivation” is not frequently used in present-day linguistics and authors often seem to presume that “motivation” is a self-explanatory term. In current functional and cognitive linguistics, the notion of motivation is understood in various ways, which are, however, not necessarily mutually exclusive.

For example, Masako K. Hiraga (1994), very much in the Saussurean spirit, understands motivation in the sense of a “non-arbitrary relationship between form and meaning” (Hiraga 1994).

More specifically, Bernd Heine (1997) regards linguistic forms as motivated if they “are not invented arbitrarily, but are, rather, already meaningful when they are introduced for some specific function.”

Within a semiotic tradition, John Haiman (1985) and others restrict the term “motivation” to one type of diagrammatic iconicity, viz. structural resemblance of language to conceived reality, opposing it to isomorphism, i.e. the principle “one form – one meaning” (Haiman 1985).

Dirk Geeraerts (2003) uses the terms “motivation” and “isomorphism” in a somewhat different fashion, reserving the former for paradigmatic relations between literal and figurative meanings (e.g., metaphor and metonymy) and the latter for one-to-one mappings from non-figurative to figurative syntagmatic levels.

George Lakoff (1987) probably has the naïve native speaker in mind when he characterizes motivation as an independently existing link L between some A and some B that “makes sense”.

Traditionally, the term “motivation” is applied to the form of linguistic units. More recently scholars have also applied it to the extension of senses.

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Theme 3

Contrastive Typology of Semantic Changes of English and Ukrainian Words

Word meaning is liable to change in the course of the historical development of the English and Ukrainian languages (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1). Words acquire new meanings while some of the old ones die away.

When the new meaning replaces, the older one exists side by side with it as part of the semantic structure of a polysemantic word; it enriches the vocabulary qualitatively. When it exists side by side with the older meaning, but is no longer associated with it, the semantic development results in the emergence of a new word; this contributes to the quantitative growth of the vocabulary. Thus, the break of the word *club* into a pair of homonyms (*club*₁ ‘stick with one thick end’ and *club*₂ ‘association of people meeting periodically’) gave a new lexical unit to the English vocabulary.

Different changes of word meaning can be classified according to the social causes that bring about change of meaning (socio-linguistic classification), the nature of these changes (psychological classification), and the results of semantic changes (logical classification) (*figure 3.1*).

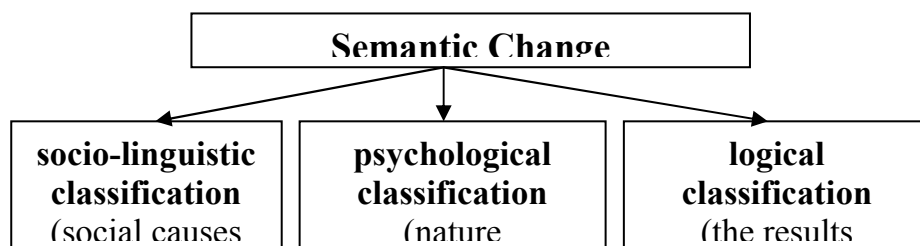


Figure 3.1. Classifications of Semantic Change

Causes, nature and results of semantic changes should be viewed as three essentially different but inseparable aspects of one and the same linguistic phenomenon as any change of meaning may be investigated from the point of view of its cause, nature, and its results (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

3.1 Causes of Semantic Change of English and Ukrainian Words

The causes accounting for semantic changes may be roughly subdivided into two groups: a) extra-lingual and b) lingual.

By **extra-lingual causes** of semantic changes we mean various changes in the life of the speech community, changes in economic and social structure, changes in ideas, scientific concepts, way of life and other spheres of human activity as reflected in word meaning.

The appearance of a new meaning is due to:

1) the appearance of new referents due to the progress of scientific knowledge, which has brought new notions attached to new meanings for many words, such as: *atom*, *atomic energy*, *solar system*, *radio*, *television*, *computer*, *chain reaction*, *a launching pad*, etc.;

2) a factual change of referents because of technical progress, e.g., the word *machine* originally meant 'any kind of erection'; it acquired its modern meaning in the 17th century; *a pen* 'any instrument for writing' < Latin *penna* 'a feather of a bird'; *supper* 'the last meal of the day' < French *souper* < *pie sup* 'to drink in sips'. Cf. *телек* (телевізор), *кравчучка* (вертикальний / легенький двоколісний візок), *кучмовоз* (більший і міцніший двоколісний вертикальний візок типу тачки), *понса* (американські чи інші естрадні пісні низької якості), *стречі* (вузькі дівчачі штани), *капрі* (дівочі штани-кльош із розрізом унизу), *фритюр* (смажіння), *мондіаль* (світовий чемпіонат), *вісаж* (косметичний і художній догляд за обличчям), etc.;

3) a change of our knowledge of the referent, e.g., *a live wire* 'one carrying electric current' > 'a person of intense energy', *a feed-back* 'the return of a sample of the output of a system' > 'response'; *a don* 'a university teacher, a leader, a master' > 'the head of Mafia family or other group involved in organized crime', etc.;

4) a change in emotional attitude to the referent, while in reality the referent remains unchanged, which is found, for instance, in the so-called degradation of meaning. The word *knave* is a good example of this process. In Old English *cnafa* first meant 'a boy', then 'a servant-boy', later 'a male servant', then it acquired the meaning of 'a man of humble birth or position' and finally the word *knave* acquired a derogatory meaning 'a tricky deceitful person'.

Some changes of meaning are due to what may be described as **purely lingual causes**, i.e. factors acting within the language system.

The most common is the so-called ellipsis, i.e. the omitting of one of the components in a word-group; the meaning is transferred to the other component. For instance, the *verb starve* (Old English *steorfari*) originally meant ‘to die’. It was habitually used in the collocation *starve of hunger*, then the second element was dropped but its meaning was transferred to the verb *starve*. The verb *die* (Danish loan word) came to be used in a more general sense. Similar ellipsis may be observed in Modern English when the meaning of one word is transferred to another because they habitually occur together in speech, e.g., *a weekly* (newspaper); *a presale* (a presale view); *to study Dickens* (to study works by Ch. Dickens).

Another linguistic cause is discrimination of synonyms, i.e. a gradual change of the meanings of synonyms which develop different semantic structures, e.g., *autumn – harvest*, *a deer – a beast – an animal*, *осінь – врожай*. The same point may be illustrated by the semantic development of the words *land* and *country*. In Old English, the word *land* meant both ‘solid part of earth’s surface’ and ‘the territory of a nation’. In the Middle English period, the word *country* was borrowed as its synonym. The meaning of the word *land* was somewhat altered and ‘the territory of a nation’ came to be denoted by the borrowed word *country*.

Some semantic changes may be accounted for by the so-called linguistic analogy. It was found out, e.g., that if one member of the synonymic group acquires a new meaning, other members of this set also change their meaning in the same way, e.g., *to catch – to grasp – to get*; *to snack – to bite* (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 3).

3.2 Nature of Semantic Change of English and Ukrainian Words

A necessary condition of any semantic change is some connection, some association between the old meaning and the new one. There are two kinds of association involved in various semantic changes:

- a) similarity of meaning, and
- b) contiguity of meaning.

Similarity of meaning, or metaphor (Greek *meta* ‘over’, *pherein* ‘to carry’) may be described as a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other. For instance, the word *hand* acquired in the 16th century the meaning of ‘a pointer of a clock or watch’ because of the similarity of one of the functions performed by the hand to point at something and the function of the clock is pointer.

We observe the wide currency of metaphoric meanings of words denoting parts of human body, e.g., *the leg of the table, the foot of the mountain, the neck of the bottle, the eye of the needle, the ear of wheat, the teeth of the saw, the tongue of the bell, the back of the book, the nose of the boat*, etc.; *голівка квітки, вічко картоплі, ніс чайника, вушко цєбрика, горло пляшки, спинка стільця*, etc.

Metaphors are often classified proceeding from the physical properties of the similarities on which they are based.

Metaphor may be based on:

a) similarity of form, e.g., a *lamp-post* or a *maypole* is ‘a very tall and lean person’, a *poker* is ‘a person with stiff rigid manner’, a *bridge of the nose* is ‘the upper bony part of the nose’ and *an egg* is ‘an airplane bomb’; *конвертики хат, котушки тополь*, etc. Plants and flowers are often called on the basis of some observed resemblance, e.g., *crane's bill, crowfoot*, etc.;

b) similarity of function, e.g., *head of the school, key to the mystery, hand of the clock, wing of the plane*; *голка ялинки, боксерська груша, шляпка гриба, ніс чайника, подошва гори*, etc.;

c) similarity of position, e.g., *the foot of the page, the top of the class*; *голова колони, крило будинку, хвіст комети, дно життя*, etc.;

d) similarity of temperature, e.g., *hot scent, cold reason, in cold blood, warm heart, give somebody a cold shoulder*; *теплий прийом, холодний погляд*, etc.;

e) similarity of movement, e.g., *caterpillar* ‘tractor’, *sew the air* ‘gesticulate’; *накотяться біди, час біжить, дні летять, гроші тануть, чутки ходять*, etc.;

f) similarity of colour, e.g., *claret* ‘a red table-wine’; *blood-orange* ‘a cultivated orange with red pulp’, etc. The names of some flowers and shrubs are commonly used to denote their colours, e.g., *lilac, rose, violet* and *orange* are often applied to other referents of the same colour. Cf. *Сонце хилилось уже на захід і кривавим блиском обливало сніжні полонини* (І. Франко);

g) similarity of hardness, e.g., *adamantine* ‘like a diamond’; *метал у голосі*, etc. Cf. *Відомо, що за людина з Невкупілого – кремінь* (О. Теліга);

h) similarity of transparency, e.g., *crystal* ‘clear’, *lucid*; *хрустальний*, etc.

A special group of metaphors comprises transition of proper names into common ones. This process is called **antonomasia**, e.g., *an Adonis* ‘a

very handsome young man', a *Cicero* 'a gifted orator', an *Einstein* 'a man of genius', a *Vandal* 'a person who intentionally destroys or damages public property', a *Don Quixote* 'an idealist ready to fight for his ideas', etc.; закоханих називають *Ромео і Джульєтта*, залицяльника – *Дон Жуан*, ревнивого – *Отелло*, скупого – *Плюшкін*, пустого мрійника – *Манілов*, слухняного трудівника – *Іван*, красномовного – *Цицерон*, etc. The above mentioned examples are not typical of the English or Ukrainian language only. Most of them have acquired international currency.

Zoosemy is a special type of metaphor when names of animals are applied to people to denote human qualities. For instance, a cruel person may be called *a tiger*, a crafty person – *a fox*, a stupid person – *a goose* or *an ass*, a clumsy person may be called *a bear*, a person exclusively devoted to books may be called *a bookworm*, etc. Cf. *лев* 'хоробра людина', *дикий кінь* – символ упертої і неслухняної людини, *фазан* – символ жінки легкої поведінки, *ворона* 'неуважна людина', *їжак* 'гостра на язик, жовчна людина', *видра* 'худа жінка', *баран* – символ слухняної, м'якої людини, *корова* – символ доброти і працелюбності, etc.

There are many idiomatic phrases and proverbial sayings containing names of animals, birds, reptiles and insects used metaphorically, e.g., *a dog in the manger*, *a snake in the grass*; як *баран в аптеці*, як *баран на нові ворота*, *хід конем*, *з'їсти собаку в чому-небудь*, *хоч вовком вий*, *вірний як собака*, *іти як собака на посвист*, etc.

Verbs converted from nouns denoting animals also have metaphorical meaning, e.g., *worm into somebody's confidence*, *fish in troubled waters*, *monkey with something*, etc., but they are less frequent in Ukrainian, e.g., *собачитися*, etc.

In actual usage, the motivation of the word meaning may be obscured or completely lost. The latter leads to the development of the so-called fossilized, or trite (dead) metaphors by origin. Tritе (dead) metaphors belong to the vocabulary of a given language as a system. In such cases, the connection between the original and transferred word meaning is lost. Such transpositions may lead to a complete semantic change of a word, wherein the secondary figuratively derived meaning becomes, in fact, primary. The word "metaphor" itself is a metaphor, meaning 'to carry over, across a term or expression from its normal usage to another'.

Thus, depending upon the degree and unexpectedness, metaphors can be:

1) trite (dead, linguistic), which are fixed in dictionaries and often sound banal like clichés, e.g., *to burn with desire, winter comes, ніжка стола, політ фантазії*, etc.;

2) genuine (original, poetic), which are created by the speaker's / writer's imagination and sound fresh and unexpected, e.g., *The house was a white elephant but he couldn't conceive of his father in a smaller place* – describes the size and enigma of the house.

It must be borne in mind that linguistic (trite, dead) metaphor is different from metaphor as a literary device (genuine, original, poetic). The poetic metaphor is the result of the author's creative imagination, e.g., Shakespeare's *marriage of two minds*. While the poetic metaphor is offered and accepted, both the author and the reader are to a greater or lesser degree aware that this reference is figurative, that the object has another name, in a linguistic metaphor, especially if it is dead as a result of long usage, the thing named often has no other name.

While taking into consideration the componential structure of metaphor, we can talk of simple (one-word) and sustained (prolonged) metaphors. A sustained metaphor occurs if a) a sentence contains a group of metaphors; b) consists of principal (the central image of sustained metaphor) and contributory (the other words which bear reference to the central image) images. A good example of a sustained (prolonged) metaphor is the following: *Pickwick bottled up his vengeance and corked it down*. The verb *to bottle up* is explained in dictionaries as follows: 'to keep in check, conceal, restrain, repress'. The metaphor in the word can hardly be felt. But it is revived by the direct meaning of the verb *to cork down*. This context refreshes the almost dead metaphor and gives it a second life.

Closely related to metaphor is **simile**. If metaphor is an implied comparison made by directly calling one thing another, simile is a direct comparison, linking words *like* and *as* are used to compare two objects, e.g., *She is a rose*. (metaphor). *She is like a rose*. (simile).

Traditional similes are ready-made units used in speech, e.g., *as obstinate as a mule, hungry as a wolf, bold as a lion, drink like a fish, chatter like a magpie; їсти як ластівка, впертий як бик*, etc.

In Ukrainian, conjunctions are sometimes omitted, which brings a simile closer to a metaphor: *Книги – морська глибина* (І. Франко).

Contiguity of meaning, or metonymy (Gr. *meta* 'change', *ónoma* 'name'), may be described as a semantic process of associating two referents which are somehow connected. Examples of metonymy include

the crown (for a queen), *the bench* (for a judge), or *the balcony* (for the people in the balcony of a theatre); село (на позначення селян), тарілка (не сам предмет, а що в ньому вміщено), etc.

The difference between metaphor and metonymy lies in the fact that in metaphor, the sense-shift is based on real or fancied similarity between things of different classes, while in the case of metonymy, the sense-shift is between things of different classes associated by actual contiguity, whether they are in physical contact or not. This can be perhaps best illustrated by the use of the word *tongue* in a word combination *mother tongue*. The primary meaning of the word *tongue* ‘the organ of speech’, in *mother tongue* it means ‘language’.

The simplest case of metonymy is called **synecdoche** (Greek *syn* ‘together’, *ekde chomai* ‘I join in receiving’) when the name of the part is applied to the whole or the whole to the part. Thus, the synecdoche *ten sails* may be used to refer to ten ships describing a sailboat race, e.g., *Ten sails can be seen rounding the buoy*, or *grey beards* may be used to refer to old men, e.g., *We need some grey beards to help us out*. We also find cases of synecdoche in the sentences: *We need some new blood in the organization*. *Mrs Grundy frowns on blue jeans*. *We need some new faces around here*. In all these examples, a part stands for the whole. The Ukrainian language also abounds in examples: *Тут не ступала людська нога*. Cf. *Червона шапочка, носа не показувати*, etc.

The whole may stand for a part; thus the names of various animals are commonly used to mean an article of clothing made of these furs, e.g., *fox*, *otter*, *stoat*, etc. Cf. *норка*, *соболь*, *горностай* in Ukrainian.

The metonymic transfer may be conditioned by different types of associations, such as:

a) the sign stands for the thing signified, e.g., *from the cradle to the grave* ‘from childhood to death’, *the crown* ‘monarchy’, *grey hair* ‘old age’; *мріяти про обручку* (тобто ‘мріяти про одруження’), etc.;

b) the instrument stands for the agent, e.g., *the best pens of the day* ‘writers’, *the pen is stronger than sword*; *перо сильніше меча*, *він – перша скрипка*, etc.;

c) the name of container is used instead of the thing contained, e.g., *The kettle was boiling*. *The dish was delicious*. *Розплескати відро*. *З'їсти дві тарілки*. Sometimes the name of a place is used instead of what is going on in this place or instead of a person / persons who is / are in this place, e.g., *street* may be used for people in the street, *chair* for the members of the chair, *bench* may be used for judges and *pulpit* for clergy,

e.g.: *Downing Street disapproves of the move. The whole chair was present. Стадіон аплодував. Київ просинається;*

d) the names of various organs are used for the function; thus, *ear* stands for 'hearing', *eye* for 'sight', *breast* for 'emotions', *head* for 'brains', *nose* for 'sense of smell' (used figuratively), e.g., *have an ear for music, have a ready tongue, have an eye for beauty; голову втрачати, мати голову на плечах, ведмідь на вухо наступив, у неї золоте серце*, etc.;

e) common nouns are derived from proper names, this process being called **antonomasia**. Many international physical and technical units are named after great scientists, e.g., *ampere* 'a unit of electric current' (after the French physicist Andre Marie Ampere), *volt* 'a unit of electrical potential difference' (after the Italian physicist Alessandro Volta), *watt* 'a unit of power' (after the Scottish inventor James Watt); *читав Гончара* (книжки, написані Гончарем), *слухав Шопена*, etc.

Closely akin to the above-mentioned type of metonymy is the use of people's names to denote things associated with them, e.g., *raglan* (after Field-Marshal Lord Raglan), *nicotine* (after Jean Nicot, who introduced tobacco in France), *mauser* (after Paul Mauser), etc. In Ukrainian, there can be found such examples: *браунінг* (на честь Джона Браунінга, який конструював пістолети та іншу зброю), *форд* (на честь Генрі Форда), *макінтош* (плащ, назва якого походить від прізвища шотландця Чарльза Макінтоша), *галіфе* (походить від імені французького генерала Гастона Галіфе, який запровадив ці штани для кавалеристів), etc.

Geographical names turned into common nouns to name the goods exported from or originated there. Here we find the names of countries, cities and towns, islands, mountains, etc., e.g., *Bordeaux* 'wine from the Bordeaux region, France', *malaga* 'wine made, in Malaga, a city and province in Spain', *Tookay* 'sweet wine from Tokay, Hungary'; *мадера* 'кріплене вино, що виробляється на однойменному архіпелазі островів Мадейра', *панама* 'традиційний головний убір еквадорського походження, привезений до Європи та Азії через Панаму', *бостон* 'повільний вальс, який зародився в м. Бостон', etc.

Besides metaphor and metonymy, other types of semantic change are hyperbole and litotes.

Hyperbole (Greek *hyper* 'beyond', *ballein* 'to throw') is an exaggeration statement which is not meant to be understood literally. It expresses an emotional attitude of the speaker to what he is speaking

about. Hyperbole is often used in colloquial speech, fiction and poetry, but not in scientific texts where precision of expression is necessary.

Colloquial speech is rich in hyperbolic expressions, e.g., *You'll be the death of me. A thousand thanks. I hate to trouble you. I have heaps of time.* The same may be said about Ukrainian colloquial speech, e.g., *горами хвили підійма, сто років не бачились, виріс до неба, церкви хмари зачіпали, через тисячі років*, etc.

Hyperbole often loses its force and its hyperbolic character, which can be observed in such words as *to amaze, to astonish, to surprise*. The word *astonish*, e.g., originally meant 'to thunderstrike' (Latin *ex* 'from, out of', *tonare* 'to thunder'). Then the word *astonish* lost its force and in Modern English it is just an emphatic synonym for the word *to surprise*. The word *amaze* has almost the same history, originally it meant 'utter physical stupefaction'.

The reverse figure is called **litotes**, or understatement. It may be defined as expressing the affirmative by the negative of its contrary, e.g., *not bad* 'good', *no coward* 'brave', *no chicken* 'old'; *неледачий* 'працьовитий', etc.

Some understatements do not contain negative, e.g., *rather decent, I could do with a cup of tea; з'їм крихту хліба; тихше трави, ніжче води, хата на курячих ніжках*, etc. Strictly speaking, the litotes concerns mostly usage and contextual meaning of words.

Understatement is rich in connotation: it may convey irony, e.g., *father unwise* (about somebody very silly), *rather pushing* (about somebody quite unscrupulous); *не без участі*, etc.

Understatement is considered to be a typically British way of putting things and is more characteristic of male colloquial speech.

3.3 Results of Semantic Change of English and Ukrainian Words

Results of the semantic change can be generally observed in the changes of the denotative component of word-meaning (extension and restriction of meaning) or in the changes of its connotative component (amelioration and degradation of meaning).

Extension (or widening) of meaning is a semantic process of application of a word to a wider variety of referents. For instance, *pirate* meant 'one who robs on the sea', now – 'any one who robs with violence'; *salary* (Latin *solarium*) meant 'the money given to Roman soldiers to buy

salt with', now – 'fixed payment paid regularly for services'; *camp* meant 'a military camp', now – 'a place where people (soldiers, scouts, tourists, climbers, geologists, etc.) live in tents or huts for some time'; *box* meant 'a small container for drags, jewels and money', now 'any – container'. Cf. *донжуан* meant 'розпусник і беззаконник любовних і дуельних пригод (історично іспанець)', now – 'залицяльник', *ловелас* meant 'розпутник', now – 'спокусник, чоловік із легковажним ставленням до жінок', *меценат* meant 'римський політичний діяч, який матеріально допомагав Вергілієві та Горацієві', now – 'багатий покровитель наук та мистецтв', *поле* meant 'безліса рівнина, порожній великий простір', now, besides this meaning, also – 'ділянка землі, відведена під щонебудь', 'простір, у межах якого відбувається якась дія', 'сфера діяльності', 'смужка вздовж краю аркуша паперу', 'відігнуті краї капелюха'.

Extension of meaning in most cases is naturally combined with a higher degree of abstraction than implied in the earlier meaning of the word. Most words begin as specific names for things, however, this precise denotation is lost and the meaning of the word gets extended and generalised. For instance, *season* once had the meaning 'spring, time for sowing' and now it embraces all parts of the year; *стріляти* meant 'випускати стрілу' and now it is used in a broader sense.

If the word with the extended meaning passes from the specialized vocabulary into common use, the result of the semantic change is the **generalization** of meaning. For instance, *barn* meant 'a place for storing barley'; now – 'a place where grain and hay are kept'; *target* meant 'a small round shield to fire at', now – 'anything that is fired at'; *pioneer* meant 'soldier', now – 'one who goes ahead'; the meaning of the word *vehicle* that meant 'a trolley' spread on all the means of transport.

In Ukrainian, the word *столяр* first meant only 'the man who made tables' and then started to mean 'a specialist in processing wood and manufacturing things from it'. The word *акуратист* first was used in the meaning of 'carefully processed' (from Lat. *accuratus* 'careful'). In Modern Ukrainian, it is spread in the meanings of 'carefully made', 'the one that is kept in order'.

Restriction (or narrowing) of meaning is a semantic process when a word begins to denote only some of the referents which it previously denoted. For instance, *meat* Old English 'food and drink in general' (*mincemeat*, *nutmeat*, *sweetmeat*, *meat and drink*) < Modern English 'edible flesh'; *fowl* meant 'any bird', now – 'a domestic hen or cock'. The

word *wit* meaning ‘the faculty of thinking, good or great mental capacity’ was reflected by borrowed word ‘reason’ and now means ‘the utterance of brilliant or sparkling things in an amusing way’.

In Ukrainian, the old Slavonic word *билина* denoted the name of the plant. In modern Ukrainian, it means only ‘стеблина трави, травинка’. The noun *птаx* was originally used to name any bird, but later one more meaning appeared – ‘свійська тварина’. The same process took place in the words *печиво*, which at first meant ‘усе спечене з борошна’ and then – ‘кондитерські вироби з борошна’, and *квас* originally meaning ‘усе кисле’, *пov* – ‘кислуватий напій із житнього хліба або житнього борошна’.

Restriction of meaning is obvious in the use of the material instead of the object that is made of it. For instance, *silver* ‘silver coins’, ‘silver goods’; *iron* ‘a tool for smoothing out the linen irons-chains’; *glass* ‘a drinking vessel; a mirror’, etc. The corresponding words in Ukrainian are: *срібло*, *золото*, *залізо*, *скло*, *діамант*, etc.

The process of narrowing occurs when a proper noun is used as a common noun. For instance, *cenotaph* (an empty tomb) – *the Cenotaph* (in London); *border* (frontier between two countries) – *the Border* (frontier between Scotland and England); *city* – *the City* (in London); *peninsula* – *the Peninsula* (Iberian Peninsula); *сад* – *с. Сад* (Сумська обл.)

The process of narrowing may be also present when an abstract noun becomes a concrete noun, e.g., *beauty* – *a beauty* (a beautiful girl).

If the word with the new meaning is used in the specialized vocabulary of some professional group, we speak of **specialization** of meaning. For instance, *to glide* Middle English ‘to move gently smoothly’ < Modern English ‘to fly with no engine’. In Ukrainian, there is a quite number of such words and they mostly enter the vocabulary of socio-political sphere. For instance, *гарант* ‘той, хто гарантує що-небудь; поручитель’ acquired the meaning ‘держава, організація чи особа, яка гарантує що-небудь; поручитель’; *майдан* ‘велике незабудоване місце в селі або місті; площа’ developed one more meaning – ‘національно-патріотична протестна акція на майдані’; also *стабільність*, *барикади*, etc.

In the above examples, it is mainly the denotative component of the lexical meaning that undergoes the change while the connotative component remains unchanged. In other cases, it is the connotative meaning that is changed. These changes may be divided into two groups: a) elevation of meaning and b) degradation of meaning.

Amelioration (or elevation) of meaning is a semantic process when the referent denoted by the word arises from humble beginnings to position of greater importance. For instance, *queen* meant ‘a woman’, now – a royal title; *minister* ‘a servant’ > Modern English ‘an important public official’; *knight* meant ‘a young servant’, now acquired an elevated meaning through military and feudal associations – ‘a man who fought for his feudal’; later it came to be also used as a title of rank.

In Ukrainian, such words as *офіс*, *менеджмент*, *кур’єр* are more prestige than *контора*, *управління* чи *посильний*.

Such changes are not always easily accounted for, but, on the whole, social changes are of importance for words that acquire elevated meanings. For instance, *nice* (originally) ‘foolish, ignorant’, *nimble* ‘adroit in stealing’, *guest* ‘a foreigner, an enemy’, *fame* ‘report, common talk, rumour’, *to adore* ‘speak with, to greet, to address’.

In Ukrainian, the process of amelioration is sometimes followed by addition of the phrases *у хорошому сенсі*, *по-доброму* to the words *хворий*, *консервативний*, *провокувати* та ін: e.g., *Крім того, він у хорошому сенсі хворий на джаз*.

Degradation (or pejoration) of meaning is a semantic process that involves a referent’s lowering in social scale and thus the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge. For instance, *knave* first meant ‘a boy’, then ‘a servant’, now it’s a term of abuse and scorn; *boor* originally denoted ‘a villager, a peasant’; later it acquired a derogatory, contemptuous connotative meaning and came to denote ‘a clumsy or ill-bred fellow’; *greedy* meant ‘hungry’, now it means ‘stingy’. Other examples of degradation of meaning: *churl* (originally ‘a man’), *gossip* ‘a godparent’, *silly* ‘happy’, *idiot* ‘a private person’, etc.

In Ukrainian, there can be found such examples: the word *рак* ‘прісноводна тварина’ acquired the meaning ‘хвороба’; the verb *бубоніти*, originally meaning ‘дрібно стукати’, nowadays is used in the meaning ‘говорити невиразно’; *базар* ‘місце, де відбувається торгівля’ acquired the colloquial meaning ‘голосні безладні розмови’, etc.

The pejorated meanings are proper to the words that mean the names of diseases, bad habits, social evils, injustice, etc. The pejoration of meaning may take place with the help of morphological means – prefixes and suffixes, e.g., *вовк* – *вовкулака*, *нога* – *ножище*, etc.

The degradation of meaning is often affected by social backgrounds. The word *a villain*, e.g., was originally ‘a man who worked on a farm or

villa'. Such a person was believed to have a low sense of morality because his social status was low, and the word came to mean 'a scoundrel'.

Words which originally were onomatopoeic acquired a derogatory meaning. They are:

a) sounds of nature, e.g., *splash, boom, whoosh*; *плюх, грюк, шубовсь*, etc.;

b) sounds of animals, e.g., *squeak, cock-a-doodle-doo, meow, woof, quack*; *кукуріку, няв, гав*, etc.;

c) sounds of inanimate things, e.g., *bump, beep, clash*; *гун, грюк*, etc.;

d) human sounds, e.g., *grunt, gasp, yaw*; *зм, ах, ох, хех*, etc.

To sum up, semantic changes are not arbitrary. They proceed due to the logical and psychological laws of thought, otherwise changed words would never be understood and could not serve the purpose of communication.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

Semantic Change as a Language Universal in the Historical Perspective

The problem of semantic change has preoccupied linguists ever since the beginning of the 19th century. It was at that time when many students of language first realized that sense alterations can no longer be treated as corruption or degeneration and tried to bring them into order and system. This outburst of interest in meaning and its development led to the formation of a new area of linguistic study – the science of semasiology, later denominated into semantics.

Numerous books, pamphlets, treatises dealing with semantic subjects in the broadest sense of the term, dominated the linguistic scene for many decades. In fact, it was the study of semantics that gave rise to modern linguistics as a separate branch of science. It was the problem of semantic change that predominated during the course of the 19th century.

Although its golden period is long gone, the study of diachronic changes in meaning has never been abandoned entirely. Traditional approaches to semantic change typically focus on outcomes of meaning change and list types of change, such as metaphoric and metonymic extension, broadening and narrowing, and the development of positive and negative meanings. Examples are usually considered out of context, and are lexical members of nominal and adjectival word classes.

However, language is a communicative activity that is highly dependent on context, whether that of the ongoing discourse or of social and ideological changes. Much recent work on semantic change has focused not on results of change, but on pragmatic factors for change in the flow of speech. Attention has been paid to the contributions of cognitive processes, such as analogical thinking, production of cues as to how a message is to be interpreted, and perception or interpretation of meaning, especially in grammaticalization. Mechanisms of change, such as metaphorization, metonymization, and subjectification, have been among topics of special interest and debate.

Studying semantic change presupposes a more general understanding of semantics. In order to grasp what it means for a meaning to change, we need to know what meanings are in the first place.

Traditionally, linguistic expressions have been said to be meaningful because they are connected to aspects of the real world in some objective way. That is to say, the connections in question are either there, or they are not. Let us consider a simple example. If we describe the differences in meaning between the words *man*, *woman*, *boy* and *girl* in terms of the properties [+/- male] and [+/- adult], we can take a human being, and use those properties (often called “semantic components”) to decide objectively whether to refer to them as a man, woman, boy or girl. This is the basis of the so-called objectivist or truth-conditional theory of semantics.

Semantic change has traditionally been looked at from a variety of angles. Before we discuss the various classifications of meaning change corresponding to these angles, it is important to realize two things:

- 1) the traditional classifications cannot be applied to all changes;
- 2) the classifications are not mutually exclusive: sometimes we can apply two or even more labels to a single change, depending on which aspect of the change we choose to use as the basis of our classification.

The first traditional typology of semantic changes is the division into changes whose result is a more positive meaning known as amelioration and those which give a more negative meaning known as pejoration. A recent case of amelioration in British English is illustrated in the following line taken from a song “Fit but you know it”: *I didn't wanna bowl over all geezer and rude*, not *rude* as in *good* but just *rude* like *uncouth*. This line illustrates that the word *rude*, whose original meaning of ‘unmannered’ (or indeed ‘uncouth’) is obviously rather negative, can nowadays be used in a more positive sense.

The second traditional classification of changes in meaning is in terms of whether it becomes broader or narrower. For instance, *dog* used to refer not to any old dog, but to some specific large and strong breeds. The development the English word *dog* has undergone is known as generalization, widening or broadening. (As is so often the case in linguistics and other sciences, several different terms are around for what is essentially the same thing.) The opposite of generalization is specialization (also known as narrowing). In Middle English any young person could be called *a girl*; the restriction to female young persons is a development that occurred in the early Modern period.

The third dimension on which certain semantic changes may be classified is whether they result from metaphor or metonymy. In metaphorical meaning changes, speakers perceive some sort of similarity

between one concept (the source concept S) and another concept (the target concept T), and press the word for S into service to talk about T. The famous TV-chef Gordon Ramsay regularly calls participants in his cooking contests “doughnuts” if they fail to perform well. This is clearly not intended literally but figuratively. The basis of this metaphor is some sort of similarity between doughnuts and the contestants in question, probably including the fact that they are not very sophisticated or do not display any intelligence. This example demonstrates two characteristics of metaphor.

Meanings may become more positive or negative, broader or narrower, may involve metaphor or (different kinds of) metonymy, and may be caused by factors within or outside language.

Text 2

Different Approaches to the Study of Semantic Change

The 19th century linguists were fascinated both with meaning and its development and consequently semantics was a very productive field of study at that time. The way in which semantics was perceived also, in many respects, resembled various Ronald W. Langacker’s and other cognitivists’ ideas. Michel Bréal (1897), who first introduced the term “semantics” into linguistic jargon, claims that both morphology and syntax, as well as word-meaning, make part of it. Bréal stressed the overriding importance of semantics to which phonetics should be subordinated. The very term “schema” – so popular with Ronald W. Langacker and his followers – was a 19th century invention and the idea of relying on such figures of speech as metaphor and metonymy in the linguistic analysis goes back in time to 1825, when Christian Karl Reisig lectured on the Latin language. However, not all aspects of meaning were given equal status and attention.

Although its golden period is long gone, the study of diachronic changes in meaning has never been abandoned entirely. In the present-day linguistics, where cognitive theories are increasing in popularity and gaining more adherents, semantics seems to occupy more and more central place in grammar. The claim can be both easily justified and illustrated; for Ronald W. Langacker (1987: 12), meaning is what language is all about and grammar is simply the structuring and symbolizations of semantic content. In turn, Anna Wierzbicka (1988: 3) argues that syntax is semantically motivated, and for George Lakoff (1987: 228), the task of

grammar is to show how aspects of form can follow from aspects of meaning – just to mention some of the more representative examples. The ideas may sound revolutionary and innovative especially when contrasted with the relatively well-established (by linguistic standards, of course) generative tradition, but the history of linguistics shows that cognitive scholars were by no means the first to conceive them.

A logico-classificatory approach

Christian Karl Reisig (1792–1829), a classical philologist, and the first semasiologist who originated, in a truly scientific sense, the linguistic quest to find some general principles of semantic change with his series of lectures on Latin. He came to the conclusion that the study of meaning cannot be successfully dealt with either within etymology or syntax and that is why a new branch of linguistics – semasiology – was needed, whose task would be to discover rules governing the development of word meaning.

The objective of Reisig was to focus on semantic change as a major area of linguistic interest, and to show “the unfolding of the train of thought with regard to the meaning of the words and to provide a derivation of all subsequent meanings from the first in a logical and historical order” (Reisig 1890: 1–2). It needs to be mentioned that the quest to reveal semantic laws was prompted by a series of successes in phonetics and historical comparative philology in general.

The discovery of the first sound laws by Rask and Grimm gave a fresh impetus to Christian Karl Reisig (1881–90), Arsène Darmesteter (1886), Émile Littré (1888), and Richard Chenevix Trench (1851) who embarked on the insurmountable task of harnessing the semantic change in regular patterns. However, Reisig’s, Darmesteter’s as well as Littré’s (1888) studies on semantics had also a practical goal, that is the writing of dictionaries and this involved ordering word meanings in lexical entries based on truly semantic principles.

It seems that no better method than relying on logico-classificatory apparatus could have been introduced in those circumstances. Consequently, the same approach was applied to the study of meaning change. It involved classification of general types or rules of semantic change at the word level, taking phonetic laws as a model and not trying to find out what actually caused individual changes as such.

Christian Karl Reisig (1881–90) perceived thoughts and feelings as independent of language and, as a consequence, the study of semantic change could only mean the study of the development of ideas or thoughts

incorporated in the words themselves, disregarding extralinguistic factors. The development of thought followed logical principles and the task of semasiology was to show how the various meanings of a word arose from the original meaning. The approach received the name logical due to the fact that it employed logical relations between primary and secondary meanings, figures of speech, as well as two general semantic rules, that is restriction and extension (generalization) of meaning, as tools to classify types of semantic change, which involved subordinating it to logic and conceptual apparatus of classical rhetoric.

There were also other revolutionary ideas of Christian Karl Reisig's which had to wait almost two centuries to be finally acknowledged as important linguistic concepts by cognitive grammar. These included treating semasiology and syntax as one entity; placing the figures of speech such as synecdoche, metonymy, metaphor in the central position within his theory of language and focusing on complete word groups rather than analyzing individual Latin words in isolation. Nevertheless, W. Terrence Gordon (1982: 3) believes that Christian Karl Reisig's pioneering effort in the study of word-meaning was less remarkable in itself than in the attention it drew and influence it exerted upon later works on semantic change that followed.

A socio-historical approach

The school of hermeneutics, whose main task was the interpretation of biblical texts and the works of Friedrich Schleiermacher (1768–1834), in particular, influenced the historical approach to the study of semantic change pushing the search for its motives in the direction of external conditions, mostly historical and social or cultural. Notice that already Christian Karl Reisig (1881) stressed the importance of studying in depth the Latin texts and of taking into consideration the particularities of the Roman nation.

Another important source of inspiration came from the éminence grise of German semasiology, the philosopher Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767–1835) and his dynamic view of language.

Among others, Ludwig Tobler (1827–1895) in his etymological investigations sought to provide systematic principles for the transitions between concepts. Following Humboldt (1836), he believed that the vocabulary of a nation represents its framework of thought and that the original meanings of word roots constitute the inner form of language.

Also, Friedrich Haase (1808–1867) stressed the historical point of view in his desire to discover how the genius of an individual nation

expresses itself in the language and how it evolves, but unlike Reisig, Haase (1874–80) set about studying the laws that govern the semantic change with no reference to logic and instead of deducing them from general logical principles of the human mind, he attempted to induce them from historical records. Friedrich Haase, therefore, speaks only of the natural or historical and consequently changeable, not the logical and eternal semantic change rules. Seen from this perspective, semantic change is a manifestation of historic progress in the life of the language.

Friedrich Haase offers a hypothesis on how semantic change takes place which, from the present point of view, one might venture to call “cognitive” since he claims that the only explanation for it can be sought solely in conceptual processing.

An entirely different view on language was presented by Richard Chenevix Trench (1807–1886) who claimed that the power to name things and language in general was a divine gift. In his “On the Study of Words” (1851), while dealing with semantic change, Trench intended it to be, at the same time, a lesson in changing morals and history. It is worth pointing out that his moralistic and historical approach to semantic change became slowly dominant in England. Language was, for Trench, a collection of faded metaphors and words were treated as fossilized poetry. The range of problems he tackled in his writings included the pejoration and amelioration of meaning, although the terms themselves were not used; the modification of meaning in borrowed words; the changes of meaning due to politics, commerce, the influence of the Church.

A biologico-evolutionary approach

A group of French and Belgian linguists, which is often referred to as “the French ideology”, including Honoré Chavée (1815–1877), Abel Hovelacque (1843–1896), Julien Vinson (1843–1926), Lucien Adam (1833–1918), Paul Regnaud (1838–1910) among others, believed linguistics to be a natural science and language an organism that is born, develops, experiences a brief moment of evolutionary perfection, degenerates, and dies.

The linguists, influenced by Charles Darwin’s theory of evolution, defined the study of semantic change as the science of the syllabic organisms of thought, which are to each other like the races that have spontaneously created them. The word “spontaneously” should be stressed here as the group adopted a view that semantic changes are determined by natural laws quite independently of any involvement on the part of speakers. They made the basic assumption that language lives, evolves and

decays and that is manifested not only in semantic, but also phonetic change. This approach, where semantic change is the natural result of the life and interaction of words, is wholly consistent with August Schleicher's (1821–1868) naturalism as well as with the positivism and empiricism of that time.

A constant use of expressions and metaphors describing semantic change in terms of evolution and biological processes was a characteristic feature of Arsène Darmesteter's (1846–1888) research who was the first to put forward a programme for French semantics. For him, the main feature of a language was that it can never be fixed as it evolves all the time so that new thoughts could be expressed. In his booklet entitled "Comment les mots changent de sens" reprinted in 1888 with a preface by Michel Bréal, he presented his theory claiming that change is illness, but the language heals itself – metaphorically speaking – by its own therapeutic means. Words that change their meaning, however, were regarded as aberrations or ailments of language.

A psychological approach

The psychological tradition in semasiology was initiated by the work of Moritz Lazarus (1824–1903) and Heymann Steinthal (1823–1899) in the early 1860^s. Steinthal tried to refute the belief that language is governed by logical principles and that grammar is rooted in logic, instead, he claimed that language is based on psychological principles, and these principles are mainly of a semantic kind.

Steinthal and Lazarus (1884) drew their inspiration from the new mathematical and mechanistic psychology of Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776–1841) who defended the thesis that the facts of experience, with which psychology is concerned, are to be explained not by reference to what he termed "faculties", but by reference to the laws governing the combination and interaction of those ultimate mental states described as sensations, images, ideas or presentations. Thus, the process of semantic change is based on apperception which was to be understood as the process of assimilation of new ideas and forming larger systems.

While Steinthal and Lazarus tried to apply psychological theories to study semantic change, Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920) wanted to gain insights into collective psychological phenomena from the linguistic investigation. Notice that both Wundt and Steinthal use the term "apperception", but in the case of Steinthal, it is borrowed from Herbart, whereas for Wundt the term "apperception" is understood in the sense given to it by Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz (1646–1716), where it meant 'an

inner act of the will which regulated association'. On the whole, Wilhelm Wundt rejected Herbart's intellectualism and focused on psychological importance of will and action stressing the role of voluntarism in the processes of semantic change. In consequence, the laws of semantic change are based on the general laws of association.

The main principle of language change is for Frédéric Paulhan (1927) association by resemblance in sound or sense, or analogy. Fair enough, the importance of analogy was also recognized by neo-grammarians, but while they gave the primacy to sound change, Paulhan regarded semantic change as the main type of language change. Significantly, unlike other linguists, Frédéric Paulhan knew that it is not only important to understand why and how words change, but also how and why they stay the same.

Herbart's psychology of representation and Wundt's psychology of association were later replaced by Sigmund Freud's (1859–1939) psychoanalysis, especially of the type established by Carl Gustav Jung (1875–1961). The linguist who applied this new approach to the study of semantic change was a Swedish scholar Hans Sperber (1885–1960) for whom the driving force in the process of meaning transformation was the emotional charge with which a word can be loaded. He claimed that on this charge depended the replacement of one meaning by another.

A functional and contextual approach

Philipp Wegener (1848–1916), like his French colleagues Michel Bréal (1832–1915) and Gaston Paris (1839–1903), emphasized the function of words and sentences and the influence of the communication process on them. Wegener (1885) put forward a unified theory of language acquisition, language use and language change based on strategies, procedures, schemata and models, employed in the interaction between speaker and hearer in the context of situation. What is more, he postulated that the speaker's and hearer's interferences, mental schemata, the process of problem-solving and the use of analogies play the crucial part in the functioning of language. According to his theory, both the speaker and hearer have at their disposal certain schemata for the construction and reconstruction of meaning. These are schemata of time (actions follow each other in time), space (actions take place in some context), and movement (actions have purpose and are executed according to some rules and sequences). In case we lack a schema, we can build a new one in analogy with already known ones.

In Wegener's (1885) model, words do not carry meaning, but they absorb meaning from the context or the intention of the speaker and the understanding by the hearer. The interpretation of sentences is based on conclusions or inferences drawn from the context and the meaning emerges from communication as situated action.

In the works of Philipp Wegener and – to some extent – Johann Stöcklein and Hermann Paul (1846–1921), the meaning of words is gradually detached from its etymological ties and perceived as a result of contextual language use. It was believed to be created anew in each act of communication and regarded as context-dependent, consequently it was possible to differentiate between usual and occasional meaning.

Another contextual theory of semantic variation and change was developed by a British psychologist of the early 20th century George Frederick Stout (1860–1944), a forerunner of Gestalt psychology. The meaning of words is for him not, as many German psychological semanticists held, a representation or mental image associated with a word, but a conceptual system, formed and shaped by other systems and controlled by the topic of the discourse. Semantic change is accounted for by him in terms of the mutual shaping of word-meanings, themselves viewed as small conceptual systems forming part of larger structures, such as the sentence and discourse. Word-meaning is seen as a rather fuzzy territory delimited vaguely by the usual meaning, but always retracted and reshaped by the use of words in discourse and in situation, which gives them their occasional meanings.

The French historical comparative linguist Antoine Meillet (1866–1936) studied semantic change as a function of changes in social groups and generations of speakers.

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Text 3

Causes and Mechanisms of Language Change

(https://wikisofia.cz/wiki/3._Causes_and_Mechanisms_of_Language_Change)

1. What are the usual directions of semantic change and why do you think that is the case?

- *semantic change* = alteration in the lexical meaning of words and morphemes; it is the most susceptible to change because of the arbitrary connection between the signifier and the signified;
- directions of the semantic change usually come in pairs, one of them is usually more frequent.

1. *Generalization*

- widening in scope of a word's meaning – word denotes a greater variety of referents;
- more frequent than specialization;
- examples: *holiday* – originally only religious significance, now a general break from work; *business* – originally the state of being busy.

2. *Specialization*

- narrowing of the meaning – lower number of referents;
- sometimes occurs together with borrowing: a native word is specialized, the borrowing has a general meaning (*lust* vs. *desire*);
- examples: *meat* – originally ‘food’.

3. *Pejoration*

- acquisition of a less favourable meaning;
- more frequent than amelioration;
- examples: *hussy* originally referred to ‘a housewife’; names of animals used as derogatory terms;

4. *Amelioration*

- acquisition of a more favourable meaning;
- examples: *nice* originally meant ‘silly, simple’; *success* originally ‘result’.

5. *Weakening*

- for topics that we find difficult to talk about (bodily functions, sex, death) – linguistic taboo – we use euphemisms;
- euphemisms are in continual need of renewal – it may come to be considered too strong after some time;
- examples: *condition* instead of *disease* (generalization), *pass away* (figure of speech), *STD* (acronyms), *darn* (phonetic distortion).

6. *Strengthening*

- hyperbole, common with intensifiers (*terribly sorry*, *awfully good*);
- they undergo a continual process of weakening – must be replaced by stronger words.

7. *Figurative Shifts*

- transfer of meaning from one referent to another;
- metaphor: semantic change takes place when a metaphor dies (it is no longer perceived as a metaphor) – *eye of a storm*, *mouth of a river*, *the days to come*;
- synecdoche: part for a whole – *pretty faces* (beautiful people), *a rhyme* (a poem);
- metonymy: contiguity of meaning – *the White House* (the president etc.);
- synesthesia: a word referring to one sense is transferred to another / to a non-sensual domain – *a quiet colour*.

Internal causes of language change

a) Factors contributing to change of which the speaker is more or less unconscious:

– ease of articulation – the speaker exerts the least effort in articulating sounds → assimilation of neighbouring sounds, omissions and clipped forms;

– perceptual clarity – the hearer requires maximally distinct sounds (works against ease of articulation);

– phonological symmetry – structurally balanced phonological system → language acquires sounds to fill gaps and eliminate sounds that cause asymmetries, e.g., [ž] added to match already existing [š], etc.;

– universal tendencies, e.g., devoicing of final consonants, the loss of final n's, development of function words and inflections from full words, etc.;

– efficiency, or transparency – to achieve a one-to-one relationship between grammatical form and meaning, e.g., noun plurals indicated by -s, etc.

b) Factors of which the speaker is more or less conscious:

– spelling pronunciation – the speaker pronounces a word as it is written rather than as it is conventionally pronounced, e.g., “t” in *often*, “l” in *almond*, “h” in *forehead*, “p” in *clapboard*, etc.;

– hypercorrection – the speaker may correct a mistake which is not, in fact, a mistake, e.g., *cheddar* – [tʃetə] instead of [tʃedə], *between you and I* instead of *you and me*, etc.);

– overgeneralization – the speaker overgeneralizes a linguistic rule, applying it in contexts where it does not hold, e.g., *product* – [prɒdʌkt] instead of [prɒdʌkt], *boughten* instead of *bought*, etc.);

– analogy – the speaker alters the form by analogy with another form with which it is related, thus eliminating irregularities in the language, e.g., *teached* instead of *taught*, *pled* instead of *pleaded*, etc.;

– renewal – the constant need of renewal of emphatic forms and euphemisms as they cease to convey emphasis or fail to be recognized as euphemisms, e.g., *very* replaced by *totally*, *hugely*, *massively*, *awfully*, *terribly*..., originally a euphemism *intercourse* replaced by *sexual relations*, etc.;

– reanalysis – the user of the language develops a new understanding of the structure of certain phrases, e.g., *according to him*: originally present participle *according* + prepositional phrase *to him* → now complex preposition *according to* + object *him*).

Types of semantic change

An alternation in the lexical meaning of words and morphemes

Generalization – the widening in scope of a word's meaning, allowing it to denote a greater variety of referents → a reduction in the number of semantic features, e.g., *holiday* originally referred only to ‘holy days’; *crisis* to ‘a turning point of a disease’; *carry* to ‘transport in a vehicle’, etc.

Specialization – the narrowing in scope of a word's meaning → the number of referents of the words decrease, e.g., *sermon* originally referred to ‘a speech, discourse’; *cellar* to ‘a storehouse’; *meat* to ‘food’, etc.

Pejoration – the acquisition of a less favourable meaning, a lowering in the value judgment associated with the referent, e.g., *villan* originally referred to ‘a low-born or common person’; *poison* to ‘potion, drink’; cunning to ‘knowledgeable’, etc.

Amelioration – the acquisition of a more favourable meaning, an elevation in the value judgment involved in the referent, e.g., *mansion* originally referred to ‘a house, dwelling’; *spill* to ‘shed blood’; *nice* to ‘silly, simple’, etc.

Weakening and strengthening – the use of a word that is weaker than is required by the circumstances (context → a kind of understatement that may lead to strengthening of that word) or the use of a word that is stronger than is required by the circumstances (context → a kind of overstatement that may result in weakening of that word).

Weakening is caused by the use of euphemisms in order to avoid the direct terms for topics that are difficult to talk about (= linguistic taboo). The forming of euphemisms:

a) generalization – use of a wider or more general term, e.g., *condition* for ‘disease’, etc.;

b) splitting features – lessening the impact by dividing the semantic features between two words, e.g., *pre-owned* for ‘used’, etc.;

c) borrowing words – use of a neo-Latin or Greek pseudo-technical term, e.g., *expire*, etc.;

d) figure of speech – use of a metaphor, e.g., *pass (away)*, etc. or a metonymy, e.g., *in his cups for drunk*, etc.;

e) semantic shift – use of the name of one part of the process to denote another part, e.g., *to go to the bathroom*, etc.;

f) phonetic distortion (taboo deformation) – alternation of the phonetic form of the word, e.g., *shoot*, etc.;

g) diminutives – addition of a diminutive suffix, e.g., *tummy*, etc. or the use of replication, e.g., *wee-wee*, etc.;

h) acronyms or initialism, e.g., *TB* for ‘tuberculosis’, etc.;

i) the use of the hyperbole (common with intensifiers and expressions like *I’m dying to* = “I want to”, etc.).

Figurative shifts – a transfer of meaning from one referent to another. Most widely known are:

A. Metaphor, which contains an implied comparison based on similar semantic features of two referents, e.g., *He is a rat.*); when a metaphor dies, i.e. when the metaphorical meaning is no longer recognized but has become part of the denotation of the word, then a semantic change has

taken place, e.g., *eye of the storm*, etc. Metaphorical shifts are the following:

– shift from concrete to abstract meaning – often from physical to mental meaning, e.g., *translate* meant ‘to carry across’, etc.),

– shift from abstract to concrete, e.g., *essay* meant ‘an attempt, a trial’, etc.);

– shift from spatial to temporal meaning, e.g., *the days to come*, etc.

B. Synecdoche – the name of a part is used for the whole, e.g., *new blood*, etc. or a thing is named by the substance which composes it, e.g., *a glass*, etc.

C. Metonymy – something is named by an object associated with it, e.g., *the crown* ‘the king / queen’, etc.

D. Synesthesia – a word referring to one sense is transferred to another or to non-sensual domain, e.g., *a bright idea*, etc.

E. A word naming an internal psychological state is used to refer to an external object evoking that state, e.g., *dreadful occasion*, etc. or vice versa, e.g., *happy person*, etc.

Invited inferences – meanings which arise in context “on the fly” and must be inferred by hearers become part of the conventional, denotational meaning of the word (also called “conversational implicatures”), e.g., *since* – originally a temporal meaning: *Since dinner, I have been reading*. In certain contexts – causal meaning: *Since he left, I have been sad*. = ‘after / because’, or the causal meaning becomes part of the denotation of the word: *Since you are rich, why don’t you buy a new house?* = ‘because’.

Cultural change – change to a word’s referents, e.g., *picture* – ‘a visual representation’, but also ‘a cinematic movie’, ‘X-ray’, ‘a television image’, ‘a photograph’, ‘a computer-generated graphic’, etc.

Social change – people imitating the usage of the upper classes or of authorities such as psychologists or psychoanalysts, e.g., an outgoing person is *an extrovert*, etc. or sociologists, e.g., the person we admire is our *role model*, etc. → popularization of these specialized terms – or, people imitating the usage of the lower classes by adopting slang, e.g., *leak* for ‘disclose information’, etc.

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Theme 4

Isomorphism and Allomorphy of Polysemy and Homonymy as Language Universals

Polysemy and homonymy, as well as semantic change, are linguistic universals, i.e. they are typical of both English and Ukrainian.

Allomorphy of polysemy and homonymy in the English and Ukrainian vocabulary, namely, highly developed polysemy and abundance of homonyms in the English vocabulary, in comparison with the Ukrainian language, can be explained by the following reasons:

- a) the analytical character of the English language and
- b) the monosyllable character of the English word.

4.1 Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Word

It is generally known that both English and Ukrainian words may be either monosemantic or polysemantic.

Monosemantic words are sometimes represented by a whole lexico-grammatical class, as it is in case of all pronouns, numerals, conjunctions, and various nomenclature words (terms). For instance, *we, she, nobody, ten, thirty, and, or, atom, oxygen, sugar, today; він, вони, десять, перший, і / та, чи, кисень, цукор, сьогодні, торік*, etc.

Polysemantic words convey several concepts / notions and thus possess the corresponding number of meanings. For instance, the word *stone* is polysemantic, it has the following meanings:

1) hard compact nonmetallic material of which rocks are made, a small lump of rock, e.g., *Smoke curled lazily from the brown and gray rock chimney made of rounded river stones*. (Foster)

2) pebble, e.g., *The bank became low again, and Miro crossed the brook by running lightly on the moss-covered stones*. (Card)

3) the woody central part of such fruits as the peach and plum, that contains the seed;

4) jewellery, short for *gemstone*, e.g., *"Here," she said, and took off a slim silver necklace with an intricately carved pale jade stone the size of a grape*. (Hamilton);

5) a unit of weight, used esp. to British, a unit of weight, used esp. to express human body weight, equal to 14 pounds or 6.350 kilograms;

6) a calculus concretion in the body, as in the kidney, gallbladder, or urinary bladder; a disease arising from such a concretion, e.g., *My brother-in-law, he says gallstones hurt worse than anything. Except maybe kidneystones.* (King)

In Ukrainian, the word *земля* has the following meanings: 1) третя від Сонця планета; 2) верхній шар земної кори; 3) речовина темно-бурого кольору, що входить до складу земної кори; 4) суша (на відміну від водного простору); 5) країна, край, держава.

The ability of words to have more than one meaning is described by the term “**polysemy**” (Greek *polus* ‘many’, *sema* ‘meaning’), which means ‘a word having many meanings’ (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1).

The problem of polysemy was greatly developed by academician V. Vinogradov (Виноградов 1977), who differentiated the meaning from the usage (a contextual variant). Meanings are fixed and common to all people, who know the language system. The usage is only possible application of one of the meanings of a polysemantic word, sometimes very individual, more or less familiar. Meaning is not identical with usage.

Polysemy exists only in language, not in speech. An isolated word in a dictionary is usually given with all its meanings, but taken in any definite context, the word has only the meaning required by the text. For instance, *act* has several meanings: ‘do something’, ‘behave’, ‘take a part in a play’, ‘pretend’. In a sentence *Some men have acted courage who had it not; but no man can act wit – act means ‘pretend’.*

Polysemy belongs to paradigmatic description. The meaning of the word in speech is contextual. Polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of a language because in every particular case, the situation or context, i.e. environment of the word, cancels all unnecessary meanings and makes speech unambiguous.

Professor A. ISmirnitsky (Смирницький 1956) claimed that all the meanings of the word form identity supported by the form of the word. His term “**a lexico-semantic variant**” (LSV) denotes one of the individual meanings of a polysemantic word.

LSV is signaled either by the form of the word itself or by context, that is why it is a two-facet unit. The formal facet of it is a sound-form of a word, while the content facet is one of the meanings of a given word, i.e. the designation of a certain class of objects. Words with one meaning are represented in the language system by one LSV, polysemantic

words – by a number of LSVs, which are registered in dictionaries as different meanings of one and the same word.

All LSVs of a polysemantic word form a homogeneous semantic structure of a word ensuring semantic unity of the given word.

The semantic structure of a polysemantic word is a structured set of interrelated lexico-semantic variants (the major (or basic) meaning of a word and the minor (derived) meanings) with different denotative and sometimes connotative components of meaning.

The lexico-semantic variants belong to the same set because they are expressed by the same combination of morphemes, although in different contextual conditions. The elements are interrelated due to the existence of the common semantic component.

For instance, *youth* – 1) the friends of one's youth, 2) a young man, 3) young men and women. These variants form a structured set because they are expressed by the same sound complex and they all contain the semantic component "young", which is the semantic centre of the word, i.e. the part of meaning which remains constant in all the LSVs of the word.

The semantic structure of a polysemantic word is the system and hierarchical unity of all the types of meaning that a certain word possesses. In ordinary conversation, we can draw a borderline between LSVs without difficulty considering valency, syntactic function, paradigmatic and morphological (number, case, etc.) peculiarities, e.g., *I ran home* (intransitive verb) VS *I ran this office* (transitive verb).

It is thus evident that defining the semantic structure of a polysemantic word implies establishing the order of chaining and subordination of nonhomogeneous meanings and defining the means of semantic discrimination between LSVs within one word. Cf. *free*, adj.:

1) not a prisoner – not held, tied up, or kept in bondage: *He walked out of the courtroom a free man.*

2) not controlled or limited – allowed to do or say whatever you want, or allowed to happen, without being controlled or restricted by anyone or anything: *Women are struggling to break free from tradition.*

3) not fixed, able to move – not in a fixed position or not joined to anything: *Both bookcases stand free of the wall.*

4) not busy – is you are free or have some free time: *I am free next weekend.*

5) without – not having something that is unwanted or unpleasant: *Ensure the wound is free from dirt.*

6) no cost – something that is free does not cost you any money: *I got some free cinema tickets.*

7) not occupied, not engaged (of place, time) – something that is free is available to use because it is not already being used: *Is this seat free?*

8) not suffering – not suffering from something: *At last she was free of pain.*

9) not containing something: *A fat-free yoghurt is what I need.*

10) tax – if something is free of tax, you do not have to pay tax on it: *This small business income should be free of tax.*

11) chemicals *technical* – a free chemical substance is not combined with any other substance: *The scientists tried to measure the amount of free oxygen in the atmosphere.*

In most cases, the first meaning of a polysemantic word holds a kind of dominance over the other meanings conveying the concept in the most general way, in this way presenting the centre of the semantic structure of the polysemantic word, whereas other meanings are associated with special circumstances, aspects of the same phenomenon.

For instance, the first meaning of the word *fire*, n. is the centre of the semantic structure of this word ('an instance of destructive burning'), while all the other senses are secondary: 'burning material in a stove, fireplace', 'the shooting of guns', 'strong feeling, passion'.

A good illustration in Ukrainian is given by the word *море*:

1) частина океану – великий водний простір з гірко-солоною водою, який більш-менш оточений суходолом;

2) дуже велике штучне водоймище;

3) *перен.* поросла, вкрита чимось велика, безмежна площа;

4) *перен.* Велика кількість чогось.

Yet, it is not in every polysemantic word that such a centre can be found. Some semantic structures are arranged on a different principle. In the following list of meanings of the polysemantic word *gear*, one can hardly hope to find a generalized meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure:

1) [uncountable and countable] the machinery in a vehicle, such as a car, truck or bicycle that you use to go comfortably at different speeds, e.g., *His mountain bike had 18 gears. Andy drove cautiously along in third gear.*

2) [uncountable and countable] used to talk about the amount of effort and energy that someone is using in a situation, e.g., *During this period, Japan's export industries were in top gear (=were as active as they could be).*

3) [in American English] to start doing something in a different way, especially using more or less energy or effort, e.g., *The boss expects us to be able to change gear just like that.*

4) [uncountable] a set of equipment or tools you need for a particular activity, e.g., *He's crazy about photography – he's got all the gear. We'll need some camping gear.*

5) [uncountable] a set of clothes that you wear for a particular occasion or activity, e.g., *Bring your rain gear.*

6) [uncountable] a piece of machinery that performs a particular job, e.g., *the landing gear of a plane, heavy lifting gear.*

7) [uncountable] in British English informal a word means illegal drugs, used by people who take drugs.

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of the polysemantic word, which is termed “denotative component” (also “referential component”), that is the one expressing the conceptual content of a word, is absent in the adjective *dull* as well:

1) uninteresting – deficient in interest or excitement: *a dull film*;

2) stupid: *a dull pupil*;

3) not bright: *dull weather*;

4) not loud: *a dull sound*;

5) not sharp: *a dull knife*;

6) not active: *dull market*;

7) seeing badly: *dull eyes (arch.)*;

8) hearing badly: *dull ears (arch.)*.

Thus, in polysemy, we face the problem of interrelation and interdependence of different lexico-semantic variants (various meanings) in the semantic structure of one and the same word. There may be no single semantic component common to all lexico-semantic variants but every variant has something in common with at least one of the others.

One of the most essential issues of polysemantic words is that there is sometimes a chance of misunderstanding when a polysemantic word is used in a certain meaning. The context usually sheds light on this hoary problem as it cancels all the unwanted meanings becoming a powerful preventative against any misunderstanding of meanings.

By the term “**context**” we understand “the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word” (Anikeyenko & Boitsan 2006: 37). For instance, it is only in combination with other words that the adjective *sad* reveals its actual meaning: ‘a sad story’, ‘a sad night’ (= a dark night), ‘a sad scoundrel’ (= an incorrigible scoundrel).

Sometimes, however, such a minimum context is not enough, as the meaning may be faithfully interpreted only through a **second-degree context**. For instance, *The middle-aged man was large, but his wife was even fatter*. The word *fatter* here serves as a kind of indicator that *large* describes not a 'big' man, but a 'stout' one.

Scholars have established that there are two main types of linguistic contexts: the lexical and the grammatical one.

When the lexical groups combined with the polysemantic words are of primary importance, then we deal with **the lexical context**. For instance, the adjective *high* in isolation possesses the meaning 'extending far upwards'. When combined with the lexical group of words denoting *food*, it means 'smelling bad', e.g., *high meat*. In combination with words *note, sound*, it has the meaning 'shrill, sharp'.

In **grammatical context**, it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings: 1) *He made me cry*; 2) *She made a fully-fledged teacher*. In the first pattern the word *make* has the meaning 'to force', and in the second pattern its meaning is 'to turn out to be'.

These two types of context are opposed to **extra lingual context**, non-verbal one, where the meaning of the word is determined not only by linguistic factors, but also by the situation in which the word is used.

When we come across polysemantic words, we need to bear in mind that the semantic structure has national character. Thus, the semantic structure of correlated words of the English and Ukrainian languages can never cover each other. The major meaning is in most cases identical in two languages but others usually differ.

Cf. in Ukrainian, the adjective *вільний*, apart from denoting 'not controlled or limited; not fixed; not occupied', also has the meanings 'іст. розкріпачений; заст. недержавний, приватний; невимушений, неофіційний; спец. який здійснюється за природних умов; протилежне штучний (напр., *вільне запліднення*)'.

The semantic structure of the bulk of English polysemantic nouns is richer than that of the Ukrainian nouns. Thus, the English noun *boat* can mean 'човен', 'судно / корабель', 'шлюпка'; the noun *coat* in English can mean 'верхній одяг', 'пальто', 'піджак', 'кітель', 'хутро' (тварин), 'захисний шар фарби на предметі'.

Ukrainian words may sometimes have a complicated semantic structure as well. For instance, the noun *подорож* may mean 'cruise', 'journey', 'travel', 'trip', 'tour', 'voyage'; or the word *ще* may mean 'still', 'yet', 'as yet', 'more', 'any more', 'again', 'else', 'but'.

Polysemy is certainly not an anomaly. Most English words, as well as Ukrainian ones, are polysemantic by nature. In fact, the greater the frequency of the word, the greater the number of meanings that constitute its semantic structure. Frequency – combinability – polysemy are closely connected.

A special formula known as Zipf's law has been worked out to express the correlation between frequency, word length and polysemy: the shorter the word, the higher its frequency of use; the higher the frequency, the wider its combinability, i.e. the more word combinations it enters; the wider its combinability, the more meanings are realized in these contexts.

But it should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. Sometimes it might seem that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be applied to several different phenomena. In actual fact, it is exactly the opposite: if each word is found to be capable of conveying at least two concepts instead of one, the expressive potential of the whole vocabulary increases twofold. Hence, a well-developed polysemy is a great advantage in a language.

On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the number of sound combinations that human speech organs can produce is limited. Therefore at a certain stage of language development the creation of new words by morphological means turns out to be limited as well, and it is natural that polysemy becomes increasingly important for enriching the vocabulary (Егорова 2009). The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are added to old ones, or oust some of them. So, the complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its meanings and in this way to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the language's expressive resources.

To conclude, it should be clear that the process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding newly coined words to it, but also in the constant development of polysemy.

4.2 Contrastive Typology of the Types of Lexical Meaning Viewed Synchronically

Synchronically we understand polysemy as the co-existence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the language. The semantic structure of a word is complicated and may include, among others, the following oppositions of different types of its meanings as elements of a word's semantic structure.

Main / central :: minor / peripheric. The meaning that first occurs to us when we hear the cluster of sounds, i.e. the most frequent meaning of the polysemantic word is the main (central) one. All other meanings are minor (peripheric) in comparison. Thus, the distinction between the meanings lies in the frequency rate of a certain meaning of the polysemantic word. The most frequently used meaning is labeled "main / central", whereas the others are thought to be "minor / peripheric".

Compare the uses of the adjective *high* in the sentences that follow: (1) *These mountains are too high to climb* and (2) *These socks are a bit high*. In sentence (1) the adjective *high* is used in its main meaning – 'large in size from the top to the ground', whereas in sentence (2) it is used in one of its minor meanings – 'to have an unpleasant smell'.

Primary :: secondary / derived. According to the tradition of lexicography, the primary meaning is placed first in the dictionary.

When we describe the meaning of the word as secondary, we imply that it could not have appeared before the primary meaning was in existence. For instance, in the course of a diachronic semantic analysis of the polysemantic word *table*, we find that of all the meanings it has in Modern English, the primary meaning is 'a flat slab of stone or wood', which is proper to the word in the Old English period (Old English *tabule* from Latin *tabula*); all other meanings are secondary as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later. In Ukrainian, the primary meaning of *стіл* is 'вид меблів у вигляді горизонтально укріпленої на ніжках широкої дошки (іноді з ящиками, тумбочками), на яких розміщують різні предмети' (прасл.**stolъ* 'стояти').

When we refer to the meaning as derived, we imply not only that, but also that it is dependent on the primary meaning and somehow subordinate to it. For instance, the primary meaning of the word *table* is Old English 'a flat slab of stone or wood', while the established meaning 'a flat surface, usually supported by four legs, used for putting things on' is derived from the first one. In the word *nanip*, the meaning 'матеріал

для писання’ is primary and ‘будь-який письмовий документ офіційного характеру’ is derived.

General :: special / particular. The general meaning occurs in various and widely different contexts, special meanings are observed only in certain contexts, e.g., technical meanings of the word *power* or the third meaning of *земля*.

Direct :: figurative. The meaning is direct when it nominates the referent without the help of the context, in isolation, and can be viewed as a certain label for the thing (a “word thing” connection). The meaning is figurative when the thing is named and at the same time characterized through its similarity with another object, i.e. the thing named gets some additional characteristics through comparison or confrontation with another thing to make a description more impressive or interesting.

For instance, *mouth* ‘part of a face’ (dir.), ‘some opening’ (fig.); *tough meat* – *tough politician*, *крапля дощу* – *крапля надії*. In the sentence *My mother died of stomach cancer*, the verb *died* is used in its direct meaning of ‘to stop being alive’, whereas in the sentence *I laughed until I died*, it is used figuratively, meaning that the person laughed a lot.

Concrete :: abstract. The abstract meaning is a quality, a concept, an idea, or maybe even an event. For instance, the word *room* possesses both concrete (‘a part of the inside of a building that is separated from other parts by walls, floor, and ceiling’) and abstract (‘space’: *That sofa would take up too much room in the flat*) meanings.

If we are interested in the historical perspective, the meaning will be classified according to their genetic characteristics. Here the following terms are used: **etymological**, i.e. the earliest known meaning, **archaic**, i.e. the meaning superseded at present by a newer one but still remaining; **obsolete**, i.e. gone out of use; **present-day meaning** which is the one most frequent in the present-day language and the original meaning serving as basis for the derived ones. For instance, the noun *cobbler* in its old-fashioned meaning denotes ‘someone whose job is to repair shoes’, whereas at present it is used to refer to ‘a type of food consisting of vegetables or fruit covered with a soft thick layer of pastry’.

Stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary makes it possible to speak of **stylistically neutral** and **stylistically coloured** uses of the word. Stylistically coloured words are classified into bookish and colloquial, bookish styles in their turn may be general, poetical, scientific or learned, while colloquial styles are subdivided into literary colloquial, familiar colloquial, and slang (*figure 4.1*).

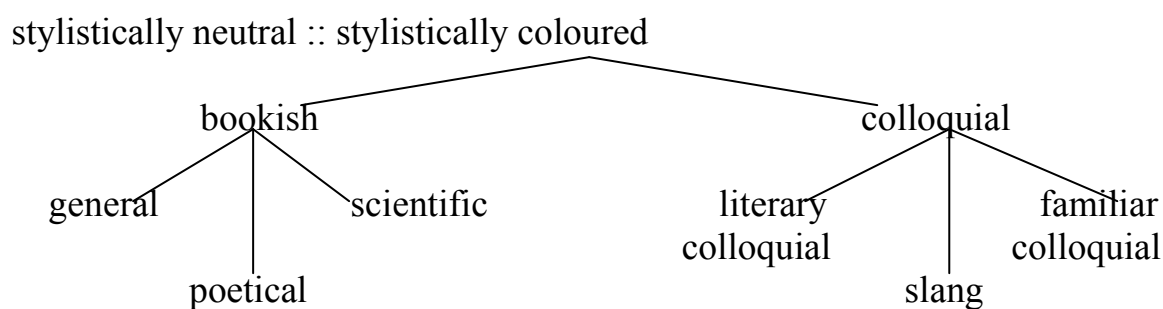


Figure 4.1. Stylistic Differentiation of the Vocabulary

For instance, the verb *to steal something* is more common in speech than in writing and is not used in formal situations, hence its label “informal”. The verb *elucidate* which has the meaning ‘to clarify, to make something easier to understand by giving more information’ is labeled as “formal” since it is not characteristic of ordinary conversation or everyday writing.

4.3 Polysemy Viewed Diachronically. Sources of Polysemy

If polysemy is viewed diachronically, it is understood as the growth and development or as a change in semantic structure of the word. Polysemy in diachronic term implies that a word may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or several new ones. The main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word. Semantic changes result as a rule in new meanings being added to the ones already existing in the semantic structure of the word. Some of the old meanings may become obsolete or even disappear, but the bulk of English and Ukrainian words tend to an increase in number of meanings.

According to diachronic approach to the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, two types of meaning can be singled out: the primary meaning and the secondary meaning.

We distinguish two schemes of the development of polysemy: radiation and concatenation.

Radiation (radial polysemy) is a semantic process in which the primary meaning of a word stands at the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it in every direction like rays. Each secondary meaning is independent of all the rest and may be traced back to the central signification (*figure 4.2*).

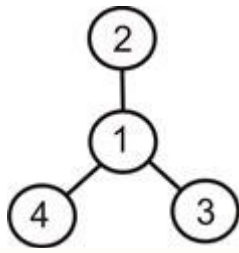


Figure 4.2. Radial Polysemy

In the word *tube*, the primary meaning is ‘1) a long hollow and typically cylindrical object, used for the passage of fluids or as a container: *tubes of glue, toothpaste, mayonnaise*’. Each secondary meaning developed directly from the primary one.

2) any hollow cylindrical structure or organ in the body: *Eustachian tube, the bronchial tube*;

3) in electronics another name for valve: *electron tube, cathode-ray tube, television tube* (> *tube (TV) – ellipsis, e.g., YouTube*);

4) *slang* a bottle or can of beer: *a tube of lager*.

The correlation of secondary meanings of the word *paper* may be graphically presented, as in figure 4.3.

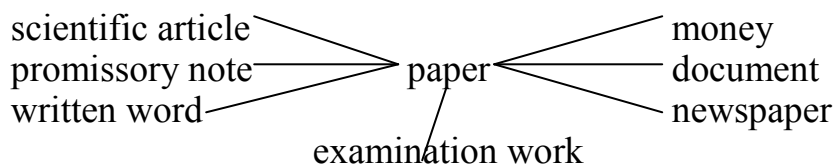


Figure 4.3. The Correlation of Secondary Meanings of the Word *paper*

Concatenation (chain polysemy) is the semantic process in which the secondary meanings of a word develop like chain (figure 4.4), i.e. every secondary meaning moves gradually away from its first signification by successive shifts of meanings.

For instance, the word *board* may signify: 1) a piece of timber, 2) an extended surface of wood, 3) a table, 4) any piece of furniture resembling a table, as *dressings-board, side-board*, 5) board and lodging, 6) Board of Health, Board of Trade. In such cases, it may be difficult to trace some meanings to the primary ones.



Figure 4.4. Chain Polysemy

In the word *crust*, the primary meaning is 1) ‘the hard brown outer surface of bread: *sandwiches with the crusts cut off*’. Out of this meaning its secondary meanings are 2) ‘the baked outer part of foods such as pies or pizzas: *a thin crust pizza*’, 3) ‘a thin hard dry layer on the surface of something: *A hard gray crust had formed on the bottom of the tea kettle*’, 4) ‘the hard outer layer of the Earth: *deep within the Earth’s crust*’.

Radiation and concatenation are closely connected, being different stages of the same semantic process. In fact, radiation always precedes concatenation.

Radial-chain polysemy (mixed polysemy) is a combination of radial polysemy and chain polysemy. Here the configuration of a diagram depends on the word semantic structure, hence there’s a great variety of diagrams illustrating this type of polysemy. The meanings of the word *gear* make the polysemy of this type.

Due to the achievements of the componential analysis, attempts have been made to establish the relationships between different meanings of a polysemantic word on the basis of a common semantic component through which they are connected with each other in synchrony. From this viewpoint, there are three kinds of relations between the meanings of a polysemantic word: intersection, inclusion and semantic homonymy.

In case of **intersection**, all meanings have one common semantic component which unites them, and at the same time each meaning has its own semantic part which is its differential feature. e.g., the adjective *barren* has five meanings:

1) incapable of producing offspring, seed, or fruit; sterile, e.g., *a barren tree, barren soil, barren woman*;

2) unable to support the growth of crops, etc.; unproductive; bare, e.g., *barren land*;

3) lacking in stimulation or ideas; dull, e.g., *a rather barren play, barren discussion*;

4) not producing worthwhile results; unprofitable, e.g., *a barren period in a writer’s life, barren scheme*;

5) (followed by of) totally lacking (in); devoid (of) , e.g., *his speech was barren of wit, barren of ideas, barren of interest*.

These meanings have a common semantic feature ‘not producing’, in which they are intersected. This type of polysemy can be represented with the help of *figure 4.5*.

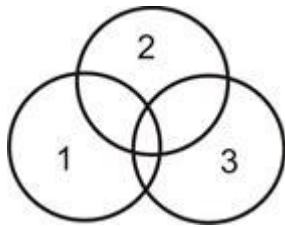


Figure 4.5. Intersection of the Meanings

Inclusion as a type of relationship between the meanings of a polysemantic word takes place in those cases when one of the meanings is more complicated and broader than the other. It includes the semantic features of that meaning and at the same time it has its own semantic part, e.g., the word *skinhead* has two meanings:

- 1) a closely cropped hairstyle;
- 2) a member of a group of white youths, noted for their closely cropped hair, aggressive behaviour, and overt racism.

Here, the second meaning includes and presupposes the first one. This type of polysemy can be represented with the help of *figure 4.6*.

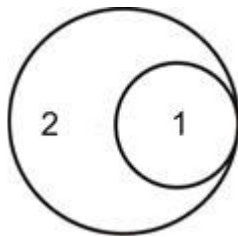


Figure 4.6. Inclusion as a Type of Relationship between the Meanings

Semantic homonymy as a type of relationships between the meanings of a polysemantic words takes place when the meanings have lost a semantic connection between each other and have no common semantic features, but still remain to be the meanings of the same polysemantic word. In such cases, the last secondary meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones, especially if there are very many other meanings between them.

This phenomenon can be illustrated by the word *pride*. Its primary meaning is ‘a feeling of deep pleasure or satisfaction derived from one's own achievements’. It's very hard to find any semantic connection between this primary meaning and one of its secondary meanings ‘a group of lions forming a social unit’ (Oxford Dictionary (En-En) (for ABBYY Lingvo x 3 Multilingual), which gives grounds for some dictionaries

(LingvoUniversal (En-Ru, ABBYY Lingvo x 3 Multilingual) to consider them as the meanings of two homonymous words.

4.4 Homonyms in English and Ukrainian. Classification and Sources of Homonyms

Homonyms (Greek *homos* ‘the same’, *opota* ‘name’) are two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and (in many cases) origin. Of 2540 homonyms given in Oxford dictionary 89% are monosyllabic words and only 9,1% are words of two syllables. Homonyms are not typical of Ukrainian though.

There are several classifications of homonyms in English.

The first classification is based on the type of meaning and according to it homonyms may be classified into lexical, lexico-grammatical and grammatical.

Lexical homonyms belong to one and the same part of speech and the grammatical meanings of all their forms are identical, but they are different in their lexical meaning, e.g., *ball*₁ ‘a round object used in games’ – *ball*₂ ‘a gathering of people for dancing’; Ukrainian: *брак*₁ ‘spoilage’ – *брак*₂ ‘marriage’; *ключ*₁ ‘source, spring, fountain’ – *ключ*₂ ‘key’.

Lexico-grammatical homonyms differ both in lexical and grammatical meanings, they belong to different parts of speech, e.g., *bear*₁ ‘animal’ – *bear*₂ ‘to carry’; *seal*₁ ‘a sea animal’ – *seal*₂ ‘to close tightly’; Ukrainian: *ніс*₁ (на обличчі) – *ніс*₂ (минулий час від *нести*).

Grammatical homonyms differ in grammatical meaning only. It is the homonymy of different word-forms of one and the same word, e.g., *stopped*₁ (the Past Indefinite) – *stopped*₂ (Participle II); Ukrainian: *відносно*₁ (prp.) – *відносно*₂ (adverb); *точно*₁ (conjunction) – *точно*₂ (adverb). The following examples are highly illustrative:

*provided*₁ (Participle II from *provide*) – *provided*₂ ‘якщо, за умови’;

*regarding*₁ (Participle I from *regard*) – *regarding*₂ ‘відносно’;

*owing*₁ (Participle I from *owe*) – *owing*₂ (to) ‘навпаки’;

*just*₁ (adverb) – *just*₂ – particle of emphatic precision.

It is also worth mentioning the words that are alike in form, but different in meaning and usage – **paronyms**. They are likely to be mixed and sometimes mistakenly interchanged. For instance, *popular* – *populous*, *precede* – *proceed*; *компанія* – *кампанія*, *статичний* – *статистичний*.

The second classification is based not only on the meaning, but all the three aspects (sound-form, graphic form and meaning) are

taken into account. Here we distinguish homonyms proper, homophones and homographs.

Homonyms proper (perfect) are words identical both in sound-form and in graphic form but different in meaning, e.g., *bark*₁ ‘a noise made by a dog’ – *bark*₂ ‘a sailing ship’; *back*₁ ‘part of the body’ – *back*₂ ‘away from the front’ – *back*₃ ‘go back’; *bear*₁ ‘ведмідь’ – *bear*₂ ‘носити, родити’; *bay*₁ ‘затока, бухта’ – *bay*₂ ‘гавкіт, гавкання’; *pale*₁ ‘кіл, паля’ – *pale*₂ ‘блідий, тьмяний’. The important point is that homonyms are distinct words: not different meanings within one word.

Homophones are words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and meaning, e.g., *son*₁ ‘син’ – *sun*₂ ‘сонце’; *pair*₁ ‘пара’ – *pear*₂ ‘груша’; *see*₁ ‘бачити’ – *sea*₂ ‘море’; *sight*₁ ‘зір, погляд’ – *site*₂ ‘місцеположення, ділянка’ – *cite*₃ ‘цитувати’; *coarse*₁ ‘грубий’ – *course*₂ ‘курс’; *light*₁ ‘легкий’ – *light*₂ ‘світло’; *meet*₁ ‘зустрічати’ – *meat*₂ ‘м’ясо’; *piece*₁ ‘шматок, кусок’ – *peace*₂ ‘мир’.

In Ukrainian, there are few homophones, among them several borrowings with doubled consonants, e.g., *біль*₁ – *білля*₂, and words with unstressed vowels “e/и”, e.g., *зрєбти*₁ – *зрєбу*₂ – *зрєбу*₃.

Homographs are words identical in spelling but different both in their sound-form and in meaning, e.g., *tear*₁ /tiə/ – *tear*₂ /tɛə/, *lead*₁ /li:d/ – *lead*₂ /led/, *wind*₁ /wind/ – *wind*₂ /waɪnd/, *bow*₁ ‘поклін’ – *bow*₂ ‘лук’, *row*₁ ‘ряд’ – *row*₂ ‘шум, гвалт’. In Ukrainian, homographs are distinguished by the stress, e.g., *дере’вина*₁ ‘одичичне дерево’ – *дереви’на*₂ ‘матеріал для виготовлення різних предметів’, *сага*₁ ‘жанр давньогерманського епосу’ – *са’га*₂ ‘річкова затока’.

Patterned homonymy is characteristic of homonyms that have developed from one common source, possess identical lexical meaning and belong to various parts of speech. *Care*, n – *care*, v, *love*, v – *love*, n, *stone*, n – *stone*, v, *drive*, v – *drive*, n.

From the view point of their origin, homonyms can be divided into historical and etymological.

Historical homonyms are those which result from the breaking up of polysemy; then one polysemantic word will split up into two or more separate words, e.g., *to bear*₁ ‘терпіти’ – *to bear*₂ ‘народити’, *pupil*₁ ‘учень’ – *pupil*₂ ‘зіниця’, *plant*₁ ‘рослина’ – *plant*₂ ‘завод’.

Etymological homonyms are words of different origin which come to be alike in sound or in spelling (and may be both written and pronounced alike). For instance, the Latin *vitim* ‘wrong’, ‘an immoral habit’ has given the English *vice* ‘вада’, ‘evil conduct’; the Latin *vitis*

‘spiral’ has given the English ‘vice’ ‘тиски’, ‘apparatus with strong jaws in which things can be hold tightly’; the Latin *vice* ‘instead of’, ‘in place of’ will be found in *vice-president*.

There is also the phenomenon of **interlingual homonymy** – product of the interaction of closely related languages, the mixing of same sounding words denoting different concepts in different languages. This gave the opportunity to call cross-language homonyms of “false friends of translator”, “reefs”, “the keys which unlock quite a different reality.” According to I. Farion, “...the difference against same sound is a condensed manifestation of the separateness of each language system on the background of the Slavic patterns; this possibility through the same form to see an entirely different meaning; it is, finally, a sound astray, if deliberately hides national language meanings, peculiar only to the person, not other people” (Фаріон 2002: 9).

Interlingual homonymy can relate to and remote from the Ukrainian languages. Most often, it causes errors during translation of texts. Translators disregard the separate shades of meanings of words. Cf. *accurate* (‘accurate’) – акуратний, *magazine* (‘journal’) – магазин, *figure* (‘figure’) – фігура, *dramatic* (‘unexpected, bright’) – драматичний, *decade* (‘decade’) – декада. In order to avoid such errors, it is necessary to know the subject of translation, to master the original language and its lexical and grammatical features in comparison with the native, often refer to a translation dictionary.

From the diachronic point of view, we speak about the origin of homonyms, their sources. The two main **sources of homonymy** are:

- 1) divergent semantic development of a polysemantic word,
- 2) convergent sound development of two or more different words.

The process of divergent meaning development can be observed when different meanings of the same polysemantic word move so far away from each other that by now they are regarded as separate. This happened with the words *flower* and *flour* which originally were one word. Cf. in Ukrainian: *переказати* ‘переповісти’ – *переказати* ‘гроші’; *сісти* ‘про людину’ – *сісти* ‘про батарею’.

The process of convergent sound development is the development of two or more words which were phonetically unlike each other at earlier periods and then became identical in pronunciation. It happened, e.g., with the words *I* and *eye* which in Old English were pronounced differently; *night* and *knight* were not homonyms in Old English either as the initial /k/ was pronounced.

The phenomenon of homonymy is the result of random coincidences of two or more words, the meanings of which have nothing in common. **Sources of homonymy** are:

- a coincidence of unrelated words, e.g., *деркач* ‘bird’ – *деркач* ‘broom’;
- sound-imitation, e.g., *mew*, n. ‘the sound a cat makes’ – *mew*, n. ‘a sea gul’ – *mew*, n. ‘a pen in which poultry is fattened’;
- the coincidence of the abbreviation and the words already existing in the language, e.g., *AMOUNTS* ‘dictionary of the Ukrainian language’ – *amounts*; *one HUNDRED* ‘station maintenance’ – *one hundred*;
- the coincidence of the words from different languages, e.g., *the League* (French ‘association’) – *League* (Italian ‘the sign is above the notes in the form of an arc’); *the blinker* (German ‘baked clay products in the form of a brick’ – *clinker* (English ‘long narrow boat’).

Homonyms present a challenge in the practice of usage. Therefore, the main requirement to the text with the homonym – clarity, expressiveness, completeness of information, accuracy of context. Homonyms can be used in different functional styles, but only in art – with a certain stylistic purpose. Scientific and officially-business requires precision context, so the homonyms have no stylistic functions.

It must be noted that the most debatable problem in homonymy is the demarcation line between homonymy and polysemy, i.e. between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two or more homonymous words. There exists no universal criterion for the distinction between polysemy and homonymy (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2, 3). In the synchronous analysis of homonymy there are the following criteria.

Semantic criterion implies that if the speaker can find a connection between the various meanings, then we have different meanings of a polysemantic word, otherwise it is a case of homonymy. But the semantic criterion doesn’t seem to be reliable because in the synchronous analysis of polysemantic words, we often find meanings that cannot be related in any way.

The **criterion of distribution** may be represented as a list of structural patterns in which a word appears. For instance, *paper*, n – *paper*, v. The formal criterion is helpful in cases of lexico-grammatical and grammatical homonymy, but fails in cases of lexical homonymy, not differentiated by means of spelling.

The **criterion of spelling** helps in case of homonyms differing in graphic form (homophones), but fails in case of lexical homonyms identical both in pronunciation and spelling.

Thus there are cases of lexical homonymy when none of the criteria enumerated above is of any use.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

The Problem of Polysemy in Linguistic Studies

Polysemy is “pervasive in natural languages, and affects both content and function words” (Vicente & Falkum 2015). While deciding which meaning is intended on a given occasion of use rarely seems to cause any difficulty for speakers of a language, polysemy has proved noticeably difficult to treat both theoretically and empirically.

Some of the questions that have occupied linguists, philosophers, and psychologists interested in the phenomenon concern (Logue 2019):

- the representation, access and storage of polysemous senses in the mental lexicon;
- how to deal with polysemous words in a compositional theory of meaning;
- how novel senses of a word arise and are understood in the course of communication.

In psycholinguistics, the debate revolves mainly around the differences in access, storage, and representation of polysemous senses with homonymous meanings (the different related meanings of polysemous expressions are usually called “senses”). Computational and theoretical linguistics (Asher 2011, Copestake & Briscoe 1995, Jackendoff 2002) describe models that can integrate various forms of polysemy into a compositional theory of meaning.

Distributional semantics approaches define and distinguish senses on the basis of words’ distributional properties, extracted by statistical analysis of the contexts in which words occur (bolstering the hypothesis that words with similar distributional properties have similar semantic properties (Baroni, Bernardi, & Zamparelli 2014).

Lexicographers (Kilgarriff 1992, Hank 2013) also try to tackle the question of how many senses a polysemous expression can have mainly by looking at collocation patterns. A trend towards an increasing interaction between these fields can be observed, as the different research topics just listed are intimately related. The fact that a word can be associated with multiple related senses was addressed at least as early as in the writings of Aristotle, although the label “polysemy” was not used.

In general linguistics, Michel Bréal (1924) was the first to use the term “polysemy” (*la polysémie*) to describe single word forms with several related meanings. For Bréal, the notion of polysemy was primarily a diachronic phenomenon, arising as a consequence of lexical semantic change. According to him, when words acquire new meanings through use, their old meanings typically remain in the language. Hence, polysemy involves the parallel existence of new and old meanings and is a result of new senses becoming conventionalized: it is the synchronic outcome of lexical semantic change. At the same time, as Bréal (1924) puts it, at the synchronic level, polysemy is not really an issue, since the context of discourse determines the sense of a polysemous word and eliminates its other possible meanings.

Contemporary **research on polysemy** can be divided into four broad camps.

1. One of which is conducted within the cognitive linguistic framework (Cuyckens & Zawada 1997, Evans 2009, Nerlich & Clarke 2001, Taylor 2006, Tyler & Evans 2003 and many others), inspired by George Lakoff and Claudia Brugman's early studies (1988) and Langacker's (1987) foundational work in Cognitive Grammar.

2. Another is the growing number of formal and computational accounts of polysemy, with James Pustejovsky's (1995) generative lexicon theory and Nicholas Asher's (2011) type composition logic as the most prominent representatives.

3. Recent work in pragmatics and philosophy of language focusing the nature of word meaning and its interaction with contextual information in the derivation of speaker meanings, has a close connection to the issue of polysemy (Blutner 2002, Bosch 2007).

4. Psycholinguists reveal how the mental lexicon represents polysemy compared with homonymy, a long-standing debate in the polysemy literature (Foraker & Murphy 2012, Frisson 2015, Klein & Murphy 2001, Pylkkänen, Llinás, & Murphy 2006), as well as the differences in processing different kinds of polysemy in composition (Schumacher 2013).

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Text 2

Polysemy and Homonymy: the Problem of Differentiation

(https://seanewdim.com/uploads/3/4/5/1/34511564/navrotska_i.m._distinguishing_polysemy_from_homonymy_of_the_english_nouns_by_means_of_semantic_analysis.pdf)

The distinction between polysemy and various related phenomena remains a debating point among linguists. In fact, its lexicographical aspect is a matter of the utmost importance because with every single dictionary the criteria delimiting polysemy and homonymy dramatically differ. Therefore, a holistic approach must be implemented to find linguistic means of this distinction.

From the very outset, our investigation was focused on finding the evidence of homonymy in dictionary definitions with subsequent verification of the obtained results in the corpus. Namely, four English dictionaries (two monolingual and two bilingual) were chosen in this respect. The research has yielded 353 nouns that possess serious discrepancies in definitions, specifically, those in which polysemy should be treated as homonymy or vice versa. Meanwhile, this article represents only one of the inherent aspects of the procedure of homonymy extraction within the category of English noun, the method and some preliminary results.

The concepts of polysemy and homonymy are basically related to the dynamic transition of meaning. Homonymy itself is usually a result of synchronic transition and is a climax of meaning variation. Most linguists define polysemy as the case where the word has two or more conceptually related meanings or variants of the same, core meaning. The meanings of a polysemous word may be historically, psychologically or metaphorically related. At the same time, L. Kudryevatykh (Кудреватых URL) argues that in the structure of polysemous meanings there should be the semantic shift of implication (that is metonymy) or / and similation (metaphor).

J. Hurford and B. Heasley (1983) claim that homonymy involves ambiguity: “A case of homonymy is one of the ambiguous word, those different senses are far apart from each other and not obviously related to each other in any way”.

Though, we claim that ambiguity should be taken for a term comprising not only polysemy and homonymy but heterosemy as well. According to J. Jastrzembski (1981), etymology plays a crucial role in the process of meaning distinction because words with multiple meanings associated with a single derivation are accessed faster than those with multiple derivations.

In behavioral studies, there are two contrasted viewpoints concerning the mode of representation of polysemy and homonymy in the mental lexicon. The experiments supporting the opposite view have shown that polysemous words embedded in phrasal contexts and homonymous words function the same but comprehension depends on the consistency of the context. E. Kleposniotou (2002) suggests that processing polysemous words tend to be facilitated due to no meaning competition typical of homonymous ones. However, it is possibly to infer that there may be a transitional, buffer zone in the mental lexicon which can also facilitate or stumble the process of understanding, that is heterosemy.

In course of our investigation, we have found out that some meanings within the category of heterosemy remain more “polysemous” and one or more of their derivatives can develop into the category of homonymy. Thus, the described above “meaning competition” can exist not only in homonymy. We have previously chosen a set of criteria distinguishing polysemy, its types and transitional types from homonymy: the etymological criterion, the criterion of relatedness of word formation ranges and the semantic criterion.

There is hardly any universal criterion and the analysis has proved this hypothesis. The etymological explanations why certain meanings should be related and placed. Distinguishing polysemy from homonymy of the English nouns by means of semantic analysis into one dictionary entry is not always tangible and in some cases they are even scarce.

We have established that, for instance the nouns *palm*₁, Ukr. *долоня* (MWD: ‘the somewhat concave part of the human hand between the bases of the fingers and the wrist or the corresponding part of the forefoot of a lower mammal’) and *palm*₂ Ukr. *пальма* (MWD: ‘any of a family (*Palmae* syn. *Arecaceae*) of mostly tropical or subtropical monocotyledonous trees, shrubs, or vines with usu. a simple stem and a terminal crown of large pinnate or fan-shaped leaves’) have common etymology but most dictionaries, including MWD, regard them as homonyms whereas analogous cases of *pastor*₁ Ukr. *духовний настав* (MWD: ‘a spiritual overseer’) and *pastor*₂ Ukr. *орн. ‘рожевий шпак’* (Загнітко & Данилюк 2008), ‘pink starling’ are represented as polysemes, not homonyms as they should be.

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Text 3

Are Polysemy and Homonymy Really So Different?

(<https://skemman.is/bitstream/1946/26712/3/Distinguishing%20Between%20Polysemy%20and%20Homonymy..pdf>)

Polysemy and homonymy are representatives of lexical ambiguity.

S. Ullmann (1962) explains it to be the most important type of ambiguity due to lexical factors, as the same word can be connected by countless senses. Lexical ambiguity according to him can take two different forms.

The first form is when the same word can have one or more different meanings which is known as polysemy. For example, the noun *board* could mean either ‘a thin plank or tablet’ or ‘a table’ or ‘food served at the table’, as well as various other things. The language user would usually feel instinctively which form to use, however S. Ullmann (1962) explains it can sometimes cause a confusion, for example in the case of *Oliver Twist*, who was told by Bumble to bow to the board, fortunately bowed to the table as he saw no board.

The second form according to S. Ullmann (1962) is when two or more words are identical in pronunciation which represents the case of homonymy. For example, *mean* can either represent ‘middle’ or ‘inferior’; *seal* can represent either ‘the name of the animal’, or a ‘piece of wax sealed on a letter’. S. Ullmann (1962) also explains that words that sound the same, but are spelt differently are representing homonymy, for example, *root – route* and *site – sight – cite*.

S. Ullmann (1962) explains the border-line between polysemy to sometimes be fluid, and proposes these two semantic items to be considered differently. However, often they can prove to be difficult to tell apart. The fluidity of these two semantic items, two representatives of

lexical ambiguity, still poses many problems for the researchers, as the evidence is conflicting, as well as the factors used to tell them apart.

This section will discuss various tests used by linguists in order to tell polysemy apart from homonymy, as well as discussing how successful is each of these approaches.

Distinguishing Between Polysemy and Homonymy

According to I. Falkum and A. Vincente (2015), researchers have been mostly concerned from telling apart polysemy from monosemy (only one meaning represented by the word), and various tests have been proposed to tell these semantic phenomena apart. They explain that distinguishing between polysemy and homonymy has been of little interest to the researchers, however, recently, based on psycholinguistic research, it has increased, because the research has shown polysemy and homonymy to possibly be associated with different storage profiles.

Tests to Distinguish between Logical Polysemy and Accidental Polysemy

As explained by N. Asher (2011), words that have closely related senses are considered to be logically polysemous, while words that do not fulfil this criterion are considered to be accidentally polysemous or simply homonyms.

Cruse (1986, as cited in Asher 2011) has proposed co-predication in order to distinguish between logical polysemy and accidental polysemy, and defines it as: “if two different predicates, each requiring a different sense, predicate properties of different sense of a given word felicitously, then the word is logically polysemous with respect to at least to those two senses”.

The second test discussed by N. Asher (2011) is pro-nominalization or ellipsis. He explains that the word is considered to be logically polysemous if: “you can pro-nominalize an occurrence of a possibly ambiguous word felicitously in a context where the pronoun is an argument of a predicated requiring one sense, while its antecedent is an argument of a predicate requiring a different sense”.

In conclusion, the aim of this paper was to criticize the general approach used by dictionaries to distinguish between polysemy and homonymy. The definitions of these two semantic items appear quite simple: polysemous words possess more than one related sense, while homonymous words possess more than one unrelated meanings.

However, distinguishing one from another is not as easy as it might appear. The approach used by lexicographers to decide how many entries in the dictionary the word should have depends on whether the word in question is polysemous or a homonym. Polysemous words receive one single entry even if they possess many related senses, while each of homonyms receive a separate entry as their meanings are unrelated.

This appears straightforward as well. Then the problem arises: how to separate these two semantic phenomena? The general dictionary approach uses two criteria in order to distinguish between the two: etymology and possession of a core meaning.

Etymologically polysemous words are believed to have arisen from a related source, while homonyms are believed to have arisen from unrelated sources. This again appears to be clear. But as this paper has argued, it is not always easy to determine historical origin of a given word. In fact, if this criterion is used some words would be considered to be polysemous instead of homonymous. This can be seen F. R. in Palmer's (1976) example where he discusses the word *ear* which can be referred to 'the body part' as well as to 'an ear of corn', therefore appearing to be an example of metaphor, and therefore polysemy, as polysemous senses are extended through metaphors. Etymologists claim these items to be homonyms as they have arisen from a different historical origin. This is just one example how etymology can be misleading as the historical origin of the word does not reflect its present state, the way the word is used can change overtime, and therefore this criterion cannot be used to determine whether word is polysemous or homonymous.

The second criterion used by the dictionaries in order to determine whether a word is polysemous or homonymous is possession of a core meaning. The notion of words possessing a core meaning is dividing researchers in to those who believe that words possess a core meaning, and the ones who do not. The hypotheses vary as well, for example, the sense enumeration lexicon hypothesis argues against the notion of words possessing a core meaning, and proposes that each sense of polysemous item as well as meanings of homonyms are stored separately in the mental lexicon. Some researchers have supported this hypothesis finding no great difference between the way polysemous words and homonyms are represented in the mental lexicon (Klein and Murphy 2001, 2002).

On the other hand, some researchers have found the evidence of polysemous words possessing a core meaning, based on the fact that these words were processed faster in the brain than homonyms, and concluded that this must be due a core meaning that is being accessed (Klepousniotou et al. 2012). One representation hypothesis also claims for the senses of polysemous words either to depend on or to be a part of the single representation (a core meaning) in the mental lexicon and corresponds to the general lexicon approach proposed by Pustejovsky (1995).

This paper clearly shows that distinguishing between polysemous words and homonyms cannot be made based on a words etymology and possession of core meaning as evidence in both cases are conflicting. A common approach used by dictionaries to distinguish between polysemy and homonymy based on these two criterion is arbitrary.

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Theme 5

Semantic Relations in Paradigmatics. Contrastive Typology of Semantic Classifications of English and Ukrainian Lexicon

Modern English has a very extensive vocabulary. It may be classified in various ways (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1). Here we are concerned only with semantic classification of words (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2). Semantic classifications of English and Ukrainian lexicon are based on semantic relations of inclusion (groups of hyponyms), semantic relations of similarity (sets of synonyms), and semantic relations of contrast (pairs of antonyms).

5.1 Semantic Relations of Inclusion. Contrastive Typology of Hyponyms

Closely connected sectors of vocabulary characterized by a common concept are termed **semantic fields**. For instance, the semantic field of colour (*blue, black, red*, etc.), terms of kinship (*mother, father, brother*, etc.). The basis of grouping is not only linguistic, but also extra-linguistic: the words are associated because the things they name are closely connected in reality.

Words making up semantic fields are not synonyms, they may belong to different parts of speech, but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. For instance, in the semantic field of “space” there are nouns – *surface, expanse*; verbs – *extend, spread*; adjectives – *spacious, vast*, etc. The same point may be illustrated in Ukrainian by the semantic field “відчуття”, which includes nouns *зір, слух, колір, звук, дотик, запах*; adverbs – *темно, холодно, солодко*; adjectives – *кольоровий, звуковий, ароматний*, etc.

Lexical groups of words belonging to the same part of speech and linked by a common concept are termed **lexico-semantic group (LSG)**. For instance, *bread, cheese, milk, meat* make up LSG with the concept of “food”. Cf.: *хліб, сир, молоко, м'ясо* belong to LSG “їжа”.

The relationship existing between elements of LSG and semantic fields is that of inclusion, or **hyponymy**. For instance, the meaning of *car, bus, taxi* is included in the meaning of “vehicle”.

The hyponymic relationship may be viewed as the hierarchical relations between the meaning of the general and the individual terms. The general term (vehicle) is called **hyperonym**, it serves to describe the lexico-semantic group (e.g., LSG of “vehicles”). The individual terms (*car, bus, taxi*) are called **hyponyms**, they contain the meanings which distinguish them from each other.

5.2 Semantic Relations of Similarity. Contrastive Typology of Synonyms

Lexical units may also be classified by the criterion of semantic similarity (synonymy) and semantic contrasts (antonymy). Synonyms and antonyms are language universals because they exist in all Indo-European languages.

Synonyms (Greek *syn* ‘with’, *onyma* ‘name’) are two or more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotative meanings, interchangeable at least in some contexts, but differing in morphemic structure, phonetic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, style, and idiomatic use. There are no two absolutely identical words because connotations, ways of usage, frequency of an occurrence are different.

As language universals, synonyms are distinguished in English, Ukrainian (and in other languages). There are about 8000 synonyms in the English language.

Synonymy is the ability of language to produce linguistic units with similar meanings. Synonymy is found not only in words, but also in morphemes, phrases, grammatical constructions, and in sentences. For instance, in Ukrainian:

synonymous nouns: *огорожа – горожа – паркан – штахети – тин – живопліт – ліса; балакун – говорун – баляндрасник – торохтій – базікало – талалай, etc.;*

synonymous adjectives: *безмежний – безкрайї – безконечний – неосяжний – безмірний – незорий, etc.;*

synonymous verbs: *грати – бити – батожити – періщити – дубасити – лупити – лупцювати – гилити, etc.;*

synonymous adverbs: *швидко – скоро – прудко – хутко – шпарко – жваво – прожогом, etc.*

According to their **morphological structure**, synonyms may be classified into the following groups:

a) synonyms having the same roots, e.g., *unarmed* – *armless*; *галява* – *галявина*;

b) synonyms having different roots (the most frequent cases), e.g., *forest* – *wood(s)*; *ліс* – *гай*;

c) synonymous expressions (usually idiomatic), e.g., *to glance* – *to take a look*; *знищити* – *стерти з лиця землі*.

The most developed synonymy in English and Ukrainian is found among adjectives, adverbs, and verbs. Nouns denoting concrete objects do not normally have synonyms with the exception of metaphorical ones, e.g., *head* – *attic*; *голова* – *гарбуз*.

As any linguistic phenomenon, synonymy can be viewed both from synchronic and diachronic points of view.

Synchronically, we classify synonyms into ideographic, stylistic, total, territorial, and contextual synonyms.

Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of denotative component of meaning (e.g., *look* – *seem* – *appear*; *йти* – *рухатися* – *мандрувати* – *курсувати* – *прямувати*; *думати* – *гадати* – *роздумувати* – *міркувати* – *розмірковувати* – *розмишляти*, etc.) or different degrees of a given quality (e.g., *beautiful* – *fine* – *handsome* – *pretty*; *поважний* – *серйозний* – *солідний* – *статечний* – *важний* – *величний*, etc.). They are sometimes called relative synonyms.

Among ideographic synonyms are those that:

- are very close in meaning, e.g., *terrible* – *horrible*;
- differ in meaning considerably, e.g., *interpreter* – *translator*;
- differ in manner of action, e.g., *look* – *stare*;
- differ in the degree of quality, in intensity of an action, e.g., *want* – *desire* – *be eager to*; *like* – *adore* – *be fond of*;
- differ in volume of concept they express, e.g., *happy* – *lucky*;
- are pairs of synonyms when one expresses continuity of the action or state, another expresses elementary action, e.g., *to speak* – *to say*.

The synonymic groups have a common semantic element and express one notion with different semantic shades or stylistic value.

Each synonymic group comprises a **synonymic dominant** which is the most neutral term potentially containing the specific features of all other members of this group (in the above given examples – *look*, *beautiful*, *йти*, *думати*, *поважний*). The synonymic dominant is generally neutral both stylistically and emotionally; it is the centre of the synonymous series.

The synonymic dominant possesses the following features:

- the highest frequency of use;
- the highest combinability;
- broad general meaning;
- lack of connotations.

For instance, in the series: *to leave* – *to abandon* – *to desert* – *to forsake*, the verb *to leave* possesses the most generalized meaning relatively free of connotations that cling to the other words. It is often used to indicate a straightforward physical departure. The other words are more freighted. *Abandon* denotes a complete giving up, especially of what one has previously been interested in or responsible for. *Desert* adds to *abandon* the idea that a legal or moral obligation or trust is being violated. *Leave*, *abandon* and *desert* are applied to marital or family relationships, but differ in their implications. *Forsake* implies the breaking off a close personal attachment.

There are, however, groups of synonyms, which do not possess the synonymic dominant. Such groups usually consist of adjectives or adverbs, e.g., *quickly* – *rapidly* – *swiftly*; *смливий* – *хоробрий* – *відважний* – *безстрашний*.

Stylistic synonyms are words which are close or identical in denotative component of meaning but differ in stylistic sphere of application. For instance, (neutral :: elevated :: coloured): *child* – *infant* – *kid*; *father* – *parent* – *dad*; *говорити* – *промовляти* – *горлопанити* – *бубоніти* – *белебеніти* – *теревеніти* – *гундосити*; (neutral :: archaic): *often* – *oft*; *there* – *younger*; (neutral :: poetic): *leave* – *quit*; *open* – *ore*; *лоб* – *чоло*; (neutral :: poetic :: slang :: baby language): *horse* – *hack* – *steed* – *jade* – *gee-gee*.

Stylistic synonyms can reflect social conventions, e.g., *Батьківщина* – *Вітчизна* – *рідна земля*; *солдат* – *воїн* – *оборонець*; *синець* – *фінгал* – *гематома*.

Stylistic synonyms can be subdivided into synonyms of the higher stylistic rank and synonyms of the lower stylistic rank, e.g., *багато* – *чимало* – *сила* – *безліч* – *масса* – *тьма* – *сила-силенна* – *кури не клюють*. Words of higher stylistic rank are usually stable. They seldom lose their stylistic colouring and very rarely pass into the neutral category. Words of the lower rank, on the contrary, may obtain a higher status.

The majority of the English borrowings from Latin, Greek, and French usually belong to the higher stylistic rank. Being compared with Anglo-Saxon words (which usually belong to the common style), Greek, Latin, and French borrowings are more formal, careful, bookish, and polite.

Affixes play a very important part in the creation of connotations in Ukrainian stylistic synonyms, e.g., *прегарний* – *прекрасний* – *преславний* – *прехороший* – *чарівний* – *чарівничий* – *чаруючий*.

Synonymic condensation is typical of the English language. It refers to situations when writers or speakers bring together several words with one and the same meaning to add more conviction to description and to make it more vivid, e.g., *safe* and *sound*; *lord* and *master*; *first* and *foremost*; *safe* and *secure*; *stress* and *strain*; *by force* and *violence*.

It is deeply rooted in the history of the English language. It was customary to use French borrowings together with their native synonyms. They are very often characterized by alliteration, rhymes, idioms, etc.

Total (absolute) synonyms are words which can replace each other in any given context without the slightest alteration in denotative or connotative components of meaning. Examples of this kind can be found in special literature among technical terms peculiar to this or that branch of knowledge. Thus, in linguistics the terms, e.g., *noun* – *sunstantive*; *functional affix* – *flection* – *inflection*; in medicine: *scarlet fever* – *scarlatina*; *the flu* – *grippe*; in Ukrainian: *сім'я* – *родина*; *відсоток* – *процент*; *бегемот* – *гиппопотам*; *лелека* – *бусол* – *чорногуз* are identical in denotative and connotative components of meaning.

Absolute synonymy is also described by such words, as perfect, total, complete, genuine, actual, real or full synonymy.

Most semanticists agree that real (absolute) synonymy is a non-existence: that no two words have exactly the same meaning. Two lexical units would be absolute synonyms, would have identical meanings if and only if all their contextual relations were identical. To identify absolute synonyms is impossible and impractical since we cannot check their relations in all conceivable contexts. There is no motivation for the existence of absolute synonyms in a language unless two dialects of one language use two different lexical items to signify one object. The degree of synonymy changes from time to time. For instance, the words *sofa* and *settee* are synonyms: *sofa* was considered more elegant than *settee*, but nowadays *settee* is considered more elegant than *sofa*, so these terms could be considered as absolute synonyms.

Contextual (or context-dependent) **synonyms** are similar in meaning only in some specific distributional conditions. Context can emphasize some certain semantic shades and suppress other semantic shades. Words with different meaning can become synonyms in a certain context. For instance, the verbs *to buy* and *to get* would not generally be

taken as synonyms, but they are synonyms in the following context: *I'll go to the shop and buy (get) some bread. Він купив (дістав) книжку. I can't stand (bear) him. Я не можу його терпіти (переносити).*

John Lyons (1977) mentions that “context-restricted synonymy may be relatively rare, but it certainly exists”. D. Alan Cruse (1976) uses the term “pseudo-synonymy” instead of “context-dependent synonymy”. For instance, *broad* and *wide* are not absolutely synonymous, since there are contexts in which only one is normally used and the substitution of one for the other might involve some difference of meaning. These adjectives are not interchangeable in a sentence like *The door was three feet wide*, or in a sentence like *He has broad shoulders*. However, John Lyons (1977) notes that there are also contexts in which they appear to be completely synonymous.

Territorial (local) synonyms are words which don't differ either ideographically or stylistically but are used in different countries speaking the same language. E.g.:

<u>Britain</u>	<u>America</u>	<u>Canada</u>	<u>Australia</u>
<i>autumn</i>	<i>fall</i>	<i>fall</i>	<i>autumn</i>
<i>pavement</i>	<i>sidewalk</i>	<i>sidewalk</i>	<i>footpath</i>
<i>wireless</i>	<i>radio</i>	<i>radio</i>	<i>radio</i>

Dialectal differences are also observed in Ukrainian, the most distinguishing of them being Western, Northern, and Central regional dialects. In western Hutsul dialects, for instance, *верховина* for *uplands*; in Halych region *файний* for *гарний*. Compare western Hutsul dialects: *вуйко* – *дядько*; *дядя* / *нянько* – *батько*; *когут* – *півень*.

Consider the set of synonyms with general meaning ‘ледар’ determined by stylistic and territorial colouring: *ледар* – *ледащо* – *ледацюга* – *ледарисько* – *ледай* – *ледач* – *ледень* – *ледака* – *легкобит* – *лінивець* – *ліногуз* – *лінтюга* – *лінюга* – *нероба* – *баглай* – *багливик* – *байда* – *байдала* – *гульвіса* – *гультяка* – *засидень* – *лежебок* – *легака* – *легмас* – *лежнюха* – *лога* – *поленак* – *лацюга* – *лахмар* – *лайдак* – *лотр* – *лумпій* – *леньоха* – *пустоцвіт* – *пустопаиш* – *пустогай* – *пустоплях* – *дармотрус* – *набоштрик*.

Synonyms are used for the following purposes:

- to introduce clarity into an utterance;
- to impart expressiveness into an utterance;
- to variegate an utterance;
- to attract the listener’s or the reader’s attention to the specific features of an object, phenomenon, or idea;
- to give an utterance a definite stylistic shade.

Diachronically, we speak about the origin of synonyms and the causes of their abundance in English and Ukrainian.

A. Synonyms that owe their origin to foreign borrowings. The peculiar feature of synonymy in English is the contrast between simple native words stylistically neutral, literary words borrowed from French and learned words of Greco-Latin origin:

Native English words	Words borrowed from French	Words borrowed from Latin
<i>to ask</i>	<i>to question</i>	<i>to interrogate</i>
<i>to gather</i>	<i>to assemble</i>	<i>to collect</i>
<i>to end</i>	<i>to finish</i>	<i>to complete</i>
<i>empty</i>	<i>devoid</i>	<i>vacuous</i>
<i>teaching</i>	<i>guidance</i>	<i>instruction</i>

Cf.: фон – тло; ексклюзивний – винятковий, etc.

B. Synonyms created through the adoption of words from dialects, and American English in particular, e.g., *girl* – *lass*, *lassie* (Scottish); *wireless* – *radio* (American); *liquor* – *whiskey* (Irish); *гарний* – *файний* – *лепський*; *півень* – *когут* – *нітух*, etc.

C. Synonyms created by means of all word-forming processes productive in the language at a given time of its history. The words already existing in the language develop new meanings and are formed by affixation, conversion, compounding, shortening and form synonyms to those already in use, e.g.:

affixation: *anxiety* – *anxiousness*; *effectivity* – *effectiveness*;

loss of affixes: *amongst* – *among*; *await* – *wait*;

shortening: *memorandum* – *memo*; *microphone* – *mike*; *popular* – *pop*;

compounding: *resistance* – *fight back*; *treachery* – *sell out*;

conversion: *to verbalize* – *to word*.

D. Synonyms created with the help of euphemisms and vulgarisms employed for certain stylistic purposes, e.g.:

euphemisms: *in one's birthday suit – naked; in the family way – pregnant; нерозумний, небагатий на розум – дурний; заслужений відпочинок – пенсія; техпрацівниця – прибиральниця; доглядач будинку – двірник; оператор машинного доїння – доярка;*

vulgarisms: *mug – face; bloody – devilish; комбінація з трьох пальців – дуля; міні-зачіска – лисина;*

E. Synonyms connected with the non-literal figurative use of words in pictorial language, e.g., *walk of life – occupation, profession; star-gazer – dreamer.*

5.3 Semantic Relations of Opposition. Contrastive Typology of Antonyms

Antonyms (Greek *anti* ‘against’, *ónyma* ‘name’) are two or more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech and to the same semantic field, identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, associated and often used together so that their denotative meanings render contrary or contradictory notions.

Antonyms are usually believed to appear in pairs. Yet, this is not quite true in reality. For instance, the adjective *cold* has two antonyms: *warm* and *hot*, and the noun *sorrow* may be contrasted not only with *joy*, but also with *gaiety*.

In a polysemantic word, each meaning may have its own antonym or even several antonyms. For instance, *dull* may have the following antonyms: *interesting – amusing – entertaining* for ‘deficient in interest’; *clever – bright – capable* for ‘deficient in intellect’; *active* for ‘deficient in activity’. In Ukrainian: *тривожний* (about sleep); *гарячий* (about a person); *бурхливий* (about ocean).

Antonymous pairs are usually formed by words possessing qualitative, quantitative, spatial, and temporal meanings, e.g., *happiness – sorrow* (qualitative); *мало – багато* (quantitative); *up – down* (spatial); *рано – пізно* (temporal).

There are criteria according to which it is possible to distinguish antonyms. The most important of them are:

- contextual criterion;
- the possibility of substitution;
- identical lexical valency.

Thus, two words are considered to be antonyms if they are regularly contrasted in actual speech, or if the contrast of their meanings is proved

by definite contexts. The use of antonyms in the same contexts has produced fixed antonym patterns. For instance, **A and B**: *bright and stupid*; **A not B**: *damp not dry*; **A or B**: *good or evil*.

English words with the negative prefix *non-* and Ukrainian words with the negative prefix *не-* are not considered to be antonyms. Nevertheless, if these prefixes form words with new shades of meaning, these words can be antonyms. Cf., *друг* – *недруг* (‘ворог’); *воля* – *неволя*; *правда* – *неправда* (‘брехня’).

As a rule, we study antonyms only synchronically and classify them into the following groups.

Contradictory antonyms (complementary antonyms) are antonyms which denote notions mutually opposed (exclusive) and denying one another, e.g., *dead* – *alive*; *single* – *married*; *perfect* – *imperfect*; *male* – *female*; *married* – *single*; *to marry* – *to divorce*; *to learn* – *to forget*; *to appear* – *to disappear*; *asleep* – *awake*; *same* – *different*; *живий* – *мертвий*; *зрячий* – *сліпий*; *присутній* – *відсутній*; *свій* – *чужий*; *одружуватися* – *розлучатися*; *перший* – *останній*. Their features are:

- not gradable;
- truly represent oppositeness of meaning;
- cannot be used in the comparative or superlative degree;
- the denial of one member of such antonymic opposition always implies the assertion of the other, e.g., *not dead* – *alive*.

Contrary antonyms (contraries) differ from contradictories in having some intermediate members, e.g., in the opposition *cold* – *hot*, the intermediate members are *cool* – *warm*, so *cold* may serve as an antonym not only for *hot* but also for *warm*. Other examples: *мир* – *війна*; *зовні* – *всередині*; *прибічник* – *противник*; *добровільний* – *примусовий*; *разом* – *окремо*; *починати* – *закінчувати*; *світати* – *смеркати*; *арештовувати* – *звільняти*; *кращати* – *гіршати*; *запитувати* – *відповідати*; *за* – *проти*, etc.

Contrary antonyms possess the following characteristics:

- they are gradable, i.e. there are some intermediate units between the most distant members of a set, e.g., *cold* – (*cool* – *tepid* – *warm*) – *hot*; *never* – (*seldom* – *sometimes* – *often*) – *always*; *холод* – (*тепло*; *мороз*) – *спека*; *дружба* – (*товаришування* – *прив’язаність*) – *ворожнеча*; *слава* – (*ореол* – *німб* – *шана*) – *ганьба*; *багач* – (*небіж* – *злидень*) – *бідняк*; *сміливець* – (*шибайголова* – *легкодуха людина*) – *боягуз*; *брюнет* – (*шатен* – *рудий* – *сивий*) – *блондин*, etc.;

- they are capable of comparison, e.g., *good – better – best* vs. *bad – worse – worst*, *холодний – прохолодний – теплий – гарячий*, *любов – приязнь – неприязнь – ненависть*, *всі – багато, хто – дехто – ніхто*, etc.;
- they can be modified by such intensifiers as *very, slightly, extremely, fairly, rather*, etc., e.g., *huge – very big – BIG – quite big – medium-sized – quite small – SMALL – very small – tiny*, etc.;
- they do not deny one another, e.g., *She is not beautiful ≠ She is ugly*;
- they refer not to independent absolute qualities but to some implicit norm, e.g., *a big mouse* vs *a small elephant*, etc.

Incompatibles are connected with the relations of exclusion, not contradiction, e.g., *morning – evening, day – night*; *на лице – навиворіт*; *чоловік – жінка*; *брат – сестра*, etc.

Conversive antonyms (conversives) denote one and the same referent or situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles, e.g., *to buy – to sell; to lend – to borrow; to precede – to follow; to give – to receive; left – right; parent – child; teacher – pupil*, etc. These antonyms are mutually dependent on each other and one item presupposes the other.

Vectorial antonyms (directional antonyms) are words denoting differently directed actions, features, e.g., *to rise – to fall; to arrive – to depart; підніматися – опускатися (спускатися); висхідний – низхідний; туди – звідти; вперед – назад*, etc.

Another classification of antonyms is based on a **morphological approach** when contrast is implied in the morphological structure of the words itself. Two types of antonyms are distinguished.

Root antonyms (absolute antonyms) are antonyms having different roots, e.g., *right – wrong; long – short; late – early; day – night; прокурор – адвокат; бас – тенор; поміщик – кріпак; зустріч – розлука*, etc.

Derivational antonyms are antonyms having the same root but different (one of them is negative) affixes, e.g., *happy – unhappy; to fasten – to unfasten; flexible – inflexible; regular – irregular; to appear – to disappear; logical – illogical; *вдихати – видихати; близький – неблизький; поганий – непоганий; малий – немалий; доконаний – недоконаний* (вид дієслова); *органічна – неорганічна* (хімія), etc.*

According to the **parts of speech** antonyms are classified into:

- antonymous adjectives, e.g., *clean – dirty; black – white; useful – useless; довгий – короткий; логічний – нелогічний; великий – малий*, etc.;

- antonymous adverbs, e.g., *now – then; above – below; warmly – coldly; завжди – ніколи; туди – сюди; ввечері – вранці*, etc.;

- antonymous nouns, e.g., *day – night; death – life; добро – зло; війна – мир; рух – спокій; війна – мир*, etc.;

- antonymous verbs, e.g., *to lose – to find; to open – to close; любити – ненавидіти; починати – закінчувати*, etc.

Most English and Ukrainian antonyms are adjectives and adverbs, because of their qualitative and quantitative character. Noun and verb antonyms take the second place after adjective and adverb antonyms.

Antonyms are used to provide contrastive features of objects, phenomena, or processes. A number of English and Ukrainian idioms, proverbs and sayings are based on obvious or hidden antonymy, e.g.:

Hi tуди, ni сюди (obvious antonymy)

As good, as dead (hidden antonymy)

Antonymy is also used to create *oxymoron*. It is a stylistic figure, which unites two incompatible, opposite notions, like in the following line from a poem by Maxim Rylsky: *Невільників на вільне свято скличе*.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

Semantic Relations and 'nyms in English Lexicon: Some Definitions

(Murphy, M. Lynne. Semantic Relations and the Lexicon. Antonymy, Synonymy, and Other Paradigms. Cambridge University Press, 2003
<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/3e24/b9df85aa6b0949ec096c19c1ec3fbc9e3419.pdf>)

So far, the topic of study has been described as “paradigmatic semantic relations among words”. In the literature, these relations are usually called “lexical relations” or “semantic relations”, and sometimes those two terms are used contrastively.

The common element, “relation”, is fairly vague, but in its most basic use, it describes co-membership in a definable set. So, for example, *sky* and *high* are related in that they are members of the set of English words that rhyme with *eye*.

“Relation” is also used to distinguish the types of definitional criteria that define such a set. So, the relation between *sky*, *high*, and *eye* is the rhyme relation (i.e., the criterion for membership in the relational set is similarity of word-final sounds).

For our purposes, “relation” can stand for “paradigmatic” relation, in which the set of words forms some sort of paradigm, such as a semantic paradigm that contains members of the same grammatical category that share some semantic characteristics in common, but fail to share others. So, for example, the set of basic colour terms forms a paradigm whose members are adjectives (or nouns), each referring to a different section of the colour spectrum.

Not all paradigms are semantically defined, of course. Inflectional paradigms, for instance, include the possible variations of a lexical item in some inflectional category, such as number. So a morphological paradigmatic relation exists between *child* and *children*.

Paradigmatically related words are, to some degree, grammatically substitutable for each other. For example, *blue*, *black*, and any other

member of the colour paradigm can sensibly and grammatically occur in the phrase *a ____ chair*. In this way, paradigmatic relations stand in contrast to “syntagmatic relations”, which are relations between words that go together in a syntactic structure. For example, we can speak of a syntagmatic relation between *eat* and *dinner*.

The two types of relation are not always easy to distinguish, although the rule for distinguishing them is that paradigmatic relations hold between members of the same grammatical category, while syntagmatic relations involve members of different grammatical categories.

For present purposes, it makes sense to use the term “semantic relations” to indicate relations defined by semantic paradigms – but not before issuing some caveats. The term “semantic relations” is sometimes used to denote phrasal or sentential relations, such as paraphrase, entailment, and contradiction, but here it should be understood to mean “paradigmatic semantic relations among words”.

Given the pragmatic perspective taken here and the fact that non-semantic factors may affect these so-called “semantic relations”, one might argue that they should be called “pragmatic relations”. But that term misses the point that even if non-semantic factors (such as phonetic form or register) come into play in antonymy or synonymy, the most basic requirement is semantic relatedness. Non-semantic factors may affect judgments of how well a set of, say, synonymous words exemplifies the synonym relation, but the meanings of the words make or break the relation.

The term “lexical relation” is used here to indicate any paradigmatic relation among words, not just a semantic relation. So, lexical relations include phonetic relations (such as rhyme or alliteration), morphological relations (such as inflectional variation), and morpho-syntactic relations (such as co-membership in a grammatical category).

Again, a caveat is in order. The term “lexical relation” is ambiguous, in that it could refer to relations among words (on a page, in a mind, or wherever they might exist) or to relations (among lexical items) within the mental lexicon. For some authors, the two meanings are interchangeable, since they hold (or assume) that if words are related, then that relation is represented in the lexicon.

However, I take the position that relations among words are not among the types of information about words that can be represented in the lexicon. This position contrasts with that of, for example, Derek Gross, Ute Fischer, and George A. Miller (1989). They distinguish between

antonym pairs like *big / little* and other semantically opposed pairs, such as *gigantic / tiny*, claiming that the former are lexical antonyms (i.e., intra-lexically related) as well as conceptual opposites (semantically related), while the latter are only conceptually opposed. For them, this means that the *big / little* contrast must be represented in the mental lexicon, but the relation between *gigantic* and *tiny* is not a part of those words' representation in the lexicon. In the context of the term "lexical relations" in this book, "lexical" should only be assumed to mean 'involving words' rather than 'contained in the mental lexicon.' The term "intra-lexical" indicates that a structure or piece of lexical information is contained within the lexicon. "Meta-lexical" indicates information that is not contained in the lexicon, even though it may be information about words.

The main relations discussed here are exemplified as follows:

synonymy: *sofa = couch = divan = davenport*

antonymy: *good / bad, life / death, come / go*

contrast: *sweet / sour / bitter / salty, solid / liquid / gas*

hyponymy, or class inclusion: *cat < mammal < animal*

meronymy, or the part-whole relation: *line < stanza < poem*

The equals sign (=) is used to indicate **synonymy**. The slash (/) between members of antonym or contrast sets signifies the semantic incompatibility of the contrasting words. **Antonymy** is a subtype of **contrast**, in that it is contrast within a binary paradigm. While the term "antonymy" is sometimes reserved for more specific relations, it is used here for any binary semantic contrast among lexical items (whereas "opposite" is used more broadly here, not limited to contrast between linguistic expressions).

The "less than" sign (<) in the **hyponymy** and **meronymy** examples indicates that these relations are hierarchical and asymmetrical. That is, *stanza* is a meronym of *poem*, but *poem* is not a meronym of *stanza*. The converse relations of hyperonymy and holonymy can be represented by the "more than" sign (>), as a *poem* > *stanza* (i.e., *poem* is the holonym of *stanza*). For example, *cat* does not have the same relation to *mammal* (*cat* < *mammal*) as *mammal* has to *cat* (*mammal* > *cat*). In one direction, it is a relation between a category and its superordinate category, and in the other, it is a relation between a category and its subordinate.

On the other hand, synonymy, antonymy, and contrast are **non-hierarchical** relations, and are usually characterized as **symmetric** relations in that the relation between, say, *couch* and *sofa* is not distinguishable from the relation between *sofa* and *couch*. Thus, we can

say that *couch* and *sofa* are synonyms of each other, but cannot say that *cat* and *mammal* are hyponyms of each other. *Cat* is a **hyponym** of *mammal*, and *mammal* is a **hyperonym** of *cat*. Similarly, *meronym* is a unidirectional term, so that *stanza* is a **meronym** of *poem*, but *poem* is the **holonym** of *stanza*.

While John Lyons (1977) and others discuss “co-hyponymy” and others write of “co-meronymy”, these two relation types can just as well be considered contrast sets. So, *eyes / nose / mouth* could be considered a contrast set or a set of co-meronyms of *face*, and likewise *sonnet / ballad / ode* are a contrast set or co-hyponyms of *poem*.

Other relations, such as morphological or phonetic relations and undefined relations, are indicated by a dash (-). Not all semantic relations are discussed in this book. For example, **case relations**, like that between *author* and *book*, are disregarded even though they are relevant to some theories of intra-lexical organization (e.g., Meaning-Text Theory). Some miscellaneous paradigmatic relations are briefly discussed in chapter 6, but the attention here is to those relations that have been central in discussions of lexical semantics.

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Text 2

The Study of Semantic Relations: Similar and Divergent

Features

(Chaffin, R. & Herrmann, J. D. The Similarity and Diversity of Semantic Relations. Born, D., Arsentieva E., Fussell, G. & Polkina, G. English Lexicology)

There is a rich variety of semantic relations in natural languages. Subjects’ perceptions of similarities among relations were studied for a wider variety of relations than had been used in previous studies. A hierarchical clustering analysis of the sorting data indicated that the subjects perceived five families of semantic relations (contrasts, class inclusion, similars, case relations, and part-wholes). The five families were

distinguished in terms of three properties of semantic relations: contrasting / noncontrasting, logical / pragmatic, and inclusion / noninclusion. Within each family, relations also were sorted in ways consistent with their defining properties. Relations were therefore viewed not as unanalyzable primitives, but in terms of the relational properties that distinguished them.

Semantic relations between concepts are basic components of language and thought (Волкова 2006, Искаринова 1987, Котцова 2010, Кочерган 2006, Рибалка 2009, Руколяньська 2007, Чорна 2009, Bierwisch 1970, Leech 1974, Miller 1969, Miller & Johnson Laird 1976, Palermo 1978).

Relying on associative and introspective data, Wundt identified and classified a wide range of relations. Wundt recognized two general classes: outer associations (part-wholes, word sequences) and inner associations (categorical relationships, similars, coordination, causal relations).

More recently, Anderson (1976), Kintsch (1980), Smith (1977) have been directly concerned with the study of semantic relations in two related areas: the development of general models of semantic memory and the study of semantic decisions. In both areas, research has focused on a limited number of relations, and the similarities between relationships have not been explored.

General models of semantic memory have been developed to account for the comprehension and representation of propositional knowledge by Anderson (1976), Norman & Rumelhart (1975). In these models, information is represented by a network of labeled relations between nodes that stand for concepts. Relations serve as unanalyzed, primitive terms; consequently, their number has been restricted in the interest of economy. As a result, only a fraction of the total number of relations in the English language have been considered.

The scope and power of current models would be enhanced by encompassing the wider range of relations considered by earlier generations of psychologists. Semantic decision tasks have been used primarily to explore hypotheses about the processes involved in the perception of relations between concepts. In a typical experiment, subjects are timed as they decide whether or not two words exemplify a particular target relation (e.g., *Is a "robin" a "bird"?*). These studies have also been limited to a few relations, primarily class inclusion, although some attention has been given to synonymy and antonymy and to the part-whole relation (Chaffin, Herrmann, & Andrews 1981).

The variety of relations is important both to general models of comprehension and to semantic decision models. For general models of comprehension, the differences among relations are important because relations differ in their logical properties and in the inferences that they permit. For example, contrary (*sweet – sour*) and contradictory (*married – unmarried*) opposition differ in that contrary opposition admits of degrees, for example, *very sweet*, whereas contradictory opposition does not for example, *very married*.

For decision models (Kintsch 1980, Smith 1977), the differences among relations are important because each relation might be expected to call into play a unique set of decision criteria (Herrmann 1979). For example, class inclusion decisions, it has been suggested, are based on criteria for inclusion (McCloskey & Glucksberg 1979), whereas antonym decisions require an evaluation of the nature of the opposition (Herrmann, Chaffin, Daniel, & Russo 1981).

Once the diversity of relations is noted, it is apparent that relations vary in their similarity to each other. For example, there appears to be a family of contrast relations that have more in common with each other than they do with other relations (contradictories: *alive – dead*; contraries: *hot – cold*; directionals: *above – below*; reverses: *buy – sell*; incompatibles; *frank – hypocritical*) (Bolinger & Sears 1981, Kempson 1977). These family resemblances must be accounted for by models of semantic memory. Relation similarity has been found to affect performance in semantic decision tasks (Chaffin, Herrmann & Andrews 1981, Chaffin, Russo & Herrmann 1981), restricted association tasks (Perfetti 1967, Riegel & Riegel 1963), and ratings of conformity to a target relation (Chaffin & Herrmann 1981).

The purpose of the present research was to develop an empirically based account of similarities among relations for a wider range of relations than previous research had done. An A Priori Taxonomy of Semantic Relations Inspection of earlier classification schemes suggests the existence of five main families of relations: contrast, class inclusion, similars, case relations, and part-whole relations (Flavell & Flavell 1959, Miller 1969, Perfetti 1967, Riegel & Riegel 1963, Whitehurst 1979, Wundt 1893). The agreement on these five families is not unanimous; for example, some classification schemes group class inclusion with part-whole relations whereas others do not (Aschoffenburg, Kraepelin 1921).

These five families, nevertheless, provide an a priori framework within which the relations selected for the study will be described. The

relations selected include most of the relations mentioned in earlier classification schemes, together with others found in the work of linguists and philosophers. In addition, we distinguished several types of part-whole relation.

Contrast. This family consists of relations in which the meaning of one term contrasts, opposes, or contradicts the other term (Bolinger & Sears 1981, Cruse 1976, Kempson 1977, Leech 1974). This class includes four types of antonym relation and three types of relations involving opposition that is not generally regarded as antonymous.

“Contradictory antonyms” are terms opposed dichotomously, e.g., *alive* – *dead*. “Contrary antonyms” are opposed symmetrically on a continuous dimension, e.g., *hot* – *cold* are equally opposed temperatures. “Directional antonyms” are concepts opposed in time or space, e.g., *before* – *after*, *above* – *below*. “Reverse antonyms”, sometimes called converses, represent opposed actions, e.g., *buy* – *sell*. Of the relations not normally regarded as antonymous, asymmetric contraries are opposed on a continuous dimension but, as the term indicates, asymmetrically, e.g., *hot* – *cool*; the imperfect symmetry is the reason the relationship is not generally regarded as antonymic (Katz 1972). “Incompatibles” are terms in which the denotative meaning of one term is opposed to only part of the denotative meaning of the other term; for example, *frank* is incompatible with *hypocritical* in that hypocrisy involves dishonesty, whereas frankness involves both honesty and outspokenness. Because the opposition does not involve the full denotative meaning of these terms, they are not antonyms. “Pseudo-antonyms” are so called because their opposition is based on a connotative meaning of one term; for example, *popular* and *shy* are opposed because popularity connotes extroversion, which is denotatively opposed to shyness (Herrmann et al. 1979).

Similar. This family consists of terms that overlap in denotative meaning, connotative meaning, or both. The best known of these relations is synonymy, in which terms have the same denotation, e.g., *car* – *auto* (Herrmann 1978). “Dimensional similarity” involves denotative agreement that is not sufficient for synonymy but that occurs at adjacent points on a common dimension, e.g., *laugh* – *smile* (Flavell & Flavell 1959). Another relation in this family is “attribute similarity”, in which salient attributes of one term resemble those of another, e.g., *rake* – *fork* (Perfetti 1967). The above similarity relations require terms to be in the same form class. Necessary attribution, in contrast, involves a term and a defining attribute of the term, e.g., *lemon* – *sour* (Flavell & Flavell 1959).

Class inclusion. Relations in this family involve one term whose denotative meaning subsumes that of the other term. Unlike the other relation families, there are no precedents or clear logical grounds for distinguishing different types of class inclusion relations. Nevertheless, six types were included in the present study so that the class inclusion relation should be as well represented as the other major relations.

We distinguished the six types through the kind of information that forms the basis for the inclusion relation. “Perceptual subordinates” are objects that are principally characterized by their visible, physical properties, e.g., *animal – horse*. “Functional subordinates” are objects that are principally characterized by their functions, e.g., *vehicle – car*. “State subordinates and geographical subordinates” involve, respectively, states, e.g., *emotion – fear* and places, e.g., *country–Ukraine*. “Activity subordinates and action subordinates” involve activities, e.g., *game – chess* and actions, e.g., *cook – fry*, respectively.

Case relations. The relations involved in predication or attribution have been variously described as case, syntactic, and syntagmatic relations (Fillmore 1968, Flavell & Flavell 1959). These relations have played a central role in network models of propositional knowledge, in which the assignment of default values to cases of verbs has provided a powerful tool for explaining inferences (Rumelhart & Ortony 1977). For example, a typical agent for the activity of barking is *a dog*; the agent-action relation is exemplified by pairs such as *do – bark*.

Often, agents have instruments that they typically use; *farmer – tractor* is an example of the agent-instrument relationship. Likewise, there are often typical objects of an agent's activity; *plumber – pipes* is an example of the agent-object relation. A typical recipient of sweeping is the floor; the action-recipient relation is represented by pairs such as *sweep – floor*. The action-instrument relation is represented by, for example, *cut – knife*.

Part-wholes. The relations in this family involve inclusion that is pragmatic rather than necessary, as is the case with class inclusion. The relations selected were derived freely from the literature on the part-whole relation (Lyons 1977, Miller & Johnson Laird 1976).

Parts of functional objects are distinguished by the fact that they must be in a particular spatial and functional configuration in order to play their proper roles in the functioning of the whole, e.g., *airplane – wing*.

Parts of functional locations, in contrast, are less restricted in the spatial relations they can have to other parts of the whole, e.g., *kitchen – refrigerator*.

Spatial inclusion is also a characteristic of places and their parts, but in this case, the inclusion is criterial and the function of the parts is irrelevant to the relation, e.g., *Germany – Hamburg*.

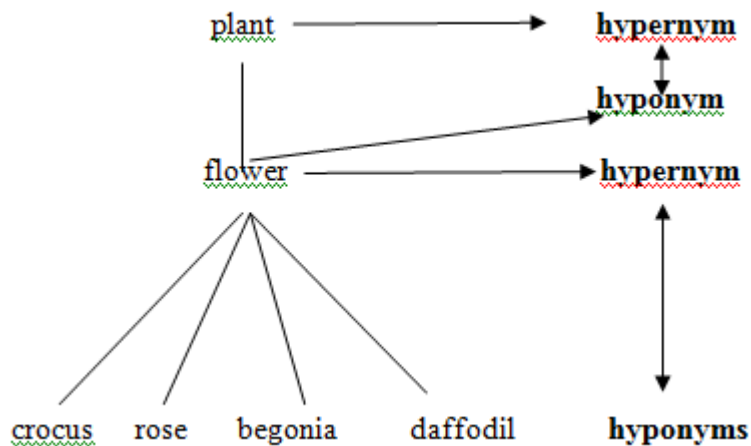
For organizations, spatial inclusion is irrelevant; parts are related to the whole by their organizational status and by their function, e.g., *college – admissions office*.

The preceding part-whole relations involve wholes that have heterogeneous parts. Two other part-whole relations involve parts that are homogeneous. Items in a collection are all similar to each other and are part of the whole merely by virtue of being close to one another, e.g., *tree – forest*. Groups are similar to collections of objects, except that members of groups are animate and the criteria for membership involve a social transaction rather than mere spatial proximity, e.g., *faculty – professor*.

Two additional part-whole relations differ from the others in that their parts are not readily distinguishable or separable from one another. Ingredients cannot be separated readily from the whole, e.g., *pizza – cheese*, and units of measure, e.g., *mile – foot* also merge one with another.

The second kind of semantic relation is **hyponymy**, a relation of inclusion. “A hyponym is a word whose meaning is included, or entailed, in the meaning of a more general word” (Denham & Lobeck 2010: 298). Hyponymy shows the relationship between a generic term (hypernym) and a specific instance of it (hyponym).

A **hyponym** is a word or phrase whose semantic field is more specific than its hypernym. The semantic field of a **hypernym**, also known as “a superordinate”, is broader than that of a hyponym. An approach to the relationship between hyponyms and hypernyms is to view a hypernym as consisting of hyponyms. Hyponymy may be explained as the relation between specific and general lexemes and phrases; for example, *house* is a hyponym of *building*. Georgios Tserdanelis and Wai Yi Peggy Wong view this relation as “the loss of specificity” (2004: 225). It indicates moving from specific (*a rose, tulip, and petunia*) to general (*flower*). The relationship between the lexemes can be seen in the diagram:



Flower and *plant* are super-ordinate terms, or hypernyms. *Flower* is the hypernym for *crocus*, *rose*, *begonia*, and *daffodil*, and it is also a hyponym of *plant*. *Flower* is superior to *crocus*, *rose*, *begonia*, and *daffodil*, but *flower* is inferior to *plant* at the same time.

It should be noted that not all lexemes have hypernyms; for example, *nightclub* or *balloon* may not have hypernyms other than vague names, such as *a place* and *a thing*. Sometimes, it is difficult to assign hypernyms to abstract nouns.

According to George A. Miller (1998), like other semantic relations, hyponymy can be subdivided into two subtypes: **taxonomic** and **functional**. Taxonomies are classification systems. Taxonomic relation can be illustrated in the following example: *cow* is in a taxonomic relation to *animal*, but *cow* is in a functional relation to *livestock* (a *cow* functions as *livestock*). However, functional relation is not necessarily a logical relation because not every *cow* is *livestock*, and not every *knife* is a *weapon*.

Hypernyms and hyponyms are asymmetric. Hyponymy can be tested by substituting *X* and *Y* in the sentence “*X* is a kind of *Y*” and determining if it makes sense. For example, *A screwdriver is a kind of tool* makes sense but not *A tool is a kind of screwdriver*.

Strictly speaking, the meaning relation between hyponyms and hypernyms applies to lexical items of the same word class (or parts of speech), and holds between senses rather than words. For instance, the word *screwdriver* used in the previous example refers to ‘the tool for turning a screw’, and not to ‘the drink made with soda and orange juice’.

Hyponymy is a **transitive relation**, if *X* is a hyponym of *Y*, and *Y* is a hyponym of *Z*, then *X* is a hyponym of *Z*. For example, *violet* is a hyponym of *purple* and *purple* is a hyponym of *colour*; therefore *violet* is a hyponym of *colour*. A word can be both a hypernym and a hyponym; for

example *purple* is a hyponym of *colour* but itself is a hypernym of the broad spectrum of shades of purple between the range of *crimson* and *violet*.

The hierarchical structure of semantic fields can be mostly seen in hyponymy. They could be observed from top to bottom, where the higher level is more general and the lower level is more specific. For example, *living things* will be the highest level followed by *plants* and *animals*, and the lowest level may comprise *dog*, *cat*, and *wolf*.

Under the relations of hyponymy and incompatibility, taxonomic hierarchical structures too can be formed. It consists of two relations; the first one being exemplified in “An X is a Y” (simple hyponymy) while the second relation is “An X is a kind / type of Y”. The second relation is said to be more discriminating and can be classified more specifically under the concept of taxonomy

If the hypernym Z consists of hyponyms X and Y, X and Y are identified as co-hyponyms. Co-hyponyms are labelled as such when separate hyponyms share the same hypernym but are not hyponyms of one another, unless they happen to be synonymous. For example, *screwdriver*, *scissors*, *knife*, and *hammer* are all co-hyponyms of one another and hyponyms of *tool*, but not hyponyms of one another: “A hammer is a type of knife” is false.

Co-hyponyms are often but not always related to one another by the relation of incompatibility. For example, *apple*, *peach*, and *plum* are co-hyponyms of *fruit*. However, an *apple* is not a *peach*, which is also not a *plum*. Thus, they are incompatible. Nevertheless, co-hyponyms are not necessarily incompatible in all senses. A *queen* and *mother* are both hyponyms of *woman* but there is nothing preventing the *queen* from being a *mother*. This shows that compatibility may be relevant.

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Thematic Module 2

CONTRASTIVE TYPOLOGY OF ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN PHRASEOLOGY

Theme 6

Phraseology and its Basic Unit

6.1 English and Ukrainian Phraseology from Historical Perspective

The term “phraseology” (Greek *phrasis* ‘way of speaking’ and *logia* ‘study of’) denotes the youngest branch of linguistics (or a subfield of Lexicology). Linguists are not unanimous in their opinions about phraseology: how it should be defined, classified, described, and analyzed.

As a scholarly approach to language, phraseology developed in the 20th century. Professor O. Schachmatov (1864–1920) in his book “Syntax of the Russian Language” (Шахматов 1925; 1927) paid attention to such phrases with fixed componential structures and meanings which are not predictable from the meanings of their components.

French linguist Ch. Bally (1865–1947) in his book “Précis de Stylistique” (1905) introduced the notion of “locutions phraseologiques” (‘phraseological phrases’) into Lexicology and Lexicography and used the term “unité phraséologique” (‘phraseological unit’), which led to the term “frazeologhizm” with the same meaning, and then subsequently borrowed by different languages belonging to the European culture.

The earliest studies of Phraseology in the former Soviet Union were performed by Academician V. Vinogradov (1894–1969) who used the term “phraseological unit” (‘фразеологическая единица’) and elaborated the semantic classification of phraseological units (Виноградов 1977).

The study of English set-phrases on a scientific basis was initiated by Professor O. Kunin (1909–1996) whose dictionary of English idioms (1955) has valuable information in this branch of linguistics.

Beginning with the late 1960^s, phraseology has established itself in German linguistics but was also occasionally touched upon in English linguistics. The earliest English adaptations of phraseology are done by Uriel Weinreich (1926–1967), a Polish-American linguist, and Leonhard Lipka (1938–2019), Professor of English Linguistics from Frankfurt, within the approach of transformational grammar.

In Great Britain, as well as other Western European countries, Phraseology has steadily been developed. The activities of the European Society of Phraseology (EUROPHRAS) and the European Association for Lexicography (EURALEX) with their regular publications attest to the prolific European interest in Phraseology. English and American linguists collect various words, word-groups, other units presenting some interest and describe them as idioms. But in English and American linguistics no special branch of study exists, and the term “phraseology” has mainly a stylistic meaning. According to Webster's dictionary, phraseology is a mode of expression, peculiarities of diction, i.e. choice and arrangement of words and phrases characteristic of some author or some literary work.

Stefan Th. Gries (born 1970), Professor of linguistics in the Department of Linguistics at the University of California, Santa Barbara, identifies a set of parameters that are typically implicated in phraseological research (Gries 2008):

1) the nature of the elements involved in a phraseologism (lexical and grammatical items);

2) the number of elements involved in a phraseologism;

3) the number of times an expression must be observed before it counts as a phraseologism;

4) the permissible distance between the elements involved in a phraseologism (immediately adjacent elements, discontinuous phraseologisms);

5) the degree of lexical and syntactic flexibility of the elements involved (completely inflexible patterns, standardly quoted as *by and large*, relatively flexible patterns such as *kick the bucket*, which allows different tenses but, e.g., no passivization);

6) the role that semantic unity and semantic non-compositionality / non-predictability play in the definition (function as a semantic unit in sentence or clause).

In Ukraine, the term “phraseology” designates the discipline as well as its object, the set or totality of phraseological units in a given language. According to the origin of phraseologisms, a line has been drawn between two areas of investigation, namely, linguistic phraseology understood as a community's means of expression and literary phraseology including aphorisms, witticism, word combinations with an accidental character, belonging to certain writers, outstanding people.

The founder of Ukrainian phraseology is considered to be outstanding Ukrainian linguist O. Potebnya (1835–1891) who studied all

set-phrases proverbs, sayings, constant combinations of words, which subsequently began to be nominated in linguistic literature as “phraseologisms”, “idioms”, “phraseological units”, etc. (Потебня 1930). V. Uzhchenko (1935–2010) and D. Uzhchenko, well-known Ukrainian researchers of the phraseological level of the language, emphasize that the emergence and use of phraseology is conditioned by a constant idea of lexical insufficiency, an attempt to verbalize human emotions, implied in cognitive models of the state of mind (УЖЧЕНКО & УЖЧЕНКО 1998).

Thus, the word “phraseology” has very different meanings in Ukraine and in Great Britain or the United States. While the notion of “phraseology” is a very widespread concept, different authors define it differently, sometimes do not provide a clear-cut definition, or conflate several terms that many scholars prefer to distinguish. But it is due to the expansive research in foreign and domestic linguistics that phraseology has been established as a branch of linguistic science in its own right, as an autonomous discipline, the object of research of which consists in phraseological units (or idioms in American linguistics) of a given language (or a group of languages).

6.2 Basic Unit of English and Ukrainian Phraseology and its Distinguishing Features

The aim of Phraseology is the study of set or fixed expressions, such as idioms, phrasal verbs and other types of multi-word lexical units, the meaning of which is different from the meanings of the component parts. For example, *Dutch auction* is composed of the words *Dutch* ‘of or pertaining to the Netherlands’ and *auction* ‘a public sale in which goods are sold to the highest bidder’, but its meaning is not ‘a sale in the Netherlands where goods are sold to the highest bidder’. Instead, the phrase has a conventionalized meaning referring to ‘any auction where, instead of rising, the prices fall’.

Since 1905, when French linguist Charles Bally (1865–1947) in his book “*Précis de Stylistique Française*” (1905) introduced the notion of “locutions phraseologiques” (‘phraseological phrases’) into Lexicology and Lexicography and used the term “*unité phraséologique*” (‘phraseological unit’), which led to the term “*frazeologhizm*” with the same meaning, Phraseology has entered the sphere of linguistics becoming established as a self-contained linguistic discipline.

As a scholarly approach to the study of language, Phraseology attracted attention of a number of scholars in Ukraine (L. Avksentiev, M. Zhovtotbryuh, S. Shevchuk, N. Shkuratyna, L. Skrypnyk, O. Potebnya, Yu. Pradid, V. Uzhchenko, D. Uzhchenko, H. Udovychenko, etc.) who developed the ideas of the earliest studies of Phraseology in the former Soviet Union (N. Amosova, O. Kunin, O. Schachmatov, A. Smirnitsky, V. Vinogradov, etc.), in British and American linguistics (W. Chafe, Ch. Fernando, R. Gläser, S. Gries, R. Jackendoff, G. Nunberg, I. Sag, T. Wasow, U. Weinreich, etc.).

Phraseology forms a special subsystem in the vocabulary system, the units of which are called differently by different linguists (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1).

British and American scholars designate such units “**idioms**”, e.g., Logan Pearsall Smith “Words and Idioms” (1925), Vere H. Collins “A Book of English Idioms” (1985), etc. (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

In Ukraine, the generally accepted term is “**phraseological unit**” (or “**phraseologism**”), which denotes a fixed, non-motivated word-group consisting of two or more words that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a ready-made unit and characterized by the stability of its meaning, structure and function, e.g., *Black Death, to show one's teeth, де раки зимують, під мухою, наріжний камінь*, etc.

As different linguists have different opinions of what a phraseological unit is, they indisputably have different opinions about the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units, which causes terminological confusion due to the usage of other terms, such as: “idioms”, “set phrases”, and “word equivalents”. These terms cannot be used interchangeably, each of the term highlighting a specific feature of the phenomenon under study.

The term “**idiom**” is mostly applied to phraseological units with completely transferred meanings, i.e. to the ones in which the meaning of the whole unit does not correspond to the meanings of its components. The term “idiom” generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units under consideration is idiomaticity or lack of motivation.

Idiomaticity means that the meaning of the whole phrase is not deducible from the meanings of its component parts, i.e. it is completely transferred, e.g., *red tape, tit for tat, heads or tails*, etc.

Lack of motivation means that the meaning of the whole phrase can be deducible from the meaning of at least one of its component parts, i.e. it is partially transferred, e.g., *as busy as a bee*, *as sly as a fox*, etc.

The term “**set phrase**” emphasizes the fixed componential structure implying that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups, e.g., *to be in a family way* ‘to be a member of the family’ and *to be in the family way* ‘to be pregnant’, i.e. no word within a phraseological unit can be replaced by its synonym, antonym, or hyponym.

Lexical and grammatical stability means that the usage of a phraseological unit is not subject to free variations, and grammatical structure of phraseological units is also stable to a certain extent, i.e. no component of a phrase can be omitted or replaced by another one, e.g., *red tape* NOT *red tapes*. Stability makes phraseological units more similar to words, rather than free word combinations, because no substitution of any element of a set-phrase is possible in the stereotyped set expressions, which differ in many other respects, e.g., *all the world and his wife*, *first night*, *to gild the pill*, *to hope for the best*, *as busy as a bee*, *fair and square*, *stuff and non sense*, *time and again*, *to and fro*, etc.

The term “**word-equivalent**” stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word-groups, their reproducibility, i.e. their aptness to function in speech as single words, unchangeable, ready-made collocations, e.g., *to kick the bucket* ‘to die’, *to pull one’s leg* ‘to deceive’, *an elephant in a china shop* ‘a clumsy person’, *to make a clean breast of* ‘to confess’, *to get on one’s nerves* ‘to irritate’, etc.

Thus, the habitual terms “idioms”, “set-phrases”, and “word-equivalents” reflect to certain extent the main debatable points of Phraseology which centre in the divergent views concerning the nature and essential features of phraseological units as distinguished from the so-called free word-groups.

Phraseological units are distinguished from free word-groups, which are formed on definite lexico-grammatical patterns that are generative, i.e. any word in a phrase may be replaced by its synonym or hyponym, e.g., **brave** (*courageous, valiant, fearless, bold*) **man** (*woman, boy*).

Phraseological unit, as defined by O. Kunin (Кунин 1996), is a set expression with semantic complexity which is not formed on a generative pattern of a free phrase; the pattern of a phraseological unit is that of description, e.g., *to kick the bucket*, *Greek gift*, *drink till all’s blue*, *drunk as a fiddler / as a lord / as a boiled owl*, *as mad as a hatter / as a March hare*, etc.

Cf. another definition: “A phraseological unit can be defined as a reproduced and idiomatic (non-motivated) or partially motivated unit built up according to the model of free word-groups (or sentences) and semantically and syntactically brought into correlation with words” (Кругликова 2016: 53).

Consider *to burn one's fingers* as a set-phrase and a free phrase.

Their common features are as follows:

- both are word-phrases;
- both are made up of the same words;
- both are characterized by structural separability.

Their different features are as follows:

- free-phrase is applied to people or animals; set-phrase is applied only to people;
- in the free-phrase, literal meaning of every component denotes something painful; in the set-phrase, figurative meaning is based on metaphoric transference of meaning;
- free-phrase is made up on the generative lexico-grammatical pattern; set-phrase is made up on the pattern of description;
- free-phrase is not registered in dictionaries as a language unit; set-phrase is fixed both in general and phraseological dictionaries.

According to the theory of prof. O. Kunin (Кунин 1996), phraseological units have three main parameters (*Figure 6.1*):

1. Phraseological units are language units, their characteristic feature is semantic complexity, i.e. full and partial transference of meaning, e.g., *to burn one's fingers* is used figuratively, it is a metaphor based on the similarity of action.

2. Structural separability and semantic cohesion, e.g., *to kick the bucket* ‘to die’, *Tom, Dick, and Harry* ‘перший-ліпший’.

3. A phraseological unit is never formed on a generative pattern of a free word-combination, one cannot predict the formation of a phraseological unit; the patterns in phraseology are of some other character; they are patterns of description (unpredictable). The most common patterns of English and Ukrainian idioms are: Adj + N, e.g., *white elephant*, *біла ворона*, etc.; V + N, e.g., *to pull sb's leg*, *вставати не на ту ногу*, etc. There are grammatical patterns (noun phrases, verbal phrases, etc.), semantic patterns (metaphoric and metonymic formation).

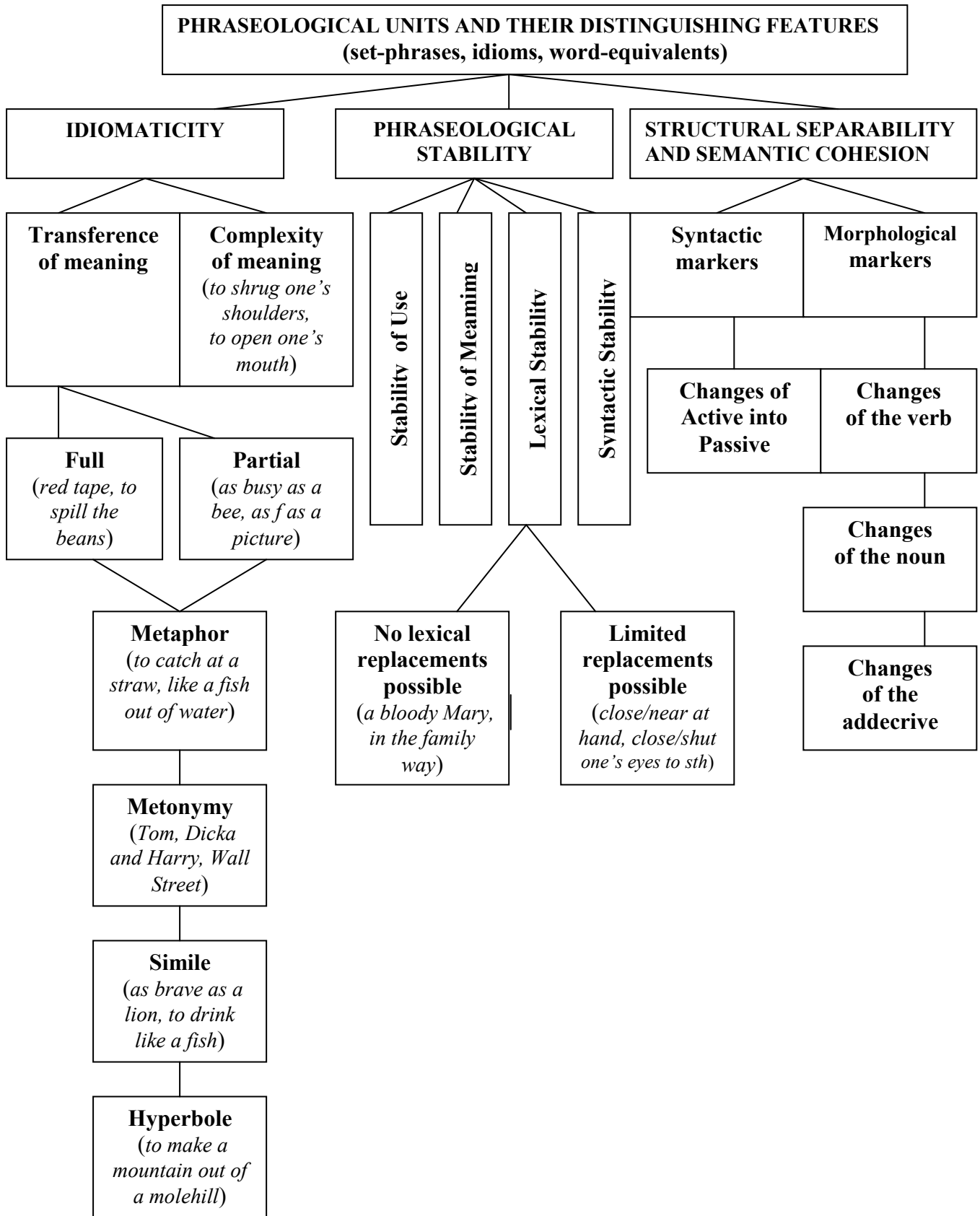


Figure 6.1. Phraseological Units and their Distinguishing Features

The characteristic features of phraseological units are:

- readymade reproduction,
- structural divisibility,
- morphological stability,
- permanence of lexical composition,
- semantic unity,
- syntactic fixity.

The most distinguishing feature of phraseological units is **phraseological stability** which might roughly correspond to another term “idiomaticity” used by English and American linguists.

By “idiomaticity” they mean two essential features of phraseological units – stability of lexical components and lack of motivation. Mainly on the basis of the second feature, the definition of an idiom given in the Concise Oxford Dictionary is formed: “Idiom <...> peculiarity of phraseology approved by usage, though having meaning not deducible from those of the separate words” (1982 : 495).

Phraseological stability may be called **macrostability**, which is made up of several **microstabilities**:

- stability of use;
- stability of meaning;
- lexical stability.

The **stability of use** of phraseological units means that they are:

- reproduced ready-made;
- registered in dictionaries as language units;
- handed down from generation to generation;
- public property, not private.

The **stability of meaning** of phraseological units means either transference of meaning (full or partial) or complexity of meaning (see *Figure 6.1*).

Full transference of meaning occurs when the meaning is non-motivated, figurative, not equal to the literal meaning of every component. The main types of full transference of meaning are:

→ metaphor, which is a hidden comparison based on different types of similarity:

a) similarity of position, e.g., *like a fish out of water; a bull in a China shop, на козаку нема знаку, сидіти на двох стільцях*, etc.;

b) similarity of action, e.g., *to wash one's dirty linen in public, to pay through the nose, ховати очі, поставити на ноги, прикусити язика, наступити на горло, мати зуб на когось, кинути якір*, etc.;

c) similarity of shape and / or function, e.g., *a rising star, a blue stocking, синя панчоха, важкий тягар, білими нитками шитий, під мухою*, etc.;

→ metonymy, which is more realistic; it is based on contiguity of meaning, e.g., *Tom, Dick and Harry; Wall Street; to be all ears; to count by the noses; a blind hand; Jack Ketch 'hangman', Tom Pepper 'great liar', Tom Tailor 'tailor', Tom Thumb 'a small man, a Lilliputian', Nosy Parker 'людина, що втручається / суне ніс не в свої справи'*, etc. Similarly in Ukrainian: *Герострат, Ксантипа 'сварлива Сократова дружина', Макар Касян 'ненажера', Чалий 'підступна, зрадлива людина'*, etc.;

→ hyperbole, which is often present in metaphors because it has the elements of exaggeration, e.g., *a sea of troubles, to make a mountain out of mole-hill, to drop in ocean, ocean of time, ніде курці клюнути, всі дороги ведуть до Риму, з'їсти пуд солі*, etc.

Partial transference occurs when at least one of the components has a literal meaning; this happens in similes, e.g., *as brave as a lion, to drink like a fish, to sleep like a log, to eat like a horse, as sly as a fox, as old as hills, like a dog with two tails, язиката Хвеська, сердешна Оксана, від щирого серця, дужий як віл, як на долоні*, etc.

Complexity of meaning occurs when the meaning of the components is literal, there is no transference of meaning, but some additional information is given, e.g., *to lay down one's arms, to shrug one's shoulders, to clench one's teeth, to show one's teeth, not to raise a finger, підставити плече, тримати язик за зубами, гнути спину*, etc.

Stability of meaning of phraseological units does not mean that the meaning of phraseological units doesn't change, e.g., *to give up the ghost* 'to die', now it means 'to stop functioning' being applied to inanimate things, such as trains, cars, etc.

Lexical stability of phraseological units means that their componential structure is fixed, i.e. not any word within a phraseological unit can be replaced into synonym, hyponym, or antonym.

Lexically fixed phraseological units may have:

→ no lexical replacement possible, e.g., *to pay through the nose* 'to pay a very large sum of money', *Tommy Atkins* 'American soldier', *a bloody Mary* 'a drink', *calf love* 'дитяче кохання', *stuff and nonsense* 'дурниці', *to and fro* 'взад і вперед', *time and again* 'вряди – годи', *tit for tat* 'око за око, зуб за зуб', *на бідного Макара всі шишки летять, який Сава, така й слава*, etc. But they may change their grammatical forms, e.g., *He kicked the bucket* ('He died'). Він почув краєм вуха;

→ certain, limited replacements possible, e.g., *close / near at hand, not to stir / raise / lift / turn a finger, to close / shut one's eyes to smth, мені начхати / наплювати, мені по барабану / фіолетово / паралельно*, etc. These are phraseological variants (not synonyms), which are also fixed in the dictionaries, their number is determined, they must be learned.

Structural separability, the term introduced by A. Smirnitsky (Смирницький 1957) means that one of the elements is subjected to morphological change. This problem has been also investigated by N. Amosova (Амосова 1963) and here are some of her examples, where *a skeleton in the cupboard* means ‘a family secret’:

It must be rather fun having a skeleton in the cupboard.

I have skeletons in the cupboard.

Structural separability characterizes phraseological units which are made up of words in the grammatical forms.

The markers of structural separability are:

→ morphological, which are realized in:

a) changes of the verb, e.g., *to burn one's finger (burnt, has burnt, will burn)*;

b) changes of the noun, e.g., *he is pulling my leg (our legs)*;

c) changes of the adjective, e.g., *he is poorer than a church mouse*;

→ morphological and syntactic, e.g., the formation of the Passive Voice *Don't you see that our legs are being pulled?*

→ syntactic, when the structure of the phraseological unit as a whole is different from that of a compound word, e.g., *my God! good Heavens! ‘Слава Богу!’*

It goes without saying that the possibility of a morphological change cannot regularly serve as a distinctive feature because it may take place only in a limited number of set expressions.

6.3 Set-Phrases and Free-Phrases in English and Ukrainian: the Problem of Differentiation

Numerous English dictionaries of idioms contain a wealth of proverbs, sayings, various expressions of all kinds, but, as a rule, they do not seek a reliable criterion to distinguish between free word-groups and phraseological units. The complexity of the problem may be largely accounted for by the fact, that the borderline between free word-groups and phraseological units is not clearly defined.

The so-called “free word-groups” are very close to set-phrases because they are only relatively free, the collocability of their member-words being fundamentally delimited by their lexical and grammatical valency. It should be noted that valency comprises all levels of language – its phonological, syntactic, and lexical levels. Only grammatical and lexical valency will be considered here.

Grammatical valency is the ability of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures. Its range is determined by the part of speech the word belongs to, e.g.:

- V (verb) + N (noun) – *to grow roses (wheat)* ‘to cultivate’;
- V (verb) + V (verb) – *to grow to like* ‘to begin’;
- V (verb) + D (adverb) – *to grow quickly (rapidly)* ‘to increase’;
- V (verb) + A (adjective) – *to grow old (tired, dark)* ‘to become’

This is not to imply that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same part of speech is necessarily identical. This can be best illustrated by comparing the grammatical valency of any two words belonging to the same part of speech, e.g., of the two synonymous verbs *suggest* and *propose*. Both verbs can be followed by a noun (*to propose* or *suggest a plan, a resolution*); it is only *propose*, however, that can be followed by the infinitive of a verb (*to propose to do smth*). The adjectives *clever* and *intelligent* are seen to possess different grammatical valency as *clever* can be used in word-groups having the pattern: A + prep *at* + N (*clever at mathematics*), whereas *intelligent* can never be found in exactly the same word-group pattern.

Thus, it follows that the grammatical valency of each individual word is dependent on the grammatical structure of the language.

Specific linguistic restrictions in the range of grammatical valency of individual words imposed on the lexical units by the inner structure of the language are also observed by comparing the grammatical valency of correlated words in different languages, e.g.:

English	Ukrainian
<i>to go by bus</i>	<i>їхати на автобусі</i>
<i>to go by train</i>	<i>їхати на поїзді</i>
<i>to be keen on sports</i>	<i>захоплюватися спортом</i>

Lexical valency, or collocability, is the aptness of a word to appear in various collocations, i.e. in combinations with other words, which amounts to semantic agreement. Collocability implies the ability of a

lexical unit to combine with other lexical units, with other words or lexical groups. The contexts in which a word is used bring out its distribution and potential collocability, thus the range of lexical valency of words is linguistically determined by the lexical meaning of words, by the compatibility of notions expressed by them and by the inner structure of the language word-stock.

The lexical valency of correlated words in different languages is not identical. For instance, both the English *plant* and Ukrainian *рослина* may be combined with a number of words denoting the place where the flowers are grown, e.g., *garden plants*, *hot-house flowers*, etc. (cf. Ukrainian *садові рослини*, *оранжерейні рослини*, etc.). The English word *plant*, however, cannot enter into combination with the word *room* to denote plants growing in the rooms (cf. *кімнатні рослини* – *pot plants*).

The interrelation of lexical valency and polysemy:

- the restrictions of lexical valency of words may manifest themselves in the lexical meanings of the polysemantic members of word-groups, e.g., *heavy*, adj. in the meaning ‘rich and difficult to digest’ is combined with the words *food*, *meals*, *supper*, etc., but one cannot say *heavy cheese* or *heavy sausage*;

- different meanings of a word may be described through its lexical valency, e.g., the different meanings of *heavy*, adj. may be described through the word-groups, such as:

heavy weight / *book* / *table*;

heavy snow / *storm* / *rain*;

heavy drinker / *eater*;

heavy sleep / *disappointment* / *sorrow*;

heavy industry / *tanks*.

From this point of view, word-groups may be regarded as the characteristic minimal lexical sets that operate as distinguishing clues for each of the multiple meanings of the word.

A detailed analysis of factual material shows that valency in English is broader and more flexible than that in Ukrainian. This fact confronts the translator with additional difficulties, as it enables a writer to use unexpected individual combinations. It follows that valency may be obligatory or non-obligatory and words accordingly fall into two categories: “open”, or discrete words, and “closed”, or non-discrete ones.

Every language has its established valency norms, its types of word combinations, groups of words able to form such combinations. This

especially concerns traditional, obligatory combinations while individual combinations give greater scope to translators.

Individual collocability is by no means arbitrary and must not violate the existing models of valency. As a writer may bring out a potential meaning of some word, he is also able to produce unexpected combinations. Such individual but linguistically justifiable collocations belong to the writer's individual style in the way as his epithets or metaphors and may be regarded as an effective stylistic device, e.g., *шлунок в коматозі* (І. Карпа), *двобій егоїзмів* (Ю. Андрухович).

Words traditionally collocated tend to constitute clichés, e.g., *a bad mistake*, *high hopes*, *heavy sea (rain, snow)*, etc. The translator is to find similar target language clichés, traditional collocations: *груба помилка*, *великі надії*, *бурхливе море*, *сильний дощ (сніг)*. The key word in such collocations is a noun, both semantically and structurally, while the modifying adjective plays a subordinate role. The key word is always preserved in translation but the collocated adjective is rendered by a word possessing a different referential meaning which expresses the same category (in this case – intensity) and corresponds to the target language valency norms. For example:

- a bad mistake* – *груба помилка*;
- a bad headache* – *сильний головний біль*;
- a bed debt* – *неповернений борг*;
- a bad accident* – *важкий нещасний випадок*;
- a bad wound* – *важка рана*;
- a bad egg* – *тухле яйце*;
- a bad apple* – *гниле яблуко*.

It should be noted that words playing a qualifying role may be not only adjectives but also verbs and adverbs, e.g., *trains run* – *поїзди ходять*; *to sit in dry dock* – *стояти в сухому доці*, etc.

The problem of semantic agreement inevitably arises in the translation of phraseological units consisting of a verb of wide meaning and a noun (collocations or set expressions). The verb is practically desemantised and the noun is the semantic centre of the collocation.

The translation of the verb is determined by the law of semantic agreement, e.g.:

- to make tea (coffee)* – *заварювати чай (каву)*;
- to make beds* – *стелити постіль*;
- to make faces* – *корчитим гримаси*;
- to make apologies* – *приносити вибачення*.

Every language possesses regular and compatible collocations.

After a day of heavy selling and in spite of persistent Bank of England support, the pound closed on Monday at a new record low against the United States dollar.

Після того як впродовж усього дня поширено збувалися фунти стерлінгів і, незважаючи на стійку підтримку Англійського банку, до закриття біржі в понеділок курс фунту сягнув рекордно-низького рівня відносно долара.

The richer the semantic volume of a word is, the richer is its collocability which opens up wide translation possibilities.

A detailed analysis of various collocations shows that individual and unexpected collocations in different functional styles are much more frequent in English than in Ukrainian.

Different collocability often calls for lexical and grammatical transformation, e.g., the collocation *a controversial question* may have its equivalent in Ukrainian – ‘спірне питання’, but the collocation *the most controversial Prime Minister* cannot be translated as ‘самий спірний прем’єр-міністр’.

Britain will tomorrow be welcoming on an official visit one of the most controversial and youngest Prime Minister in Europe. – *Завтра до Англії прибуває з офіційним візитом один з наймолодших прем’єр-міністрів Європи, який викликає найсуперечливіші думки.*

Sweden's neutral faith ought not to be in doubt. – *Вірність Швеції нейтралітету не підлягає сумніву.*

A relatively free valency in the English language accounts for the free use of the so-called transferred epithet in which logical and syntactic modifications do not coincide. E.g., *I sat down to a very meditative breakfast.* – *Поринувши в роздуми, я почав снідати.* Logically the adjective *meditative* refers to the subject of the sentence whereas syntactically it is attached to the prepositional object. This unusual attachment converts it into a transferred epithet. The collocation *задумливий сніданок* is hardly possible in Ukrainian.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

The Problem of Definition of Phraseological Unit in Ukrainian Phraseology

From the beginning of the 20th century, various linguists have studied and investigated phraseological units and their properties. There is a certain divergence of opinion as to the essential features of phraseological units as distinguished from other word-groups and the nature of phrases that can be properly termed “phraseological units”; so there are different definitions of the term “phraseological unit”. The first researchers indicated only the motivation and the structural properties.

Academician V. Vinogradov (1894–1969) defined phraseological units as expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (Виноградов 1977).

Professor A. Smirnitsky (1903–1954) regarded them as set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional colouring (Смирницкий 1998).

The opposite approach was expressed by Professor I. Arnold (1908–2010) who considered phraseologisms as imaginative, expressive, and emotional units of the language (Арнольд 1986).

Professor N. Amosova (1911–1966) calls such expressions “fixed context units”, i.e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit, but also of the elements that remain intact (Амосова 1963).

This idea was supported by Professor O. Kunin (1909–1996), who also claimed that phraseological units are stable word-groups with partially or fully transferred meanings (Кунин 1970), e.g., *to kick the bucket*, *Greek gift*, *drink till all's blue*, *drunk as a fiddler* (*drunk as a lord*, *as a boiled owl*), *as mad as a hatter* (*as a march hare*).

In Ukrainian linguistics, O. Potebnya (1835–1891), an outstanding Ukrainian linguist and the founder of Ukrainian phraseology, considered all set combinations of words that differed from other phrases in their specific content to be the object of phraseology (Потебня 1930).

According to M. Zhovtotbryuh (1905–1995), phraseological units are stable word combinations that “are perceived as a whole, as a single

statement or speech pattern, indivisible to individual parts without losing its meaning” (Жовтобрюх 1972 : 71–72).

H. Udovychenko (1917–2003) considers phraseological units as semantically linked and structurally enclosed to minimal syntactic units with a nominative function in a communicative system of language whose semantic structure is not motivated by the lexical meanings of their constant components (Удовиченко 1998). In both oral and written speech, unlike syntactically free phrases, phraseologisms are not constructed in the process of a person’s speech activity but are rather restored as semantic units (Ужченко & Ужченко 1998 : 3).

L. Skrypnyk (1921–2004) defines phraseological units as a semantically bound set of words that are not produced at the moment of conversation but are reproduced as rigid lexico-grammatical units with a firm semantic background (Скрипник 1973 : 165). In addition, the researcher specifies that the phraseological unit is usually referred to as the lexical-grammatical unity of two or more distinctly decorated components, grammatically organized by the model of a phrase or a sentence, which, having integral meaning, is reproduced in the language traditionally, automatically (ibid. : 7; 11).

Another Ukrainian researcher L. Avksentiev (1937–1998) notes that the phraseological unit begins where the semantic independence of its constituent parts ends, that is, it is a stable phrase or expression that is perceived as a whole, as a single expression, as a linguistic conversion, indivisible to separate parts without the loss of meaning. The totality of such units in the language comprises its phraseological system (Авксентьев 1988 : 112).

According to N. Shkuratiana and S. Shevchuk, phraseological unit (phraseology) is a lexical and grammatical unity of two or more separately designed components grammatically organized by model phrase or sentence that, having integral meanings, are reproduced in speech automatically, e.g., *землі під ногами не чути, брати бика за роги* (Шкуратьяна & Шевчук 2007 : 252).

V. Uzhchenko (1935–2010) and D. Uzhchenko consider phraseologism (phraseological unit, phraseological phrase, phraseological statement, stable expression, idiom, etc.) as a reproducible word combination, integral in meaning, consistent in composition and structure (Ужченко & Ужченко 1998 : 7).

Yu. Pradid (born 1956) defines phraseological units as stable expressions of the language, endowed with an integral, sometimes partially

integral meaning, entering into semantic and grammatical connections with other linguistic units, which have a constant component composition traditionally reproduced in speech (Прадід 1997 : 5).

Encyclopedia of the Ukrainian Language (Українська мова 2007) gives the most appropriate definition of the phraseological unit, namely: “phraseologism, phraseological unit, phraseological phrase is a distinctly formed, but semantically integral and syntactically indivisible sign of language, which by its origin and functioning is preconditioned by phrase-creative interaction of units belonging to lexical, morphological and syntactic levels” (Українська мова 2007 : 801).

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Text 2

The Study of Idioms in British and American Linguistics

The term “idiom” emerged in European languages in 16th century. According to the Oxford Dictionary (OD, URL), the first use of the lexeme “idiom” in the English language goes back to 1575.

The Encarta World English Dictionary (EWED) lists the following meanings of the lexeme “idiom”: 1. a fixed, distinctive, and often colorful expression whose meaning cannot be understood from the combined meanings of its individual words, e.g., *to have sb in stitches*; 2. the way of using a particular language that comes naturally to its native speakers and involves both knowledge of its grammar and familiarity with its usage; 3. the style of expression of a specific individual or group; 4. the characteristic style of an artist or artistic group (EWED 1999 : 935).

Some linguistic dictionaries offer more detailed definitions. Two instances are “The Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics” (RDLL) edited by Hadumod Bussmann in 1999 and “An Encyclopedic Dictionary of Language and Languages” written by David Crystal (1993).

The Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics (RDLL) defines the term “idiom” as follows: idiom (also colloquial expression, colloquialism, idiomatic expression, set phrase) – a set, multi-elemental group of words, or lexical entity with the following characteristics: (a) the complete meaning cannot be derived from the meaning of the individual elements, e.g., *to have a crush on someone* ‘to be in love with someone’; (b) the substitution of single elements does not provide a systematic change of meaning (which is not true of non-idiomatic syntagms); (c) a literal reading results in a homophonic non-idiomatic variant, to which conditions (a) and (b) no longer apply. Frequently, there is a diachronic connection between the literal reading and the idiomatic reading (idiomatization). In such cases, the treatment of the idiom as a non-analyzable lexical entity is insufficient. Depending upon the theoretical preconception, sayings, figures of speech, nominal constructions, and twin formulas are all subsumed under idioms. (RDLL 1999 : 216).

In “An Encyclopedic Dictionary of Language and Languages”, David Crystal (born 1941), a British linguist from University College, London, defines the term under study as follows: “idiom – a sequence of words which is semantically and often syntactically restricted, so that it functions as a single unit. The meanings of the individual words cannot be combined to produce the meaning of the idiomatic expression as a whole” (Crystal 1993 : 180–181).

Jürg Strässler determines and studies idioms as a functional element of language. He uses the following working definition of idiom in his book entitled “Idioms in English: A Pragmatic Analysis” (1982): “An idiom is a concatenation of more than one lexeme whose meaning is not derived from the meanings of its constituents and which does not consist of a verb plus an adverbial particle or preposition. The concatenation as such then constitutes a lexeme in its own right and should be entered as such in the lexicon” (Strässler 1982 : 79).

Thus, Jürg Strässler draws the conclusion that “idioms really do not occur as often as people tend to believe” (ibid. : 83). He explains it by the fact that if idioms are just a category of lexemes, thus, there is no reason why idioms should be used more often than any other category of lexemes (ibid. : 84). He notes that all idioms have an idiomatic as well as a literal meaning (e.g., *kick the bucket* can be interpreted idiomatically as ‘die’ and literally as ‘hit the pail with one’s foot’), and that this is the reason for the fact that separately taken idioms – i.e. idioms with no context – are highly dubious (ibid. : 85).

McGee M. Wood in her book “A Definition of Idiom” (1996) provides the following definition of the idiom: “a complex expression which is wholly non-compositional in meaning and wholly non-productive in form” (Wood 1996 : 2). The scholar points out that semantic compositionality is a continuum varying between the utterly incomprehensible and the fully predictable, with idioms at the very end of the continuum (zero compositionality) (ibid. : 15). Variability (“productivity of form”) is similarly a continuum which ranges from expressions which allow no variation to those with freely variable components. McGee M. Wood condenses her points of view on various questions and the characteristics which she offers for English idioms to the following seven points (ibid. : 95):

- True idioms are wholly non-compositional, or incomprehensible, in meaning.
- Vagueness is a common but not a necessary characteristic of idiomaticity.
- Genuine idioms can be opaque in structure.
- Genuine idioms are wholly non-productive in form.

Karen Gläser (born 1935), Full Professor of linguistics at University of Leipzig, Germany, considers a phraseological unit to be a lexicalized, reproducible billexemic or polylexemic word-group, which has relative syntactic and semantic stability, may be idiomatized, may carry

connotations, and may have an emphatic or intensifying function in a text (Gläser 1998).

According to Stefan Th. Gries (born 1970), Professor of linguistics in the Department of Linguistics at the University of California, Santa Barbara, “a phraseologism” is the co-occurrence of a form of a lexical item and one or more additional linguistic elements of various kinds which functions as one semantic unit in a clause or sentence and whose frequency of co-occurrence is larger than expected on the basis of chance (Gries 2008). While this definition is maximally explicit, it follows that the range of phenomena regarded as phraseologisms is very large.

Much later Chitra Fernando (1935–1998), a female writer and critic from Sri Lanka, Assistant Lecturer in the Literature department at University of Sydney in Australia, provided the most frequently mentioned properties of phraseological units which scholars use in their works.

These properties are (Fernando 1996):

- compositeness (phraseological units are commonly accepted as phrases and not as single words);
- institutionalism (phraseological units are conventionalized expressions);
- semantic opacity (the meaning of the phraseological units is not understood literally).

American linguists from Stanford University, Berkeley, such as Geoffrey Nunberg (born 1945), Thomas Wasow (born 1948) and Ivan Sag (1949–2013) in their work entitled “Idioms” (1994), consider some of the issues associated with defining the phenomenon of idiom. They state that the term “idiom” is used to designate a fuzzy category defined, on the one hand, by demonstration of prototypical examples like English *kick the bucket* and, on the other, – by implicit opposition to related categories like formulae, fixed phrases, collocations, clichés, sayings, proverbs, and allusions (Nunberg et al 1994 : 492). They offer a different list of properties, typical of idioms including the following (ibid. : 492–493):

- inflexibility (idioms are typically used only in a limited number of syntactic patterns or constructions);
- figuration (idioms typically include tropes such as metaphor, metonymy, or hyperbole);
- proverbiality (situations designated by idioms are typically frequent and of particular social interest, and denote concrete things and relations);
- informality (idioms are normally associated with informal or colloquial speech registers);

- affect (idioms typically describe situations towards which a certain evaluation or affective mode is applied, rather than situations that are treated neutrally).

If we compare the two given lists of the phraseological units' properties, we could see that properties in both of them are the same. The semantic opacity, presented in the first list (suggested by Chitra Fernando) matches with Geoffrey Nunberg, Thomas Wasow and Ivan Sag's term "figuration", and the term "institutionalism" has a similar meaning as "inflexibility" presented in the second list.

Uriel Weinreich (1926–1967), a Polish-American linguist, expresses his view that an idiom is a complex phrase, the meaning of which cannot be derived from the meanings of its elements (Weinreich 1963). He developed a more truthful supposition, claiming that an idiom is a subset of a phraseological unit.

American linguists Ray Jackendoff (born 1945), Professor of philosophy at Tufts University, Massachusetts, and Charles Fillmore (1929–2014), Professor of Linguistics at the University of California, Berkeley, offered a fairly broad definition of the idiom, which, in Fillmore's words, reads as follows: "...an idiomatic expression or construction is something a language user could fail to know while knowing everything else in the language" (Jackendoff 1983 : 145).

Wallace L. Chafe (1927–2019), Professor of Linguistics at the University of California, Berkeley, also lists four features of idioms that make them anomalies in the traditional language unit paradigm (Chafe 1970 : 73):

- non-compositionality;
- transformational defectiveness;
- ungrammaticality;
- frequency asymmetry.

Idioms, as most Western scholars call them, represent the most colourful and expressive part of the English language vocabulary. As Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs marks, idioms are one of the most interesting and difficult parts of the English vocabulary. They are interesting because they are colourful and lively and because they are linguistic curiosities. At the same time, they are difficult because they have unpredictable meanings or collocations and grammar, and often have special connotations. Idioms are frequently neglected in general dictionaries and in classroom teaching, because they are considered marginal items which are quaint but not significant (COBUILD, URL).

Yet, research into idioms shows that they have important roles in spoken language and in writing, in particular, in conveying evaluations and in developing or maintaining interactions.

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Theme 7

Systemic Relations in English and Ukrainian Phraseology

7.1 Typology of English and Ukrainian Phraseological Units

In linguistic literature, there is a great number of classifications of phraseological units depending on what feature of a phraseological unit is taken as the basic criterion of differentiation (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1). The majority of linguists classify phraseological units either on the basis of semantic motivation or on the basis of structure (transformation possibilities).

Different classifications of phraseological units are based on different approaches: semantic (V. Vinogradov) stresses the importance of idiomaticity, functional (O. Smirnitsky) – the functions the phraseological units fulfill in speech, contextual (N. Amosova) – stability of context combined with idiomaticity, structural and semantic (O. Kunin) – the combination of functional, semantic, and structural features of phraseological units.

The **lexico-semantic classification** was first introduced by Ch. Bally (1905) and later developed by V. Vinogradov (Виноградов 1977).

Vinogradov's classification is considered to be the oldest and the most popular. It is based on the degree of motivation, i.e. the relationship existing between the meaning of the whole and the meaning of its components. The degree of motivation depends on the degree of idiomaticity that the phraseological unit carries. Accordingly, V. Vinogradov distinguishes 3 groups (*figure 7.1*):

- phraseological fusions (‘фразеологічні зрощення’),
- phraseological unities (‘фразеологічні єдності’), and
- phraseological collocations (‘фразеологічні сполучення’).

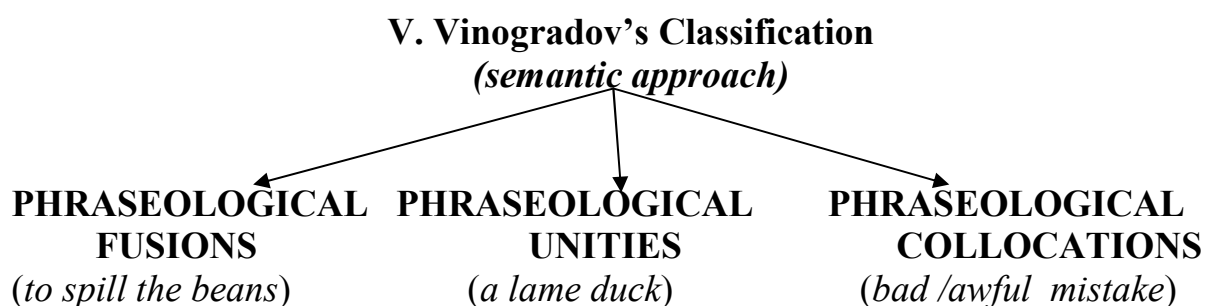


Figure 7.1. Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units

Phraseological fusions ‘фразеологічні зрощення’ are units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts. The meaning of phraseological fusions is unmotivated at the present stage of language development, e.g., *as mad as a hatter* ‘utterly mad’, *white elephant* ‘an expensive but useless thing’, *розводити антимонії* ‘вести порожні, нудні розмови’, *врізати дуба* ‘померти’, etc.

Phraseological fusions are stable, indissoluble word-combinations having integrated non-motivated meaning. Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated word-groups in which the meanings of the components have no connection with meaning of the whole group, because the transference of meaning depends on mental and cultural peculiarities of a given speech community. These peculiarities include traditions, habits, world outlook, prejudices, etc. peculiar to a particular speech community. They form the so called, “cultural connotations” in the semantic structure of phraseological fusions. For instance, *to show the white feather* ‘to betray one’s cowardice’ (the cultural connotation in this idiom refers to cock fighting – a white feather in a cock’s plumage denoted a bad fighter); *дати зарбуза* ‘to reject a suitor’ (Ukrainian girls gave their suitors a pumpkin that symbolized their refusal to marry them and was considered very humiliating).

Phraseological fusions are specific for every language and do not allow word-for-word translation into other languages. Compare the following English and Ukrainian phraseological fusions having the same meanings: *to kick the bucket* – *врізати дуба*; *to be born with a silver spoon in one’s mouth* – *родитися у сорочці*, etc.

Idiomacity is combined with complete stability of lexical components and grammatical structure of the fusion, e.g., *heavy father* ‘серйозна частина п’еси’, *red tape* ‘бюрократія’, *all ales and skittles* ‘безтурботне життя’, *a battle of the books* ‘вчений диспут’, etc.

Phraseological unities ‘фразеологічні єдності’ are partially non-motivated as their meanings can usually be deduced through metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit, e.g., *to bend the knee* ‘to submit to a stronger force, to obey submissively’, *to show one’s teeth* ‘погрожувати’, *to wash one’s dirty linen in public* ‘to discuss or make public one’s quarrels’, etc. Phraseological unities are, as a rule, marked by a high degree of stability of lexical components, e.g., *тягнути лямку*, *покласти зуби на полицю*, though some slight transformations can take place, e.g., *зітерти в порошок* – *зітерти в дрібний порошок*.

Phraseological unity is a word-combination having integrated motivated meaning, which results from the blending of the meanings of its components. Its emotional quality is based on the metaphorical image created by the whole expression, e.g., *to hold one's tongue* 'прикусити язика', *to eat out of someone's hand* 'танцювати під чиюсь дудку', etc.

English phraseological unities may have Ukrainian literal equivalents, so they are easily translated.

Among English and Ukrainian phraseological unities, there are the same international set-phrases, especially those from the Bible and mythology, e.g., *Ariadne's thread* 'Ариаднина нитка', *curse of Cain* 'прокляття Каїна', etc.

Phraseological collocations 'фразеологічні сполучення' are not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically, e.g., *to meet the requirements, to attain success*, etc. In this group of phraseological units, some substitutions are possible which do not destroy the meaning of the metaphoric element, e.g., *to meet the needs, to meet the demand, to meet the necessity; to have success, to lose success*, etc. These substitutions are not synonymic and the meaning of the whole changes, while the meaning of the verb *meet* and the noun *success* are kept intact. In Ukrainian, this type can be represented by the following examples: *брати рушники* 'свататися', *брати гору* 'перемагати', *брати на глум* 'глузувати', etc.

Phraseological collocations are motivated but they are made up of words possessing specific lexical valency which accounts for a certain degree of stability in such word-groups. In phraseological collocations, variability of member words is strictly limited, e.g., *to bear a grudge* 'мати зуб на когось' may be changed into *to bear malice* but not into *to bear a fancy* or *to bear a liking*. We can name them "standardized phrases", e.g., *to give help, to win a victory, to make a mistake*, etc.

Phraseological collocation is a stable word-combination in which one of the components (it is called the "central component") is semantically conditioned by the other components, and the meaning of the whole unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its components.

In other words, the central component of a phraseological collocation is used in its direct meaning, while the others are used metaphorically. Compare the following English and Ukrainian phraseological collocations: *to take part / into consideration* – *брати участь / до увагу*; *point of view* – *точка зору*, etc. They may express:

- 1) attributive relations, e.g., *acute pain, cold reason, black sheep*, etc.
- 2) object relations, e.g., *to declare war, to take measures*, etc.

3) subject-predicative relations, e.g., *extremes meet, time flies*, etc.

4) adverbial relations, e.g., *to freeze hard, to snow heavily, to rain fast*, etc.

We also distinguish **phraseological expressions** – proverbs, sayings, and aphoristic familiar quotations, e.g., *Birds of a feather flock together. Still water runs deep. Something is rotten in the state of Denmark* (W. Shakespeare). *Fools rush in where angels fear to tread* (A. Pope).

Among Ukrainian phraseological expressions, there are also proverbs (e.g., *не все те золото, що блищить*), sayings (e.g., *міряти на свій аршин*), and aphoristic familiar quotations (e.g., *Ви любите на братові шкуру, а не душу!* (Т. Шевченко)).

Functional classification of phraseological units was introduced by O. Smirnitsky (Смирницький 1957) who considered phraseological unit to be similar to the word because of the idiomatic relationship between its parts resulting in its semantic unity and permitting its introduction into speech as something complete.

O. Smirnitsky distinguished three groups (figure 7.2):

- **traditional phrases** whose meaning does not correspond to one notion and can be derived from the meaning of the component parts, e.g., *clenched fists, rough sketch, nice distinction, to shrug one's shoulders*;

- **phraseological combinations**, whose metaphorical motivation is faded and which are emotionally and stylistically neutral, very often constituting the only name for the respective notion, e.g., *to catch cold, to fall in love*;

- **idioms** imaginative emotionally and stylistically colored, always having some neutral synonym, e.g., *to take the bull by the horn, to fish in troubled waters*.

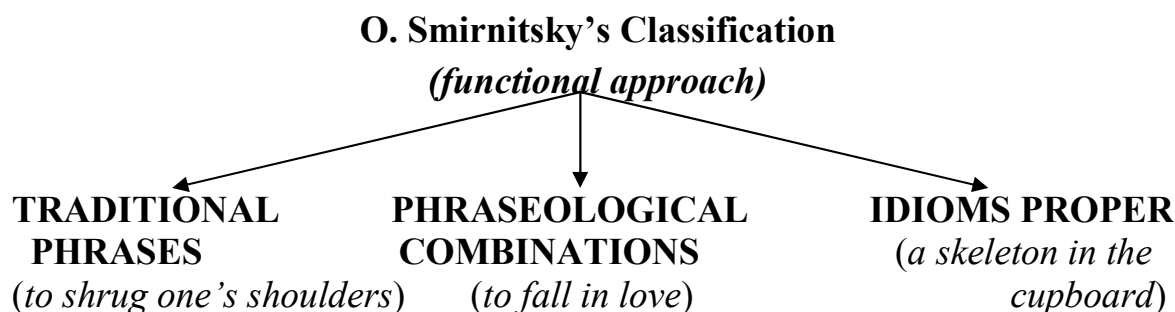


Figure 7.2. Functional Classification of Phraseological Units

Contextual classification of phraseological units was proposed by N. Amosova (Амосова 1963) who defined phraseological units as units

of fixed context, i.e. phrases with a specific and stable sequence of certain lexical components and peculiar semantic relations between them. Units of fixed context are subdivided into phrasemes and idioms according to whether or not one of the components of the whole word-group possesses specialized meanings (*figure 7.3*).

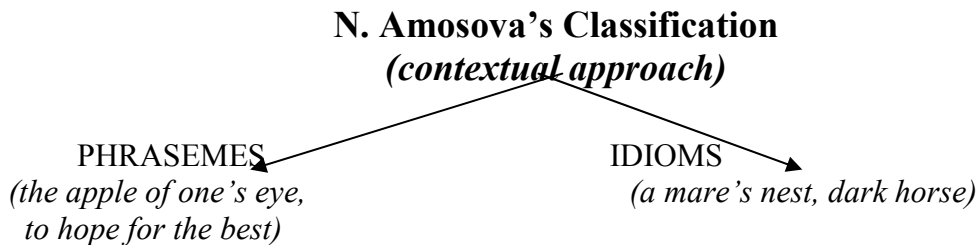


Figure 7.3. Contextual Classification of Phraseological Units

Phrasemes are always binary: one component has a phraseologically bound meaning, the other serves as the determining context, e.g., *bosom friend*, *small talk*, *small hours*, *small change* – the second component (*hours*) serves as the only clue to this particular meaning of the first component.

Idioms are distinguished by the idiomacity of the whole word-group and integral meaning, e.g., *red tape* ‘bureaucratic methods’, *to smell a rat* ‘to suspect something wrong’, *to kick the bucket* ‘to die’, etc.

Structural and semantic classification of phraseological units was introduced by O. Kunin (Кунин 1996). English phraseological units, according to the type of meaning, after O. Kunin, may fall into:

- idioms;
- semi-idioms;
- phraseomatic units (*figure 7.4*).

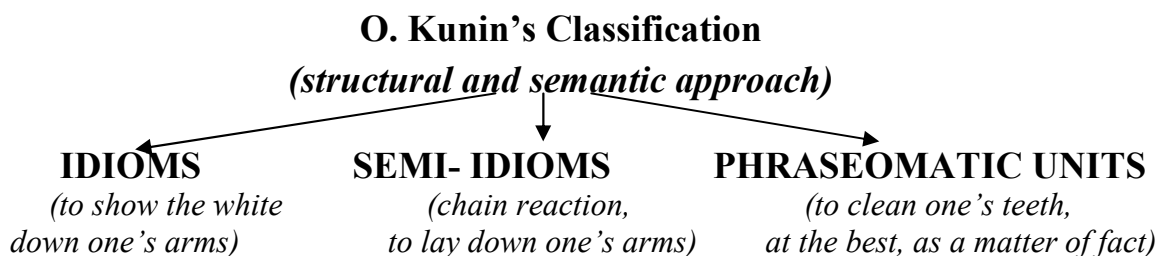


Figure 7.4. Structural and Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units

Idioms are phraseological units with a completely transferred (e.g., *bone of contention* ‘reason for quarrels or fights’, *in your birthday suit* ‘naked’, etc.) or partially transferred (e.g., *as sly as a fox*, *as busy as a bee*, *as brave as a lion*, etc.) meaning.

Semi-idioms are phraseological units with two phraseo-semantic meanings: terminological and transferred, e.g., *chain reaction*, *to lay down the arms*, *to draw the curtain*, etc.)

Phraseomatic units are not transferred at all. Their meanings are literal, e.g., *in any case*, *near at hand*, etc.

Structurally, such types of phraseological units are distinguished in English and Ukrainian:

1) sentence idioms, e.g., *time and tide, wait for no man*, *на козаку нема знаку*;

2) word-group idioms, e.g., *Ten Commandments, десять заповідей*;

3) metaphorically generalised proper names (sometimes geogr. names) as *Jack Ketch* ‘hangman’, *Чалий* ‘підступна, зрадлива людина’.

In both languages, they can perform such **functions** as:

- the subject, e.g., *Hobson's choice is an idiom*;
- the predicative/predicate, e.g., *That was a Hobson's choice for him*;
- the object, e.g., *He recollected the idiom "Hobson's choice."*;
- the adverbial modifier, e.g., *He will do it by hook or by crook. Кров з носа, а зроблю це.*

Formal and structural types of phraseological units are:

- **nominal phrases**, e.g., *a bit (piece) of one's mind; hot dog; Tom, Dick and Harry; the Trojan horse; the sword of Damocles; троянський кінь; дамоклів меч; скажсена собака; китайська грамота; бабине літо; синя панчоха; лебедина пісня*, etc.
- **adjectival phrases**, e.g., *as good as gold; as pretty as a picture; more dead than alive; хитрий як лис; злий як собака; блідий як смерть; мізинця не вартий; як собаки обгризли; голодний як вовк*, etc.
- **verbal phrases**, e.g., *kick two birds with one stone; to have one's heart in one's mouth; to take the bull by the horns; to burn one's fingers; брати бика за роги; пекти раків; зустрічати хлібом-сіллю; падати на коліна; здіймати капелюха; кинути рукавичку; тремтіти як осиновий лист; задирати носа (= гнути кирпу)*;
- **adverbial phrases**, e.g., *by and again; from head to heels; in a twinkling of an eye; as quick as a flash; at (long) last; tit for tat; по всіх усядах; тут і там; скрізь і всюди; як собака на прив'язі*, etc.;

- **parenthetical phrases**, e.g., *by George! by Jove! my aunt!* etc.;
- **introductory phrases**, e.g., *as a matter of fact; after all*, etc.;
- phrases with the **structure of a sentence**:
 - a) **sayings**, e.g., *never say die; all one's geese are swans; не спіши поперед батька в пекло; бачили очі, що купували; вовка ноги годують*, etc.;
 - b) **proverbs**, e.g., *every cloud has a silver lining; birds of a feather fly together; знайся кінь з конем, а віл із волом; ворон ворону око не виклює*, etc.

This classification takes into consideration not only the type of component parts but the functioning of the whole, thus, *tooth and nail* is not a nominal but an adverbial, because it serves to modify a verb (e.g., *fight tooth and nail*).

Within each of these classes, a further subdivision is as follows (Бойко 2015):

a) set expressions functioning **like nouns**:

N + N: *maiden name; family jewels* – ‘shameful secrets of the CIA’ (*Am. slang*);

Ns' N: *ladies' man* ‘one who makes special effort to charm or please women’;

N+prp+ N: *the arm of the law; skeleton in the cupboard*;

N+A: *knight errant* (the phrase is today applied to any chivalrous man ready to help and protect oppressed and helpless people);

N+and+N: *lord and master* ‘husband’; *all the world and his wife* ‘a more complicated form’; *rank and file* ‘the ordinary working members of an organization’;

A+N: *green room* ‘the general reception room of a theatre’; *high tea* ‘an evening meal’; *forty winks* ‘a short nap’;

N+subordinate clause: *ships that pass in the night* ‘chance acquaintances’;

b) set expressions functioning **like verbs**:

V+N: *take advantage*;

V+and+V: *pick and choose*;

V+(one's)+N+(prp): *snap one's fingers at*;

V+one+N: *give one the bird* ‘to fire smb’;

V+subordinate clause: *see how the land lies* ‘to discover the state of affairs’;

c) set expressions functioning **like adjectives**:

A+and+A: *high and mighty*;

(as)+A+as+N: *as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter*;

d) Set expressions functioning **like adverbs**:

N+N: *tooth and nail*;

prp+N: *by heart, of course*;

adv+prp+N: *once in a blue moon*;

prp+N+or+N: *by hook or by crook*;

conj+clause: *before one can say Jack Robinson*;

e) Set expressions functioning **like prepositions**:

prp+N+prp: *in consequence of*;

f) set expressions functioning **like interjections**:

These are often structured as imperative sentences: *Bless (one's) soul! God bless me! Hang it (all)!*

7.2 Paradigmatic Semantic Relations in Phraseology

In Phraseology, we generally distinguish syntagmatic and paradigmatic semantic relations of phraseological units.

Syntagmatic semantic relations of phraseological units are conditioned by the context and are usually observed in utterances (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

Paradigmatic semantic relations of phraseological units cannot be directly observed in utterances. Common in English and Ukrainian are **paradigmatic classes** of idioms:

- polysemy and homonymy of phraseological units;
- synonyms in Phraseology;
- antonyms in Phraseology.

Phraseological Polysemy and Homonymy

The problem of polysemy is mainly the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings of the same phraseological units. The context makes the necessary meaning clear narrowing down all the other possible meanings of the phrase and no ambiguity arises.

The polysemy of idioms is not as developed as that of words. Phraseological polysemy is usually the result of metaphorical reinterpretation of the meaning of a phrase. Consider the following examples of polysemantic idioms.

To be on the go

1) be at work, be on the move (*to be always on the go, not to be dull*);

2) be going to leave (*the guest was on the go for half an hour though the host began to show signs of impatience*);

3) be in a hurry (*he is always on the go*);

4) be in one's cups (*the wine made him a little bit on the go*).

To hold (keep) up one's end

1) to make both ends meet;

2) to stand one's ground, not give in, not lose courage, not disgrace oneself.

Роззявити рота

1) говорити, казати що-небудь (*Рота як слід він не всніє роззявити, зараз готове усе.*);

2) уважно слухати (*У хаті слухали, роззявивши роти, намагаючись не пропустити жодного слова.*);

3) бути дуже враженим чимось (*Глухі діди роти пороззявляли, бо ще ніколи не бачили таким збудженим свого Зарубу.*);

4) бути неуважним (*Ну, гони биків, чого рота роззявляє?*);

5) посягати на що-небудь (*На чуже добро ще змалку рота роззявляє.*);

6) рватися – про взуття (*Ось і чоботи в мене роти пороззявляли.*).

To come round

1) to come by an indirect route;

2) to pay an informal visit;

3) to occur again;

4) to change views;

5) to regain consciousness.

Ні живий, ні мертвий

1) дуже наляканий;

2) схвильований;

3) засмучений;

4) дуже ослаблений фізично.

Phraseological Homonymy

Homonymy is not as developed among idioms as it is among words. Phraseological homonyms are much fewer in number than lexical homonyms. This phenomenon has not been studied thoroughly yet, e.g.:

to break down 'to stop hurrying' – *to break down* 'to fall apart, to stop operating, to lose control of one's emotions';

пустити півня ‘підпалити’ – пустити півня ‘зірватися на високій ноті’.

In many cases, it is difficult to distinguish between phraseological polysemy and homonymy.

Synonyms in Phraseology

Phraseological synonyms are idioms belonging to the same grammatical class and having coinciding denotative meanings. The coincidence of meanings is provided by the meanings of whole phrases or by the meanings of their particular components, e.g., *to cast lots – to throw lots; точити лясцi – підпускати лясцi; a pretty kettle of fish – a nice pair of shoes; in the twinkling of an eye – like winking; over head and ears – up to the neck; be in two minds – be in twenty minds; to be in one's cups – to be dead drunk; to little purpose – to no purpose; in a great measure – in a measure, (as) clear as day (daylight) – (as) plain as a pikestaff (as the nose on your face) “ясно, як божий день”; (as) crazy as a fox – (as) mad as a March hare (as a hatter) “з'їхати з глузду”, etc.*

Stylistic phraseological synonyms mean one and the same idea, but they are different in stylistic colouring. E.g.: “вмирати”: *go the way of all flesh, to breathe one's last* (bookish) – *go to one's last home, to pass away, to quit the scene* (euphemism) – *go up the flume, to kick the bucket* (Am. slang) – *to hop over the perch – to turn up one's toes* (sl. vulg.).

Antonyms in Phraseology

Phraseological antonyms are idioms having opposite denotative meanings and belonging to the same grammatical category, e.g., *keep one's mouth shut* “тримати язик за зубами, помовкувати” / *keep one's trap shut* (jargon) “замоукнути” – *to shoot off one's mouth* (familiar coll.) “теревенити” / *to shoot off one's trap* (vulgar) “базікати”.

Phraseological antonyms are of two main types:

- they may either differ in a single component, e.g., *to do one's best – to do one's worst; up to date – out of date, to play one's cards well – to play one's cards badly*; etc.);

- they may have different sets of components while expressing the oppositeness of meanings, e.g., *to draw the first breath – to breathe one's last; to talk nineteen to the dozen – to keep mum; to put / set sth. on foot – to put an end / a period to sth.*, etc.).

Phraseological antonyms usually have different grammatical structure, e.g., *кури не клюють – як кіт наплакав*.

Stylistic aspects of antonyms also merit consideration. Phraseological antonyms may belong to one functional style, e.g., *with a heavy heart* (literary) ‘з тяжким серцем’ – *with a light heart* (literary) ‘з легким серцем’. Phraseological antonyms may belong to different functional styles, e.g., *lose heart* (literary) ‘падати духом’ – *keep one’s chin / pecker up* (familiar coll.) ‘не падати духом’.

7.3 National Peculiarity and Sources of Phraseological Units in English and Ukrainian

Phraseology is considered to be one of the sources that enlarges and enriches vocabulary. It is the most colourful part of vocabulary system, and it represents the peculiar vision of the world by this speaking community. It reflects the history of the nation, the customs and traditions of the people speaking the language. If synonyms may be figuratively referred to as the tints and colours of the vocabulary, then phraseology is a kind of picture gallery, in which are collected bright and amusing sketches of the nation’s customs, traditions, recollections of its past history, folk songs, fairy tales, quotations from the great poets, crude slang witticisms, etc.

Phraseology is not only the most colourful, but probably the most democratic area of vocabulary and it draws its resources mostly from the very depths of popular speech. Thus, together with synonymy and antonyms, phraseology represents expressive sources of vocabulary.

One more peculiarity of phraseological units is due to the difference in thinking and cognition of human beings. Every nation has its own way of creating images. In most cases, phraseological units in different languages, having the same meaning, are different in inner form and images. Compare, the phraseological units with the meaning “у когось в покорі” in English – *under smb’s thumb*, in Russian – *под каблуком*, in Ukrainian – *під черевиком*. Or, e.g., the “similarity” as a Ukrainian, a Russian, a Frenchman and a Bulgarian see it, may be expressed as *дві краплі води*, a German and a Czech – *as two eggs*, and an Englishman – *as two peas*. Other examples:

as bright as a button – блищить, як нова копійка;

hard as nails – нечутливий, як камінь;

sober as a judge – тверезий, як скельце;

as black as a crow / raven – чорний, як смола, сажа;

cross as a bear – злий, як собака;

as soft as butter – м’який, як пух / віск / шовк;

as deaf as a stone – глухий, мов пень;
as wet as a drowned rat – мокрий, як плющ;
as old as hills – старий, як світ.

The **national peculiarity** of phraseological units is revealed on all the linguistic levels: phonological, grammatical, and lexical.

On the phonological level, a phraseological unit is peculiar because the very combination of sounds, it consists of, is characteristic for the phonological system of this or that language.

On the lexical level, the national peculiarity of a phraseological unit lies in the fact that it often consists of the words that denote specifically national notions that are determined by the extralingual reality: customs, traditions, legends, and historic facts of the nation, e.g., *the bard of Avon, Fleet Street, колупати ніч* (під час сватання), *зустрічати хлібом-сіллю, падати на коліна, здіймати капелюха, кинути рукавичку; не каркай* [як ворона]; *засць дорогу перебіг* (на нещастя); *вовк або ведмідь дорогу перебіг* (на щастя), etc.

According to the **degree of the national peculiarity**, all phraseological units are divided into three groups.

1) International phraseological units, which are based on universal images, e.g., *to cross the Rubicon* ‘перейти Рубікон’, *the heel of Achilles* ‘ахіллесова п'ята’, *the Trojan horse* ‘троянський кінь’, *the tree of knowledge* ‘дерево / древо пізнання’, *thirty pieces of silver* ‘тридцять срібняків’, *Pandora's box* ‘скриня Пандори’, *Herculian pillars* ‘Геркулесові стовпи’ – межа, *Gordian knot* ‘Гордіїв вузол’, *between Scylla and Charybdis* ‘між двох вогнів’; *I came, I saw, I conquered* ‘прийшов, побачив, переміг’, *wise Solomon* ‘мудрий Соломон’, *prodigal son* ‘блудний син’, *to be in (the) seventh heaven* ‘бути на сьомому небі’, *man does not live by bread alone* ‘не хлібом єдиним живе людина’, *to turn the other cheek* ‘підставити другу щоку’; *manna from above* ‘манна небесна’; *a fly in the ointment* ‘ложка дьогтю в бочці меду’, *the alpha and omega of smth* ‘альфа та омега’, etc.

2) Locally unmarked phraseological units, which are based on neutral images, not nationally peculiar, e.g., *to burn one's fingers* ‘обпектись’, *to break one's heart* ‘розбити серце’, *to snake in the grass, make haste slowly* (‘тихіше їдеш – далі будеш’), *to meet the demands* (‘відповідати вимогам’); *сказати прямо в очі; носа не показувати; попати пальцем у небо*, etc.

3) Locally marked phraseological units with vividly expressed national and cultural component, e.g., *to catch the Speaker's eye, to set the*

Thames on fire, to carry coals to Newcastle, something is rotten in the state of Denmark, to dine with Duke Humphry, to cut off with a shilling and only in Ukrainian such idioms as *передати куті меду, вніямати облизня, ставити на карб, пекти раків, утерти носа, казала Настя, як удасться; на безлюдді й Хома чоловік, кожен Івась має свій лас; не вмер Данило, так болячка задавила; у всякої Федорки свої одговори*, etc.

These and the like idiomatic expressions, including several proverbs and sayings, have usually absolute or near equivalents in languages of one culturally and geographically common area, e.g., *to kiss the post* – *поцілувати замок*; *as pale as paper* – *блідий як стіна*; *grass widow* – *солом'яна вдова*; *measure twice, cut once* – *сім раз одміряй, а раз одріж*; *to know smth. as one knows his ten fingers* – *знати щось, як своїх п'ять пальців*; *a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush* – *краще синиця в жмені, ніж журавель у небі*, *Let sleeping dogs lie* – *Не чінай лихо, доки тихо*, etc.

The analysis of the **origin** of phraseological units may contribute to a better understanding of meaning of a phraseological unit. According to the origin, all phraseological units fall into two groups: native and borrowed.

Native phraseological units are derived from native proverbs, sayings, famous words, legends, traditions, and literary works, e.g.:

to put sb. in the cart ‘to put sb. in a difficult position’ – the allusion to the old English tradition according to which carts were used to take criminals to the spot of execution;

king's Charles's head ‘a fixed idea, an obsession’ – the expression from Charles Dickens' novel “David Copperfield” connected with Mr. Dick's passion for Charles the First;

black sheep ‘a person who disgraces his family’ – according to an old legend a black sheep bears the devil's seal;

a fool's paradise ‘illusory happiness’ – from W. Shakespeare's “Romeo and Juliet”;

товкти воду в ступні ‘do unnecessary work, waste time’ – in ancient times the monks in the monasteries who were somehow guilty were forbidden to leave the cell and had to pour water in the mortar from morning till night.

The main sources of native phraseological units are:

1) terminological and professional units of the language, e.g., *to cut the painter* ‘to become independent’, *to lower one's colours* ‘to give in’; *to stick to one's guns, jump the gun* ‘to do something too soon, especially without thinking carefully about it’; *specific weight* ‘питома вага’; *cut the*

painter ‘обрубати канат’; *lower one's colours* ‘опустити свій прапор’; *to pull the strings*; *to go behind the curtains*; *to come into force*; *to bring action*; білими нитками шитий ‘по-шахрайськи, нечесно, незграбно зроблений’, де тонко, там і рветься ‘та частина чого-небудь, яка знаходиться в поганому, неналагодженому стані – в кінцевому підсумку стає причиною великої проблеми’, etc.;

2) literature, e.g., from W. Shakespeare: *the green-eyed monster* ‘jealousy’ (“Othello”), *To be or not to be...* (“Hamlet”), *Coward dies many times before his death* (“Julius Caesar”), *All the world's a stage* (“As you Like it”), *a fool's paradise* (“Romeo and Juliet”). Besides Shakespeare, a lot of other writers and poets enriched English phraseology. Among them are Charles Dickens, Alexander Pope, Jonathan Swift, Walter Scott, e.g., *How goes the enemy?* (What time is it now?), *all in the day's work* (it is nothing special), *rain cats and dogs* (to rain very heavily), *to fight against windmills* (to do useless work); *catch someone red-handed* (to discover smb doing smth illegal). Cf. *на крилах пісень* ‘линити кудись поетичною мрією’ (Л. Українка), *свобода зрубана на пні* ‘втрачена свобода’ (Л. Костенко), etc.;

3) traditions and customs, e.g., *baker's dozen* ‘a group of thirteen’ – in the past, British merchants of bread received from bakers 13 loaves of bread instead of 12; the 13th loaf was merchant's profit; *накрити мокрим рядном* ‘піймати, захопити зненацька’ – в давнину злодія, якого заставляли на гарячому, намагалися накрити мокрим рядном; саме мокрим, бо воно прилипає до тіла, з-під нього важко виборсатися і втекти, etc.;

4) legends and superstitions, e.g., *a black sheep* ‘a less successful or more immoral person in a family or in a group’ – people believed that a black sheep was marked by the devil; *тінун тобі на язик* – це побажання було дуже серйозним, оскільки носій тіпуна ставав мовчазним виконавцем волі знахаря і не міг відповідати на зло, etc.;

5) historical facts and events, personalities, e.g., *to do a Thatcher* ‘to stay in power as prime minister for three consecutive terms’, *to carry coals to Newcastle* ‘to take something to a place where there is plenty of it available’ – Newcastle is known as a city in Northern England where a lot of coal was produced; *завзяте як панське щеня* ‘самому нічого не робити’; *мати міст руських* – так у княжих літописах називали Київ, який був найдавнішим містом, культурно-політичним і релігійним центром Київської Русі, etc.;

6) phenomena and facts of everyday life concerning different spheres such as sport, environment, food, etc., e.g., *to get a head start* ‘start before all others’ – from horse racing (sport); *to eat one’s words* ‘to admit that something you said was wrong’; *тріщить по всіх швах* ‘бути під загрозою краху’; *ні кола ні двора* ‘нічого не мати’, etc.

Borrowed idiomatic expressions of English and Ukrainian came from different sources, the main of them are as follows:

1) the Bible (the Holy Script), e.g., *the kiss of Judas* ‘any display of affection whose purpose is to conceal any act of treachery’; *вавилонське стовпотворіння* ‘безладдя, метушня, відсутність єдиної підпорядкованості’, *манна небесна* ‘допомога надприродних сил’; many of them have similar syntactic and semantic structure; Cf. *to cast pearls before swine* – метати бісер перед свинями, *the olive branch* – оливкова гілка, *a wolf in sheep’s clothing* – вовк у овечій шкірі, *a black sheep* – паршива вівця, *a fly in the ointment*, *the root of all evil*, etc.;

2) mythology – ancient legends and myths belonging to different religious or cultural traditions, e.g., *Achilles’ heel* ‘a weak part of something, especially of someone’s character, which is easy for other people to attack’ (= “Ахіллесова п’ята”); *the apple of discord* ‘something attractive that causes envy’ (= “яблуко розбрату”); *the Gordian knot* ‘an exceedingly complicated problem’ (= “Гордіїв вузол”); *the lion’s share* ‘the best or largest part’ (= “левова частка”); *rest on the laurels* ‘to be so satisfied with your achievements that you make no effort to improve’ (= “спочити на лаврах”); *золоте руно* ‘багатство, яким хочуть оволодіти попри перешкоди; омріяна мета’, *олімпійський спокій* ‘безмовність, витримка, незворушність’, etc.;

3) facts and events of the world history, e.g., *to meet one’s Waterloo* ‘to be faced with, esp. after previous success, a final defeat, a difficulty or an obstacle one cannot overcome’ (from the defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815); *останній із могікан* ‘останній представник будь-якої групи людей, роду, народності’ (європейські колонізатори, що припливли освоювати новий континент, виселяли могікан, індіанське плем'я Північної Америки, з обжитої землі на території сучасних штатів Нью-Йорка, Пенсільванії, Огайо та ін. і ті вели тривалу тяжку боротьбу із загарбниками), etc.;

4) traditions, for instance, the expression *red tape*, as a derogatory name for trivial bureaucratic formalities, originates in the old custom of Government officials and lawyers tying up their papers with red tape. *Heads or tails* comes from the old custom of deciding a dispute or settling

which of two possible alternatives shall be followed by tossing a coin. The same examples are found in Ukrainian;

5) variants of the language, e.g., *a hole card* ‘a secret advantage that is ready to use when you need it’ (American), etc.;

6) other languages (classical and modern), e.g., *the fair sex* ‘women’ (from French: “le beau sex” = “прекрасна стать”); *let the cat out of the bag* ‘reveal a secret carelessly or by mistake’ (from German: “die Katze aus dem Sack lassen”), *Колумбове яйце* ‘неочікуваний сміливий вихід зі скрути чи кмітливе вирішення складного питання’ (from Spanish: “huevo de Juanelo”); *through thick and thin* (from German: “durch dick und dünn”); *ні живий ні мертвий* ‘дуже наляканий’ (from Latin); *голуба кров* ‘aristocratic descent’ (from French through Russian: ‘the blood that which flows in the veins of old and aristocratic families’ = “блакитна кров”); *to lose face* (from Chinese: ‘to lose status; to become less respectable’ = “втратити авторитет”); *appetite comes with eating* (from French: ‘desire increases as an activity proceeds’ = “апетит приходить під час їжі”).

The translator should be aware of the cultural and social background of locally marked phraseological units.

Idiom expressions exist in both languages either as:

1) absolute equivalents having all components the same and absolutely identical or slightly different meaning in some languages of a historically, culturally and mostly geographically close regions, e.g., *the heel of Achilles*, *Ахілесова п'ята*, etc.;

2) near equivalents, i.e. when having in some (usually different) languages one or more components missing or different as in other (contrasted) languages, e.g., *to kiss the post* – *поцілувати замок*, etc.;

3) idiomatic analogies – genuine and approximate which have in English and Ukrainian similar meaning but different componential structures, e.g., *a fly in the ointment*, *ложка дьогтю в бочці меду*, etc.

Therefore, typologically relevant universal idiomatic expressions may presumably be found only among the group / class of idiomatic near equivalents and among the so-called genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies, which are stable expressions having different componential parts / images but a similar / analogous lexical meaning.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

Typology of Idioms in British and American Linguistics

Adam Makkai, Professor of English and Linguistics, University of Illinois at Chicago, in his research “Idiom Structure in English” (1972), which is believed to be one of the most comprehensive studies of idioms that existed at the time it was published, distinguishes between idioms of encoding and idioms of decoding (Makkai 1972 : 24–25).

According to Adam Makkai, **idioms of decoding** are “genuine or semantic idioms” (ibid. : 25). These idioms “display constructional homonymy with their literal counterparts”, they involve potential misunderstanding, unintelligibility, the ability to mislead, and ambiguity. The example of such phraseological units can be *to spill the beans* ‘to reveal the secrets’. This phrase can be easily understood both literally and figuratively.

Phraseological units of **encoding**, on the contrary, do not show the homonymy with their literal counterparts. Adam Makkai describes idioms of encoding as “phraseological peculiarities” which do not involve misunderstanding, unintelligibility, the ability to mislead, or ambiguity.

All idioms of decoding are also idioms of encoding, but not necessarily vice versa.

Later, other scholars, such as, for instance, Geoffrey Nunberg (1978; 1994), classified the phraseological units as **decomposable** or **non-decomposable**, again taking into consideration lexico-semantic criterion (Nunberg et al. 1994).

The classification of this scholar was later followed by N. P. Nayak and W. R. Gibbs (Nayak & Gibbs 1990). These linguists claim that decomposable phraseological units are transparent and syntactically flexible. They are understood as literal language through literal-figurative links. The examples of decomposable phraseological units are: *to button one’s lips* ‘to keep secrets’ or *to follow one’s nose* ‘to mind one’s own affairs’. The figurative meaning of the decomposable phraseological units can be elaborated by logical thinking and usually is foreseen without great difficulties.

The other type of phraseological units, which is suggested by Geoffrey Nunberg and followed by N. P. Nayak & W. R. Gibbs, is non-decomposable phraseological units, which do not provide any explanation

by performing compositional-literal analysis. The speaker has just to memorize their meanings. For example, *to kick the bucket* ‘to die’.

The other type of phraseological units classification is based on the **syntactic (transformational) properties**. Such a classification of phraseological units was accepted by Sam Glucksberg and Cristina Cacciari (Cacciari & Glucksberg 1994), who have classified the phraseological units in pretty much the same way as Charles Bally and V. Vinogradov did, but they took into consideration the aspect of compositionality as well. The classification that these linguists proposed is as follows:

1) compositional-opaque phraseological units (matches with Vinogradov’s phraseological fusions);

2) compositional transparent phraseological units (matches with phraseological unities);

3) quasi-metaphorical phraseological units (this group of phraseological units has the criterion of metaphoricity).

Compositional-opaque phraseological units to the mentioned linguists are those that do not allow transformations (or allow just the minimal) and usually retain their original syntactic and lexical form. For instance, *between the devil and the deep blue sea* ‘to face two equally unwelcome alternatives’.

Compositionally transparent phraseological units have the structure which matches with the structure of their literal equivalents’ syntactic structure and allows various transformations. For instance, *to put one’s cards on the table* ‘to declare one’s intentions’.

Quasi-metaphorical phraseological units in Sam Glucksberg and Cristina Cacciari’s classification are peculiar. According to them, in such phraseological units “the literal referent of the idiom is itself an instance of the idiomatic meaning”; e.g., *giving up the ship* is simultaneously ‘an ideal or prototypical example of the fact of surrendering’ and a phrase that can refer to ‘any instance of complete surrender’. In other words, the metaphorical meaning of such phraseological units takes place not on the level of each component of a phraseological unit, but on the level of the phrase as one unit.

Not only have the linguists given the classifications of phraseological units, but dictionaries as well. For instance, Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English (1985) classifies phraseological units according to the criterion of transformation into four big groups.

1) **Pure idioms.** They are such phraseological units that are very stable and allow no transformations or just minimal, e.g., the phraseological unit *to kick the bucket* ‘to die’ allows no transformations except the change of tense form *he kicked the bucket*. In this group of phraseological units no lexical or syntactic transformations are allowed.

2) **Figurative idioms.** These phraseological units are also comparatively stable, but differently than pure phraseological units, they allow some minor lexical transformations, e.g., the phraseological unit *to act the part* can be normally used as *to act the role*.

3) **Restricted collocations.** They are sometimes called semi phraseological units, one part of which has a figurative meaning and the other appears in its literal sense, e.g., *to jog one’s memory* ‘to forget’. The majority of restricted collocations allow various transformations.

4) **Open collocations.** They are such idiomatic expressions that their both members can be used in a literal sense, e.g., *to spill the beans* ‘to reveal secrets’ can be understood both literally (‘to pour out the vegetable beans’) and figuratively (‘to disclose / reveal a secret’). Open collocations allow maximal transformations.

Taking into consideration two aspects of phraseological units – semantic motivation and structure, Jürg Strassler in his book “Idioms in English: A Pragmatic Analysis” (1982) presents 12 categories of idiomatic expressions which are based on **structure** and **motivation**:

- 1) sayings, e.g., *to let the cat out of the bag*;
- 2) proverbs, e.g., *a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*;
- 3) phrasal verb, e.g., *to give in, to look up*;
- 4) prepositional verbs, e.g., *to look after, to look for*;
- 5) tournure idioms, e.g., *to kick the bucket*;
- 6) binomials, e.g., *hammer and tongs*;
- 7) frozen similes, e.g., *as cool as a cucumber*;
- 8) ungrammatical (according to prescriptive normative grammar), but generally accepted and widely used expressions, e.g., *it’s me, to try and go*;
- 9) logical connective prepositional phrases, e.g., *on the other hand*;
- 10) phrasal compounds, e.g., *dead-line*;
- 11) incorporating verb, e.g., *to baby-sit*;
- 12) formula expressions, e.g., *goodness gracious!*

It is also worthy of note that the division above might seem ambiguous as the difference between some of the idiomatic expressions is very slight. For example, prepositional verbs have a structure of “verb + preposition”, while phrasal verbs have the structure of “verb + particle”.

One more term is “tournure idioms”. This term refers to the phraseological units that have a fixed structure and usually allow only very minimal changes (as, for instance, grammatical tense shifts). Into the similar category fall frozen similes, which, according to Jürg Strassler (1982), always have the structure *as...as* or *like* and a fixed lexical content. The last term to be clarified in this list is binomials. Binomials are certain pairs of words that are connected with a conjunction and always appear in the fixed order. For instance, the binomial *bread and butter* cannot be reversed into *butter and bread*, for it would lose its idiomaticity.

Probably not a single linguist would accept all the twelve categories as idiomatic. Some scholars would accept more of them, some – less.

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Text 2

Syntagmatic Semantic Relations in Phraseology. Phraseological Units and Context

(From Fundamentals of English Stylistic Phraseology and Ways of its Translation (Основи англійської стилістичної фразеології та способи її перекладу) / Я. В. Бойко. Київ : Освіта України, 2015. 98 с. С. 33–36.

Linguistic theory distinguishes two main types of contextual realization of phraseological units: prescriptive use and occasional use.

Prescriptive use (‘узуальне вживання’) means that a phraseological unit is used in the form fixed in the dictionaries, though there may be morphological and syntactical markers of structural separability of phraseological units. E.g.:

Cut smb off with a shilling – ‘позбавляти когось спадщини’

She had been used to boast that no Dodson had ever been cut off with a shilling... (G. Eliot).

“He’s dead, isn’t he?” Floyd said desperately.

“He’s deader than a doornail”, Spence said. (E. Calwell).

I have come back poorer than a church mouse. (Ch. Dickens).

Occasional use (‘оказіональне вживання’) means that a phraseological unit is structurally or semantically transformed that results in changes either in connotative or even denotative components of meaning.

Occasional phraseologisms have intensified figurativeness, emotional-expressive colouring and are mostly used for characterizing the peculiarities of speech of the people who use phraseological units of their language, evaluating objects and phenomena, conveying of an idea in a more original way. However, the modification of the traditional form and content of phraseologisms by the writer, for example, is admissible and even necessary in fiction.

The use of modified phraseology embellishes the author’s language, renders it more figurative, turns into a tool of the writer’s quite specific ideological and aesthetic influence and performs an important role in the expression of his individual style.

The traditional form and content of each usual phraseologism are generalized to a certain extent and require fitting into the particular context, change of the form or meaning, intensification of the expressiveness, creation of puns, humor, etc. Exactly in similar cases, writers resort to the devices of transformation of usual phraseologisms into occasional ones, such as: double actualization of a phraseologism, change of meaning, phraseological variation and use of the lexical-grammatical nucleus of phraseologisms. All the four devices are based on the lexical, grammatical, word-formation, and stylistic peculiarities of the language, defining the modification of a phraseologism in a particular context and speech situation by one or another device.

Structural transformation of phraseological units

1. **The inclusion** of words, word-groups or other phraseological units into the composition of a given phraseological unit in a particular context. Its aim is either to strengthen or to weaken the meaning, or to make it concrete. E.g.:

a bag of bones – ‘виснажена людина, шкіра та кістки’

He is a bag of bloody bones and keeps whimpering and groaning.
(F. Hardy).

They sat at a closed table, served by Errofa, a bag of vigorous bones.
(J. Aldridge).

Like clockwork – ‘пунктуально, точно, як годинник’

Evelyn and Dandy were going round in perfect harmony, the pony’s little legs going like oiled clockwork (Ch. Dickens). – (**Strengthening**).

To cut capers – ‘дурачитися, проявляти жвавість’

The best way seems to me to get this angel to cut some ridiculous capers and present you another view of him. (Meredith). – (**Concretization**).

There is a method in one’s madness – ‘він не такий уже божевільний’

There nearly always is a method in madness. It’s that drives men mad, being methodical. (Chesteron). – (**Weakening**).

Make a mountain out of a molehill – ‘робити з мухи слона’

Frank: *If I live to be a hundred I shall never forget that little glimpse you’ve just given me of yourself.*

Millie: *Frank, you’re making a frightening mountain out of an abstract little molehill.*

Frank: *Of course but the mountain I’m making in my imagination is so frightening that I’d rather try to forget both it and the repulsive little molehill that gave it birth* (T. Rattigan).

2. **The breaking** of phraseological units is its contextual separation by a word or a word combination. It serves to create some stylistic effect, while the componential structure of the phraseological unit remains unchangeable. E.g.:

skate on thin ice – ‘ковзати по тонкому льоду, бути на межі небезпеки’

It was *thin ice* here ... *Captain Wise, however, seemed to skate over it easily enough.* (N. Blake).

The white man’s burden – ‘бремя білої людини’ (цивілізаторська місія білої людини)

The white man need complain no longer of his burden. (R. Kipling).

3. **The addition of the components** (not inclusion any new components *inside* the structure of phraseological units). It may be used either to strengthen, or to weaken the meaning, or to make the meaning concrete. E.g.:

bread and butter – ‘хліб насущний, засоби до існування’

One manages to earn one’s bread and butter .. and a little piece of cake (C. P. Snow).

To be all eyes – ‘пильно дивитися, бути уважним’

Clyde was all eyes and ears and nerves. (Th. Dreiser)

(Strengthening)

To go hard with – ‘бути важким’

Dancing will probably go hard with me at my time of life.

(Th. Dreiser). – **(Weakening)**.

To wear one’s heart upon one’s sleeve – ‘демонструвати свої почуття’

Custance doesn’t wear his heart on his sleeves – or his mind in his face (Walling). **(Concretization)**.

Semantic transformation of phraseological units

1. **Deformation of lexical composition** of phraseological units is manifested in either synonymic or antonymic replacements in lexical composition of a phraseological unit. E.g.:

the sixty-four-dollar question – ‘каверзне, важке запитання’

That is a million-dollar question, kid, why don’t you ask something easy? (T. Capote) – **(Synonym)**.

To know a trick worth two of that – ‘знати кращий засіб’

He knows a trick worth a good half dozen of that. (Ch. Dickens).

(Synonym).

To hate smb’s guts – ‘смертельно ненавидіти’

We’ve been more than brothers. You’re the only pal I’ve ever had. I love your guts. I’d do anything for you. (E. O’Neill). **(Antonym)**.

To worship the ground one walks on – ‘боготворити землю, по якій він (вона) ступає’

I hate the ground she walks on, and she hates me. (E. S. Gardner). **(Antonym)**.

Patience on a monument – ‘втілення терпіння’

I have been watching you from over the wall – sitting like impatience on a monument. (T. Hardy). **(Antonym)**.

2. **Double actualization** of the literal and transferred meanings of the components at one and the same time. This results in humorous effect. E.g.:

The king was saying: “I assure you, my dear, I turned cold to the very end of my whiskers”. To which the Queen replied: “You haven’t got any whiskers”. (L. Carrol. “Through the looking-glass”).

Cakes and ale – ‘веселощі, задоволення’

And so, with his gold dust ... and with the cakes and ale of one week in Gotham turning bitter on his tongue the man sighed ... (O. Henry).

Occasional phraseological variants may be formed due to authors' actualizing the potential (literary) meanings of their components. Cf. *A skeleton in the family cupboard: We were peeping into the family cupboard and having a look at the good old skeleton* (P. G. Wodehouse).

3. **Ellipsis** is the reduction of some components while the meaning of the phraseological unit is retained. It often occurs in proverbs. E.g.:

crumbs from the table < the crumbs which fell from the rich man's table – ‘крихти з панського столу’;

don't count your chickens < don't count your chickens before they are hatched – ‘курчат по осені рахують’.

Both set expressions and proverbs are sometimes split and changed for humorous purposes, as in the following quotation where the proverb. For instance, *All is not gold that glitters* combines with an illusion to the expression *golden age*, e.g., *it will be an age not perhaps of gold, but at least of glitter*.

Compare also the following, somewhat daring compliment meant to shock the sense of bourgeois propriety: *But I laughed and said, "Don't you worry, Professor, I'm not pulling her ladyship's leg. I wouldn't do such a thing. I have too much respect for that charming limb."* (Cary).

Sometimes the speaker notices the lack of logic in a set expression and checks himself, as in the following: *Holy terror, she is – least not so holy, I suppose, but a terror all right* (Rattigan).

Taking a familiar group of words: *A living dog is better than a dead lion* (from the Bible) and turning it around, a fellow critic once said that Hazlitt was unable to appreciate a writer till he was dead – that Hazlitt thought *a dead ass better than a living lion*.

A. Huxley is very fond of stylistic, mostly grotesque, effects achieved in this way. So, for example, paraphrasing the set expression *marry into money* he says about the characters, who prided herself on her conversation, that *she had married into conversation*.

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Thematic Module 3

WORD FORMATION IN THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LANGUAGES

Theme 8

Morphological Structure of the Word. Morphemic and Derivational Analyses

8.1 Word Formation and Other Ways of Nomination in English and Ukrainian

Language is the main means of human intercourse. The communicative function is the main function of the language.

The communicative function is closely connected with the other, nominative function. **Nominative function** is the function of giving names to things, objects; it is called nomination. In broad sense, **nomination** is the process of denoting ('naming') things, that is, in the linguistic studies, the act of connecting a certain referent with a sign (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1). The branch of linguistics which studies the nominative function of lexical units is termed **onomasiology**.

Ways of nomination in modern English and Ukrainian can be classified as follows (*Figure 8.1*).

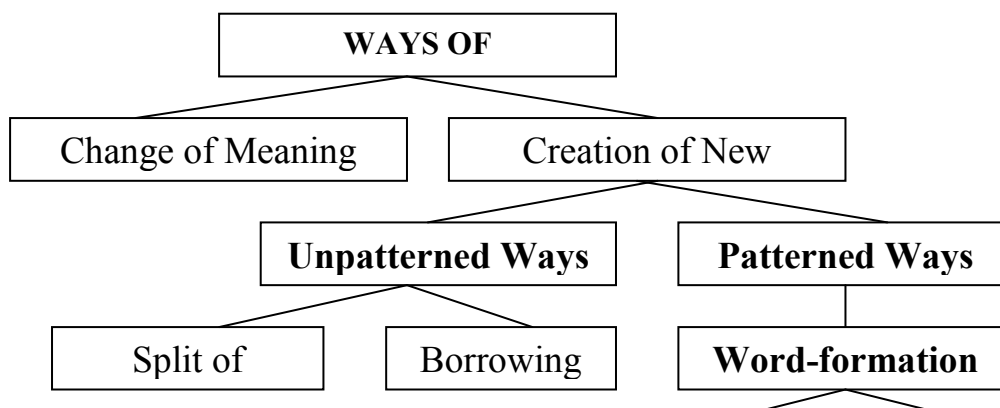


Figure 8.1. Ways of Nomination in English and Ukrainian

Most often the new objects are named with the help of words already existing in the language. What is meant here is **change of meaning**. It's the first means of nomination. An existing word may develop a new

meaning, e.g., *box* ‘a TV set’; *charisma* ‘a personal charm (of a politician or an artist)’ (the old meaning was ‘spiritual grace’), etc.

Existing words may combine and give rise to new word-groups, e.g., *human dimension*; *комп’ютерний вірус*, etc.

Creation of new nominative units which may be words or word-groups is the other means of nomination. New words are never pure inventions, i.e. they are never made up of nothing. Depending upon the way the new nominative units are formed, there are two ways of their creating: unpatterned (split of polysemy and borrowing) and patterned (means of word-formation).

Split of polysemy is a process when the meanings of the word, which is highly polysemantic, are drift so far apart that the link between them is lost. For instance, *watch* existed in OE, it meant ‘vigil’ (‘неспання’), then it meant ‘people who were on guard’ (‘стража’); 2. ‘a primitive device showing time’; 3. ‘new instrument, more perfect, showing time’. By and by ‘a primitive device...’ was forgotten, and the link between it and the ‘new instrument...’ was forgotten; now there are two homonymous words: *watch*₁ ‘vigil’ and *watch*₂ ‘instrument showing time’. Change of meaning and split of polysemy are closely connected.

Borrowing is the process when words are taken from other languages, e.g., *detente*, *sputnik*, etc. Borrowing is the external way of nomination; The English vocabulary contains an immense number of words of foreign origin (70–75%). Still, borrowing has never been the chief way of replenishing the vocabulary. Now, borrowings make up 7.5% of all new words in English. The French language remains the main source of borrowing in English. A new tendency is an increasing number of borrowings from Asian and African languages, e.g., *karate* (Jap), *kung fu* (Chinese), *intifada* (Arabic), etc. Unlike English, borrowed words in Ukrainian make up only 10% of all vocabulary.

Opposed to all these, there is a way of nomination which is more productive. It is **word-formation**, which is a patterned way of creating new words out of the material already existing in the language, e.g., *bridge-builder*, *neocolonialism*, *wage-freeze*, *minicar*, *writer*, etc.

Word formation was practiced by many foreign and domestic linguists. A major contribution to its study was made by O. Kubryakova, K. Levkovskaya, R. Muriassov, M. Stepanova, V. Fleischer, V. Hentzen, T. Shippan, G. Schmidt and others.

Word formation, along with borrowing, is the most important way of enriching the vocabulary of the language. By analogy (models and

patterns) with already existing lexemes with the help of morphemic and lexical material, word-building constructions are created. M. Stepanova in her book “Synchronic analysis methods” (Степанова 1968) wrote that there were various models of word-building structures, which often differ in various ways in different researchers, since linguistics did not have a single interpretation and definition of the word-formation model as a unit of word-formation. The division is based on the types of word-building elements, their combination and hence the resulting word-formative meaning. Development in word formation does not consist in the emergence of new ways of word formation, but in the use of predominantly one or other model.

The principal ways of word-formation in the contrasted languages are isomorphic. There are such types of word-formation as word-derivation, word-composition, shortening, and minor ways of word-formation (*Figure 8.2*).

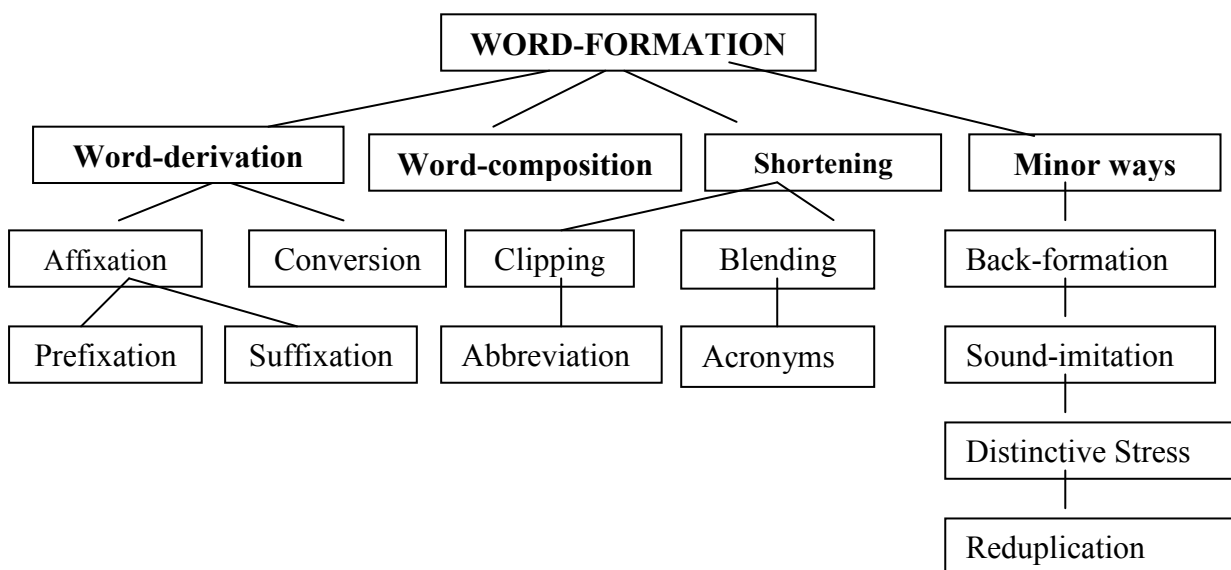


Figure 8.2. Word-Formation in English and Ukrainian

Word-derivation is a process when some words are formed with the help of suffixes or prefixes (affixation), i.e. the formation of a new word out of morphological, derivational elements existing in the language, after some definite patterns (by the addition of a usually non-inflectional affix to another word or base), or by changing of the paradigm of the word (conversion).

Affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation.

Prefixation is a very ancient but productive way of word formation. It should be noted that almost all available prefixes are produced in modern languages.

Suffixation can also be classified as productive ways of word formation in modern languages. However, in spite of a number of features that combine the suffix and half-suffix, one can speak about the apparent advantages in word-formation of semi-suffixes before suffixes. Firstly, many variants of the extended suffixes are unproductive, for example, *-aner*, *-aster*, *-iener*, *-eiser*, *-ianer*, *-iter*, *-ner*, *-ser*, etc. Secondly, semi-suffixes that retain a part of the deep semantic structure (biological genus, etc.) are more informative, and the main goal of communication is the transfer of information.

Word-composition is a process when new words are produced by combining two or more stems. On the basis of the whole system of word formation, it should be noted that in the language, a major role in the derivation performs compounding, which is a leading way of word formation at the present moment. Especially productive is compositing as a way of forming nouns, which are distinguished by a great variety of their morphological composition.

Abbreviation, according to some linguists' opinion, is a patterned way of word-formation too, but its patterns are different from those of affixation and word-composition.

Minor ways of word-formation are non-productive, among them being back-formation, sound-imitation, distinctive stress, and reduplication.

All the ways of nomination are at the same time ways of replenishing of the vocabulary, but word-formation is only one part of replenishing of the vocabulary (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

Word-formation can denote either a state or a process, and it can be viewed either diachronically (through different periods in history) or synchronically (at one particular period in time). Synchrony and diachrony are two different and complementary viewpoints in linguistic analysis.

A **synchronic** approach (from Greek συν- 'together' and χρόνος 'time') considers a language at a moment in time without taking its history into account. Synchronic linguistics aims at describing a language at a specific point of time, usually the present.

By contrast, a **diachronic** approach (from Greek δια- 'through' and χρόνος 'time') considers the development and evolution of a language through history. Historical linguistics is typically a diachronic study.

The concepts were theorized by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913), professor of general linguistics in Geneva from 1896 to 1911, and appeared in writing in his posthumous “Course in General Linguistics” published in 1916. In contrast with most of his predecessors, who focused on historical evolution of languages, Saussure emphasized the primacy of synchronic analysis of languages to understand their inner functioning, though never forgetting the importance of complementary diachrony.

Prior to de Saussure, many similar concepts were also developed independently by Polish linguists of the Kazan school, who used the terms **statics** and **dynamics** of language, – Jan Baudouin de Courtenay (1845–1929), a Polish linguist and Slavist, best known for his theory of the phoneme and phonetic alternations, and Mikołaj Habdank Kruszewski (1851–1887), a Polish linguist, most significant as the co-inventor of the concept of phonemes..

This dualistic opposition has been carried over into philosophy and sociology, for instance, by Roland Gérard Barthes (1915–1980), French essayist and social and literary critic, and Jean-Paul Sartre (1905–1980), French novelist, playwright, and exponent of Existentialism, a philosophy acclaiming the freedom of the individual human. Jacques Marie Émile Lacan (1901–1981), a French psychoanalyst and psychiatrist who has been called “the most controversial psycho-analyst since Freud” also used it for psychoanalysis.

Thus, the vocabulary of the language and the word formation mechanism that serves it, provide a variety of materials for observations, reflections, and generalizations. The functioning of the language is associated with the disappearance of certain words, with the appearance of others, with shifts in the meaning of the third, with a change in the stylistic status of the fourth. Historical Lexicology convinces us that words are created from the real material in the language and by its models, produced in modern language. The main ways of developing the vocabulary of the language are word formation, changing the meaning of the word, leading to the appearance of homonyms and borrowings. Each of these paths has its own characteristics. With the help of word formation and change of meaning, the language was enriched with new words based on words already existed in it. With the help of borrowing, the vocabulary of one language is enriched by the vocabulary of another language.

8.2 Two Levels of Morphological Analysis: Morphemic and Derivational

Vocabulary plays a crucial role in the four skills: speaking, listening, writing, and reading. It is especially critical to reading comprehension and determines how well students are able to comprehend the texts they read in college. “Vocabulary is a vital foundational thread in the tapestry of reading; it should be woven into the fabric of everything that is being studied” (Tankersley 2005 : 66). A solid body of research highlights the strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (Laufer 2001; Nation 1990; 2001; Oakhill 2015). Comprehension, according to Karen Tankersley, “...is drawing meaning from words; it is the essence of reading, central both to academic and lifelong learning” (2005 : 108).

It is claimed that more than 60% of the new words that readers encounter have easily identifiable morphological structure (Nagy et al. 1989). Hence, the knowledge of roots and affixes has been experimentally proven to help students of all ages and in a variety of fields of study. I. S. Paul Nation (1990) points out that the advantage of using morphological analysis for vocabulary learning is that it can help in learning unfamiliar words by relating them to the known words or known prefixes and suffixes. Thus, it helps the learners increase and boost their vocabulary by perceiving words as part of a word family (Nation 2001).

In Modern linguistics there are **two levels of approach** to the study of morphological structure of words:

- the level of morphemic analysis, which aims at segmentation of a word into constituent morphemes, determining the number and type of these morphemes,
- the level of derivational analysis, which reveals the way a word is constructed, i.e. it helps define the derivational, or derivative, pattern after which the word has been built.

Consider the following examples:

en / courage – *en / courage / ment* – the number of morphemes is 2 and 3, the morphological structure of these words is different;

en / courage / ment – *courage / ous / ly* – the number of morphemes is the same, but the nature is different: pf – R – sf, R – sf – sf.

en / courage / ment – *un / employ / ment* – the number and the nature of morphemes is the same, thus, according to the morphemic analysis their structure is the same (pf – R – sf).

But the derivational structure is different: the first is the suffixal formation – *encourage / ment* (v + sf → N); the second case is a prefixal formation – *un / employment* (pf + n → N).

Though the morphemic and derivative structures of the word are closely connected and often coincide, they are interpreted differently, e.g., *to water*: on the morphemic level – just a root word; but on the derivational level – it's a derived word formed by means of conversion from the noun *water*.

8.2.1 Morphemic Analysis and its Basic Units in English and Ukrainian

The **aim** of morphemic analysis is segmentation of a word into morphemes and determining the number and type of these morphemes.

The principal typological constant of the morphemic level is the morpheme.

The **morpheme** is defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language unit which means an association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-form. Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of the language but its meaning is generalized, e.g., in *rewrite* “re-” denotes ‘reversal of an action’.

Morphemes may be classified from a) the semantic point of view,
b) the structural point of view.

The relationship between the two classes of morphemes discussed above can be graphically presented in the following diagram (*Figure 8.3*):

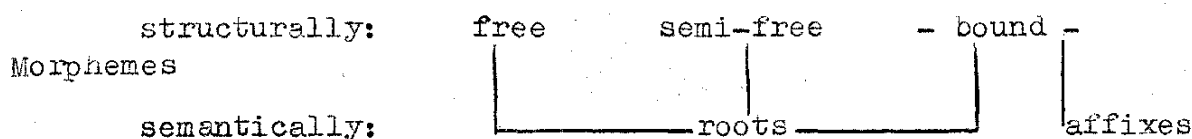


Figure 8.3. Classification of Morphemes

Structurally, morphemes fall into three types: free morphemes, bound morphemes, semi-free (semi-bound) morphemes.

A free-morpheme is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form (the stem is the part of the word which remains unchangeable throughout the paradigm). A great many root-morphemes are free morphemes, that is those root morphemes that coincide with the stem of the word, e.g., the root-morpheme *friend* of the noun *friendship* is

naturally qualified as a free morpheme because it coincides with one of the forms of the noun *friend*; in Ukrainian, e.g., *ліс* in *лісник*, etc.

A bound-morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are usually considered to be bound-morphemes for they always make part of a word, e.g., the suffixes *-ness*, *-ship*, *-ise* (*-ize*), etc., the prefixes *dis-*, *de-*, *un-*, etc. Thus, in Ukrainian, the words *розлука*, *кішка*, *бочка*, *звучка* contain bound morphemes. But many root-morphemes, especially those of Greek or Romanic origin, are bound morphemes, e.g., *conceive*, *theoretical*, *barbarism*, etc.

Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes are those that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme, e.g., the morphemes *well* and *half*, on the one hand, occur as free morphemes that coincide with the stem and the word-form in utterances like *sleep well*, *to feel well*, *half an hour*; on the other hand, they occur as bound morphemes in words like *well-known*, *half-eaten*, *half-done*, etc.

Semantically, morphemes fall into two classes: root-morphemes and affixational morphemes, which make two distinct classes of morphemes due to the different roles they play in the word-structure.

The root-morpheme is a morpheme in which the lexical meaning is concentrated, i.e. it's the lexical nucleus of the word, e.g., *teach* – in *teach*, *teacher*, *teaching*. The root-morpheme is isolated as the morpheme common to a set of words making up a word-cluster, while non-root morphemes, that is inflections and derivational morphemes, are affixal (affixational) morphemes which modify the lexical meaning of the root and form a new word. Roots and affixes make two distinct classes of morphemes due to the different roles they play in word-structure.

Affixational morphemes are subdivided according to their position, into prefixes, suffixes and infixes, and according to their function and meaning, into derivational and functional affixes (*Figure 8.4*).

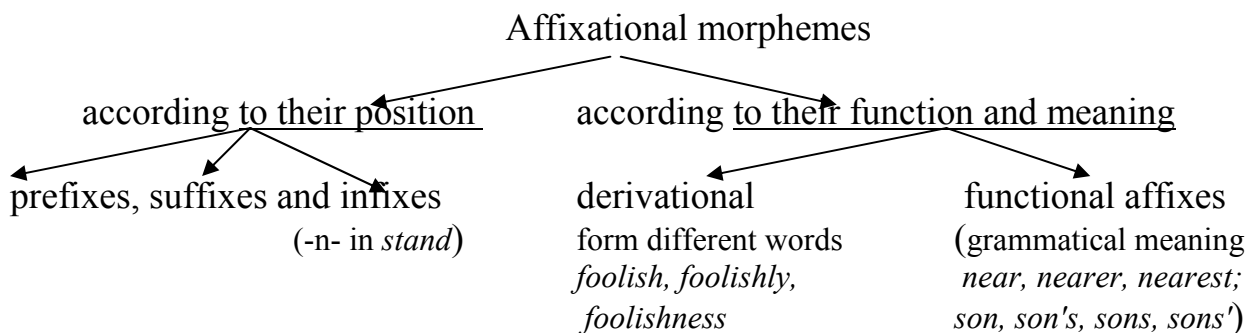


Figure 8.4. Classification of Affixational Morphemes

A prefix precedes the root-morpheme, a suffix follows it. An infix is an affix placed within the word, like -n- in *stand*. The type is not productive.

Functional affixes serve to convey grammatical meaning; they build different forms of one and the same word, e.g., *near*, *nearer*, *nearest*; *son*, *son's*, *sons*, *sons'*. Derivational affixes form different words with different lexical and grammatical meaning, e.g., *foolish*, *foolishly*, *foolishness*.

Derivational and functional morphemes may happen to be identical in sound form, but they are substantially different in meaning and function. For instance, *unwanted*, “-ed” is not a functional affix as in *played*, *studied*, but derivational. Lexicology is primarily concerned with derivational affixes, the other group of functional affixes is the domain of grammarians.

The analysis of word-structure on the morphemic level consists in breaking a word into the constituent morphemes. It is the **method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents**. First suggested by Leonard Bloomfield in 1935, it was later developed by many linguists.

This method is based on a binary principle which means that we divide the word into two parts at a time on the basis of procedures of the identification of the root and the identification of the affix. We cut out the morpheme without which the word exists. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents (ICs), i.e. parts of the word which can be further divided.

Each IC at the next stage of analysis is in its turn broken into two smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. They are referred to as Ultimate Constituents (UCs), i.e. parts of the word which cannot be further divided. For example:

unreasonable → un (IC, UC) + reasonable (1, IC) → reason (2 IC / UC) + able (UC);

придунайський → при- + дунайський → дунай + -ськ + -ий.

The procedure of segmenting a word into its UC morphemes may be presented with the help of a box-like diagram (*Figure 8.5*).

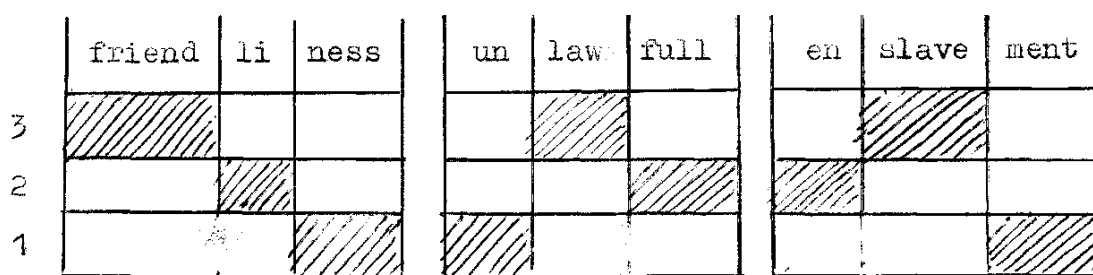


Figure 8.5. The Method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents

The lower layer contains the ICs resulting from the first cut, the upper one those from the second, the shaded boxes representing the ICs which are at the same time the UCs of the word.

The possibility of these procedures is determined by two main characteristics of the morpheme:

- the repetition in different distributional structures in the same language;
- the ability to render a certain amount of information, i.e. to possess a separate individual meaning.

There are three **types of segmentability** of words:

1) in case of complete segmentability, the UCs are morphemes proper, e.g., *worker*, *лицок*, etc.;

2) in case of conditional segmentability, the UCs are pseudo-morpheme or quasi-morphemes (or empty morphs in terms of Stephen R. Anderson (1992), e.g., *to retain* – *to detain* – *to contain*; *to receive* – *to deceive* – *to conceive*; *to stand* – *to understand* – *to withstand*, which have no lexical meaning;

3) in case of defective segmentability, at least one of the UCs is a unique morpheme, e.g., *pocket* (a unique morpheme) – *locket*, *hogget*.

The existence of words that are difficult to analyse is due to:

- a) borrowing from different languages;
- b) the changes in their morphological structure that some words underwent in the course of their historical development.

The **result of morphemic analysis** is the classification of words according to the number of morphemes into monomorphemic and polymorphemic (Figure 8.6).

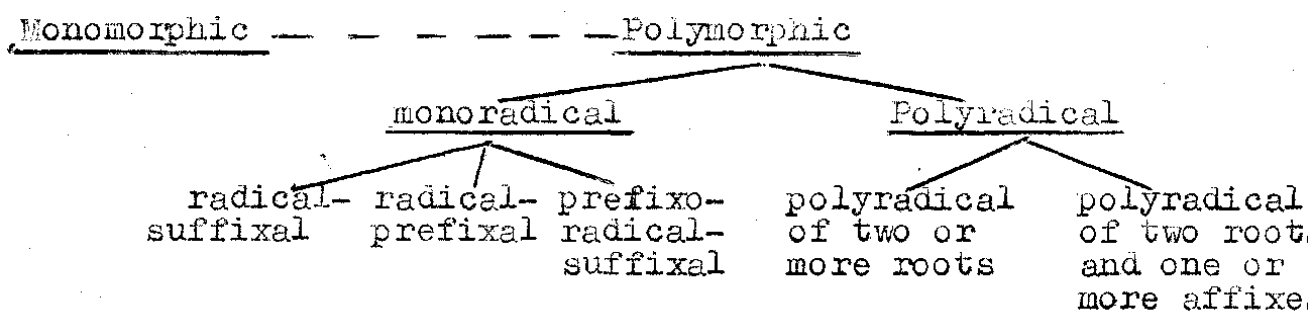


Figure 8.6. Classification of Words as a Result of Morphemic Analysis

Monomorphemic, or root-words, consist of only one root morpheme, e.g., *small, dog, make, give, стіл, ніс*, etc.

Polymorphemic words according to the number of root-morphemes are classified into two subgroups: monoradical and polyradical words.

Monoradical words (or one-root words) fall into three subtypes:

1) radical-suffixal words, i.e. words that consist of one root-morpheme and one or more suffixal morphemes, e.g., *acceptable, acceptability, blackish, рідний, золотий*, etc.;

2) radical-prefixal words, i.e. words that consist of one root-morpheme and a prefixal morpheme, e.g., *outdo, rewrite, unbutton, вийти, закрити*, etc.;

3) prefixo-radical-suffixal, i.e. words which consist of one root, a prefixal and a suffixal morphemes, e.g., *disagreeable, misinterpretation, unreasonable, підбerezовик, поноїсти*, etc.

Polyradical words, which consist of two or more roots, fall into two types:

1) polyradical words which consist of two or more roots with no affixations morphemes, e.g., *bookshelf, lamp-shade, blackboard, лісостен, водоспад*, etc.;

2) words which contain at least two roots and one or more affixational morphemes, e.g., *safety-pin, light-mindedness, wedding-pie, class-consciousness, looking-glass, хлібосольний, золотоносний*, etc.

The morphemic analysis defines the Ultimate Constituents (UCs), their typical sequence and arrangement, but it doesn't reveal the hierarchy of morphemes making up the word. The morphemic analysis doesn't aim at finding out the nature and arrangement of ICs of the word, e.g., *unmanly* and *discouragement* are referred to the same type as both are segmented into three UCs representing one root, one prefixational and one suffixational morpheme but they are different as to their derivative structure.

8.2.2 Derivational Analysis and its Basic Units in English and Ukrainian

The derivational analysis aims at establishing structural and semantic patterns words are built on, i.e. its derivative structure.

The basic units of derivational system are:

- **micro units** (derivational bases, derivational affixes and derivation patterns) and

- **the macro units** (the derivational row of words and the derivational cluster of words).

A **derivational base** is the constituent part of the word to which another base or an affix is added to make up a new word.

A derivational base is the starting point for different words, e.g., the nominal base *hand* gives rise to nouns (*hand-bag*, *handwriting*, *shorthand*), adjectives (*handy*), verbs (*to hand*).

Structurally, derivational bases fall into three classes.

1. Bases that coincide with morphological stems of different degrees of complexity, e.g., *duti / ful*, *dutiful / ly*; *day-dream*, *day-dream / er*.

The morphological stem of a word is the part of the word which takes on the system of grammatical inflections, i.e. it is the part of the word which is the starting point for its forms. The stem remains unchanged throughout its paradigm (its word-forms), e.g., *filmstar (0)*, *filmstar(s)*, *filmstar('s)*, *filmstar(s')*.

Derivationally, the morphological stems that serve as this class of basis are:

- a simple morphological stem – consisting of a simple root morpheme, as the derivational base *father* which is used for creation of the verb *to father* coincides with a simple morphological stem *father-* which is a starting point for such noun forms as *fathers*, *father's*, *fathers'*;

- a derived morphological stem – consisting of a root morpheme and one or more affixes, as *computer-* in *computer / ize*, e.g., *girlish-ly*; *to parrot* is a one morpheme, it's still derived;

- a compound morphological stem – consisting of two or more other stems, as *week / end-* in the word *weekender*, e.g., *matchbox* stems may be also free and bound; this class of derivational bases is the biggest. Cf. in Ukrainian: *цар – царівна*, *зелень – прозелень*.

- a free morphological stem – capable of building a word without adding other morphemes, e.g., *handy*;

• a bound morphological stem – not capable of forming a separate word by itself, e.g., *philosopher*.

2. Basis that coincides with word-forms as the base *known-* in *un / known* or *dancing-* in *a dancing / girl*. Cf. *працелюб, свюдухид*. Such bases are confined to verbal word-forms: the present and past participles are characterized by limited collocability, e.g., *un / smiling, un / known, mocking / bird*.

3. Basis which coincides with word-groups of different degrees of stability, as the derivational base *narrow mind-* in *narrow-mind / ed* or *blue eye(s)-* in *blue-eye / d*, or *second rate-* in *second-rate / ness*; *вусоки зору* in *вусокозип'я*, etc. Bases of this type also allow a limited range of collocability and are the most active with derivational affixes in the class of adjectives and nouns, e.g., *blue-eyed, do-gooder*.

The important peculiarity of a derivational base in contrast to a morphological stem is that it is monosemantic. Rules of word-formation are applied to a derivational base representing only one meaning of a polysemantic stem. For example, the derivational base *bed* in the compound word a *flower-bed* has only one meaning: 'a flat or level surface as in a plot of ground prepared for plants' while the word *bed* is highly polysemantic.

Derivational affixes are ICs of numerous derivatives in all parts of speech. Derivational affixes differ from affixational morphemes in their function within the word, in their distribution, and in their meaning.

Derivational affixes possess two basic functions:

1) stem-building, which is common to all affixational morphemes: derivational and non-derivational, e.g., "ic-" in *public, comic, music*; it is the function of shaping a morphemic sequence, or a word-form or a phrase into the part of the word capable of taking a set of grammatical inflections and is conditioned by the part-of-speech meaning these morphemes possess;

2) word-building, which is the function of re-patterning a derivational base and building a lexical unit of a structural and semantic type different from the one represented in the source unit, e.g., *historic, economic, classic*. The re-patterning results in either transferring it into the stem of another part of speech or transferring it into another subset within the same part of speech. For example, the derivational suffix *-ness* applied to bases of different classes shapes derived stems thus making new words. In *kindliness, girlishness*, etc., it re-patterns the adjectival stems *kindly-*,

girlish-; in *second / rate / ness*, *all / at / once / ness*, it turns the phrases *second rate*, *all at once* into stems and consequently forms new nouns.

In most cases, derivational affixes perform both functions simultaneously shaping derived stems and marking the relationship between different classes of lexical items. However, certain derivational affixes may in individual sets of words perform only one function that of stem building.

Derivational affixes (prefixes and suffixes) are highly selective to the etymological, phonological, and structural-semantic properties of derivational bases. The suffix *-ance / -ence*, for example, never occurs after “s” or “z”, e.g., *disturbance*, but: *organization*. The prefix *in-* has limitations, too, e.g., *insecure*, *inconvenience* but *non-conformist*, *disobedience*. Or, even though the combining abilities of the adjectival suffix *-ish* are vast, they are not unlimited: it is possible to say *boyish*, *bookish*, *monkeyish*, *sevenish*, but not, for example, *enemish*.

In Ukrainian, suffix *-ap / -яp* is productive in the words *лікар*, *бунтар*, *маляр*, *кресляр*, though not all names of professions can be created with the help of this suffix.

The conditions under which affixes of a certain type may be attached to a certain derivational base and the limits of possible use of derivational affixes are still not clear and being actively investigated.

A derivational pattern is a scheme on which words are made up. A derivational pattern is a regular meaningful arrangement of immediate components, which can be expressed by a formula denoting their part of speech, lexical-semantic class, and individual semantics.

The derivational pattern consists of two parts: the left and the right. In the left-hand part, we have the base and another base or and affix, and in the right-hand part, we have the resulting word. E.g.:

- (1) *un / employ / ment* – pf + R + sf (morphemic composition);
un / employment – pf + n → N (derivational pattern).
- (2) *im / person / al / iz / ation* – pf + R + 3sf (morphemic composition);
impersonalize / ation – v + sf → N (derivational pattern);
- (3) *en / courage / ment* – pf + R + sf (morphemic composition);
encourage / ment – v + sf → N (derivational pattern);

Morphemically, they are the same (pf + R + sf), but derivationally they are different: the 1st is prefixal formation, the 2nd and the 3rd are suffixal formation.

Other examples are as follows (*Figure 8.7*).

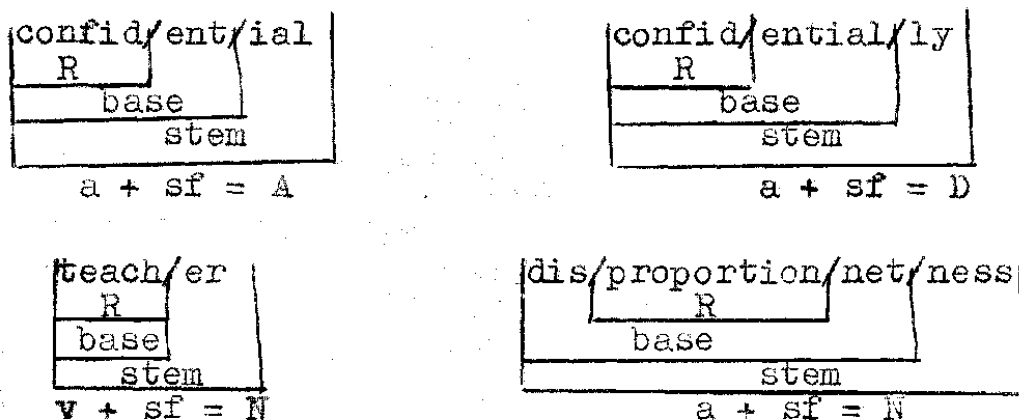


Figure 8.7. Derivational Analysis

Derivational patterns may represent the derivate (derivational) structure of words at different levels of generalization:

- at the level of structure or types specifying only the class membership of ICs and the direction of motivation, such as $a+sf \rightarrow N$; $pf+n \rightarrow V$; patterns of this type are known as structural formulas;
- at the level of structural-semantic types, which specify the base classes and individual. It follows that derivational patterns may be classified into two types: 1) structural and 2) structural semantic.

Derivational patterns may be **productive** and **nonproductive**.

For example, a number of patterns of different productivity are used to lexicalize concepts denoting a doer of an action:

$v + -er \rightarrow N$ is a highly productive derivational pattern, e.g., *teach* \rightarrow *teacher*, *build* \rightarrow *builder*, *sing* \rightarrow *singer*;

$n + -ist \rightarrow N$ is quite a productive pattern, e.g., *piano* \rightarrow *pianist*, *art* \rightarrow *artist*), but

$n + -ian \rightarrow N$, e.g., *Christ* \rightarrow *Christian*; *politics / policy* \rightarrow *politian*; *comedy* \rightarrow *comedian* is active though not a productive derivational pattern because a limited number of words are derived according to it.

In Ukrainian, a non-productive derivational pattern is $v + -ал(я) \rightarrow N$, e.g., *праги* \rightarrow *праля*, *ткаги* \rightarrow *ткаля*, while $v + -ник \rightarrow N$, e.g., *складати* \rightarrow *складальник*, *вслувати* \rightarrow *вслувальник*, *ремонтувати* \rightarrow *ремонтник*, *мріяти* \rightarrow *мрійник* is a highly productive derivational pattern to denote an agent of an action.

The **macro units** of this system are the derivational row (set) of words and the derivational cluster of words (Table 8.1). These two units comprise words built on the same or different derivational patterns.

Table 8.1

Macro Units of Derivational Analysis:
A Derivational Row and A Derivational Cluster

to father	father	fatherhood	fatherless	fatherly
V	N	N	A	D
-	mother	-	-	-
-	brother	-	-	-

A **derivational row (set)** of words (vertically) is a group of words built on the same derivational pattern; the words possess the identical affixal morpheme, e.g., *fatherless*, *motherless*, *brotherless*. The words have the same structural meaning, though each of them has a meaning of its own (in the given example the common derivational meaning is ‘devoid of smth denoted by the base’).

A **derivational cluster** (horizontally) is a complex unity of words possessing the same root-morpheme but built on different patterns, e.g., *father*, *to father*, *fatherhood*, *fatherless*, *fatherly* and characterized by specific organization.

Graphically, a derivational cluster may be presented as follows (Figure 8.8).

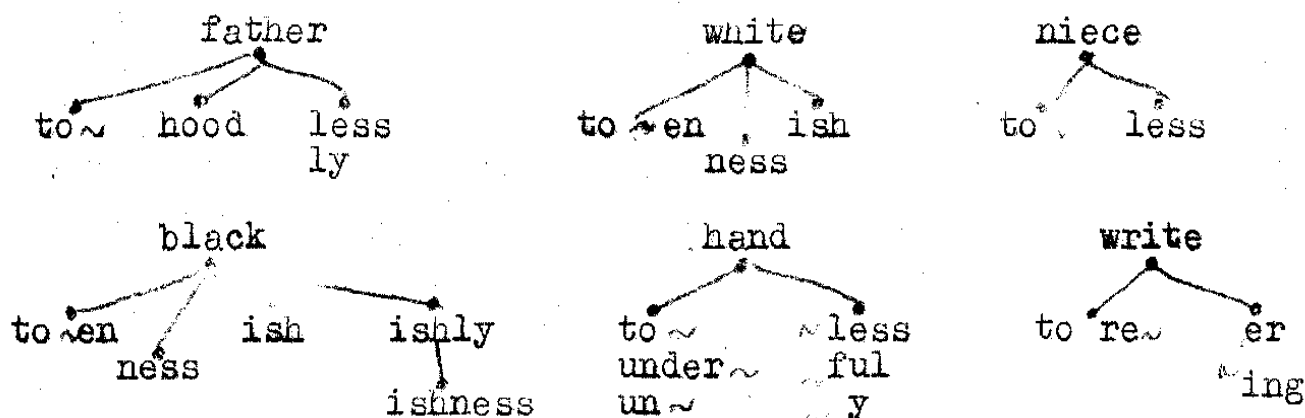


Figure 8.8. Derivational Clusters

It is not an abstract theory, it helps understand the way the words are built up and the meaning of the new words.

As a **result of derivational analysis**, all words form three structural classes: simple, or non-derived, words, derivatives, and complex (compound) words.

Non-derived (simple) are words which cannot be segmented into ICs. Morphemically, it may be monomorphic when its stem coincides with the free root-morpheme, e.g., *hand*, *come*, *blue*, etc., or polymorphic when it is a sequence of bound morphemes, e.g., *anxious*, *theory*, *public*, etc.

Derivatives are secondary, motivated units, made up, as a rule, of two ICs – one root and one or several derivational affixes, e.g., *friendliness*, *schoolmasterish*, *acceptable*, *disagreement*, etc. The ICs are brought together according to specific rules of order and arrangement preconditioned by the system of the language. It follows that all derivatives are marked by the fixed order of their ICs.

Compound words contain at least two root-morphemes. There can be only two root-morphemes in a compound, e.g., *blackboard*, *lampshade*, *armchair* or both root and derivational morpheme, e.g., *broad-shouldered*, *light-mindedness*.

These structural types of words are not of equal importance in the English language which is proved by their frequency value in actual speech. According to the available word counts made in different parts of speech, derived words numerically constitute the largest class of words in the existing word-stock; e.g., derived nouns comprise approximately 67% of the total number, root nouns make up only 18%.

But if we consider the frequency value of these words in actual speech, we can perceive that root-words occupy a predominant place in English (about 60% of nouns and 62% of the total number of adjectives) in current use are root-words.

Thus, it is the root-words that constitute the foundation and the backbone of the vocabulary and that are of paramount importance in speech. Besides, root-words are characterized by a high degree of collocability and a complex variety of meanings in contrast with words of other structural types. Root-words also serve as parent forms for all types of derived and compound words.

Thus, the two levels of morphological analysis, – morphemic and derivational, – are different in their aims, units of analysis, methods employed, and results (*Table 8.2*).

Table 8.2

The Comparison of Two Types of Morphological Analysis

COMPARISON OF TWO TYPES OF ANALYSIS		
level	morphemic	derivational
1. aim	to establish the number of morphemes and their types	to establish the derivation pattern
2. unit of analysis	morphemes	the pattern consists of the base, affixes; derivational sets and derivational cluste
3. methods employed	ultimate constituents	immediate constituents
4. results	all words are divided into monomorphemic and polymorphemic	non-derived derived compound

To sum up, morphological analysis is central to language studies as it helps overcome the problem of out-of-vocabulary words, and leverages learner's morphological tools.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

The Process of Nomination. Typology of Nomination Means

Language nomination draws either on morphemes (as in Vietnamese) and their combinations or words and their combinations (as in most languages, and particularly in English and Ukrainian). Depending on the language in question, these might appear as single-word or multi-word lexemes, but in some cases as stable sentences (e.g., proverbs).

Language nomination is taken here, following the Prague Circle linguistic tradition, specifically that of Vilém Mathesius (1882–1945), to mean a language name (form) for an item of extralingual reality or mental content (Mathesius 1975). The scope of possible nominations is limited here, according to František Čermák (born in 1940), to stable linguistic nominations. Internal nominations is the label used here for those types which arise inside the language, in contradistinction to external nominations, basically loan-words, which come into the language from elsewhere (Čermák 2002).

It is blatantly obvious that different types of nominations have a different scope of meaning expressed, too. A great contribution to the research was made in the sixties by Stephen Ullmann (1914–1976), who has summed up, in his search for potential semantic universals (Ullmann 1966), what has been repeatedly taken for granted before, also in the Prague school. In doing this, he established a link between three of the

four major formal internal types of nomination formation, or, rather, in his terms of the time, of word formation. In his view, some languages use

(A) derivation and

(B) compounding for the formation of new words, while other languages, using these two sporadically, exhibit a tendency to fill gaps in the vocabulary by resorting to

(C) polysemy, by addition of new meanings to the existing ones. Although this is no straightforward rule, being limited and modified by a number of factors (including borrowings), our practical every-day experience with different languages and language types may basically suggest this, too, without any prior research. However, it should be noted that the most difficult problem one is faced with is polysemy. It is common knowledge, that dictionaries wildly differ in their treatment polysemy and there is no consensus here whatsoever.

There are two main participants in the process of nomination;

(1) the nominator, i.e. one who names an object,

(2) the referent, i.e. the named object, which is the starting point in the process of nomination.

The process of nomination begins with forming a **concept** of a referent. The concept is a category of human cognition. It's a generalized idea of a class of objects, summing up the most essential characteristics of the given class that help to distinguish it from any other class of objects.

Concepts are basically similar for all people – speakers of different languages because

(1) the formation of concepts is determined by cognitive abilities of Man,

(2) all people live in the same real world, whose features concepts abstract, generalize and reflect. There is a real world we share irrespective of the language we use.

Some factors that influence the formation of concepts and may account for some differences in concepts in different language communities are as follows:

1) the objective reality itself, e.g., Eng. *to drink soup* because in England soup is liquid; on balance in Ukr. *їсму cyn* as in Ukraine the dish is half-liquid and half-solid, that is why one chews it; they are real-world distinctions;

2) the level of knowledge about the nature of a referent, e.g., the knowledge about the universe, and thus the concepts of “a star”, “space”, etc. in the 11th century and today;

3) the general system of notions of a given language community, e.g., the system of religious beliefs: in Ancient Egypt *a cat* was a sacred animal, in India *a cow* is sacred, but neither has ever been sacred in England or Ukraine.

Speakers of different languages clearly have different pictures of the world. For instance, the Eskimos have three different words for *snow* depending on whether it is falling, lying on the ground or used for igloos ('a dome-shaped Eskimo house, typically built from blocks of solid snow'). The words of a language often reflect not so much the reality of the world as the interests of the people who speak it.

Still, if we do not have the same picture of the world as the speakers of other languages, we nevertheless have a picture that can be related to and in some degree "mapped upon" the picture that others have. That this is so is proved by the fact that we can investigate other languages and that we can translate. For instance, in Ukrainian, there are three words *синій голубий* and *блакитний* and in English only one word *blue* corresponds to them. And yet, English people are not colour-blind, of course, they distinguish different shades of blue and the language reflects it as *light-blue* and *dark-blue*.

The second stage of nomination is **the formation of meaning**.

The meaning of the word is closely connected with the concept but is not identical with it. Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949) argued that *salt* could be clearly defined as 'sodium chloride' (or NaCl) (Bloomfield 1935). He was wrong to do so, the meaning of the word *salt* cannot be regarded as identical with its chemical formula as *salt* means the same (substance that appears on our tables) to all English speakers including those that have no idea of its chemical composition.

Neither referents nor concepts belong to the language while meaning does. O. Smirnitskiy (1903–1954) defined meaning as "a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign – its so-called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet" (Смирницкий 1956). Meaning is always connected to a certain sound-form.

The difference between meaning and concept can be proved by comparing synonymous words and phrases expressing essentially the same concept but possessing meaning that is felt as different, e.g., *broad* and *wide* 'measuring much from side to side': *broad* is preferred when full horizontal extent is considered (e.g., *broad shoulders*), *wide* is used in the

presence of limiting features (e.g., *a wide doorway*). Cf. also: *baby, babe, child, infant*.

Unlike the concept, meaning reflects some features of an object which are not necessarily the most essential ones. The formation of meaning consists in singling out several features or just one feature of an object, e.g., fur in *tabby* ‘mottled or streaked cat esp. of gray or brownish colour with dark stripes’. The features underlying the meanings of corresponding words in different languages may be different, e.g., *lady-killer* and *κερδευειδ*.

Originally, in the process of nomination, the meaning should be correlated with a certain sound-form (and a graphical form). There are three possibilities of forming the sound-form of a word:

- (1) to invent a new sound-form;
- (2) to borrow one from another language;
- (3) to use already existing units of the given language.

The latter is secondary nomination, while in (1) and (2), we deal with primary nomination. Secondary nomination is much more important than primary nomination, as most units are secondary nominations.

Lexicalization means that a grammatical form of a word becomes a separate word, e.g., *looks* ‘appearance’.

Nomination as the process of denoting (“naming”) things, the linguistic part of which consists in the act of connecting a certain denotatum / designatum with a sign / designator, can be of different types:

a) according to the number of acts of a certain sign takes part in nomination:

- primary nomination;
- secondary nomination;

b) according to various linguistic means employed in nomination:

- lexical nomination – nomination of a concept by means of lexical items as opposed to concepts expressed grammatically;
- propositional nomination – expression of concepts of propositional nature by means of propositions.

Having discussed the problem of nomination, we should turn to the definition of **a name** itself. It is a linguistic unit denoting an extralingual entity.

According to the nature of extralingual entity denoted, names / nominations can be subdivided into:

- names of classes vs. names of individual objects;
- names of objects vs. names of properties (qualities, features).

Secondary nomination is the process and the result of derivational processes in the vocabulary, when an already existing name is used for the second time to denote another referent. However, the term is assumed to be incorrect because for each referent, the process of nomination is always a primary and the only act of nomination.

Our language reflects the structure of the world, but not directly, it reflects the world through our conceptual sphere => language reflects our conceptualization of the world. Hence, within this scope, words are symbols, they represent objects.

There are 2 steps of conceptualization:

1. The formation of a concept or an image.
2. Establishing a link between the conception and the linguistic sign.

When the latter is offered and accepted, it must be borne in mind that nomination may be subdivided into:

- univerbal, constituting one word (one object – one word);
- multiverbal, which deals with more than one verb (nomination by morphological means).

The last but not least, there are three types of motivation of nomination:

- phonetic – onomatopoeic words (e.g., *boo, bark, bang; дзижчати, гавкати*, etc.);
- morphological – derivatives (e.g., *teach – teacher; hand – handbag; синій – синь, довгий – довжина*, etc.);
- semantic – direct and figurative meanings (e.g., *foot of the mountain; ніжка стола*, etc.).

Summing up all the points, we can say that as the result of a nominative act, language system receives a linguistic sign with a new meaning. The procedure of giving names is a complex phenomenon the essence of which is conditioned by the set of problems. First of all, this process is connected with the results of designation by means of linguistic signs presenting the natural qualities of things and phenomena through their ideal forms-notions. They are first reflected in human mind in infinite multitude of forms and states making the whole – the nominative meaning of a word, i.e. the meaning which stands behind the name.

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Text 2

Theory of Nomination and Word-Making Processes

Криворот В. В. Theory of Nomination and Word-Making Processes. *Кросс-культурная коммуникация и современные технологии в исследовании и преподавании языков: материалы международной научно-практической конференции, посвященной 90-летию БГУ (Минск, 25–26 октября 2011г.)* / редкол.: О. И. Уланович и др. Минск : Изд. центр БГУ, 2012. С. 79–81

Act of nomination is a speech-cognitive process of choosing a ready name for the thing from the available linguistic units or coining a new name for it. The coining of new words proceeds by way of combining linguistic elements on the basis of a determinant / determinatum relationship called syntagma.

О. Kubryakova (Кубрякова 1977) defines the structure of the nomination act in the following way: it includes the speaker's intention and the linguistic means of its realization. In accordance with his / her intention, the speaker analyses the situation and marks some details in it. This affects the choice of a nomination unit (Кульгавова 2008). Here the following factors are taken into consideration:

1) the source of nomination: in which form – ready or newly coined – the unit is taken;

2) the form and the length of the nomination unit: a word, a word-combination, or a sentence;

3) the inner form of nomination: nomination may be either by a motivated sign or an unmotivated sign. E.g., phonetic motivation: *smash*, *whip*, *splash*; morphological motivation: *friend* – *unfriendly*; semantic motivation: *the arm of a person* → *the arm of a tree*;

4) the semantic types of nomination: direct / indirect, primary / secondary, literal / figurative. Primary nomination takes place when the referent is nominated directly and the meaning of the linguistic unit can be understood without the help of a context, in isolation.

Secondary nomination is the use of existing linguistic units in a new function, with a new meaning;

5) the adequacy of the nomination act and the inner control over its appropriateness and exactness.

In the act of nomination, various pragmatic factors are of great importance: emotional factors, evaluative factors, social factors.

The vocabulary of a language, and, correspondingly, the “lexicon” as the subcomponent of the grammar which formally represents the lexical competence of a native speaker, are structured by two organizational principles: a semantic and a formal-morphological one.

Semantic structures result from the existence of various kinds of sense relations between lexical items, or rather, the meanings of lexical items, on the basis of which one obtains sets of lexemes sharing a common basic meaning. These sets are usually referred to as lexical fields.

Formal-morphological structures derive from the ability of already existing lexical items to combine with other lexical items or with bound morphemes (prefixes, suffixes) forming morphologically complex new lexical items. These processes, i.e. compounding, prefixation, suffixation, etc., characterize the field of word-formation, and they are usually regarded as a means of extending the vocabulary almost without limits in order to adapt it to the ever-changing referential requirements of a speech community. This leads to a formal division of the vocabulary into primary and secondary lexemes. Primary lexemes, e.g., *big*, *mountain*, *give*, *in*, etc., are simple, arbitrary linguistic signs in the sense of Saussure. Secondary lexemes, e.g., *spaceship*, *steamboat*, *rewrite*, *atomize*, *rider*, *departure*, etc., are lexical syntagmas. As such, they are characterized by a determinan / determinatum relation; they are relatively motivated with regard to their constituents and parallel formations; and they are based on certain morphological, semantic, and syntactic patterns.

Most authors elaborate a classification of word-making processes on the basis of the onomasiological study of a specific given concept. In his article “Some aspects of modern diachronic onomasiology”, Joachim Grzega (URL) offers a general (i.e. language-independent) classification that characterizes word-making processes as combinations of the aspects “stratic filiation”, “morphological filiation”, and “semantic filiation”.

1. Semantic / semasiological change, including eponymy (the formation of common nouns from proper nouns; or antonomasia, métonymie onomastique) and folk-etymological change;

2. Borrowing from another language or variety, including another diachronic variety;
3. Word formation, including calques (compounding including folk-etymological compounds, derivation including back-formation);
4. Semantic pseudo-loan from another language or variety;
5. Partial folk etymology, blending, truncation (including ellipsis), acronymy;
6. Morphological / lexical pseudo-loan;
7. Root creation / word manufacture.

One of the important problems of onomasiology is that a large number of different onomasiological studies are distributed in publications that can only be found or accessed with difficulty. And as for comparative studies which must be the basis for any theoretical conclusions, a central database and a central publication are needed.

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Theme 9

Contrastive Typology of Morphological Ways of Word-Formation in the English and Ukrainian Languages

9.1 Affixation

Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to stems .

On the morphemic level, every word formed by means of affixation has only one root-morpheme, which is its semantic center, and one or more derivational affixes. For instance, the word *displease* has only one root-morpheme and one derivational affix – the prefix *dis-* .

On the derivational level, derived words comprise a primary stem, the stem being in itself either a simple, a derived or a compound stem and a derivational affix. For instance, *violinist* = n + -ist (a simple stem), *friendliness* = (n + -ly) + -ness (a derived stem), *chairmanship* = (n + n) + -ship (a compound stem).

Affixal, or derivational, word-formation in the contrasted languages includes (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1):

- a) prefixal word-formation;
- b) suffixal word-formation and
- c) combined (suffixal plus prefixal) word-formation.

9.1.1 Prefixation

Prefixation is the formation of new words with the help of prefixes. Prefixes are affixes which precede the root. There are about fifty prefixes in Modern English.

Prefixes may function in more than one part of speech. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem, e.g., *read* – *reread*, *happy* – *unhappy*, *будувати* – *неперебудувати*, *писати* – *написати*, etc., but they seldom affect the lexical and grammatical meaning of the word, they don't change the part of speech of the word.

Prefixes may be classified from synchronic and diachronic approaches.

Synchronically, prefixes can be classified in different way according to their

- productivity,
- meaning.

Productivity is the ability of prefixes to form new words after existing patterns which are readily understood by the speakers of a language. The degree of productivity is shown by the number of words with this prefix.

Productive prefixes, e.g., **un-**, **in-**, **re-**, etc., can make new words in Modern English. Unproductive prefixes don't make new words, e.g., **be-**, **de-**, **arch-**, **co-**, etc.

Semantically, prefixes are classified according to the meaning they convey to the derived word. There are some groups of prefixes:

1. Negative prefixes are prefixes of negative meaning, such as **un-** (*ungrateful*, *unimportant*), **in-** / **il-** / **ir-** / **im-** (*incorrect*, *illegal*, *irreligious*, *immaterial*), **dis-** (*disrespect*, *disagree*, *dishonest*), **de-** (*decentralize*), **non-** (*non-interference*, *non-alcoholic*), **a-** (*asymmetric*).

Prefix **in-** occurs in different phonetic shapes depending on initial sound of the stem it is affixed to: **il-** (before [l]), **ir-** (before [r]), **im-** (before [p, m]), **in-** in all other cases, e.g., *illegal*, *irrational*, *improbable*, *immobile*, *inactive*, etc.

In Ukrainian: **не-** (*нелегкий*, *непостійний*, *неправда*, *неволя*), **без-** (*бездарний*, *безконтрольний*, *безуспішний*), **а-** (*асинхронний*, *алогічний*), **дис-** (*диспропорція*, *дисбаланс*), **де-** (*децентралізація*, *дезактивація*), **з-** (*знесилити*, *зневоднювати*).

2. Prefixes denoting reversal of an action, such as **un-** (*unfasten*, *undo*), **re-** (*rewrite*, *rearrange*), **dis-** (*disconnect*).

In Ukrainian: **роз-** (*розв'язати*, *роз'єднати*), **пере-** (*переписати*, *передумати*).

3. Prefixes denoting order and time relation, such as **fore-** (*foresee*), **pre-** (*pre-historic*), **post-** (*post-position*, *postwar*), **over-** (*overcome*, *overspread*), **after-** (*afternoon*), **under-** (*underwater*), **out-** (*outstanding*).

In Ukrainian: **до-** (*доісторичний*), **перед-** (*передбачати*), **по-** (*повоєнний*), **пере-** (*переходити*), **при-** (*приїжджати*), **об-** (*об'їхати*), **о-** (*оминути*), **після-** (*післявоєнний*).

4. Prefixes denoting locative relation, such as **sub-** (*subway*), **inter-** (*international*), **trans-** (*transformation*), **super-** (*superstructure*).

In Ukrainian: **під-** (*підводний*), **над-** (*надзвичайний*), **інтер-** (*інтернаціональний*), **транс-** (*трансатлантичний*).

Stylistically, prefixes may be classified into stylistically neutral and stylistically coloured. **Stylistically neutral** prefixes occur in all styles of speech, e.g., **over-**, **un-**, **pre-**, **dis-**, **sub-**, etc. **Stylistically coloured** prefixes are used only in particular style, e.g., **pseudo-** (*pseudoscientific*),

contra- (*contradiction*), **anti-** (*antipode*), **counter-** (*counter-revolution*), **super-** (*supernatural*) are peculiar to the style of scientific prose.

Type of base to which prefixes are added. Some prefixes can combine with the stem of only one part of speech.

Denominal prefixes, such as **ex-**, **arch-**, **dys-**, **per-**, etc., are used only with the stem of nouns, e.g., *ex-president*, *disharmony*, *archbishop*.

Deverbal prefixes, such as **be-**, **de-**, **en-**, **out-**, **re-**, etc., are used only with the stem of verb, e.g., *rewrite*, *belong*, *decompensate*, *enforce*, *outcome*, *rewrite*, etc.

Deadjectival prefixes, such as **un-**, **ir-**, etc., are used only with the stem of adjective, e.g., *uneasy*, *irregular*, etc.

But there are some prefixes, such as **co-**, **contra-**, **mis-**, **post-**, **pre-**, **sub-**, **over-**, etc., which are used with nouns, verbs, adjectives, e.g., *co-operate* (verb), *co-operation* (noun), *co-operative* (adjective).

Class prefixes form. Usually prefixes don't change the part of speech. Yet, there are prefixes which can transpose parts of speech but they are much fewer in number. Prefixes which form verbs: **be-** (*belittle*, *befoul*, *belong*); **de-** (*decamp*, *debus*); **en-** (*enfree*, *enlarge*).

Prefixal morphemes have their main features **common (isomorphic)** in the contrasted languages. They may equally be form-building as well as word-forming. English prefixes, however, can form words of more parts of speech than the Ukrainian ones. For example, they can form statives: *a+sleep>asleep*; verbs: *be+dew>bedew*; adjectives: *pre+war>prewar*; adverbs: *in+side>inside*, etc.

Prefixes can also perform some purely grammatical functions. Thus, they can sometimes turn the intransitive verbs into transitive, for example: *vote – outvote*; Ukrainian: *жити – дожити – прожити – пережити*. In Ukrainian, pre-posed affixes can change imperfective verbs into perfective (cf. *бити – збити – забити – добити – розбити*).

The structure of prefixal morphemes in the contrasted languages is generally common, though there are more single-sign (single-letter) prefixes in Ukrainian than in English, which has only one single letter prefix **a-**, e.g., *asleep*, *alike*, *aloof*, etc. Their number in Ukrainian is larger, e.g., *встати*, *внести*, *вдвох*, *зліт*, *угору*, *схід*, *згори*, *вниз*, etc.

Word-forming prefixes pertain mostly to the English language where they can form different parts of speech. For example, verbs: *bedew*, *bemadam*, *embed*, *encamp*, *enable*, *denude*, *disable*, *endear*, etc. Adjectives: *anti-war*, *non-party*, *pre-war*, *post-war*, etc. Statives: *aboard*,

alike, asleep, etc. Adverbs: *today, tomorrow, together, etc.* Prepositions: *below, behind, etc.* Conjunctions: *because, unless, until, etc.*

In Ukrainian, only some conjunctions, prepositions, and adverbs can be formed by means of prefixes, for example: *вдень, вночі, по-нашому, по-новому, набік, вдруге, втретє, оскільки, внаслідок, вгору, знизу, щонайменше, etc.*

International prefixes whose lingual form and meaning are identical in the contrasted languages. Their form-building capacities are equal in the contrasted languages too, which can be seen from the following structural models:

Anti-: *antiglobal, антиглобальний, антивоєнний, etc.*

Ex-: *ex-president, екс-чемпіон, екс-президент, etc.*

Extra-: *extraordinary, екстраординарний, екстравагантний, etc.*

Sub-: *submarine, subordination, субмарина, субординація, etc.*

A large group of prefixes have in the contrasted languages only semantic identity but they are different in their lingual form since they are national prefixes, e.g., *foresee – передбачити, extra-natural – надприродний, intraarterial – внутрі / внутрішньоартеріальний; non-party – позанартійний, pre-war – до / передвоєнний, post-war – по / післявоєнний, sub-species – підвиди / підкласи, etc.*

Isomorphic is also the use of two (in English) and more (in Ukrainian) prefixes before the root / stem, e.g., *mis-rep-resentation, re-embankment*. In Ukrainian, three prefixes may be used to modify the lexical meaning of nouns, adjectives, past participles, and verbs, e.g., *не-до-вимолот, не-до-виторг, пере-роз-поділяти, не-до-вимолочений, не-пере-роз-поділений, не-до-ви-торгувати, пере-роз-поділити, etc.*

There are also some **allomorphic** Ukrainian prefixes which have no semantic equivalents in English. Their meaning is also conveyed by other than affixal means. Cf. *по-українському / по-українськи* ‘in Ukrainian’, *щонайкраще / якнайкраще* ‘in the best way possible or very well indeed, rather / extremely well’; *якнайповільніше* ‘as slowly as possible / in the most slowly (or in an ever possible slow) way’.

A **circumfix** (abbreviated CIRC) (or ambifix) is an affix which has two parts, one placed at the start of a word, and the other at the end. They can be found in both languages, e.g., *enlighten, embolden; заморський, підвіконня, etc.*

Circumfixes contrast with prefixes, attached to the beginnings of words; suffixes, attached at the end; and infixes, inserted in the middle.

9.1.2 Suffixation

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes.

Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of stems, e.g., *helpful* – *helpless*, *childish* – *childlike*, *злодій* – *злодюга*, *дівка* – *дівуля*, etc.

Suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech, e.g., *differ* – *different* – *difference* – *differentiate* – *differentiation*; *молодий* – *молодь* – *молодіти*, *сто* – *сотий*, etc. Suffixal morphemes in the contrasted languages help form the same parts of speech: nouns, adjectives, verbs, numerals, and adverbs. These word-forming suffixes also belong to the same semantic groups.

Chains of suffixes occurring in derived words having two and more suffixal morphemes are sometimes referred to in Lexicography as compound suffixes. Such is the case, for instance, with the suffixes: **-ably** = -able + -ly (*profitably*, *unreasonably*); **-ically** = -ic + -al + -ly (*musically*, *critically*); **-ation** = -ate + -ion (*fascination*, *isolation*) and some others.

There are different classifications of suffixes in linguistic literature, as suffixes may be divided into several groups according to different principles. Suffixes are classified according to their

- productivity,
- part of speech

Suffixes in both languages can be:

- productive: **-ful** (*peaceful*), **-ly** (*lovely*), **-ник** (*будівельник*, *ремонтник*), **-ар** (*лікар*, *теляр*);

- semi-productive: **-ward** (*houseward*), **-иц / -ниц / -щиц** (*жниця*, *продавщиця*);

- non-productive: **-th** (*sixth*, *seventh*), **-hood** (*childhood*), **-some** (*awesome*), **-х-а** (*пряха*), **-ал** (*праля*, *ткаля*).

The first principle of classification that, one might say, suggests itself, is the part of speech formed. With the scope of the part-of-speech classification, suffixes naturally fall into several groups.

1) Noun-suffixes, i.e. those forming or occurring in nouns: **-er**, **-dom**, **-ness**, **-ation**, etc. Cf. *teacher*, *freedom*, *brightness*, *justification*, etc.;

In Ukrainian: **-ик / -ник** (*виробник*, *робітник*), **-ій** (*водій*), **-ун** (*брехун*, *товстун*), **-ач** (*позивач*, *читач*), **-тель** (*вчитель*, *мислитель*).

2) Adjective-suffixes, i.e. those forming or occurring in adjectives: **-able** (*agreeable*), **-less** (*careless*, *merciless*), **-ful** (*doubtful*, *beautiful*, *thoughtful*), **-ic** (*poetic*), **-ous** (*courageous*, *glorious*), **-ical** (*theatrical*),

-ant / -ent (*pleasant, different*), **-ish** (*childish, blackish*), **-ive** (*destructive*), **-ly** (*manly, womanly*), **-y** (*dreamy, juicy*).

In Ukrainian: **-ов-ий** (*випадковий*), **-н-ий** (*істинний*), **-ич-н-ий** (*поетичний, політичний*), **-ат / -ят-ий** (*бородатий, зятятий*), **-уват / -юват-ий** (*дурнуватий, синюватий*), **-уч-ий** (*балакучий*), **-ський / -цький** (*панський, читацький*).

3) Verb-suffixes: **-en** (*darken, widen*), **-fy** (*satisfy, beautify*), **-ize** (*dramatize, harmonize*).

In Ukrainian: **-увати** (*голосувати, прямувати*), **-ати** (*вибачати*), **-ити** (*спростити, сушити*).

4) Adverb-suffixes: **-ly** (*quickly, brightly*), **-ward** (*eastward, seaward*), **-wise** (*clockwise*).

In Ukrainian: **-о** (*широко, давно, весело*).

Suffixes may also be classified into various groups according to a lexical-grammatical character of the stem the suffix is usually added to. Proceeding from this principle, one may divide suffixes into three groups.

1) Deverbal, i.e. those added to a verbal-stem: **-er** (*speaker*), **-ing** (*reading*), **-ment** (*agreement*), **-able** (*suitable*).

In Ukrainian: **-ан** (*критикан*), **-ака** (*писака, зівака*), **-ач** (*оглядач*).

2) Denominal, i.e. those added to a noun-stem: **-less** (*handless*), **-ish** (*childish*), **-ful** (*mouthful*), **-ist** (*violinist*), **-some** (*troublesome*).

In Ukrainian: **-ив / н-ий** (*прогресивний*), **-ат-ий** (*бородатий, рогатий*), **-(ува)ти** (*головувати*).

3) Dejectival, i.e. those added to adjective-stem: **-en** (*blacken*), **-ly** (*slowly*), **-ish** (*reddish*), **-ness** (*brightness*).

In Ukrainian: **-о** (*широко, весело*), **-ити** (*чорнити*), **-увати** (*прямувати*), **-уватий** (*жовтуватий*), etc.

A classification of suffixes may also be based on the criterion of sense expressed by the suffix. Proceeding from this principle, suffixes are classified into various groups within the bound of a certain part of speech. For instance, among the noun-forming suffixes there are distinguished the following typologically common classes of them in English and Ukrainian.

1) The agent of verbal action: **-er** (*baker, dancer, owner, speaker*), **-ar / -or** (*liar, dictator, translator*), **-ant / -ent** (*defendant, student*), **-ee** (*employee*), **-ess** (*actress*), **-an / -ian** (*politician*), **-ette** (*usherette*).

In Ukrainian: **-ар** (*шахтар, лікар*), **-ір / -ир / -ер / -ор** (*банкiр, бригадир, лiдер, диктатор*), **-ик / -ник** (*передовик, власник*), **-ій**

(злодій), **-ун** (брехун), **-ець** (ємитель, українець), **-ач** (глядач), **-ак** (співак), **-іст** (програміст), **-ант / -ент** (практикант, студент).

The agent suffixes in English and Ukrainian correlate in the following way: **-ist / -іст, -ист** (*journalist, паціфіст*), **-ant, -ent / -ант, -ент** (*student, solvent, комерсант, лаборант, кореспондент, студент*), **-er, -or / -ер, -ор** (*actor, director, inspector, байкар, інженер, міліціонер, актор, директор, конструктор*).

2) Nationality: **-an** (*Russian*), **-ian** (*Arabian*), **-ese** (*Chinese*).

In Ukrainian: **-ин** (молдаванин, грузин), **-як** (сибір'як), **-ит** (одесит).

3) Collectivity: **-age, -dom, -ery / -ry** (*freightage, officialdom, peasantry*).

4) Abstract notions: **-ion** (*explanation, explosion*), **-ment** (*movement, enjoyment*), **-ance / -ence** (*experience, entrance*), **-ness** (*happiness, kindness*), **-ism** (*criticism*), **-age** (*freightage*), **-dom** (*officialdom, kingdom, freedom*), **-ery / -ry** (*peasantry*), **-ship** (*freindship*), **-hood** (*childhood*), **-th** (*ewidth, breadth*).

In Ukrainian: **-ота** (доброта, біднота), **-ина** (ширина, довжина), **-ість** (бідність, більшість), **-ство** (товариство, дитинство), **-ання / -ення** (призначення, світання), **-изм / -ізм** (шовінізм, расизм), **-ція** (ерудиція, агітація), **-(іт)тя** (безробіття, шмаття).

The suffixes denoting numerous abstract notions in English and Ukrainian correlate in the following way: **-ing** (**-н/-а/-я**): *clothing, вбрання, зібрання*; **-ism** (**-ізм**): *Americanism, американізм*; **-ness** (**-т-а**): *goodness, темнота, доброта*; **-tion** (**-ац-ія**): *generation, protection; генерація, корупція, протекція, сигналізація*; **-hood** (**ств/-о**): *brotherhood, громадянство, братство*.

5) Diminutiveness: **-ie** (*birdie, girlie*), **-let** (*cloudlet, booklet, eyelet, princelet, kinglet, eaglet, ringlet*), **-ling** (*wolfing, duckling, catling, oakling, seedling, dukeling, kingling, princeling, lording*), **-kin** (*lordkin, boykin, ladikin*), **-et / -ette** (*islet, novelette, leaderette, kitchenette*), **-icle / cule** (*monticle, monticule*).

In Ukrainian: **-нк** (дівчинка), **-ньк** (зіронька, малесенький), **-ськ** (дівчисько), **-чк** (сонечко, хвилиночка), **-ець** (вітерець), **-ок / -ек / -ець** (синок), **-к** (коник), **-очок / -ичок / -чик** (синочок, мішечок), **-иц-я / -очк-а / -ичк-а / -ун-я / -ус-я** (донечка), **-ен-я / -еньк-о / -ячк-о / -ечк-о** (сонечко, зайченятко).

The number of suffixes forming only diminutive nouns in Ukrainian is as many as 53, compared with 16 suffixes in English, only 4 of which are practically productive (cf. *gooseling, girlie, booklet, daddy, granny*).

The usage of diminutive words in English, i.e. words describing small specimen of the things denoted by corresponding primary words is rather restricted. Even those words that are usually called “diminutive” are at the same time adjectives, i.e. they express the feeling with which the person or thing described is regarded.

The diminutive suffixes **-ling**, **-let**, **-et**, **-kin**, **-in**, **-ette** are not frequent. The suffix **-ling** has diminutive force in some names of a young animals, e.g., *catling*, *duckling*; and young plants, e.g., *oakling*, *seedling*.

Most personal nouns with the suffix **-ling** are expressive of low estimation or contempt, e.g., *dukeling*, *kingling*, etc.

The suffix **-let** is more frequently added to names of things than to name of persons. Examples of the former are: *booklet*, *eyelet*. Words in *-let* denoting people, e.g., *princelet*, *kinglet*, usually have derogatory meaning, though less strongly than derivatives with the suffix **-ling**.

The suffix **-kin** with diminutive or endearing force is today used only as a jocular formative with a depreciative tinge, e.g., *lordkin*, *boykin*, etc.

The suffix **-ette** is from French, e.g., *novelette*, *leaderette* ‘short editorial paragraph’; recent American coinage is *kitchenette* ‘miniature kitchen in modern flats’.

Ukrainian word-forming suffixes are more numerous and also more diverse by their nature, there being special suffixes to identify different genders of nouns that are practically missing in English.

Thus, masculine gender suffixes of nouns in Ukrainian are: **-ник**, **-івник**, **-ільник**, **-ч**, **-ік / -ік**, **-ець / -єць**, **-ар / -яр**, **-ир**, **-ист / -іст**, **-тель**, **-аль** and others. E.g., *медик*, *господарник*, *рахівник*, *керманич*, *кравець*, *хімік*, *прозаїк*, *боєць*, *шахтар*, *муляр*, *бригадир*, *збирач*, *діяч*, *окуліст*, *вихователь*, *скрипаль*, etc.

Suffixes of feminine gender in Ukrainian usually follow the masculine gender suffix in the noun stem, the most frequent of the former being **-к/а/**, **-иц/я/**, **-ес/а/**, **-ух/а/**, **-ш/а/**, **-івн/а/**, etc. Cf. *виховат-ель-к-а*, *рад-ист-к-а*, *спів-ан-к-а*, *уч-ен-иц-я*, *ткач-их-а*, *поет-ес-а*, *коваль-івн-а*, *морг-ух-а*, *директ-ор-ш-а*, *Семенів-на*.

The corresponding English suffixes (**-or**, **-ess**, **-me**, **-rix**, **-ine**, **-ette**) identify the masculine and feminine sex and not the grammatical gender. Cf. *actor*, *emperor*, *actress*, *poetess*, *directrix*, *emperatrix*, *heroine*, *suffragette*. English nouns with the so-called gender suffixes do not differ functionally from other nouns which have no such suffixes, e.g., *The actor / actress sang* and *The bird sang*. Ukrainian gender nouns, however, always require corresponding gender forms in attributes and predicates, e.g., *Молодий артист співав*. *Гарна артистка співала*. *Ранкове небо сіріло*.

Suffixes of the neuter gender are mostly used in Ukrainian to identify abstract and collective nouns and names of materials, babies, cubs, nurslings, as in the following nouns: *жіно-цтв-о, учитель-ств-о, нероб-ств-о, бади-лл-я, заси-лл-я, збі-жж-я, кло-чч-я, смі-тт-я, гори-нн-я, вели-нн-я, терп-інн-я*.

Still another classification of suffixes may be worked out if one examines them from the angle of stylistic reference. Recent research has revealed that derivational affixes, suffixes in particular, are characterized by quite a definite stylistic reference falling into two basic classes:

- 1) Stylistically neutral (they are characterized by neutral stylistic reference and occur in words of different lexico-stylistic layers), such as **-able** (*agreeable*), **-er** (*driver*), **-ful** (*handful*). Cf. *agreeable / steerable*, e.g., *steerable spaceship*, etc.
- 2) Stylistically coloured (they have a certain stylistic value), such as **-oid** (*rhomboid, asteroid*), **-(i)form** (*uniform*), **-ous** (*asynchronous*), **-aceous** (*crustaceous*), **-tron** (*cyclotron*); they are restricted in use to quite definite lexico-stylistic layers of words, in particular to terms.

In Ukrainian: **-ан / -ань** (зневажл. *критикан, бородань, мордань*), **-ач** (зневажл. *бородач, носач*), **-ака** (зневажл. *писака*), **-ло / -ило** (зневажл. *брехло, барило, чудило, здоровило*), **-юга** (презирл. *шоферюга, волоцюга*), **-юр** (презирл. *бицюра, собацюра*), **-ега** (презирл. *бабега*), **-(у)ган** (розм. *дідуган*), **-яр** (розм. *носяра, мисяра*).

Suffixes are subdivided into monosemantic and polysemantic.

Monosemantic are suffixes which have only one meaning, e.g., **-able** ‘ability to do smth’, **-ful** ‘filling of smth’.

Polysemantic is the noun-suffix **-er**, which is used to coin words denoting in particular:

- (1) persons performing some action: *reader, writer, explorer*;
- (2) persons following some special trade or profession: *baker, driver*;
- (3) persons doing a certain action at the moment in question: *packer, chooser, blabber, roarer, whisperer*;
- (4) device, tool, implement: *blotter, boiler, fanner, rectifier*;
- (5) psychological state: *admirer, boaster, adorer*;
- (6) physical perception: *heaver, thinker, watcher*;
- (7) banknotes: *fiver* ‘п'ятірка’, *tenner* ‘десятка’;
- (8) time of activity: *fourter* ‘чотирикурсник’, *fifter* ‘п'ятикурсник’;
- (9) jargonisms like *crammer, kisser, peeper*.

No less different meanings are also expressed by nouns formed with the help of other suffixes of this class, as for example: **-ier / -yer** (*cashier, employer, lawyer*), **-ard / -art** (*esluggard, braggart*).

In Ukrainian: **-ак / -як** (*жебрак, забіяка*), **-ер / -ір / -ир** (*аукціонер, колекціонер, землемір, проводир*).

Many homonymic derivational suffixes can be found among those forming both different parts of speech and the same part of speech. For instance, the adverb-suffix **-ly** added to adjective-stems is homonymous to the adjective-suffix **-ly** affixed to noun stems, e.g., *quickly, slowly*, and *lovely, friendly*, etc.

Distinction should also be made between terminal and non-terminal suffixes. Terminal suffixes take only the final position in a word, such as the nounal suffixes **-al** (*refusal, survival*), **-hood**, **-ness**, **-ship**, **-kin**, **-let**, **-ling**. Non-terminal suffixes can be followed by other suffixes, e.g., *lead – leader – leadership, love – lovely – loveliness*, etc.

In the Ukrainian language, the suffixation is very productive way of word formation. Suffixes transfer the word to another part of speech. Usually it occurs in the noun and adjective formation, rarely in verb and other part of speech formation. For instance, *досліджувати – дослідник, правда – правдивий, зима – зимувати*, etc.

In some cases, suffixes do not shift word to another part of speech, e.g., *злодій – злодюга, дід – дідуга, дівка – дівуля*, etc.

In Ukrainian, there is such kind of word-formation as the so called “zero suffixation”, i.e. the formation of new word without adding derivational affix. It may occur in:

- 1) verbal nouns: *виробити → виріб, написати → напис*;
- 2) adjectival nouns: *зелений → зелень, молодий → молодь*;
- 3) some adjectives: *золото → золотий, вдова → вдовий*;
- 4) some numerals: *сто → сотий, п'ять → п'ятий*;
- 5) some nouns: *кум → кума, онук → онука*.

One more typologically common group is constituted by the international suffixes, which are mostly of common nature (origin) and meaning in English and Ukrainian. For example, the suffixes **-er, -or, -ist**: *carter, bulldozer, leader, картер, бульдозер, лідер, conductor, dictator, rector, диктатор, кондуктор, ректор*, etc.

In Ukrainian, besides prefixation and suffixation, exist three more ways of word-formation. They are postfixation, suffixation-postfixation, and prefixation-postfixation.

Postfixation is used to form verbs with the help of postfix **-ся**, e.g., *сушити – сушитися, лити – литися*, etc.

Suffixation-postfixation is the formation of words by adding suffix and postfix to stems. Usually it occurs in verb-formation from noun and adjective stems, e.g., *колос – колоситися, роса – роситися, гордий – гордиться*, etc.

Prefixation-postfixation is the way of word-formation when prefix and postfix are added to the stem, e.g., *літати – злітатися, бігти – розбігтися, читати – вчитатися*, etc.

All in all, Ukrainian is much richer in affixational potential than English. It can be explained even by the structural type of the Ukrainian language, which is the synthetic one. In particular, Ukrainian native suffixes have more developed functions, polysemy, and productivity than native English suffixes (Карпенко 2018), for example, the Ukrainian gender-forming suffixes are much more productive than those in English.

9.2 Conversion as a Purely English Way of Word-Formation

Conversion (zero-derivation, or affixless derivation) is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. Conversion is one of the principal ways of forming words in Modern English. It is highly productive in replenishing the English word-stock with new words.

Conversion consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech; the morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged, e.g., *love – to love, paper – to paper, brief – to brief, work – to work*, etc. (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

The term “conversion”, which some linguists find inadequate, refers to the numerous cases of phonetic identity of word-forms, primarily the so-called initial forms, of two words belonging to different parts of speech. This may be illustrated by the following cases: *bungee jump – to bungee jump, brief – to brief, friend – to friend, giant n. – giant adj.*, etc. As a rule, we deal with simple words, although there are a few exceptions, e.g., *wireless – to wireless*.

The new word acquires a meaning, which differs from that of the original one though it can be easily associated with it. The converted word acquires also a new paradigm and a new syntactic function (or functions), which are peculiar to its new category as a part of speech, e.g., *plant – to plant* (table 9.1).

Table 9.1

Meaning, Paradigm and Functions of *plant*, n – *plant*, v

	Meaning	Paradigm	Function(s)
<i>plant</i>	a living thing that grows in soil, has leaves and roots, and needs water and light from the sun to live, e.g., <i>a garden / pot / house plant</i>	-s (plural) - 's (possessive case) -s' (possessive case plural)	Subject Object Predicative
<i>to plant</i>	to put trees, plants, or seeds in soil or the ground so that they will grow there. E.g., <i>I've planted a small apple tree in the garden.</i>	-s (3 rd person, singular) -ed (Past Indefinite, Past Participle) -ing (Present Participle, Gerund)	Predicate

It is necessary to call attention to the fact that the paradigm plays significant role in the process of word-formation in general and not only in the case of conversion. Thus, the noun *cooker* (cf. *gas-cooker*) is formed from the verb *to cook* not only by the addition of the suffix *-er* but also by the change in its paradigm. As the paradigm is a morphological category, conversion can be described as a morphological way of forming words.

The term “conversion” first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet “New English Grammar” in 1891.

Conversion is treated differently by different scientists. Prof. O. Smirnitsky (Смирницкий 1856) treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g., to form the verb *to dial* from the noun *dial* we change the paradigm of the noun (*a dial, dials*) for the paradigm of a regular verb (*I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing, etc.*).

Some of the linguists (Quirk & Greenbaum 1987) define conversion as a non-affixal way of forming words pointing out that the characteristic feature is that a certain stem is used for the formation of a different word of a different part of speech without a derivational affix being added. Others hold the view that conversion is the formation of new words with the help of a zero-morpheme.

Hans Marchand in his book “The Categories and Types of Present-day English Word-Formation” (1969) treats conversion as a morphological-syntactic word-building means, because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function of the word, e.g.:

I need some good paper for my room

(The noun *paper* is an object in the sentence).

I paper my room every year

(The verb *paper* is the predicate in the sentence).

Besides, there is also a purely syntactic approach commonly known as a functional approach to conversion. Certain linguists and lexicographers especially those in Great Britain and the USA (Cannon 1985) are inclined to regard conversion in Modern English as a kind of functional change. They define conversion as a shift from one part of speech to another contending that in Modern English a word may function as two different parts of speech at the same time. But this approach to conversion cannot be justified and should be rejected as inadequate.

Among the main varieties of conversion are:

- 1) **verbalization** (the formation of verbs), e.g., *ape*, n → *ape*, v;
- 2) **substantivation** (the formation of nouns), e.g., *private*, adj → *private*, n;
- 3) **adjectivation** (the formation of adjectives), e.g., *down*, adv → *down*, adj;
- 4) **adverbialization** (the formation of adverbs), e.g., *home*, n → *home*, adv.

Synchronically, we deal with pairs of words related through conversion that co-exist in contemporary English. As one of the two words within a conversion pair is semantically derived from the other, it is of great theoretical and practical importance to determine the semantic relations between words related through conversion.

Summing up the findings of the linguists who have done research in this field, we can enumerate the following typical semantic relations between the two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion – denominal verbs and deverbal nouns.

I. Denominal Verbs (verbs converted from nouns).

Verbs formed from nouns are the most numerous amongst the words produced by conversion. The meanings of denominal verbs depend upon the meanings of the nouns from which the verbs are converted.

- 1) Verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body, e.g., *to finger*, *to leg*, *to eye*, *to elbow*, *to shoulder*, *to nose*, *to mouth*, etc.

However, *to face* does not imply ‘doing something by or even with one’s face’ but ‘turning it in a certain direction’; *to back* means either ‘to move backwards’ or, in the figurative sense, ‘to support somebody or something’.

2) Verbs may denote an action performed by the tool if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, implements, weapons, e.g., *to hammer, to nail, to pin, to brush, to comb, to pencil, to machine-gun, to rifle, to whip, to screw*, etc.

3) If the noun denotes an animal, verbs can denote an action or aspect of behaviour considered typical of this animal, e.g., *to dog, to wolf, to monkey, to ape, to fox, to rat*, etc.

Yet, *to fish* does not mean ‘to behave like a fish’ but ‘to try to catch fish’. The same meaning of hunting activities is conveyed by the verb *to whale* and one of the meanings of *to rat*: the other is ‘to turn in former, squeal’.

4) Verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation of an object if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g., *to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper, to coat*, etc.

5) Verbs can denote the process of occupying the place or of putting something in it denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g., *to park, to garage, to corner, to room, to house, to place, to table, to cage, to pocket, to bottle, to can*, etc.

6) Verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g., *to winter, to week-end, to honeymoon*, etc.

7) If the noun denotes a profession or occupation, verbs can denote an activity typical of it, e.g., *to nurse, to cook, to maid, to groom*, etc.

8) If the noun denotes a meal, verbs can denote the process of taking it, e.g., *to lunch, to supper*, etc.

The suggested groups do not include all the great variety of verbs made from nouns by conversion. They just represent the most obvious cases and illustrate, convincingly enough, the great variety of semantic interrelations within so-called converted pairs and the complex nature of the logical associations which specify them.

II. Deverbal Nouns (substantives converted from verbs).

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs.

The meanings of deverbal nouns depend upon the meanings of the verbs from which the nouns are converted. Converted nouns can denote:

1) instant of an action, e.g., *a jump, a move*, etc.;

2) process or state, e.g., *a sleep, a walk*, etc.;

3) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g., *a help, a flirt*, etc.; it is of interest to mention that the deverbal personal nouns denoting the doer are mostly derogatory, e.g., *a bore* ‘a person that bores’; *a cheat* ‘a person who cheats’; *a scold* ‘a person who scolds’, etc.;

4) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g., *a burn, a find, a purchase, a peel*, etc.;

5) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g., *a drive, a stop, a walk*, etc.

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the singular form and denote instantaneous actions. In such cases, we have **partial conversion**. Such deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as *to have, to get, to take*, etc., e.g., *to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim*.

II. Substantivation of Adjectives (conversion of adjectives into nouns). Here we must distinguish full and partial substantivation.

Full substantivation is when the adjective becomes the noun and possesses all its categories, e.g., *relative*, a – *relative*, n, *criminal*, a – *criminal*, n.

Partial substantivation is when the adjective has only some features of the noun. It may be used with the article *the* without any endings in the plural, e.g., *old – the old, young – the young, poor – the poor, rich – the rich*, etc.

Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state, e.g., *to tame* (to become or make tame), *to clean, to slim, to pale, to yellow, to cool, to grey, to rough*, etc., e.g., *We decided to rough it in the tents as the weather was warm*.

Other parts of speech are not entirely unsusceptible to conversion as the following examples show: *to down, to out* (as in a newspaper heading “Diplomatist Outed from Budapest”), *the ups and downs, the ins and outs, like, n* (as in *the like of me and the like of you*).

In cases of conversion, the problem of **criteria of semantic derivation** arises which of the converted pair is primary and which is converted from it. The problem was first analyzed by Prof. O. Smirnitsky (Смирницкий 1956). Later on P. Soboleva (Соболева 1959) developed his idea and worked out the following criteria.

1. If the lexical meaning of the root morpheme and the lexical and grammatical meaning of the stem coincide, the word is primary, e.g., in cases *pen*, n – *to pen*, v, *father*, n – *to father*, v, the nouns are names of an

object and a living being. Therefore, in the nouns *pen* and *father*, the lexical meaning of the root and the lexical and grammatical meaning of the stem coincide. The verbs *to pen* and *to father* denote an action, a process. Therefore the lexical and grammatical meanings of the stems do not coincide with the lexical meanings of the roots. The verbs have a complex semantic structure and they were converted from nouns.

2. If we compare a converted pair with a synonymic word pair which was formed by means of suffixation, we can find out which of the pair is primary. This criterion can be applied only to nouns converted from verbs, e.g., *chat*, n and *to chat*, v can be compared with *conversation* – *to converse*.

3. The criterion based on derivational relations is of more universal character. In this case, we must take a word-cluster of relative words to which the converted pair belongs. If the root stem of the word-cluster has suffixes added to a noun stem, the noun is primary in the converted pair and vice versa, e.g., in the word-cluster *a hand*, *to hand*, *handy*, *handful*, the derived words have suffixes added to a noun stem, that is why the noun is primary and the verb is converted from it. In the word-cluster *a dance*, *to dance*, *a dancer*, *dancing*, we see that the primary word is a verb and the noun is converted from it.

Conversion is not only a highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. Its immense productivity is considerably encouraged by certain features of the English language in its modern stage of development. The analytical structure of Modern English greatly facilitates processes of making words of one category of parts of speech from words of another. So does the simplicity of paradigms of English parts of speech. A great number of one-syllable words is one more factor in favour of conversion, for such words are naturally more mobile and flexible than polysyllables.

Conversion is a convenient and “easy” way of enriching the vocabulary with new words. It is certainly an advantage to have two (or more) words where there was one, all of them fixed on the same structural and semantic base.

One should guard against thinking that every case of noun and verb (verb and adjective, adjective and noun, etc.) with the same morphemic shape results from conversion. There are numerous pairs of words, e.g., *love*, n – *to love*, v; *work*, n – *to work*, v; *drink*, n – *to drink*, v, etc., which did not occur due to conversion but coincided as a result of certain historical processes (disappearance of inflections, dropping of endings,

simplification of stems) when before that they had different forms, e.g., *love*, n (Old English *lufu*) – *to love*, v (Old English *lufian*). On the other hand, it is quite true that the first cases of conversion (which were registered in the 14th century) imitated such pairs of words as *love*, n – *to love*, v for they were numerous in the vocabulary and were subconsciously accepted by native speakers as one of the typical language patterns.

A diachronic semantic analysis of a conversion pair reveals that in the course of time the semantic structure of the base may acquire a new meaning or several meanings under the influence of the meanings of the converted word. This semantic process has been termed **reconversion** in linguistic literature. There is an essential difference between conversion and reconversion: being a way of forming words, conversion leads to a numerical enlargement of the English vocabulary, whereas reconversion only brings about a new meaning correlated with one of the meanings of the converted word.

Conversion is not an absolutely productive way of forming words because it is restricted both semantically and morphologically.

With reference to semantic restrictions, it is assumed that all verbs can be divided into two groups:

a) verbs denoting processes that can be represented as a succession of isolated actions from which nouns are easily formed, e.g., *fall*, v – *fall*, n; *run*, v – *run*, n; *jump*, v – *jump*, n, etc.;

b) verbs like *to sit*, *to lie*, *to stand* denoting processes that cannot be represented as a succession of isolated actions, thus defying conversion. The possibility for the verbs to be formed from nouns through conversion seems to be illimitable.

The morphological restrictions suggested by certain linguists are found in the fact that the complexity of word-structure does not favour conversion.

The English word-stock contains a great many words formed by means of conversion in different periods of its history. There are cases of traditional and occasional conversion. **Traditional conversion** refers to the accepted use of words which are recorded in dictionaries, e.g., *to age*, *to cook*, *to love*, *to look*, *to capture*, etc. The **individual**, or **occasional**, use of conversion is also very frequent; verbs and adjectives are converted from nouns or vice versa for the sake of bringing out the meaning more vividly in a given context only. These cases of individual coinage serve the given occasion only and do not enter the word-stock of the English language. In modern English usage, we find a great number of cases of

occasional conversion, e.g., *to girl the boat; when his guests had been washed, mended, brushed and brandied; How am I to preserve the respect of fellow-travellers, if I'm to be Billied at every turn?*

Conversion may be combined with other word-formation processes, such as shortening, e.g., *SOS – to SOS* meaning ‘to call for help in distress or need’, or compounding when attributive phrases like *red pencil, black list, pin point* form the basis of verbs *to redpencil, to blacklist, to pinpoint*.

Though conversion is a purely English way of creating words, a brief outline of the cases of conversion in Ukrainian should also be provided. It is much less developed in Ukrainian due to the bimorphemic character of Ukrainian words. In most cases, adjectives and participles are converted from nouns, e.g., ‘*Були багаті і убогі, Прямі були і кривоногі, Були видючі і сліпі...*’ (І. Котляревський). But generally the words formed by conversion do not abound in Ukrainian.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

Affixation as One of the Most Productive Morphological Way of Word Formation in English Cardiologic Terminology

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http://www.rusnauka.com/29_NNP_2016/Philologia/3_216181.doc.htm

The process of term formation according to its structure is unique and multifaceted; it is closely connected with a particular field of science or engineering, where scientists or specialists feel the need of the establishment of new forms of expression of certain concepts and phenomena of reality. Methods and models of term formation differ in accordance with the field of use, nature of scientific interests of people and objectives of term formation, but all of them are based on general language methods and patterns of word formation, as in linguistic theory terminological units are indistinguishable from lexical items (for example, comparing their morphological and syntactic properties).

A great number of Ukrainian and foreign linguists were and are interested in the derivation processes which take part in the formation of scientific terminology. Among them are R. Fisher, P. H. Mathews, Ch. F. Meyer, J. C. Sager, P. Schmitter, V. P. Danylenko, A. S. Diakov, T. R. Kyiak, Z. B. Kudelko, V. V. Levytskyi.

In linguistics, affixation is the process of adding a morpheme (or affix) to a word to create either (a) a different form of that word (e.g., *heart* → *hearts*), or (b) a new word with a different meaning (*electrocardiograph* → *electrocardiography*). Affixation is the most common way of making new words in English. The two primary kinds of

affixation are *prefixation* (the addition of a prefix) and *suffixation* (the addition of a suffix). Clusters of affixes can be used to form complex words.

Investigating the processes of cardiologic terminology in English terminology, we should primarily examine the classification of the main ways of constructing lexical units proposed by Ukrainian and foreign scientists. Noteworthy is the distribution method of formation of terminological units proposed by V. P. Danylenko (1977), which defines them as follows:

1) semantic method that is the formation of new terms by semantic transformation of existing language words; 2) syntactic method, which is the basis of word combination formation; 3) morphological way by coining terms for the same model and using the same word-building tools, as well as commonly used language; here belongs affixation (prefixes, suffixes, prefixes suffix-way) basis and compounding, abbreviations. A significant in the formation of terminological units are also borrowings, which in terminology always occupy a much larger portion of borrowings compared to literary language (Даниленко 1977: 98).

J. Sager (1990) proposed the following differentiation way to the formation of terminological units: 1) the use of existing resources in the language, which is based on expanding the meaning of words, the process of metaphor; 2) change (modify) existing language resources, which include derivational and affixed ways of coining, compounding, formation of neologisms, compression, which is based on various cuts (including “abbreviation”, “clipping”, “blending”); 3) formation of new lexical categories (neologisms).

Based on the classification methods of well-known Ukrainian and foreign linguists, we propose a classification scheme used in the study of English cardiologic terminology: 1) Morphological methods of creation cardiologic terms: a) affixation (prefixing, suffixes, prefixes suffix-way); b) compounding (composition); c) formation of abbreviations and acronyms; d) conversion; 2) Semantic method of formation of terminological units (semantic nomination): a) expanding and narrowing of meaning; b) metaphorical and analogical transfer value lexical unit; 3) Syntactic method (TC formation); 4) Borrowing terms or terminological elements.

Affixation in cardiology is one of the leading and productive ways of derivation specific terms. It is used for establishment of terms by joining one or more affixes to the root morpheme. The process of affixation in

terminology operates with different structural word-building elements, combinations of which are very diverse and almost inexhaustible. Derived medical terms can consist of a prefix, one or two word roots, and a suffix in various combinations, as witnessed in the following examples: *myocarditis* = myo- (root) + card (root) + -itis (suffix), *abiosis* = a- (prefix) + bio- (root) + -osis (suffix), *cardiopulmonary* = cardia- (root) + pulmon- (root) + -ary (suffix).

One of the common ways of word formation is a suffixation. The most common suffixes in word formation of cardiac English terms are: **-al**: *cardiological, aortal, atrial, internal, arterial, abnormal*; **-ary**: *ventricular, pulmonary, capillary, coronary*; **-ic**: *cardiogenic, systolic, amphibaric, agranulocytic*; **-able**: *curable, agglutinable, observable*; **-ion**: *circulation, infarction, regulation, location*; **-osis**: *stenosis, atherosclerosis, thrombosis*; **-itis**: *myocarditis, endocarditis, angiodermatitis, pericarditis*; **-ancy**: *abberancy*; **ism**: *anacrotism, anadicrotism*; **-is**: *anerythropoiesis, angiogenesis*; **-oma**: *angiolymphoma, angiosarcoma*, **-ist**: *cardiologist, haematologist*; **-or, -er**: *blockader, bleeder*.

The second way of derivation occupies prefixes. Most prefixes and roots used in formation of English cardiologic terms are of Greek and Latin origin. The most common of them are: **ab-** (lat. 'from'): *abnormal, ablation*; **hyper-** (gr. 'above normal rate'): *hypertension, hypertrophy*; **hypo-** (gr. 'under normal rate'): *hypoxia, hypodynamia*; **inter-** (gr. 'between'): *intercarotic, intermission*; **intra-** (lat. "internal"): *intramuscular; intravenous*; **trans-** (lat. 'through'): *transfusion, transpulmonary*; – **micro-** (gr. 'minor, little'): *microcardia; microcirculation*; **endo-** (gr. 'inside') *endoaneurysmorrhaphy, endoarteritis* **peri-** (gr. 'around, near') *periarterial, pericardectomy*; **myo-** (gr. 'muscle'): *myocardium, myoglobin, myohemoglobin*; **brady-** (лат. 'slow') *bradycardia, bradydiastole*, **tachy-** (gr. 'fast, quick'): *tachycardia, tachysystole*; **cardio-** (gr. 'heart'): *cardiogram, cardiopulmonary, cardiovascular, cardioangiography, cardiomyopathy, cardiomegaly, cardiogenic, cardiograph, cardiospasm, cardiology*.

Such borrowings from Greek and Latin indicate that English terms are in regular lexical relations with Latin and Greek terminological elements that is important for the formation of new terms in different fields of medical vocabulary. Most Latin-Greek terminological elements that appeared in the English language are rarely used by doctors in everyday

life, but most of these formants are used in scientific articles, books, and medical manuals.

The most productive type of derivation in the process of formation of English cardiologic terminology is the use of both prefixes and suffixes: *depletion*, *depressor*, *abnormality*, *acyanotic*, *nonvascular*, *presphygmic*, *presystolic*, *prognosticate*, *uncontrollable*, *unremitting*, *compatibility*, *congenital*, *consanguineous*, *endaortitis*, *epicardial*, *exsanguination*.

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Text 2

Conversion Shifts in English

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https://ddd.uab.cat/pub/tfg/2016/167241/TFG_joseantoniocontreras.pdf

The traditional linguistic view about words is to classify them in lexical categories. All words need to be lexically classified in order to be listed in dictionaries. However, the long list of possible lexical categories has been divided following different criteria. The general distinctions are between major and minor word categories and open and closed word categories. The difference mainly lies on the criteria used in the distinction. In the major-minor distinction, major word categories traditionally include noun, adjective, adverb, and verb lexical categories, possibly also prepositions. The main reason for this division is that major classes give the most information at sentence level and the meaning of a proposition can be inferred by knowing the meaning of the words belonging to these lexical categories only.

However, the view that we want to take in this paper is that only (with some exceptional examples) major word categories are able to undergo *conversion* shifts. But, in our analysis we want to exclude adverbs from this respect. As mentioned above, prepositions are included in this list by some linguists, but for our purposes, we will exclude them as they do not undergo any kind of derivational morphology processes.

Following Heinz Giegerich's (2012) approach to the distinctions between adjectives and adverbs, we are going to try to exclude adverbs from the major word category set to include it in the minor one. As Figure 1 suggests, N, A and V can derive freely from one category to the other, with the restrictions that affixes may inherently have. This is also exemplified below, which is a sample of all the possible derivational processes in the language.

A→V: *-ise*: *national-ise* / *bipolar-ise* / *external-ise*

V→N: *-al*: *withdraw-al* / *dismiss-al* / *approv(e)-al*

N→V: *-ate*: *fibr(e)-ate* / *affection-ate* / *mut(e)-ate*

However, adverbs cannot derive from verbs or nouns. Instead, they can also derive from adjectives by means of adverbial *-ly*. Moreover, concerning *conversion*, there is no *conversional pair* involving adjective-adverb homonyms. The main reason for this is that adverbs denoting adjective-like properties are uniquely formed by means of *-ly*. The only exceptional pairs that share spelling and pronunciation are the ones like *fast* (a) and *fast* (adv). In these cases, the syntactic relation within the other elements in the sentence will give us the lexical category. So, if we can only form adverbs from adjectives and no *conversional pair* can be found to exist (with almost no exceptions), why should we include adverbs as a major word category? Instead, I believe that adverbs are placed more properly in the set of open class in the open-closed class distinction.

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Theme 10

Contrastive Typology of Syntactic Ways of Word-Formation in the English and Ukrainian Languages

10.1 Compounding

Compounding (or word-composition) is a highly productive type of word-formation in modern languages when new words are produced by combining two or more smaller words. The result of this process is compounds, i.e. words consisting of at least two components (immediate constituents) which occur in the language as free forms (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1).

Compounds are made up of the immediate constituents (ICs) which are both derivational bases. In a compound word, the ICs have integrity and structural cohesion (due to the specific order and arrangement of bases) that make them function in a sentence as a separate lexical unit (of different parts of speech), e.g., *week-end*, *time-table*, *blackboard*, etc.

Compounds are inseparable vocabulary units. They are formally and semantically dependent on the constituent bases and the semantic relations between them which mirror the relations between the motivating units.

The ICs of compound words represent bases of all three structural types. The bases built on stems may be of different degree of complexity as, e.g., *week-end*, *office-management*, *postage-stamp*, *aircraft-carrier*, *fancy-dress-maker*; *двадцятиповерховий*, *місто-гігант*, *дівчина-красуня*, etc. However, this complexity of structure of bases is not typical of the bulk of both Modern English and Ukrainian compounds.

Word-composition may be studied from synchronic and diachronic point of view.

Synchronically, we concentrate our attention on such problems as 1) the principal features of compounds in Modern English and Ukrainian which help distinguish them from other structural types of words and from free phrases; 2) the structure of compounds in Modern English and Ukrainian, in particular, their semantic structure; 3) different principles underlying different classifications of compounds.

10.1.1 Compound Words vs Word-Combinations

The principal feature of compounds in Modern English and Ukrainian which helps distinguish them from other structural types of words and from free phrases is their nonseparability, i.e. structural and semantic nonseparability (the term of O. Smirnitsky), which finds expression in the graphic, phonetic, morphological, and semantic integrity.

Thus, there are the following criteria to distinguish between compound words and word-combinations.

1. The graphic criterion of distinguishing is realized in

- a solid spelling, e.g., *railway, timetable; землекористування, харчоблок*, etc. (cf. *a tall boy – a tallboy* ‘a piece of furniture, supported by a low stand’);

- a hyphenated spelling, e.g., *cinema-goer, ice-cream, war-path; матч-реванш, секретар-референт, жовто-блакитний*, etc.

This criterion though cannot wholly be relied on so long as in different dictionaries the spelling varies: one and the same unit may exist in solid and hyphenated spelling, or with a break between the components, e.g., *air-line, airline, air line; headmaster, head-master, head master; loudspeaker, loud-speaker, loud speaker*, etc.

2. The phonetic criterion of distinguishing is realized in

- a unity stress – English compounds usually have a high, or unity, stress on the first component, e.g., *'blackboard, 'honeymoon, 'care-free, 'ice-cream*, etc., while Ukrainian compounds – on the second stem, e.g., *миро'творець, само'захист, пило'сос, скло'різ*, etc.;

- a double stress – English compounds usually have a primary stress on the first component and a secondary stress on the second component, e.g., *'washing-,machine, 'blood-,vessel*, etc.; in Ukrainian compounds, a primary stress is usually on the second component and a secondary stress on the first component, e.g., *бе,тономі'шалка, ,землевл'асник*, etc.;

- a level stress, e.g., compound adjectives are double stressed: *'new-'born, 'gray-'green, 'new-'born, 'easy-'going, 'icy-'cold; 'блідо-ро'жевий, зе'лено-'сірий, іс'торико-філоло'гічний, 'добро 'якісний*, etc.

Compare the meanings of compound words and word-combinations:

' <i>overwork</i> – ‘extra work’	' <i>over work</i> – ‘hard work injuring one’s health’
' <i>mankind</i> – ‘men, contrasted with women’	' <i>man'kind</i> – ‘the human race’
' <i>bookcase</i> – ‘a piece of furniture with shelves for books’	' <i>book'case</i> – ‘a paper cover for books’

3. The morphological criterion of distinguishing specific order and arrangement in which bases follow one another:

- a rigidly fixed word order (while between the constituent parts of the word-group, other words can be inserted, e.g., *a tall handsome boy*), e.g., *chess-board*, *notice-board*, *sign-board*; *сонцезахисний*, *словотвір*, etc.;

- with a connective element (which ensures the integrity and leaves no doubt that a combination is a compound): **-s-** (*craftssman*), **-o-** (*Anglo-Saxon*, *Indo-European*), **-i-** (*handiwork*, *handicraft*).

In Ukrainian: **-o-** (*доброзичливий*, *жовто-блакитний*, *англо-український*, *славнозвісний*, *водоспад*); **-e-** (*волелюбний*, *землевласник*, *землетрус*, *працездатний*); **-ьо-** (*синьоокий*).

It is the second element that makes the head-member of the compound word, i.e. its structural and semantic centre, e.g., *chess-board*, *notice-board*, *sign-board*.

4. The semantic criterion of distinguishing is realized in the semantic integrity of the compound, i.e. a compound word has a single semantic structure irrespective of the amount of components, and expresses only one meaning.

The semantic criterion differentiates compounds into:

- semantically transparent when the meaning of compounds is made up of the combined lexical meaning of the bases and the structural meaning of the pattern, e.g., *life-boat* – a boat for saving lives from wrecks, *boat-life* – life on board the ship; *a fruit-market* – market where fruit is sold, *market-fruit* – fruit designed for selling, etc.

- fully motivated, e.g., *sky-blue*, *foot-pump*, *tea-taster*, *блідо-рожевий*, *світло-сірий*, etc.;

- partially motivated, e.g., *hand-bag*, *flower-bed*, *handcuffs*, *a castle-builder* (*a flower-bed* its not a piece of furniture, *a castle-builder* is not a builder, but a dreamer, ‘one who builds castles in the air’).

- semantically non-transparent, that lack motivation, i.e. it is impossible to deduce the meaning of a compound from the lexical meaning of the bases and one meaning of the pattern, e.g., *eye-wash* ‘smth said or done to deceive a person’; *fiddlesticks* ‘nonsense, rubbish’; *a night-cap* ‘a drink taken before going to bed at night’, etc.

The compounds whose meanings do not correspond to the separate meanings of their constituent parts are called idiomatic compounds, e.g., *blackboard*, *blackbird*, *lady-killer*, *chatterbox*, *стали стіною*, *дивиться вовком*, *прибуду весною*, *вивчити напам'ять*, *кругом вода*, etc. In these compounds, one of the components (or both) has changed its meaning: *a blackboard* is neither a board nor necessarily black; *a chatterbox* is not a box but a person, and *a lady-killer* kills no one but is merely a man who fascinates women, *a blackbird* is some kind of bird.

It is worth mentioning that it often happens so that elements of a phrase united by their attributive function become further united phonemically by stress and graphically by a hyphen, or even solid spelling, thus forming quotation compounds, or holophrasis, e.g., *the let-sleeping-dogs-lie approach* (Priestley). They are originally nonce-compounds.

There is one more group of compound words called bahuvrihi compounds. These are possessive formations in which a person, animal or thing are metonymically named after some striking feature they possess. The structural formula of these compounds is “adj. stem + noun stem”, e.g., *fathead* ‘a dull, stupid person’, *lazy-bones* ‘a lazy person’, *fair-weather* ‘not reliable’; *Дармограї*, *Салоїди* (Ю. Андрухович).

Thus, different criteria (graphic, phonetic, morphological, and semantic) help distinguish compound words from free phrases, but no type of criteria is sufficient for establishing whether the unit is a compound or a phrase. In the majority of cases, we have to depend on the combination of two or more types of criteria.

10.1.2 Classifications of Compound Words

Compound words may be described from different points of view and consequently may be **classified** proceeding from **different criteria**:

- 1) according to the part of speech to which the compound belongs;
- 2) according to the type of composition and the linking element;
- 3) according to the structure of their ICs;
- 4) according to the degree of semantic independence;

- 5) according to correlation between compounds and free phrases;
- 6) according to their semantic characteristics.

1. According to the **part of speech** to which the compound belongs, there are:

a) compound nouns within which we distinguish endocentric compound nouns (the referent is named by one of the elements, e.g., *blackboard*, *bedroom*, *madman*) and exocentric (the combination of both elements names the referent, e.g., *pickpocket a thief*, *dare-devil "a murderer"*, *turncoat "a renegade"*, etc.);

b) compound verbs among which we distinguish verbs formed by means of conversion from the stems of compound nouns, e.g., *to blackmail*, *to blacklist*, *to pinpoint*, *to nickname*, *to honeymoon*, etc. and verbs formed by back-formation from the stems of compound nouns, e.g., *to baby-sit* (from *baby-sitter*), *to stage-manage* (*stage-manager*), *to house-keep* (*house-keeping*), *to play-act* (*play-acting*), *to playact* (*play-acting*), etc.; they are often termed pseudo-compound verbs, because they are created as verbs not by the process of composition but by conversion and back-formation;

c) compound adjectives, e.g., *snow-white*, *light-blue*, *peace-loving*, *hard-working*, *man-made*, *safety-tested*, *heart-broken*, *well-read*.

Thus, from the point of view of the parts of speech, most compounds relate to nouns and adjectives. Compound verbs are less frequent; they are often made through conversion (N->V pattern). Compound adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions, and prepositions are rather rare.

2. According to the **type of composition** and the **linking element**, the compounds may be classified into two groups.

a) Juxtapositional (neutral) compounds whose ICs are merely placed one after another, e.g., *classroom*, *timetable*, *door-step*, *age-long*, *babysitter*, *heartache*, *whitewash*, *hunting-knife*, *weekend*, *grey-green*, *deep-blue*, *H-bomb*, *U-turn*, *зализобетон*, *водоснад*, etc. As you can see, in neutral compounds, the process of compounding is realized without any linking elements, by a mere juxtaposition of two stems.

The definite order, in which ICs follow each other, may be

- syntactic, when the ICs are placed according to the rules of syntax of the language in the order that resembles the order of words in free phrases, e.g., *blue-bell*, *mad-doctor*, *blacklist*, *day-time*, etc.; syntactic compounds are the result of the process of semantic isolation and structural integration of free word-groups, e.g., *blackboard* < *black board*, *highway* < *high way*, *forget-me-not*, *bull's-eye*, *up-to-date*, *son-in-law*, *go-between*, *know-all*, etc.;

- asyntactic, when the order of bases runs counter to the order in which the motivating words can be brought together under the rules of syntax of the language, e.g., *red-hot*, *bluish-black*, *pale-blue*, etc. (but according to the rules of English syntax, adjectives cannot be modified by preceding adjectives); *oil-rich*, *rain-driven* (noun modifiers are not, as a rule, placed before adjectives or participles).

b) Morphological compounds whose ICs are joined together with a linking element (a vowel or a consonant):

- Indo-European link vowel "o", e.g., *gasometer*, *speedometer*, *electro-dynamic*, *electromotive*, *video-phone*, *video-disc*, *Anglo-Saxon*, etc.;

- Latin link "i", e.g., *handicraft*, *tragicomic*, etc.;

- OE Genitive case "s", e.g., *spokesman*, *townsman*, *statesman*, *sportsman*, *saleswoman*, *bridesmaid*, etc.;

- possessive case "s", e.g., *crow's feet* 'морщины у глаз'; *cat's paw* 'легкая рябь на воде'; *dog's nose* 'джин с пивом', etc.

Morphological compounds are non-productive in English. They are less common in English compared to Ukrainian, e.g., *водограй*, *чорнобровий*, *народногосподарський*, *тепловоз*, *хвилеріз*, *землемір*, *життєдайний*, *лісостеп*, *науково-технічний*, etc.

3. According to the **structure of immediate constituents** and different degrees of their complexity, the compounds may be:

a) compounds proper, consisting of simple stems of independently functioning words with or without the help of special linking element, e.g., *door-step*, *age-long*, *babysitter*, *looking-glass*, *handiwork*, *sportsman*, *film-star*, *pen-friend*; *салон-перукарня*, *довготривалий*, etc.;

b) derivational compounds, where at least one of the constituents is a derived stem having affixes in its structure, e.g., in *long-legged*, the two components are the suffix *-ed* meaning 'having' and the base built on a free word-group *long legs*; other examples: *chain-smoker*, *three-cornered*, *office-management*; *доброзичливий*, *малолітка*, *широкоплечий*, etc.;

c) contracted neutral compounds having a shortened stem in their structure, e.g., a clipped stem: *math-mistress*; an abbreviation: *H-bag* 'handbag', *Xmas* 'Christmas', *спортбаза* 'спортивна база', etc.;

d) extended neutral compounds having a compound stem as at least one of the constituents, e.g., *fancy-dress-maker*, *wastepaper-basket*, *жук-короїд*, etc..

However, this complexity of structure of bases is not typical of the bulk of Modern English compounds. In this connection, care should be taken not to confuse compound words with polymorphic words of secondary derivation, i.e. derivatives built according to an affixal pattern but on a compound stem for its base such as, for instance, *school-mastership* ([n+n]+sf), *ex-housewife* (pf+[n+n]), *to weekend*, *to spotlight* ([n+n]+conversion); *славословити* (від *славослів'я*).

4. According to the **degree of semantic independence**, there are two types of relations between the ICs of compound words:

a) **coordinative compounds** (often termed copulative or additive), in which neither of the components dominates the other, both are semantically equally important, e.g., *oak-tree*, *shop-window*, *gray-green*; *жовто-блакитний*, *секретар-референт*; here we distinguish:

- reduplicative compounds which are made up by the repetition of the same base, e.g., *bye-bye*, *fifty-fifty*, etc.;

- the compounds made by joining the phonically varied rhythmic twin forms, e.g., *zig-zag*, *chit-chat*, *sing-song*, *helter-skelter*, *a walkie-talkie*, etc.;

- additive compounds which are built on stems of the independently functioning words of the same part of speech, e.g., *a queen-bee*, *an actor-manager*, *a secretary-stenographer*, etc.;

b) **subordinative compounds** (often termed determinative) in which the components are neither structurally nor semantically equal in importance, but are based on the domination of the head-member which is usually the second component; this second component influences the part-of-speech meaning of the whole compound, e.g., nouns: *wrist-watch*, *babysitter*, *blue-bell*, *mad-doctor*, *літакобудування*, *лікар-терапевт*; adjectives: *stone-deaf*, *age-long*, *snow-white*, *високоповажний*, etc.

5. According to the **correlation between compounds and free word-groups**, it is possible to classify compounds into four major classes: adjectival-nominal, verbal-nominal, nominal, and verb-adverbial.

- **adjectival-nominal** compounds having the following patterns: compound adjectives of N + A pattern (*snow-white*, *age-long*, *care-free*); compound adjectives of Num + N pattern (*two-day beard*, *a seven-day week*); derivational compound adjectives of (A/N + N) + ed pattern (*long-legged*, *bell-shaped*, *doll-faced*);

- **verbal-nominal** compounds having one derivational structure N + N_v, i.e. a combination of a noun-base with a deverbal suffixal noun-base (*bottle-opener*, *stage-manager*, *peace-fighter*, *rocket-flying*, *office-management*, *price-reduction*);

- nominal compounds (compound nouns) having a highly productive derivational pattern N + N; both bases are simple stems (*horse-race, pencil-case, windmill*);

- verb-adverbial compounds which are derivational nouns built with the help of conversion according to the pattern (V + Adv) + conversion (a *breakdown, a castaway, a runaway*).

6. The meaning of a compound word is made up of two components: structural and lexical.

The **structural meaning** of compounds is formed on the base of:

- 1) the meaning of their distributional pattern;
- 2) the meaning of their derivational pattern.

The distributional pattern of a compound is understood as the order and arrangement of the ICs that constitute a compound word. A change in the order and arrangement of the same ICs signals the compound words of different lexical meanings, cf.: *pot-flower* ‘a flower that grows in a pot’ and *flower-pot* ‘small container used for growing flowers in’. A change in the order arrangement of the ICs that form a compound may destroy its meaning. Thus, the distributional pattern of a compound carries a certain meaning of its own which is largely independent of the actual lexical meaning of their ICs.

The meaning of the derivational pattern of compounds can be abstracted and described through the interrelation of their ICs. For instance, the derivational pattern N+Ven underlying the compound adjectives *duty-bound, wind-driven, mud-stained* conveys the generalized meaning of instrumental or agentive relations which can be interpreted as ‘done by’ or ‘with the help of something’.

Derivational patterns in compounds may be monosemantic and polysemantic. For instance, the pattern N+N→N conveys the following semantic relations:

- 1) of purpose, e.g., *bookshelf*, etc.;
- 2) of resemblance, e.g., *needle-fish*, etc.;
- 3) of instrument or agent, e.g., *windmill, sunset*, etc.

The **lexical meaning** of compounds is formed on the base of the combined lexical meanings of their constituents. The semantic centre of the compound is the lexical meaning of the second component modified and restricted by the meaning of the first. The lexical meanings of both components are closely fused together to create a new semantic unit with a new meaning, which dominates the individual meanings of the bases, and is characterized by some additional component not found in any of the

bases. For instance, the lexical meaning of the compound word *handbag* is not essentially ‘a bag designed to be carried in the hand’ but ‘a woman’s small bag to carry everyday personal items’.

10.2 Shortening as a Language Universal

Word-building processes involve not only qualitative but also quantitative changes. Thus, derivation and compounding represent addition as suffixes and free stems respectively are added to the underlying form. Shortening, on the other hand, may be represented as subtraction, in which part of the original word is taken away (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

The strain of modern life is obviously one of the reasons for the development of shortenings. According to Hans Marchand (1969), the shortening of common nouns in English is no older than for centuries. In John Algeo’s new-word classification scheme (1975; 1980), shortenings consist of acronyms and initialisms, clippings and backformations. The oldest records of clippings in the English language history are from the second half of the 16th century, e.g., *coz* > *cousin*, *gent* > *gentleman*.

Shortening of words is the way of formation of new words by means of substituting a part of the word for a whole. The process of shortening affects both words and word-groups. The types of shortening are: clipping, blending, abbreviation, and acronyms.

Clipping is a type of word-building shortening of spoken words. Shortening consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts, as a result of which the new form acquires some linguistic value of its own. The part retained does not change phonetically, hence the necessity of spelling changes, e.g., *double* :: *dub*, *microphone* :: *mike*, *tranquilizer* :: *trank*, etc.

The generally accepted classification of shortened words is based on the position of the clipped part. According to whether it is the final, initial or middle part of the word that is cut off, we distinguish:

1) initial clipping (or apharesis, i.e. apharesis, from Greek *aphairesis* ‘a taking away’), e.g., *cap* ‘captain’, *phone* ‘telephone’, *story* ‘history’, *chute* ‘parachute’, etc.;

2) final clipping (or apocope, from Greek *apokoptein* ‘cut off’), e.g., *ed* ‘editor’; *cap* ‘captain’, *gym* ‘gymnasium, gymnastics’, *lab* ‘laboratory’, *ed* ‘editor’; *комп* ‘комп’ютер’, *універ* ‘університет’, etc.

In Ukrainian, unlike English, it is not productive, e.g., *мо* ‘може’, *Костя* ‘Костянтин’, *універ* ‘університет’, etc.;

3) medial clipping (or syncope, from Greek *syncope* ‘a cutting up’), e.g., *ma'am* ‘madam’, *fancy* ‘fantasy’, etc.

Final and initial clipping may be combined and result in the curtailed words with the middle part of the prototype retained, e.g., *flu* ‘influenza’, *frig* ‘refrigerator’, *tec* ‘detective’, etc.

If we approach the shortened word from the point of view of the structure of the prototype, we distinguish two groups:

1) shortened words, which correlate with words, e.g., *cabbie* ‘cabman’, *nightie* ‘nightdress’, *teeny* ‘teenager’, etc.;

2) shortened words, which correlate with phrases, e.g., *finals* ‘final examinations’, *perm* ‘permanent wave’, *pop* ‘popular music’, *pub* ‘public house’, *taxi* ‘taximeter-cab’, etc.

Unlike conversion, shortening produces new words in the same part of speech. The bulk of shortened words are nouns. Verbs are rarely shortened, e.g., *rev* ‘revolve’, *tab* ‘tabulate’. *To phone*, *to taxi*, *to vac* and others are converted nouns. Clipped adjectives are also very few, e.g., *comfy* ‘comfortable’, *awk* ‘awkward’, *impos* ‘impossible’, *mizzy* ‘miserable’, etc.

Blending is a type of compounding by means of merging parts of words into a new word, e.g., *brunch* ‘breakfast + lunch’, *smog* ‘smoke + fog’, *smaze* ‘smoke + haze’, *slimnastics* ‘slim + gymnastics’, etc.

This process of formation is also called *telescoping*, because the words seem to slide into one another like sections of a telescope. Floriana Popescu (2019: 75) states that in the process of coining a new word, not only parts of the words are combined but also a new word carries the ideas behind both of the original terms. The result of such a combination is also known as a “portmanteau word” (due to its resemblance to a two-part portmanteau bag).

It seems practical to distinguish the following groups of blends:

1) coining a new word from the initial elements of one word and the final elements of another, e.g., *drunch* ‘drink + lunch’, *skort* ‘skirt + short’, *Interpol* ‘International + police’, *motel* ‘motor + hotel’, *нарден* ‘народний депутат’, *Мін'юст* ‘Міністерство юстиції’, *Мінфін* ‘Міністерство фінансів’, *універмаг* ‘універсальний магазин’, etc.;

2) coining a new word by combining one notional word and the final element of another word, e.g., *manglish* ‘man + English’, *radiotrician* ‘radio + electrician’, etc.;

3) combining the initial elements of one word with a notional word, e.g., *mobus* ‘motors + bus’, *legislady* ‘legislative lady’, *technobandit*

‘technological bandit’, *techno-thriller* ‘technological thriller’, *MoSoSo* ‘Mobile social software’, etc. It is also frequent in Ukrainian: *міська рада* ‘міська рада’, *генпрокуратура* ‘генеральна прокуратура’, *генпрокурор* ‘генеральний прокурор’, *адмінресурс* ‘адміністративний ресурс’, etc.

A new lexeme can be created through telescoping following different patterns (Бялик 2014):

1) $ab + cd \rightarrow abd$, e.g., *bookvertising* ‘book + (ad)vertising’, etc.;

2) $ab + cd \rightarrow ad$, e.g., *heliport* ‘heli(copter) + (air)port’, *Swatch* ‘Swiss + watch’; *алконавт* ‘алкоголік + космонавт’; *банкомат* ‘банківський + автомат’, etc.;

3) $ab + cd \rightarrow acd$, e.g., *аромоксамит* ‘аромат + оксамит’, etc.;

4) $ab + cd \rightarrow bd$, e.g., *netiquette* ‘(Inter)net + etiquette’, etc.

There are also cases of overlapping in both languages: *orature* ‘oral + literature’, *chunnel* ‘channel + tunnel’, *Даринок* ‘Дарниця + ринок’.

There are two types of blends:

1) additive, which can be transformed into phrases consisting of the equivalent full words combined by means of the conjunction *and*, e.g., *smog* < *smoke and fog*, etc.

2) restrictive, which come from phrases in which the first element modifies the second one, e.g., *telecast* < *television broadcast*, hence it is the second component that controls the meaning of the whole word.

In the second half of the 20th century, the English word building system was enriched by creating the so-called “splinters”, which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English word building system (Kuznetsov 2005).

Splinters are the result of clipping of the end or the beginning of a word and thus producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group, e.g., *miniplane*, *minijet*, *minicycle*, *minicar* or *maxi-series*, *maxi-sculpture*, *maxi-taxi* and so on. The European Economic Community having been organized, quite a number of neologisms with the *Euro-* splinter were coined, e.g., *Euratom*, *Eurocard*, *Euromarket*, *Eurotunnel* and many others. These splinters are sometimes treated as prefixes in Modern English. Splinters may be called pseudomorphemes (Kuznetsov 2005) as they are neither roots nor affixes, being artificial ones.

Such coinages are often formed with a playful or humorous intent and have a stylistic status. They can convey various shades of emotive colouring (irony or mockery), which makes them most active in different types of slang: *dopelomat* ‘dope + diplomat’, *Yanigan* ‘Yankee + hooligan’, *nixonomics* ‘Nixon + economics’, etc

Blends, although not very numerous altogether, seem to be on the rise, especially in terminology and also in trade advertisements.

Abbreviation is a type of shortening when words are formed from the initial letters of each part of a phrasal term. Abbreviations are pronounced as a series of letters, i.e. the alphabetical reading of the letters is retained, e.g., *B.B.C.* ‘The British Broadcasting Corporation’, *M.P.* ‘Member of Parliament’, *P.M.* ‘Prime Minister’, *T.V.* ‘Television’, *Y.C.L.* ‘The Young Communist League’, *USA* ‘United States of America’, *GMT* ‘Greenwich mean time’, etc.

Sometimes analogy as a psycholinguistic phenomenon influences the creation of the new abbreviations, which are formed according to certain models. So, the world known *BBC* ‘British Broadcasting Corporation’ became the prototype for a number of companies that belong to the same professional field: *CBC* ‘Canadian Broadcasting Corporation’, *ABC* ‘American / Australian Broadcasting Corporation’, *NBC* ‘National Broadcasting Corporation’, *CBS* ‘Columbia Broadcasting System’, etc.

In Ukrainian: *СБУ* ‘Служба безпеки України’, *СНД* ‘союз незалежних держав’, *ОБСЄ* ‘Організація з безпеки та співробітництва в Європі’, *ООН* ‘Організація Об’єднаних Націй’, *США* ‘Сполучені Штати Америки’, etc.

A specific type of abbreviations having no parallel in Ukrainian is represented by Latin abbreviations, which are not read as Latin words but substituted by their English equivalents, e.g., *a.m.* (Latin *ante meridiem*) ‘in the morning’; *p.m.* (Latin *post meridiem*) ‘in the afternoon’; *i.e.* (Latin *id est*) ‘that is’; *cp.* (Latin *comparare*) ‘compare’; *e.g.*, (Latin *exempli gratia*) ‘for example’, *No.* (Latin *numero*) ‘number’, etc. Some Latin abbreviations have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g., *p.m.* can be read as ‘in the afternoon’ (Latin *post meridiem*) or ‘after death’ (Latin *post mortem*).

Acronyms (from Greek *acros* ‘end’ + *onym* ‘name’) are abbreviated words formed from the initial letters of word-combination. The abbreviated written form is read as though it were an ordinary English word and sounds like an English word, e.g., *NATO* /neitou/ ‘The North Atlantic Treaty Organization’, *UNO* /ju:nou/ ‘United Nations Organization’, *SALT* /solt/ ‘Strategic Arms Limitation Talks’, *V.I.P.* ‘very important person’, *SOS* ‘save our souls’, *EEC* ‘Economic European Community’, *AIDS* ‘acquired immune deficiency syndrome’, *radar* ‘radio detecting and ranging’; *laser* ‘light amplification stimulated emission radio’; *maser* ‘microwave amplification stimulated emission radio’, etc. Christian names in acronyms: *Fred* ‘fast reading electric device’, *Oscar* ‘orbiting satellite’, *Eva* ‘electronic velocity analyzer’, etc.

In Ukrainian: *ЗМІ* ‘засоби масової інформації’, *ЧАЕС* ‘Чорнобильська атомна електростанція’, *СНІД* ‘синдром імунодефіциту’, etc.

The **isomorphic feature** of both English and Ukrainian shortenings is the combination of a letter with a numerical component, e.g., *3D* ‘three-dimensional’, *G7* ‘Group of Seven’; *T-34* ‘середній танк періоду Другої світової війни, випускався серійно з 1940’, etc.

Nowadays the digital world has a profound impact on the Internet communication resulting in the usage of different shortenings, among which acronyms prevail, e.g., *b4* ‘before’, *W8* ‘wait’, *ASAP* ‘as soon as possible’, *I h8 it* ‘I hate it’, *DH* ‘dear husband’, *LOL* ‘laughting out loud’, *BTW* ‘by the way’, etc. But of course other types of shortenings are used in texting, e.g., *2moro* ‘tomorrow’, *4ever* ‘forever’, *rehi* ‘hello again’, etc.

On balance, in Ukrainian, the number of such shortened words is restricted but here are some vivid examples: acronyms *нз* ‘не знаю’, *хз* ‘хто-зна’ and other types: *прив* ‘привіт’, *норм* ‘нормально’, *спс* ‘спасибі’, *ск* ‘скільки’, etc.

To sum up, both English and Ukrainian shortenings can be written with a dot (e.g. ‘example given’; *ім.* ‘імені’, *гр.* ‘громадянин’, *див.* ‘дивись’) or without (*Sat – Сб*), etc.

The allomorphic feature of Ukrainian graphical shortenings lies in the usage of a slash (*а/с* ‘абонентська скринька’, *в/ч* ‘військова частина’) as well as the combination of a slash with a dot (*нівд.–східн.*). Moreover, a bulk of Ukrainian shortenings are hyphenated, e.g., *р-н* ‘район’, *вид-во* ‘видавництво’. Sometimes italics are used but only after numbers: *45 т*, *250 грн*.

10.3 Contrastive Typology of the Minor Ways of Word Formation

Less productive ways of word formation in English and Ukrainian are back-formation, reduplication, stress interchange, and sound imitation.

Back-formation (reversion) is the derivation of new words (mostly verbs) by means of subtracting a suffix or other element resembling it, e.g., *combust* < *combustion*, *greed* < *greedy*, *lase* < *laser*, *luminesce* < *luminiscent*, *sculpt* < *sculptor*, etc. Back-formation, or reversion, is a source of short words in the past and an active process at the present time.

The earliest examples of this type of word-building are the verb *to beg* that was made from the French borrowing *beggar*, the verb *to burgle*

‘здійснити крадіжку’ from *burglar* ‘грабіжник’, *to cobble* ‘ремонтувати взуття’ from *cobbler* ‘швець’, *to edit* from *editor*. In all these cases, the verb was made from the noun by subtracting its last element *-er / -or*. The pattern of the type *to work* > *worker*, *to write* > *writer*, *to paint* > *painter* was firmly established in the subconsciousness of English-speaking people at the time when these formations appeared, and it was taken for granted that any noun denoting profession or occupation is certain to have a corresponding verb of the same root. So, in the case of the verbs *to beg*, *to burgle*, *to cobble*, *to edit*, *to peddle*, the process was reversed: instead of a noun made from a verb by affixation (as in *painter* from *to paint*, *writer* from *to write*, *worker* from *to work*), a verb was produced from a noun by subtraction. That is why this type of word-building received the name of “back-formation”, or “reversion”.

Later examples of back-formation are *to butle* from *butler*, *to babysit* from *baby-sitter*, *to force-land* from *forced landing*, *to blood-transfuse* from *blood-transfusion*, *to fingerprint* from *finger printings*, *to straphang* from *straphanger*.

Back-formation, or reversion, may be found in the formation of words belonging to different parts of speech:

a) verbs made from names of agent with the suffixes *-er*, *-or*, *-our / -eur*, *-ar*, *-rd*, e.g., *broker* > *broke*, *wafter* > *waft* ‘доносити’, *hawker* > *hawk* ‘вуличний торговець’, *sculptor* > *sculpt*; *benefactor* > *benefact* ‘благодійник’, etc.;

b) verbs made from nouns with the suffix *-ing*, e.g., *kittling* > *to kittle*, *awning* > *to awn*, *quisling* > *to quisle*, etc.;

c) verbs made from nouns with abstract suffixes *-ence*, *-tion*, *-sion*, *-is*, *-y*, *-ment*, *-age*, *-ery*, e.g., *reminiscence* > *to reminisce*, *infract* > *to infract*, *television* > *to televise*, *emplacement* > *to emplace*, etc.;

d) verbs made from adjectives, e.g., *luminescent* > *to luminesce*, *frivolous* > *to frivol*, etc.;

e) nouns made from adjectives, e.g., *greedy* > *greed*, *nasty* > *nast*; *cantankerous*, etc.

Back-derivation is quite developed in Ukrainian too. It is especially characteristic of nouns derived from verbs. Back derivation in Ukrainian is often combined with sound alternation, e.g., *вибір* < *вибирати*, *гнів* < *гнівити*, *сад* < *садити*, *дояр* < *доярка*, *зонт* < *зонтик*, *очник* < *заочник*, etc.

Back-derivation in Ukrainian is more productive in literary works, where it is of occasional nature – that is the words are created by the

author for the once, e.g., “*Ой, яка ж я недотена!*” – донька “*Ні, мамочко, ти дотена!*” (Верба 2008).

Reduplication is a very interesting type of English word-building because of its national specificity. It is the most wide-spread type among the semi-productive types of word-formation in Modern English. In reduplication, new compound words are made by doubling a stem (often a pseudo-morpheme), e.g., *bye-bye, ta-ta, din-din, tick-tack, clitter-clatter, fuddy-duddy, hokey-pokey, tip-top, teeny-weeny, see-saw*, etc.

According to D. Kveselevich (Квеселевич 1983), reduplicative compounds fall into three main subgroups:

1) reduplicative compounds proper whose ICs are identical in their form, e.g., *murmur, frou-frou, thump-thump, blah-blah, pooh-pooh, willy-willy*, etc.;

2) ablaut (gradational) compounds whose ICs have different root-vowels, e.g., *ping-pong, chit-chat, bibble-babble, dilly-dally, nid-nod, knick-knack, flip-flop*, etc.;

3) rhyme compounds whose ICs are joined to rhyme, e.g., *helter-skelter* ‘беспорядок’, *walkie-talkie* ‘рація’, *namby-panby* ‘сентиментальність’, *higgledy-piggledy* ‘повний безлад’, *hanky-panky* ‘обман’, etc.

This type of word-building is greatly facilitated in Modern English by the vast number of monosyllables. Stylistically speaking, most words made by reduplication represent informal groups: colloquialisms and slang, they are stylistically and emotionally coloured.

Reduplication in Ukrainian is mostly active in onomatopoeic words. There are rare cases when reduplication is used with an intensifying effect, e.g., *ледве-ледве, сині-сині*, but this doubling of a stem is not accompanied by the creating of an entirely new meaning.

Sound imitation, or **onomatopoeia** (from Greek *onoma* ‘name’ and *poiein* ‘to make’) is forming new words through imitation of different sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, human beings, and objects.

Both English and Ukrainian are rich in onomatopoeic words, e.g., *buzz, giggle, булькати, скрегіт, шуніти*, etc.

Onomatopoeic words do not reflect real sounds directly, they are formed according to certain laws, which are different in different languages. Examples of onomatopoeia abound in other languages too, although somewhat surprisingly, the words used to describe the same sounds are often not the same in different languages. The pig on Old MacDonald's farm, for example, says *oink oink* in English, but *groin groin* in French, *grunz* in German, and *buu buu* in Japanese, and *пох-пох-пох*

and *хрю-хрю* in Ukrainian. This is because sounds that are not produced by human throats can only be approximated by sounds we can pronounce, and different languages have different sounds available for forming words. Also, in the case of some animals, such as frogs, they actually do make different sounds in different parts of the world, because they are of different species. That is why English and Ukrainian onomatopoeic words with the same meaning have different sound structure, e.g., *to bleat* – *мекати*, *to honk* – *гелготіти*, *to cackle* – *кудкудакати*.

Semantically, according to the source of sound, onomatopoeic words fall into a few groups:

- sounds produced by animals, birds, and insects, e.g., *croak*, *neigh*, *purrr*; *ку-ку*, *гав-гав*, *нявчати*, etc.;

- sounds produced by human beings, e.g., *mutter*, *whine*, *chatter*; *тупотіння*, etc.;

- sounds of water, e.g., *bubble*, *splash*; *хлюп*, *кан-кан*, etc.;

- the noise of metallic things, e.g., *clink*, *tinkle*; *бряць!*, etc.;

- sounds of forceful motions, e.g., *crash*, *whisk*; *трах-трах*, *гупання*, etc.

Stress interchange usually takes place in pairs of English two-syllable nouns and verbs of Romanic origin in combination with inversion:

ex'port, v. – '*export*, n.

con'duct, v. – '*conduct*, n.

cont'rast, v. – '*contrast*, n.

A similar phenomenon is observed in some pairs of adjectives and verbs, e.g.:

'*perfect*, adj. – *per'fect*, v.

'*abstract*, adj. – *abst'ract*, v.

As it is shown above, the essence of stress interchange is that to form a new word the stress of the word is shifted to a new syllable.

There are no clear cases of stress interchange in Ukrainian.

Sound interchange (gradation) take place when words belonging to different parts of speech are differentiated due to the sound interchange in the root. It often involves phonological changes of vowel or consonant, e.g., *strong* – *strength*, *heal* – *health*, *deep* – *depth*, *abide* – *abode*, etc.

The distinctive feature of English is a voiced consonant in verbs contrasting with an unvoiced one in nouns, e.g., *advise* – *advice*, *believe* – *belief*, *live* – *life*, *loathe* – *loath*, *shelve* – *shelf*, etc. Though not productive any more, sound interchange is observed in expressing grammatical categories, e.g., *goose* – *geese*, *foot* – *feet*, *tear* – *tore* – *torn*, etc.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

Compounding as a Syntactic Way of Word-Formation in English and Ukrainian

Карпенко О. В. Comparative Lexicology of the Ukrainian and English Languages: навч. посіб. із порівняльної лексикології англ. та укр. мов для студентів 3 курсу ф-ту «Референт-перекладач» / Нар. укр. акад., каф. герман. та роман. філології. Харків : Вид-во НУА, 2018. 104 с.

Compounding is the second highly productive way of word-formation in English and in Ukrainian.

Compounding is morphological or syntactic joining of two or more stems into one word.

Compound words (or compounds) are language units formed by joining two or more stems and having structural-semantic cohesion. The structural-semantic cohesion in a compound depends on unity of stress, solid or hyphenated spelling, semantic unity, and unity of morphological and syntactic functioning.

Compounding has been common in all periods of English and Ukrainian.

1. Morphological structure and spelling of compound words

There are the following types of stems in English and Ukrainian compound words:

Simple (also: root) stems: *classmate, хоровод*

Derived stems: *sleeping-bag, малолітка*

Compound stems: *flower-pot stand, жук-корoid*

Abbreviated and shortened stems: *V-day (= Victory day), хімзавод.*

One of the stems may be a grammatical form of a word:

beeswax (the first stem is the plural of the noun *bee*)

перекоту поле (the first stem is the imperative form of the verb *перекотити*).

Compound words may have the structure of a phrase containing articles, prepositions or conjunctions (such words are called “syntactic compounds”). This type of compounds (most of them are adjectives) is characteristic of present-day English, e.g., *end-of-the-world atmosphere, face-to-face conversation*, etc.

The stems in a compound word may be joined by a vowel or consonant, e.g., *speedometer, salesman, землетрус, місяцехід*, etc.

The regular pattern in English and Ukrainian is a two-stem compound.

The most vivid distinction between English and Ukrainian compounds lies in the types of their stems. Ukrainian compounds usually consist of bound stems, while English compounds are normally free stems (they can function as independent words with distinct meanings of their own).

2. Coordinate and subordinate relationships between the stems in compound words.

According to the degree of interdependence, there are two types of relationships between the stems in a compound word: the relationships of co-ordination and the relationships of subordination, and according to these relationships, compound words may be subdivided into coordinate and subordinate.

In coordinate compounds, the components are structurally and semantically independent. Coordinate compounds are close to free word combinations. For instance:

N. + N. > N. *actor-manager, хлопець-богачир*;
Adj. + Adj. > Adj. *black-and-white, жовто-зелений*.

In subordinate compounds, one of the stems dominates. A subordinate compound word acquires the grammatical category of its dominant stem. Usually, it is the second stem. For example:

V. + N. > N. *pickpocket, лежебока*;
N. + A. > A. *stone-deaf*.

There are, however, compounds, which acquire the grammatical category of their first stem. It takes place if the second stem is a conjunction, preposition or an adverb. For example:

N. + Adv. > N. *passer-by, breakdown*

3. The determinatum and determinant in a compound word. Endocentric and exocentric compounds.

Some compounds consist of a determining stem (“the determinant”) and a determined stem (“the determinatum”).

In order to explain these concepts, let us compare the words *sunlight*, *moonlight* and *starlight*. The first stem in each compound word serves to determine a particular type of light. Such stems are called determinants. The second stem *-light* is a determinatum.

Compounds with the clearly expressed determinant (“the determinatum”) are called endocentric.

The meaning of the determinatum is the semantic centre of an endocentric compound. For instance, a *blackboard* is a kind of a board and a *breast-pin* is a kind of a pin.

In other compounds, the determinatum is not clearly expressed, but only implied. For instance, a *scarecrow* is not a type of a crow, *pickpocket* is not a type of a pocket, and *лизоблюд* is not a sort of a dish. Such compounds are called *exocentric*.

4. A productive means of compounding (especially in English) is **agglutination** when different parts of speech may be formed in this way – nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, e.g., *present-day*, *short-sighted*, *broad-minded*, *long-range*, *hi-jack*, *to April-fool*, *goose-step*, *cross-examine*, *plate-rack*, *sideways*, etc. Or in Ukrainian: *бурят-монгол*, *дизель-генератор*, *двійка-байдарка*, *шафа-холодильник*, *кахи-кахи*, *миць-миць*, *човг-човг*, *сяк-так*, *хоч-не-хоч*, etc. Highly productive in English is also the agglutination with the help of prepositions, e.g., *commander-in-chief*, *matter-of-fact*, *up-to-date*, etc. (Korunets 2003).

Agglutination of predicative units is observed in both languages though more common it is still in the English language, e.g., *pick-me-up*, *forget-me-not*, *merry-go-round*, *push-me-pull-me*, *Gradgrind*, *Mr. Know-All*, etc. (cf. Ukrainian family names as *Куйбіда*, *Неїжмак*, *Незовибатько*, *Непуйвода*, *Підкуймуха*, *Убийвовк*, etc.). Only in English, however, there is observed agglutination of abbreviated parts with root nouns like *A-bomb*, *Xmas*, *X-ray*, etc.

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Text 2

Shortening as a Way of Word-Formation

Kuznetsov M. Shortening as a way of word-formation in advertisements. *Наукові записки Національного університету "Острозька академія". Серія : Філологічна*. 2015. Вип. 52. С. 5–7. URL :http://nbuv.gov.ua/UJRN/Nznuoaf_2015_52_4

In the process of communication, words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extralinguistic, by which changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English and Ukrainian, many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the very life tempo is increasing and it becomes necessary to give

more and more information in the shortest possible time. There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English, they are shortened. Here we have the form modification on the basis of analogy, so as the Latin borrowing *fanaticus* is shortened to *fan* on the analogy with native words: *man*, *pan*, *tan*, etc.

Shortening of words is the way of formation of new words by means of substituting a part of the word for a whole. This process affects both words and word-groups. Therefore, the term “shortening” is to be regarded as conventional, divided into two types: shortening of a word in written speech, that is **graphical abbreviations**, and in the sphere of oral intercourse – **lexical shortening** (abbreviation, clipping, blending).

All shortened words function in the language as any other ordinary word does, so they take on grammatical inflections, e.g., *exams*, *MPs*, *PMs*, *в.о.* ‘виконуючий обов’язки’, *р.* ‘рік’; *гр.* ‘громадянин’, *кв.* ‘квартира’, *проф.* ‘професор’, *гл. ред.* ‘головний редактор’, *див.* ‘дивись’, etc. They also may be used with both types of articles, e.g., *the BBC*, *a bike*, *the Lib*, *ББС*, *МВС*, etc. They may be combined with derivational affixes and used in compounding as well, e.g., *MP-ess*, *Euro-MP*, etc. All of them can be sorted according to the traditional division: **graphical abbreviations**, **initial abbreviations**, **lexical shortenings**, **blends**, and **splinters**.

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while using the corresponding full forms orally. So, they are used for the economy of space and effort in writing. The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin, being not typical for the Ukrainian language. In these abbreviations, Latin words are shortened in spelling, but pronounced in the full form as their English equivalents, e.g., *a.m.* ‘in the morning’ (Latin *ante meridiem*), *e.g.* ‘for example’ (Latin *exempli gratia*), *No.* ‘number’ (Latin *numero*), *p.a.* ‘a year’ (Latin *per annum*), *lb* ‘pound’ (Latin *libra*), *i.e.* ‘that is’ (Latin *id est*), etc. Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g., *p.m.* can be read as ‘in the afternoon’ (*post meridiem*) or ‘after death’ (*post mortem*).

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where we have shortenings and their equivalents in full form. They can be divided into several semantic groups:

- 1) days of the week: *Mon – Monday, Tue – Tuesday; Пн – понеділок, Вт – вівторок*;
- 2) names of months: *Apr – April, Aug – August; жовт. – жовтень, лист. – листопад*;
- 3) names of address: *Mrs., Ms., Dr.; n. – пан (пані)*;
- 4) names of counties (UK) and states (USA): *Yorks – Yorkshire, Berks – Berkshire, Ala – Alabama, Tex – Texas; К. – Київ, Х. – Харків*;
- 5) geographical names and locations: *st. – street, state; dist. – district; кв. – квартира, обл. – область, о. – острів, оз. – озеро, р. – рік, річка, с. – село, сторінка, ст. – станція, сторіччя*;
- 6) military ranks: *capt. – captain, col. – colonel, sgt – sergeant; в-сл – військовослужбовець, к-н – капітан*;
- 7) scientific degrees: *B.A. – Bachelor of Arts, D.M. – Doctor of Medicine, Ph.D. – Philosophy Doctor; Укр. акад. – академік, доц. – доцент, к.ф.н. – кандидат філологічних наук, проф. – професор*;
- 8) units of time, length, weight: *sec. – second, f. – foot / feet, mg. – milligram; Укр. м – метр, мм – міліметр, см – сантиметр*.

Graphical abbreviations are normally used for the economy of space, that is why being frequent means of slogans, announcements, posters and other pieces of information. Any advertisement may contain numerous shortened variants of Latin and English words and word-groups: *A.D.* ‘Anno Domini’, *ib.* ‘ibidem’, *b.f.* ‘bona fide’, *oz* ‘ounce’, *in* ‘inch’, *cm* ‘centimetre’, *L.P.* ‘Long Playing’, *a.o.b.* ‘any other business’, *m.p.h.* ‘miles per hour’, *govt* ‘government’, etc.

Initial abbreviations (initialisms) are the bordering case between graphical and lexical ones. They are formed from the first letters of the words to be shortened. When they appear in the language to denote some new institutions (enterprises), they become closer to graphical abbreviations because full forms of them are used in oral speech. But being used for some time, they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and thus become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g., *DJ* ‘disc jockey’, *VJ* ‘video jockey’, etc. They are mostly used in the names of the companies, trademarks or products.

Strictly speaking, there are three types of initialisms in English and Ukrainian:

- 1) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as *UK, USA, FRG, SMS; КПІ, МВС, ЖБК, ЄС*, etc.;
- 2) initialisms which are read like words, such as *UNESCO, UNO, NATO; ДАК, ЖЕК, НАН*, etc.;

3) initialisms which coincide with English / Ukrainian words in their sound forms (acronyms), such as *CLASS* ‘Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System’; *МАРС* ‘машина автоматичної реєстрації і сигналізації’, etc.

Some scientists consider first and second groups to be one called **acronyms** – shortenings formed by using the first letter of each word in a phrase to form a new word.

The initial abbreviations in advertisements can be both **fixed** and **new** depending on their usage frequency. The fixed initialisms (*UNO*, *UNESCO*, *NATO*) are used, as a rule, in the informative advertisements intended for general comprehension. Quite opposite, specific human activities exploit special terms (*MOSAIC* ‘metal-oxyde-semiconductor array integrated circuit’ (chemistry), *PROOF* ‘Precision Recording Optical of Fingerprints’ (police investigation), which are hardly understandable for average people. Sometimes giving technical characteristics of the product, special terms are written and read without any explanation, e.g., *SLR* ‘camera (single-lens reflect)’.

Clipping is the creation of new words by shortening a word of two or more syllables without changing its class membership. Clippings are classified according to the part of the word clipped.

Generally, the end of the word is clipped (*apocope*), because the beginning of the word in most cases expresses the lexical meaning of it, e.g., *curio* ‘curiosity’, *info* ‘information’, *disco* ‘discotheque’, *expo* ‘exposition’, *intro* ‘introduction’, *Paki* ‘Pakistani’, *Afro* ‘African’, *nuke* ‘nuclear’, etc.

In some cases, the beginning of the word may be clipped too (*aphaeresis*), e.g., *gator* ‘alligator’, *chute* ‘parachute’, *varsity* ‘university’, *copter* ‘helicopter’, etc.

Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped (*syncope*), e.g., *mart* ‘market’, *fanzine* ‘fanmagazine’, *hols* ‘holidays’, *maths* ‘mathematics’, *undies* ‘underclothes’. These shortenings are easily understood in advertisements (*ads*, *advertis*), because a lot of shortened words already exist in the language together with longer forms having the same lexical meanings. The only difference is emotive force and style.

There exist also words that have been clipped both at the beginning and at the end, e.g., *flu* ‘influenza’, *tec* ‘detective’, *fridge* ‘refrigerator’ or are the result of apocope and syncope, e.g., *pram* ‘perambulator’.

Blending is a specific type of shortening. **Blends** are formed by means of merging parts of words (not morphemes) into a new word. In

other words, blending is compounding by means of clipping. In blends, two ways of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition. One of the first blends in English was the word *smog* ('smoke + fog'). As a rule, many blends are short-lived. In the language of advertising, they are created for a specific aim only: to attract attention of the people with the help of interesting linguistic discoveries, e.g., *crocoraffe* = 'crocodile + giraffe' (the mystical symbol of the company producing toys, clothes, etc. for children), *drum* ('drinks + lunch'), *cinemagnate* ('cinema + magnate'), etc. Some of the blendings were so successful that they have already become part of the language, e.g., *motel* = 'motor + hotel', *botel* = 'boat + hotel', *airtel* = 'airport + hotel'. Because of its influence, thousands of blendings appear every year, especially in the language of advertising, e.g., *casomat* = 'cash + automat', *popcert* = 'popular + concert', *yarden* = 'yard + garden'. Most of them would disappear in the whirlpool of the same blends, but some would survive and enlarge the vocabulary existing universally.

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Thematic Module 4

CONTRASTIVE ETYMOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LEXICON

Theme 11

Etymological Survey of the English and Ukrainian Vocabulary

To comprehend the nature and historical development of the English and Ukrainian vocabulary, it is necessary to examine the etymology of different layers, the historical causes of their appearance, their volume and role, and the comparative importance of native and borrowed elements in enriching the English and Ukrainian word-stocks.

The notion of “**etymology**” means the origin of a word, its primary meaning and its connection with its counter-parts in other languages.

According to the origin, the word-stock of English and Ukrainian may be subdivided into two main sets – native and borrowed.

11.1 Native Word Stock of English and Ukrainian

A **native word** is a word which belongs to the original word-stock, as known from the old period. Native word stock takes up only 30% of English vocabulary whereas it constitutes about 90% of Ukrainian lexicon.

The most characteristic feature of **English lexicon** is usually said to be its mixed character. Many linguists consider foreign influence, especially that of French, to be the most important factor in the history of English. This wide-spread viewpoint is supported only by the evidence of the English word-stock, as its grammar and phonetic systems are very stable and not easily influenced by other languages.

English native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock of the old English period (up to 7th cent.).

English native words are further subdivided into those of the Indo-European stock and those of Common Germanic origin. Native words constitute about 80% of the 500 most frequent words in English.

The words of **Indo-European origin** are mainly terms of kinship (*father, mother, son, daughter*), terms from nature (*sun, moon, water, tree*), names of animals and birds (*bull, cat, wolf, goose*), parts of the human body (*arm, eye, foot*), most frequent verbs (*come, sit, stand*) and others. Most numerals are also of the Indo-European origin.

Words of the **Common Germanic stock** form a bigger part of the native vocabulary. These words have parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, etc. The number of semantic groups is bigger than those of Indo-European origin. Their character is mainly general. For example, nouns: *summer, winter, rain, bridge, house, shop, shirt, shoe, life*; verbs: *to need, to bake, to buy, to learn, to make, to see*; adjectives: *deaf, dead, deep* and many others. Most adverbs and pronouns also belong here.

English native words may be characterized by a high lexical and grammatical valency (ability to combine with other words), high frequency and developed polysemy. They are often monosyllabic (*sun, wood, break*), have great word-building power and enter a number of set expressions. Verbs with post-positions are usually native, e.g., *to look for, to look after*.

Most of the English native words have undergone great changes in their semantic structure, and as a result are nowadays polysemantic, e.g., the word *finger* does not only denote a part of a hand as in Old English, but also 1) the part of a glove covering one of the fingers, 2) a finger-like part in various machines, 3) a hand of a clock, 4) an index, 5) a unit of measurement.

Highly polysemantic are the words *man, head, hand, go*. For example, the word *hand*: 1) part of the human body; 2) power, possession, by a responsibility; 3) influence; 4) person from whom news comes; 5) skill in using one's hands; 6) person who does what is indicated by the context, performer; 7) workman; 8) share in activity; 9) pointer, indicator; 10) position or direction; 11) handwriting; 12) signature; 13) number of cards held by a player; 14) unit of measurement; 15) applause by clapping.

In contrast to English, **Ukrainian lexicon** comprises 90% of words which belong to the original Ukrainian word-stock (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1) and were inherited from the earlier stage of the language development.

Ukrainian native words and elements arose in the common Slavic period, words common to the East Slavic languages (East European, Common Slavic, Common East Slavic). These comprise the names of family relationships (*мати, сестра, брат*); names of body parts and organs of a person (*зуб, язик*); names of plants, birds, trees and animals (*дуб, курка, гуска, явір*); household names (*цукор, дріжджі, двері*), etc.

Another strata of the Ukrainian native vocabulary originated and developed during the time of the independent existence of the Ukrainian language (*небо, туман, земля, мрія, розкішний, багаття*).

11.2 International Words in the English and Ukrainian Languages

The lexicon of each developed language comprises a very large layer of foreign by origin words, word-groups and even a small number of sentences. These lexical and syntactic level units have been acquired by the borrowing languages to designate notions hitherto unknown in them. The bulk of these borrowed morphemes, lexemes and syntaxemes are found in many languages of a culturally, historically, and often geographically common area as Europe, the Middle East or the Far East.

Internationalisms are such language units which are borrowed from one and the same source language by at least three genealogically different languages in the same or similar lingual form and identical meaning (cf. *dollar-долар-доллар*, *atom-атом-атом*, *interest-інтерес-интерес*, *director-директор-директор*, *basis-база-база*, *stadium-стадіон-стадион*, *theatre-театр-театр*, *physics-фізика-физика*, *music-музика-музыка*, *territory-територія-территория*, *kilometre-кілометр-километр*, *engineer-інженер-инженер*, etc.).

International, however, may be not only words and phrases / word-groups, but also morphemes – prefixes, suffixes, and even inflexions, nothing to say about root morphemes as the English or Ukrainian words *fund-фонд*, *gas-газ*, *lord-лорд*, *ohm-ом*, *park-парк*, *round-фунт*, *smog-смог*, and many others.

Internationalisms come either from a modern language or from neologisms coined from Greek or Latin roots, which provide a common store for the formation of such words.

Internationalisms are used to designate notions belonging to different domains of human knowledge or activity. Hence, there is distinguished:

a) the social and political terminology comprising the most commonly used political, economic, philosophical, historical, sociological units of lexicon (e.g., *audit*, *bank*, *republic*, *constitution*, *revolution*, *democratic*, *parliament*, *party*, *president*, *barter*, *sophism*, etc.). Here also belong terms designating international law, diplomacy, numerous literary terms (cf. *culture*, *drama*, *poet*, *metaphor*, *epithet*, *hyperbole*, etc.);

b) natural history / sciences terminology (e.g., *physics*, *mathematics*, *genetics*, *geometry*, *chemistry*, etc.) used not only in special but also in scientific and popular works and in mass media (e.g., *chemical / physical reaction*, *genes*, *pneumonia*, *technology*, *metal*, *gas*, etc.);

c) numerous technical terms (names of machines and their parts, e.g., *motor, carter, starter, accelerator, battery*, etc.), as well as names of different means of transport (e.g., *bus, metro, taxi*, etc.) and communication (e.g., *fax, telegraph, telex, radio, e-mail*, etc.).

The main characteristic feature of **genuine internationalisms**, whether single words or words-combinations, is their semantic singularity. It means that their lexical identity and orthographic similarity in the source language and in all target languages remains unchanged both at language level (when taken separate) and at speech level, i.e., when used in texts / speech.

Apart from many thousands of genuine international words and word-combinations, which retain in several languages an identical or similar lingual form and identical meaning, there exists one more group of international lexis called **translation loans** of lexicon. These have also a generally common structural form (of word, word-combination) but rarely a similarity in their orthographic form or sounding.

Loan internationalisms are mostly different terms designating scientific and technological notions, in the main, e.g., *brake-гальмо; citric acid-лимонна кислота; lead oxide-окис свинцю; specific gravity-питома вага; surplus value-додана вартість; non-conducting-непровідність; agreement-узгодження; juxtaposition-прилягання (gram.), government-керування; etc.*

Reasons for appearing of internationalisms:

- 1) Globalization. Interaction and connection between countries are growing.
- 2) Designation of the special kind of things with an international word, e.g., *релевантний* (англ. *relevant*); *локальний* (англ. *local*); *компресія* (англ. *compression*), etc.
- 3) When an international word is borrowed from another language together with a term or thing. For example, when such things as *automobile, radio, telephone*, etc. appeared, their names were borrowed, too.

In the Ukrainian language, many international words appeared in the XX century, the time of the technological progress and many significant inventions. For example, *космонавт, супутник, радіо, телефон*, etc. Internationalisms in the English language are connected to the technological progress, too. Here we also have *telephone, Internet*, etc.

11.3 Neologisms in the English and Ukrainian Languages

The emergence of new lexical units in language attracted the attention of linguists at all times. Such linguistic process is caused by constant interchange of cultural heritage and well-developed economical and political relations between different nationalities.

Lexical innovations indicate the dynamic nature of the language, the ability to change and enrich its vocabulary, especially during the period of active reorganization taking place in the economic, political, and cultural life of society today.

Due to international communication, appear more and more word units which are called neologisms. Creation of new words in the language is a reflection of society's needs in terms of new concepts constantly arising from technical, cultural, social, and political changes (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

The problem of **neologisms** is researched by numerous linguists and philologists, such as I. Arnold, V. Eliseeva, R. Fischer, I. Galperin, C. Gauker, M. Janssen, O. Jespersen, F. Katamba, A. Metcalf, M. Mostovy, P. Newmark, E. Rozen, V. Zabolotkina and others.

The term “neologism” (Greek *neo* ‘new’, *logos* ‘speech, utterance’) is first attested in English in 1772. But the English variant of this term was not new because French (1734), Italian and German had their respective terms. There are several definitions to the term “neologism” because there are no clear criteria of defining neologism as a linguistic phenomenon.

The “Dictionary of Linguistic Terms” by O. Akhmanova (1966) provides a detailed definition, where there are distinguished two kinds of neologisms. The first definition runs as follows: “Neologism is a word or phrase created for defining a new (unknown before) object or expressing a new notion”. The second one says that it is “a new word or expression that has not received the right for citizenship in the national language and thus is perceived as belonging to a specific, often substandard style of speech” (Akhmanova 1966 : 263). The second definition refers to some kind of barbarism, or xenism (the old meaning of neologism is synonymous with “barbarism”, “gallicism” (in English), “anglicism” (in French), and even “archaism”) and is not appropriate in research of neologism that are mainly relevant and in demand in a certain linguistic community (Polkovnichenko 2013 : 84).

According to John Algeo, neologisms are new-coined words or new senses of an existing word that are constantly being introduced a language, often for the purpose of naming a new concept (Algeo 1993: 264).

V. Eliseeva points out that neologisms are words that have appeared in the language in connection with new phenomena, new concepts, but which have not yet entered into the active vocabularies of a significant portion of the native speakers of the language (Елисеєва 2003 : 220).

One of the most widespread definition of neologisms is given in Woodhouse dictionary (1972): “Neologisms are words that have appeared in a language in connection with new phenomena, new concepts,... but which have not yet entered into the active vocabularies of a significant portion of the native speakers of the language”.

Linguists distinguish between general neologisms and individual neologisms.

General neologisms designate new notions and they usually have nominative function. General neologisms are used in socio-political spheres of life. These can be scientific, literature, art notions. For example, *вірусологія, нейрокібернетика, відеотехніка, ультразвук, алгоритм, тощо*. Such neologisms are also used in the official and publicistic genres. But general neologisms will disappear if they are not of nominative and stylistic demand, and are not formed according to grammatical and phonetical peculiarities of the language.

Individual neologisms, on the contrast, are used to give new emotive colouring to the word which already has its term in the language. Individual neologisms are met in bells lettres as they are, as a rule, created by different authors and writers. The Ukrainian literature has an enormous amount of such neologisms. For instance,

- *Зрозуміло, краса вимагає жертв. Перетерпимо, чого там, – і не таке доводилося терпіти!* (О. Забужко).
- *А перш за все тому, що радіснодушність – коштовність, як і всякий інший Божий дар. Чим безпричинніша радість, тим природніша, тим коштовніша* (І. Жиленко).
- *Ти кобзу любиш ніжнодзвонную, а я співаючий курай* (П. Тичина)
- *Звичайно, далеко не кожна письменниця є літературною дамою і, навпаки, не кожна літ-дама – письменниця* (Івакін).

The Ukrainian language has its own classification which slightly differs from the English one.

There are **notional neologisms** which, as in English, designate the words which obtained new senses (e.g., *депутат, народний депутат, ударник, ударник праці*, etc.).

Then, the Ukrainian vocabulary is full of **lexical neologisms** which appeared in the language due to different political, economic, and cultural changes (e.g., *менеджер, кооперація, стартап*, etc.).

It should be admitted that there are numerous **semantic neologisms**. The most widespread way is the old words with new senses. For example, the word *hybrid* earlier had the meaning ‘the offspring of two animals or plants of different breeds’ and now it has a rather popular meaning ‘the car using different kinds of power’. There are words which were practically not used or out of usage some time ago but now they are reactivated. For instance, earlier the word *екологія* was not as popular as nowadays.

Ways of creating neologisms is another problem. According to the way of creation, neologisms are divided into:

1) phonological neologisms, which are created from individual sounds, e.g., *zizz, to whee*;

2) borrowings, which are strong neologisms (Ивлева 1986 : 65) that are different by the phonetic distribution, not characteristic of the English language, as well as the unusual morphological division and lack of motivation, e.g., *cinematheque, anti-roman* (from French). In the Ukrainian language, the relevant phenomenon is borrowing of the political nature, e.g., *електорат, брифінг, політиканство, постулат, лобізм*;

3) morphological neologisms (Заботкина 1989 :54), which are created by samples that exist in the language system, and by the morphemes are presented in the system (such regular derivational processes as affixation, conversion, compounding, and less regular, such as cutting, lexicalization).

J. Buranov and A. Muminov in their book “A Practical Course in English lexicology” (1979 : 103) say that neologisms may be divided into:

1) root words, e.g., *jeep* is ‘a small light motor vehicle’, *zebra* is ‘street crossing place’, etc.);

2) derived words, e.g., *collaborationist* is ‘one in occupied territory works helpfully with the enemy’, *to accessorize* is ‘to provide with dress accessories’, *Thatcherism* ‘тетчеризм’ (‘консервативна економічна політика’), *cybercrime* ‘кіберзлочинність’, *cyberbullying* ‘кіберзнущання’, *computational* ‘обчислювальний’, *orthorexia* ‘an extreme desire to eat only healthy food’, *to starbuck* ‘to drink coffee, especially in the Starbucks coffee shop’, *to amazon* ‘do shopping on the Amazon.com’;

3) compound words, e.g., *microfilm* is 'a reader'; *televideo*, *chronopharmacology*, *anatomopathologie*, *Checkbook diplomacy*, *Homeland security*, *Flypaper theory*, *flat-tax ethics*, *office-park dad*, *walkman* 'касєтний проґравач', *promotools* 'рекламні матеріали', *friend zone* 'френд-зона', *whiteboard* 'дошка для маркування подій дня', etc.). In the Ukrainian language, compounding is also a very relevant way of creating political neologisms, e.g., *кучмовізм*, *кнопкодав*, *кулювлоб*, *автомайдан*, etc.

A productive way of creating neologisms is by different types of shortening, such as:

1) clipping, which is quiet spread nowadays as people try to simplify their speech; these words are described as a part of the whole word which is used to define the whole notion, e.g., *fries* 'French fried potatoes', *exam* 'examination', *demo* 'demonstration model', etc.;

2) blending, which are the words made up of parts of two different words, e.g., *motel* 'motor and hotel', *brunch* 'breakfast and lunch', *jorts* 'jeans+shorts' *Eurovision* 'European and television', *Obamacon* 'Obama+conservative', *infoganda* 'information+propaganda', *sheeple* 'sheep+people', *democratatorship* 'democracy+dictatorship', *frenemy* 'friend+enemy', *politainer* 'politician+entertainer', *pollutician* 'pollution+politician', *manufactroversy* 'manufactured+controversy', *internest* 'Internet+nest', etc. In the Ukrainian language, following neologisms formed by merging have been found: *кучмономіка* 'Кучма+економіка', *нарден* 'народний депутат', *Євроінтеґрація* 'Європейська інтеґрація', etc.;

3) abbreviation, which is a way of word formation, consisting of combining two or more words with an arbitrary, asemantic shortness, each letter of which is pronounced separately, e.g., *BBC*, *PM*, *USA*, etc. Among abbreviations-neologisms in the English language, there are the following ones: *PDQ* 'pretty damn quick', *OK* 'all correct', *LBD* 'little black dress', *AMBW* 'all my best wishes', *H8* 'hate', *IMHO* 'in my humble opinion', *AFAIK* 'as far as I know', etc. In the Ukrainian language, there the following examples: *ЄС* 'Європейський Союз', *ГПУ* 'Генеральна прокуратура України', *МВФ* 'Міжнародний валютний фонд', etc.;

4) acronyms, which have their letters pronounced together, e.g., *NATO*, *UNESCO*, etc. In English, acronyms-neologisms are *RINO* 'Republican in Name Only', *DINO* 'Democrat in Name Only', *ROM* 'read-only memory', etc. In the Ukrainian language, there the following examples: *АТО* 'антитерористична операція', *ОДА* 'обласна державна адміністрація', etc.

Neologisms both in Ukrainian and English have almost the same functions but their appearance caused by different cultural, social, technological, and political factors. Their permanence as neologisms depends on the social demand as the world is constantly changing and it's hard to predict how long we will use one or another word.

So, neologisms can be new words or phrases that appeared in the language in connection with new phenomena or they can be existing words with a new sense that are constantly being introduced by the language.

Neologisms are often created by combining existing words or by giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes. They can also be created through abbreviation or simply through playing with sounds. They can be also borrowed from other languages and popular literature. There is no single way to track all neologisms because they are created every day, every moment of our life.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

Contemporary English Neologisms

<http://lingvodnu.com.ua/arxiv-nomeriv/lingvistika-lingvokulturologiya-tom-9-2016/contemporary-english-neologisms/>

People are extremely dependent on intercultural communication nowadays. Such dependence can be easily explained by different reasons: economic, political, cultural, etc. Every year the language is replenished by new words that are introduced into official dictionaries and extend the vocabulary. The problem of translation of English neologisms attracts the

attention of Ukrainian as well as foreign researchers. Our research deals with the analysis of English neologisms and ways of their assimilation into the Ukrainian language through the translation.

Neologism is the name for a newly coined term, word, or phrase that may be in the process of entering common use, but that has not yet been accepted into mainstream language.

Neologisms are divided into lexical and semantic. The novelty of **lexical neologisms** appeared in the form (*євро, сайт, селфі, дисплей, фаблет*). **Semantic neologisms** gained new meanings in the words which have already existed in the language (*меню, фанера, піратство*).

Factors which affect the emergence of new words usually include: *extralinguistic factors* – scientific, technological, and social progress, *linguistic factors* – the tendency to linguistic economy, the commitment to analyticity.

The process of neologisms assimilation in the recipient language goes through several stages. On the first stage, the word is used “as it is”, with its phonetic and orthographic form. The next stage involves the assimilation of the word by the recipient language through the transcription or transliteration. On the third stage, this word comes in general use by speakers and loses its novelty. The fourth stage involves the final development of the word’s semantics with further loss of genre and stylistic peculiarities. On the final stage, the word is registered in dictionaries of the recipient language.

This process can be complex and time-consuming. Nevertheless, today even the recent borrowings can easily integrate into a recipient language with further assimilation in it.

The majority of neologisms, which can be observed in modern Ukrainian, have English roots. Why? The main reason lies in the fact that English is the global language. Nearly one and a half billion of the population uses it. 80% of scientific investigations are published in English. So, the fact of a wide use of English neologisms in our native language is not surprising. They can be found in different aspects of our everyday activity, for example:

- in economics: *fundraising* – *фандрейзинг*, *hedge fund* – *хедж-фонд*, *trader* – *трейдер*;
- in politics: *applicant* – *аплікант*, *speechwriter* – *спічрайтер*;
- in science: *UFOlogy* – *уфологія*, *drone* – *дрон*, *phablet* – *фаблет*;
- in culture: *performance* – *перфоманс*, *chill out* – *чил-аут*, *soundtrack* – *саунд-трек*;

- in IT sphere, computing: *roaming* – роумінг, *banner* – баннер, *laptop* – лептон, *Email* – і-мейл, *online* – онлайн;
- in mass media: *copywriter* – копірайтер, *interviewer* – інтерв'юєр;
- in everyday life: *rampers* – памперс, *lunch* – ланч, *flashmob* – флешмоб, *label* – лейбл.

In contemporary situation of globalization, mutual interest of cultures, the question of translation of non-equivalent vocabulary becomes extremely important. Translators from different countries have achieved a considerable success in translating of this stratum of vocabulary. They have developed such means of translation as:

- transcription:

Вчені навчилися управляти дронами жестами. На Тайвані створили алгоритм, що дозволяє управляти безпілотниками за допомогою Apple Watch. Тайванський стартап PVD+ розробив софт, що дозволяє управляти дронами дистанційно за допомогою жестів, повідомляє Reuters.

This example contains such neologisms as:

дрон from English *drone*;

стартап from English *startup*;

софт was abbreviated from English *software*.

- transliteration:

*Автор Gangnam Style здивував публіку тверком. (тверк from English *twerk*).*

- transcoding:

Спам from English *spam*;

Хотлінк from English *hotlink*;

Спін-офф from English *spin-off*;

Ліфтинг from English *lifting*.

- calque:

Ринок електронної комерції України – все ще молодий і здатний рости сам по собі в рази. Бюро з реєстрації патентів і торгових знаків США опублікувало нову заяву від компанії Samsung, яка описує пристрій, названий «розумним» кільцем».

These examples contain such neological units as:

Електрона комерція from English *e-commerce*;

Розумне кільце from English *smarty ring*.

- descriptive translation:

computerate – освідченний в плані користування ПК,

freнету – залятий друг.

From the standpoint of translation activity, neologisms are a major problem for a translator in terms of the correct choice of translation transformation. Taking it into account, translators use several transformations at once.

New words often become popular after being used in the mass media or on the Internet. It is a well-known fact that the Internet gave birth to thousands of new terms, which have become internationalisms. Let us look through some examples: *server* – *сервер*, *browser* – *браузер*, *e-market* – *електронна торгівля*, *user* – *юзер*, *provider* – *провайдер*, *site* – *сайт*, *selfie stick* – *селфі палка*, *dronie* – *дрони*, etc. All of these words were translated with the help of transliteration, transcription or calque and were successfully “inserted” into the Ukrainian language. Due to these factors, our vocabulary is constantly enlarging by neologisms.

Text 2

Nationally Specific English and Ukrainian Lexis

<http://um.co.ua/6/6-6/6-6573.html>

Nationally specific lexicon is typologically relevant group of lexis. It comprises the units of nationally specific lexics (both words and different collocations) such as the English *farthing*, *shilling*, *dollar*, *Chartist*, *haggis*, *Yorkshire pudding*, *to cut off with a shilling*, *to accept the Chiltern Hundreds*, etc.

Many such or the like nationally specific, or culturally biased elements, as they are often called today, exist in Ukrainian and naturally in other languages. Cf. *кутя*, *вареники*, *бандурист*, *кобзар*, *запорожець*, *ставати на рушник*, “*Ще не вмерла Україна*”, *козацькому роду нема переводу*, *герої Крутів*, *січовики*, etc.

Each nation in the course of its historical development acquires a great number of features characteristic of the nation only and not pertained to any other, even to a genealogically related nation. The distinguishing features find their reflection in different aspects of material and spiritual life and are materialized in separate words designating national customs, traditions, folk rites and feasts, administrative or political system. They may also designate peculiar geographical or environmental conditions of nation’s life, cultural or religious traditions often expressed through certain proper names or names of saints (cf Ukrainian *Івана Купала*, *Маковія*, or Ireland’s *St. Patrick*, Scottish *tartan*, American *Uncle of Sam* or the British *John Bull*).

Culturally biased, i.e. nationally specific, are often elements in a governmental or election systems of a country (cf. *the administration, secretaries and undersecretaries or primary elections in the U.S.A.*).

The monetary systems in most countries contain some nationally peculiar units as well (cf. *shilling, penny, rouble, dollar, hryvnia*).

Culturally biased are mostly the titles of address and the ways of conduct, and, last but not least, some articles of clothing / footwear (cf. the Scottish *kilt, tartan*, the Ukrainian *вишиванка, кентар* or the American Indians' *moccasins*).

Most peculiar are always national meals, beverages and even partaking of food, established as a result of a nation's agricultural traditions and consumption of peculiar products.

The nationally biased notions as non-equivalent units of lexicon are also observed in some national systems of weights and measures (cf. English *mile, ounce*, Ukrainian *верства, пуд*).

All in all, these notions are found in all languages, for example, **in English:** *county, borough, butterscotch, custard, muffin, toffee, bushel, lobby, speaker, teller (Parliament), Lord Chancellor, Number 10 Downing Street, Whitehall*, etc. **In Ukrainian:** *кобзар, веснянка, коломийка, козак, запорожець, кентар, ряжанка, опришок, плахта, гривня, січ, свитка, хата, лежанка, весільний батько, троїсті музики, вечорниці, борщ, вареники, галушки, кутя, медок*. **In Russian:** *тройка, квас, щи, самовар, колхоз, совет, спутник, Дума*.

Some other peculiar national notions / culturally biased notions can penetrate into the target language in the process of traditional bilateral economic and cultural contacts which may be maintained at different levels. The contacts in their turn may as well be multilateral which often facilitates an international circulation of some specific national notions pertaining to a certain language (or a number of languages). That was the way in which a specific national term has become widely known (cf. *Cossack / Kozak, steppe, bandoure / pandore, hopak, polka, waltz, beefsteak, pudding, lunch*, etc.).

Still other specific national notions become world-wide known through literary / historic works, through the press or by way of other mass media like the radio or television (cf. *oasis, boycott, hryvnia, Labourist, pagoda, barter, management, picket, taboo, Tory, rickshaw, sauna, Soviet*, etc.). These and other specific national terms (and notions) found their way to different languages and in the course of some historical period many of them became internationalisms. The penetration of a nation's notions

into other national languages is realized in different historical periods. In the process of trade contacts, many notions are borrowed as designators for produce which they signify, for example, regular labels: *bacon, champagne, jam, jeans, Coca-Cola, cornflakes, macaroni, vodka, spaghetti, sweater, whisky, pizza*.

Although some nationally specific notions signifying important or historical events or magnificent scientific / technological achievements may spread all over the world almost immediately, as it happened in 1825 with the Decembrists and later on with the Sovietisms like *kolkhoz, kulak, collectivization, Gulag, cosmonaut* and many others.

Many specific notions referring to localisms remain within the boundaries of the national languages: archaic notions like the Ukrainian *бунчук, осавул, сіряк* or localisms *кулеша, пательня, плачинда, верета*. The English *latkes, whip, kedgerel*. The names have to be explained in the footnotes or in commentaries, e.g.: *When the war broke out he had just left Eton...* – Коли вибухнула війна, він щойно закінчив Ітон (середня школа для привілейованих).

The real meaning of the place names, having so much to say to any Londoner, is scarcely hinted to in the translations above. *The East End*, however, was and remains the workers' part of London, whereas *Bloomsbury* as the central part of it was known during the late 19th–the beginning of the 20th century for the group of poets critical of bourgeois moral and aesthetics. *Eton*, the private secondary school for well-to-do families in Great Britain, is also well-known in the country.

An additional explanation of the proper names in the target language becomes necessary. Many other culturally biased English and Ukrainian national notions are also to be explicated in this way, e.g., *Merseyside* ‘Мерсісайд’ (Ліверпуль із навколишніми містами й поселеннями обабіч гирла р. Мерсі); *muesli* ‘мюзлі’ (страва на сніданок із подрібнених пшеничних та інших зерен із сухими фруктами, горіхами, родзинками тощо); *пуд* ‘pood’ (measure of weight equal to 16,38 kg); *рушник* ‘rushnyk’ (embroidered towel used in every folk rite in Ukraine); *суботник* ‘subotnyk’ (voluntary unpaid work for the public good in the former USSR on days off, usually on Saturday).

The proper meaning of some other specific national units of lexicon can be rendered without preserving their original lingual form, e.g., *moonlighter* ‘підробітник’ (той, хто підробляє у вільний час, переважно вечорами; від *moonlight* ‘місячне світло’).

Not infrequently, units of the source language lexicon can be recognized by the target language speakers due to the existence of partly similar notions in their mother tongue, e.g., *the Order of Yaroslav the Wise* ‘Орден Ярослава Мудрого’, *Department of Industry* ‘міністерство промисловості’. A lot more units of lexicon have generally the same referential meaning in both the languages in question, e.g., *pancake*, *financial year*, *pie* and many others can be fully substituted at language level for Ukrainian *млинець / оладок, фінансовий рік, пиріг*, etc.

As it may be observed, the units of culturally biased / specific national lexicon are rarely similar by their nature and meaning in either of the two languages. But there are the list of differences or in the meanings or details, so the knowledge of nationally specific lexicology is necessary for linguists and translators for full understanding of the language. The details shouldn't be ignored as they reflect the peculiarities of each nation's customs, traditions or its way of life. Various approaches exist to expressing their meanings in the target language. The choice of method of translating can be influenced by the sphere of circulation in the course language / purpose of translating / being new and not yet quite known.

Theme 12

Contrastive Typology of the Borrowed Elements in English and Ukrainian Vocabulary

No culture of the world develops in isolation, separated from other cultures. Peoples' contacts determine cultural exchange, including the exchange of words. Therefore, every language comprises words of native origin and words borrowed from foreign languages.

Borrowing as a process denotes the action of resorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts, to further differentiate the existing concepts, and to name new objects.

Borrowing as a result denotes a loan word, a borrowed word, a word taken over from another language, which differ notably from the standards of the language it is borrowed into in phonemic shape and spelling (*waltz, café, choir, pizza*), grammar forms (*genius – genii, medium – media*) and lexical meanings, which denote foreign phenomena (*rickshaw, sombrero*).

12.1 Causes and Ways of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages

The English language as well as Ukrainian has a very extensive vocabulary. In today's fast moving world, there are a lot of new inventions and the nations develop rapidly. With this development of the world, the new words appear and every day, when we broaden our horizons, we enrich our language (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1). The borrowings are the result of relationship between nations and actually there are different causes and ways of borrowing.

Causes for borrowing may be extra-linguistic and linguistic.

Extra-linguistic causes for borrowings are political, economic, and cultural relationship between nations.

English history contains innumerable occasions for all types of such contacts:

- the Roman invasion (3rd–5th centuries);
- the introduction of Christianity (6th–7th centuries);
- the Danish and Norman conquests (1066 – Renaissance);
- the development of British colonialism and imperialism.

In Ukraine, extra-linguistic causes of borrowings are

- the Christianization of Kievan Rus',
- the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth,
- World Wars and others.

It is the vocabulary system of each language that is responsive to every change in the life of the speaking community. The number and character of borrowed words tell us of the relations between the peoples, the level of their culture, etc. It is for this reason that borrowings are called the milestones of history.

Purely **linguistic causes** for borrowings are still open to investigation. Some of them are:

- need of new words for new phenomena,
- need of naming peculiar phenomena of other countries,
- a tendency to accurate speech,
- need of expressing some shades of meaning,
- emotional expressiveness, etc.

Borrowings enter the language in **two ways**:

- through oral speech (by immediate contact between the peoples);
- through written speech (by indirect contact through books, literature).

Oral borrowing took place chiefly in the early periods of history. Words borrowed orally are usually short (e.g., Lat. *inch*, *mill*, *street*, etc.; Tartar *левада*, *лиман*, *корабель*, *квасоля*, etc.) and they are successfully assimilated to the English and Ukrainian languages and are usually hardly recognizable as foreign.

Written borrowings have become important in more recent times. They preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound-form (e.g., French *communiqué*, *belles-lettres*, *naïveté*, etc.; Greek *аудиторія*, *олімпіада*, *пюнітр*, *бюро*, etc.; in Ukrainian: *консьєрж*, *імпичмент*, *фрау*, etc.); their assimilation is a long and laborious process.

12.2 Sources of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages

The part played by borrowings in the vocabulary of a language depends upon the history of each given language, the relations between the peoples, the level of their culture. But the number and character of borrowings depend not only on the historical conditions, on the nature and

length of contacts between the peoples, but also on the degree of the genetic and structural proximity of the languages concerned. The closer the languages, the deeper and more versatile is the influence. Thus, under the influence of the Scandinavian languages, which were closely related to Old English, some classes of words were borrowed that could not have been adopted from non-related or distantly related languages.

The term “**source of borrowing**” is applied to the language from which the loan word was taken. It should be distinguished from the term “**origin of borrowing**” which refers to the language to which the word may be traced. For example, the word *paper* < French *papier* < Latin *papyrus* < Greek *papyros* has French as its source of borrowing and Greek as its origin; the word *table* < French *table* < Latin *tabula* has French source and is Latin by origin.

It should be remembered that whereas the immediate source of borrowing is as a rule known, the actual origin of the word may be rather doubtful. The immediate source of borrowing is naturally of greater importance for language students because it reveals the extra-linguistic factors responsible for the act of borrowing.

Both contemporary English and Ukrainian are mixtures of Germanic and Romanic elements. This mixing has resulted in the international character of the vocabularies of the contrasted languages (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2).

All languages are mixtures to a greater or lesser extent, but the present day English vocabulary is unique in this respect as borrowings take up 70% of English vocabulary. A survey by Joseph M. Williams in “Origins of the English Language” (1975) of 10 000 words taken from several thousand business letters gave this set of statistics:

- French: 41% (*bouquet, buffet, champagne, garage, attitude*);
- Native (Old) English: 33% (*ankle, bedroom, cluster, dairy, father, gloom*);
- Latin: 15% (*abdomen, versus, agenda, languid, perturb, naive, item*);
- Old Norse: 5% (*egg, sky, knife, arm, foot, happy, flat, cast, rotten, blend*);
- Dutch: 1% (*plant, fruit, begin, offer, hard, lip, aloof, Brooklyn*);
- Other: 5%. (Spanish *mosquito*, Italian *artichoke*, Arabic *apricot*).

As a matter of fact, three languages contributed a great number of words to the **English word-stock**, they are: Latin, Greek, and French. Together they account for much greater number of borrowings than all other languages put together.

Latin borrowings can be subdivided into 4 layers:

- **1st layer** – early Latin loans (3rd–5th centuries) due to Roman invasion when the Germanic tribes, of which the Angles and Saxons formed part, had been in contact with Roman civilization and had adopted several Latin words. These words are typical of the early Roman commercial penetration, e.g., *wine* (Latin *vinum*), *disc* (Latin *discus*), *pepper* (Latin *piper*), *cup* (Latin *cuppa*), *kettle* (Latin *catillus*).

- **2nd layer** – Latin loans (6th–7th centuries) due to Christianity. During the process of Christianization, the English language acquired significant percentage of Latin elements to designate notions of religious observances, e.g., *bishop* (Latin *episcopus*), *monk* (Latin *monachus*), *candle* (Latin *candela*); other examples: *altar*, *chapter*, *cross*, *feast*, *disciple*, *creed*, etc.

In Ukrainian, such borrowed elements were “graecisms” (words of Greek origin), e.g., *Біблія*, *крилас*, *монастир*. To this period belong the names of many articles of foreign production which were brought into England by Romans, e.g., *marble*, *chalk*, *linen*, etc.

- **3rd layer** – the Renaissance and the Norman Conquest in 1066. Many scholars began to translate classical literature into English and as they couldn't find English word for translation, they took Latin word and transformed it in accordance with the rules. In addition to a great number of Latin words that came into English through French, there are many words taken directly from Latin without change, e.g., *genius*, *nucleus*, *formula*, *item*, *maximum*, *minimum*, *superior*, *inferior*, *prior*, *senior*, *junior*, etc.

- **4th layer** – after the Renaissance up to the present when abstract and scientific words were adopted exclusively through writing. A great many Latin abbreviations usually have English equivalents: e.g. (Latin *exempli gratia*) ‘for example’, *i.e.* (Latin *id est*) ‘that is to say’, *etc.* (Latin *et cetera*) ‘and so on’, *v.v.* (Latin *vice versa*) ‘the opposite’, *a.m.* (Latin *ante meridiem*) ‘in the morning’, *p.m.* (Latin *post meridiem*) ‘in the evening’, etc.

Greek borrowings go back to an early period. In the 7th century, with the introduction of Christianity, such words as *church*, *abbot*, *episcopo*, *bishop*, *angel*, etc. were borrowed. At the time of Renaissance, the borrowing of Greek words began on a large scale. These are mostly bookish borrowings, scientific and technical terms of international currency: *psychoanalysis*, *psychiatry*, *physics*, *philosophy*, *rhythm*, *scheme*, *dialogue*, *comedy*, *tragedy*, *episode*, *democracy*, *dialect*, *philology*,

lexicology, etymology, synonym, antonym, homonym, hyperbole, polysemy, idiom, metaphor, neologism, etc. Quite a number of proper names are Greek in origin, e.g., *George, Helen, Sophie, Peter, Nicholas, etc.*

There are numerous English compounds coined from Greek roots: *autos* ‘self’, *chroma* ‘colour’, *logos* ‘discourse’, *phone* ‘voice’, *telos* ‘at a distance’, etc. (*autograph, phonograph, telegraph, telephone, telescope*).

French borrowings came into English at different times. The Norman Conquest in 1066 resulted in the fact that the important places in the government, at court, and in the church were filled by French speaking adherents of the conquerors. It was spoken by the upper class of English society.

French loans in the English vocabulary may be subdivided into two main groups:

- a) early loans – 12th–15th century;
- b) later loans – beginning from the 16th century.

The **early borrowings** from French were simple short words, e.g., *age, arm, cage, car, case, cause, chain, chance, court, crime, etc.*

The French dominance is particularly felt in the vocabulary of law, e.g., *accuse, court, fee, guile, judge, justice, penalty, privilege, etc.*

Many of the terms relating to military matters were adopted from the language of the conquerors, e.g., *arms, admiral, armour, battle, dragoon, navy, sergeant, soldier, troops, vessel, etc.*

There is a predominance of French words in the vocabulary of cookery, such as *boil, jelly, fry, pastry, roast, sauce, soup, etc.*

Recent borrowings from French are frequent enough, and often these words carry a French appearance, but their number is far fewer than the number of borrowings direct from Latin.

Large-scale borrowings in the English vocabulary came from **other Romance languages**, such as Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. Cultural and commercial relations between England and Italy in the epoch of the Renaissance, especially in the 16th century, brought many Italian words. Englishmen travelled frequently to Italy, observing Italian life and culture and, as a result, have brought Italian words, such as *balcony, bust, cameo, stanza, stucco, violin, volcano, etc.* In the 18th century, Italian music was introduced into England and due to that fact came many musical terms, e.g., *allegro, aria, basso, duet, concert, opera, tempo, soprano, etc.* From Spanish and Portuguese, English adopted *apricot, banana, negro, cacao, maize, potato, pimento, molasses, port, etc.*

Russian borrowings in the English vocabulary may be subdivided into two principal groups: a) words borrowed before the Great October Socialist Revolution, e.g., *rouble, verst, tsar, tsarina, sable, morse, borsch, beluga, copeck, izba*, etc.; b) words borrowed after Great October Socialist Revolution, e.g., *Leninism, Leninist, the USSR, Bolshevik, Bolshevism, piatiletka, sputnik*, etc. Among Russian borrowings, we also find such translation-loans as *collective farm, five year plan, Soviet power, shock work, wall newspaper, mother-heroine, wedding palace*, etc.

In **Ukrainian lexicon**, in contrast, borrowings take up only 10% of Ukrainian vocabulary (e.g., Greek *ікона*, Latin *лекція*, German *офіцер*, English *ринг*, Italian *акорд*, French *абажур*, etc.).

Ukrainian word-stock was formed largely through borrowing words during its history.

- Due to the Baptism of Kievans by Byzantine church in 988, the Ukrainian language enriched its vocabulary with words of Greek origin, e.g., *амвон, євангеліє, ікона, панахида*, etc.
- Due to the trade intercourse between nations in the 13th–14th centuries, German words appeared, e.g., *штат, шахта, верстат, стамеска, штукатур, слюсар, лобзик, цех, бухгалтер, вексель, масштаб, бинт, фельдшер, курорт, флейта, офіцер, орден, мундир*, etc.
- Due to military sphere in the 17th–18th centuries, the Ukrainian language enriched its vocabulary with French words, e.g., *армія, гвардія, ескадрон, атака, баталія, бомбардування, арбалет, пістоль*, etc.

Foreign words borrowed by Ukrainian are divided into two groups: borrowing from Slavonic languages (Old Slavonic, Polish, Czech, Russian) and from non-Slavonic languages (Latin, Greek, Turkic languages, West European languages). As a matter of fact, three languages contributed a great number of words to the Ukrainian word-stock, they are: Greek, Latin, and Old Slavonic.

Borrowing from Slavonic languages.

The Old Slavonic language was widely used after the Baptism of Kievans by Byzantine church in 988. Such words as *священник, хрест, ангел, архангел, Біблія, вітвар, ладан, чернець, псалм, ідол*, etc. as well as many abstract concepts *благодать, ласка, благословення, єдність*, etc. were borrowed from Old Slavonic.

From Polish, we have such Ukrainian words as *шлюб* ‘marriage’, *міць* ‘might’, *гасло* ‘motto’, *перешкода* ‘obstacle’, *обицяти* ‘to promise’, *лялька* ‘doll’, *гетьман*, *пан*, *сейм*, etc.

Borrowing from non-Slavonic languages.

Latin borrowings played a significant role in the enrichment of scientific, social, and political terminology in Ukrainian, e.g., *колегіум*, *колоризація*, *експонат*, *мультициклон*, etc. Latin words began to penetrate into Ukrainian in the 10th–11th centuries, e.g., *кесар*, *коляда*, *фортуна*, etc. The bulk of them came to Ukrainian in the 15th–16th centuries, when Latin began to be learned in schools of Ukraine, e.g., *аматор*, *арест*, *гонор*, *гумор*, *календар*, *матеріал*, *окуляри*, *оренда*, etc. From Latin were also borrowed some names, e.g., *Валерій*, *Віктор*, *Віталій*, *Вікторія*, *Наталія*, etc.

Greek borrowings came in the Ukrainian language even before introduction of Christianity as a result of direct contacts between the native speakers of both languages. The Greeks are known to have their settlements in the Northern Black Sea coast, in the Crimea, for a long time. At that time, such words as *парус*, *невада*, *лиман*, *миска*, *кедр*, *вишня*, *огірок*, *мак*, *м'ята*, etc. were borrowed. Many more Greek words came to Ukrainian through the Old Slavonic language after the introduction of Christianity: *ангел*, *хрест*, *ангел*, *Біблія*, *ікона*, *ладан*, *чернець*, *псалм*, *ідол*, *апостол*, etc. Many Greek names were borrowed, such as *Анатолій*, *Андрій*, *Арсен*, *Василь*, *Оксана*, etc.

The next wave of Greek borrowings is connected with the study of Greek in Ukrainian schools in the 16th–17th centuries. At that time were borrowed mainly school terms: *граматика*, *логіка*, *історія*, *філософія*, *лексика*, *бібліотека*, *хор*, etc.

Later came borrowings from Greek connected with the development of various branches of science and with political life, such words as *біологія*, *мікроб*, *азот*, *бром*, *йод*, *клімат*, *катет*, *призма*, *теорема*, *фонема*, etc.

Turkic words were intensively borrowed when Kievan Rus communicated with neighboring tribes – Avars, Pechenegs, Polovtsians, Khazars, and others and took place mostly orally. Therefore, these words are for the most part not perceived as alien. Military fights also contributed to the borrowing from the Turkic languages, e.g., *атаман*, *басурман*, *барабан*, *буран*, *орда*, *кавун*, *кизил*, *базар*, *отара*, *тютюн*, *килим*, etc.

There are a lot of words borrowed from the West European languages such as German, French, English, Italian, and Spanish.

German borrowings began to penetrate into Ukrainian from the time when the Goths took the south of modern Ukraine over the Black Sea (3rd–4th centuries). However, the vast majority of borrowings from German began from the 16th–18th centuries, the transmigration of Jews from Germany to Ukraine promoted this process, and also a significant role was played by the introduction of Magdeburg Law in Ukrainian cities. These are *борт, офіцер, штиль, мольберт, арфа, бухгалтер, бутерброд*, etc. From German, came into Ukrainian lexis especially relating to technology, military or art, e.g., *вага* ‘weight’, *буриштин* ‘amber’, *дах* ‘roof’, *дріт* ‘wire’, *куля* ‘ball’, *ланцюг* ‘chain’, *фарба* ‘paint’, *киталт* ‘such as’, *шафа* ‘wardrobe’, *шухляда* ‘drawer’, *вантаж* ‘cargo’ fall into this category.

French borrowings began to appear in Ukrainian since the 17th century through Polish, later – Russian, thanks to Ukrainian students who studied and traveled in those days throughout Europe. And in the second half of the 18th–19th centuries, the spread of political ideas, art, culture, whose homeland was France contributed to this process. These are *режим, авантюра, бюлетень, ансамбль, афіша, армія, флот, блуза, манжет, фасад, бульвар, абажур, люстра, браслер*, etc.

From English, comes a huge chunk of Ukrainian lexicon, e.g., *парламент* ‘parliament’, *вагон* ‘carriage’, *менеджер* ‘manager’, *гаджет* ‘gadget’, *спікер* ‘speaker’, etc.

Italian and Spanish borrowings mostly relate to art, e.g., *акорд, бас, сопрано, тенор, арія, дуєт, серенада, опера, новела*, etc.

So, due to the specific historical development of English and Ukrainian, these languages have adopted many words from other languages, though the number and importance of these borrowings are usually overestimated. Borrowings also considerably enlarged vocabulary of the languages. The number and character of borrowings from various languages depend on the historical conditions and also on the degree of the genetic and structural proximity of the language in question.

12.3 Types of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages

Though borrowed words undergo changes in the adopting language, they preserve some of their former peculiarities for a comparatively long

period. There are various degrees of “foreignness” (Marchand 1969) which differentiate various types of borrowings.

1) **Loan words proper** (or **alien words**) – words borrowed from a foreign language without any change of the foreign sound and spelling. These words are immediately recognizable as foreign. They retain their sound-form, graphic peculiarities, and grammatical characteristics, e.g., *ballet, bouquet, chauffeur, coup d'état, phenomenon, table d'hôte, vis-à-vis*, etc.; *лазер* (English *laser*), *тінейджер* (English *teenager*), *трюфель* (German *Trüffel*), etc.

2) **Translation loans** (in Ukrainian, the process is called “калькування”) are words and expressions formed from the material already existing in the language but according to patterns taken from another language, by way of word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translation of some foreign words or expressions or their elements. In such cases, the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units.

The examples of translation loans in the English language are *mother-tongue* (Latin *lingua materna*), *a slip of the tongue* (Latin *lapsus linguae*), *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin *tollesque taurum cornu*), *fair sex* (French *beau sexe*), *by heart* (French *par coeur*), *local colouring* (French *couleur locale*), *living space* (German *Lebensraum*), etc.

Ukrainian examples of translation loans are *недолік* (Russian *недочёт*), *надлишок* (English *surplus*), *представлений* (German *Vorstellung*), *wall newspaper* (Russian *настенная газета*), *collective farm* (Ukrainian *колгосп*), *хмарочос* (German *Wolke* ‘хмара’, *kratzen* ‘чесати’), *самоосвіта* (German *selbst* ‘сам’, *bildung* ‘освіта’), etc.

Most of the given words are international in character, e.g., *Procrustean bed* ‘прокрустово ложе’, *Sword of Damocles* ‘Дамоклов меч’, *Heel of Achilles* ‘Ахиллесова пята’. Translation loans are not less characteristic in phraseology: *either Caesar or nothing* – Latin *aut Caesar aut nihil* ‘або Цезарь, або нічого’ (Russian ‘или пан или пропал’).

3) **Semantic borrowing** is the appearance in a word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language. E.g., *propaganda* and *reaction* acquired their political meanings under the influence of French. The word *pioneer* meant ‘explorer’, now under the influence of the Russian word *пионер* it means ‘a member of the Young Pioneers’ Organization’. *Deviation* and *bureau* entered political vocabulary under the influence of Russian (*political bureau, right and left deviations*). The words *правий* and *лівий*, which meant ‘розташований

праворуч' і 'розташований ліворуч', under the influence of French *droit* and *gauche*, began to mean 'консервативний' і 'революційний'.

Borrowings are also classified according to **the borrowed aspect**. There are the following groups: phonetic borrowings, morphemic borrowings, semantic borrowings, and phraseological borrowings.

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages. Words within this group are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation, and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases, the spelling and the structure of the word are changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word also undergo changes. Phonetic borrowings in the English language are: *labour*, *travel*, *table* from French; *apparatchik*, *nomenklatura*, *sputnik* from Russian; *bank*, *soprano*, *duet* from Italian, etc. Phonetic borrowings in the Ukrainian language are: *соло*, *трио* from Italian; *менеджмент*, *саміт*, *дизайн* from English; *тротуар*, *нокрюрн*, *кафе* from French, etc.

Despite the fact that the study of linguistic borrowing has traditionally focused on general lexical borrowings, **morphemic borrowing** is a common phenomenon in the studied languages. Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes or affixoids which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language. The English language comprises:

- borrowed prefixes, e.g., *anemic* (Greek); *disbelief* (Latin); *postscript* (Latin), etc.;
- borrowed suffixes, e.g., *possible* (French); *articulate* (Latin); *emphasize* (Greek), etc.;
- borrowed inflections, e.g., *focus* – *foci* (Latin); *phenomenon* – *phenomena* (Greek); *cherub* – *cherubim* (Hebrew), etc.;
- borrowed affixoids, e.g., *aqualung* (Latin), *geometry* (Greek), *bibliophile* (Greek), etc.

The Ukrainian language, in turn, includes the following borrowed affixes:

- borrowed prefixes, e.g., *антитеза*, *контрнаступ*, *ультразвук* (*anti-*, *contr-*, *ultra-*, all Latin-derived, as the major part of the Ukrainian language prefixes are borrowed from Latin);
- borrowed suffixes, e.g., *дисонанс* (French *-ance*); *вібрато* (Italian *-ato*); *смокінг* (English *-ing*), etc.;

- borrowed affixoids, e.g., *гидросфера* (Latin *hydro-*); *геліотерапія* (Greek *helios-*), *телеграф* (Greek *-graph*), etc.

Semantic borrowings are such lexical units which borrow a new meaning of the unit existing in the language. It not seldom occurs between two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, e.g., there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning ‘to live’ for the word *to dwell* which in Old English had the meaning ‘to wander’. Or else the meaning ‘дар’, ‘подарунок’ for the word *gift* which in Old English had the meaning ‘викуп за жінку’.

Semantic borrowing can also appear when a word from one language was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into the original language, e.g., *brigade* was borrowed into Russian and formed the meaning ‘a working collective’ (*бригада*), which moved on with this meaning into the Ukrainian language. This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing.

Phraseological borrowings constitute the group of stable idiomatic expressions conveying a single concept characterized by structural invariability and regarded as ready-made units, which are mostly borrowed from Latin and Greek. For instance, in English: *heel of Achilles* (Greek), *a bed of roses* (Latin), *a place under the sun* (German). Examples of phraseological borrowings in Ukrainian are *після нас хоч потоп* (French), *ні живий ні мертвий* (Latin), *золота молодь* (French), etc.

The majority of the borrowings are remodeled according to the system of the borrowing language system, so it is sometimes difficult to tell an old borrowing from a native word, e.g., *cheese*, *street*, *wall*, *wine* and other words belonging to the earliest layer of Latin borrowings in the English language. But there are loan words, on the other hand, that in spite of changes they have undergone, retain some peculiarities in pronunciation, spelling, and morphology.

In modern English, there are **etymological doublets** which are pairs of words of the same language which share the same etymological basis but have entered the language through different routes; often diverge in current meaning and usage. They may result from:

- shortening: *defence* – *fence*, *appeal* – *peal*, *history* – *story*;
- stressed and unstressed position of one and the same word: *of* – *off*, *to* – *too*;

- borrowing the word from the same language twice, but in different periods: *jail* (French) – *goal* (Northern French);
- development of the word in different dialects or languages that are historically descended from the same root: *to chase* (Northern French) – *to catch* (Central French); *chart* – *card*; *channel* (French) – *canal* (Latin); *senior* (Latin) – *sir* (French).

12.4 Assimilation of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages

The term “**assimilation of borrowings**” is used to denote a partial or total conformation to the phonetic, graphical, and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic system.

The degree of assimilation depends upon the length of period during which the word has been used in the receiving language, upon its importance for communication purpose, and its frequency. Oral borrowings due to close contacts are assimilated more completely and more rapidly than literary borrowings, i.e. borrowings through written speech.

A classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation can be very general. There may be suggested three groups of borrowings: completely assimilated, partially assimilated, and unassimilated borrowings, or barbarisms.

1. **Completely assimilated** borrowings are found in all the layers of older borrowings. They may belong to the first layer of Latin borrowings (e.g., *cheese, street, wall, wine, etc.*), Scandinavian borrowings (e.g., *husband, fellow, gate, die, take, want, happy, ill, low, wrong, etc.*), French words (e.g., *table, chair, face, figure, finish, etc.*).

Completely assimilated borrowings follow all morphological, phonetic, and orthographic standards. Being very frequent and stylistically neutral, they may occur as dominant words in synonymic groups, they take an active part in word-formation. Such borrowings are indistinguishable phonetically. It's impossible to say judging by the sound of the words *sport* and *start* whether they are borrowed or native. In fact, *start* is native derived from Middle English *sterten*, whereas *sport* is a shortening of *disport* which came from Old French *desporter* ‘to amuse oneself, to carry oneself away from one’s work’.

2. **Partially assimilated** borrowings can be subdivided into subgroups depending on the aspect that remains unaltered, according to whether the word retains features of spelling, pronunciation, morphology or meaning that are not English. They are:

- a) borrowings not assimilated semantically (**exoticisms**) because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they come; they may denote foreign clothing (e.g., *mantilla, sombrero, kimono*, etc.), foreign titles and professions (e.g., *rajah, sheik, toreador, раджа, lord*, etc.), foreign currency (e.g., *krone, rupee, rouble, zloty*, etc.), foreign way of life (e.g., *визвам, corrida, сакура, галушки*, etc.);
- b) borrowings not assimilated grammatically, e.g., Latin or Greek borrowings which keep their original plural forms: *phenomenon – phenomena, criterion – criteria, crisis – crises*, etc.;
- c) borrowings not completely assimilated phonetically. French words borrowed after 1650 are good examples. Some of them keep the accent on the final syllable, e.g., *machine, cartoon, police, кунюра, бюро, нюре*, etc. Others, alongside with peculiar stress, contain sounds or combination of sounds that are not standard for English: /ʒ/ – *bourgeois, regime, sabotage*, /wa:/ – *memoir*. The whole phonetic make-up of the word may be different from the rest of the vocabulary, e.g., Italian and Spanish borrowings: *opera, macaroni, tomato, potato, tobacco*, etc.;
- d) borrowings not completely assimilated graphically, e.g., French borrowings in which the final consonant is not pronounced: *ballet, buffet*, etc. Some may keep a diacritic mark, e.g., *café, cliché*, etc.

3. **Unassimilated borrowings**, or **barbarisms**, are words from other languages used by English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way, and for which exist corresponding English equivalents, e.g., Italian *addio, ciao* ‘good-bye’, French *affiche* ‘placard’, *coup d’Etat* ‘a sudden seizure of state power by a small group’, *mon cher* ‘my dear’, Lat. *alma mater* ‘альма матер’, *status qou* ‘статус-кво’, etc. In the written language, barbarisms are mostly made up by means of the original foreign language alphabet, e.g., *Haute Couture, tête-à -tête, c’est la vie, finita la comedia*, etc.

Hybrids are words made up of elements from two or more different languages. Hybrids are made up according to the following patterns:

- a) native affix (prefix or suffix) + borrowed stem, e.g., *be**fool**, besiege, beguile; graceful, falsehood, rapidly*, etc.;
- b) native stem + borrowed affix, e.g., *dr**inkable**, star**vation**, word**age**; rec**all**, emb**ody**, mish**andle***, etc.;
- c) native affix + native stem + borrowed affix, e.g., *un**breakable***;
- d) borrowed affix + borrowed stem + native affix, e.g., *disc**overing***.

International word-forming elements pass into generic usage in the modern Ukrainian language. The “Dictionary of Foreign Words” edited by O. S. Melnychuk (1975) comprises 180 blocks in a preposition and about 100 blocks in a postposition. Only 15 blocks have double functions and can occur in both positions as well as at the beginning and at the end of the word, e.g.:

- біо- ... -біоз: *біосфера, біогенез, біокібернетика ... ентеробіоз*;
- граф- ... -граф: *графологія, графоман, графонпретор ... бібліограф, термограф, осцилограф*;
- дермато- ... - дерм(а): *дерматоген, дерматологія ... екзодерма, склеродерма*;
- кардіо- ... карді(я): *кардіологія, кардіографія ... стенокардія*;
- кін(о)- ... кін(ез)(ія): *кінематографія, кіносеріал ... бластокінез, брадикінезія*;
- літ- ... -літ: *літогенез, літографія ... неоліт, лепідоліт*;
- лог- ... -лог(ія): *логограма, логографія, логометр, логарифм ... біолог, біологія, філолог, філологія*;
- метр- ... метр(ія): *метроном, метрологія ... барометр, спідометр, кілометр*;
- ол(е)- ... -ол: *олеографія... нігрол*;
- пед- ... -педія: *педогенез, педологія ... гіпнопедія, ортопедія*;
- термо- ... -терм(ія): *термометр, термограф ... ізотерми*;
- топ- ... -топ: *топоскоп, топоніміка, топографія ... ізотопи*;
- фон... -фон(ія): *фонограма, фонограф ... магнітофон, стереофонія*.

The biggest part of these units is of Greek origin. Only some of them are of Latin origin: *авіа-, аудіо-, бібліо-, ві-, відео-, імуно-, карб-, квазі-, кон-, контра-, лакто-, мото-, мульти-, радіо-, спектро-, уні-, -ол, хемі-, -фікація, ретро-*; German origin: *обер-, лейб-*; and French: *сантн-*.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

The Theory of Borrowing in the Linguistic Literature

Borkovska, I. P. The Theory of Borrowing in the Linguistic Literature

URL : <http://visnyk.fl.kpi.ua/article/viewFile/131435/127381>

Introduction. Languages do not exist in isolation, they are constantly evolving and become enriched by borrowing words from other languages. The penetration of elements of one language to another is a result of interaction between languages. Borrowing is known to be a permanent way to enrich vocabulary of each language.

Since the 19th century, the theory of borrowing has started actively to develop. Analyzing borrowed elements in the language for certain period,

linguists primarily made the emphasis on contacts between people and at that time it was proposed to allocate some groups of foreign words for their entry in the language: borrowing words are assimilated without any changes; recomposed words; words translated and compiled by someone else's model.

I. Franko (Франко 1982) was one of the first researchers in Ukrainian linguistics who grounded the need for foreign borrowings. He believed that every literary language, living and capable of life, having a possibility, adopts all the cultural units of modernity, then it is enriched with new terms and expressions connected to the progress of modern civilization but without losing the basic type (Франко 1982 : 207).

In the 1920^s, the doctrine of the borrowing was extended. Studying the process of the borrowing, researchers understood that it is not only entry of foreign words in the language. They comprised the words of special technical vocabulary, jargon, and industrial terms and so on. Moreover, the researchers started to consider the process of borrowing as a positive phenomenon for the development of language in general.

The phenomenon of purism. The question of necessity or unreasonableness of borrowing system in language exists nowadays. It is worth mentioning the phenomenon of purism as an extreme manifestation of concern for the purity of literary language, culture, orientation to establish compliance with the rules, strict literary standards, protection of the language from the influence of foreign borrowings, clearing it from the non-literary phenomena (Селіванова 2011 : 541).

Identification of the most active purism can be observed in the 90^s of the 20th century. It was the beginning of Ukrainian state and there were many linguists worrying about the purity of the Ukrainian language. They insisted on the replacement of the borrowed words by Ukrainian ones. Contrary to such thoughts, there were a lot of researchers who stressed that the Ukrainian language in its history had shown the fact that flows of foreign words, phrases or even structures had not hurt the Ukrainian language. Moreover, this vocabulary simplifies the Ukrainian language (Дзісь 2008 : 20).

Nowadays researchers continue to argue about advisability of the use of borrowed elements in language. As it was noted above, some linguists believe the process of borrowing is a positive phenomenon that enriches language, promotes active connections between the different national cultures (I. Bilodid, Y. Zhluktenko, M. Shanskiy). Others deny the positive meaning of the borrowing, indicating that these elements are clogged language (V. Budahov, S. Kartsevskyy, M. Kocherhan).

It should be noted that the complex processes in Ukrainian lexical-semantic system are associated with the emergence of a significant number of borrowings and recently there has been excessive use of borrowings. Foreign words penetrate to the different spheres of social and market relations, economy, law. Borrowed words are often transferred from one industry to another. Some of them are used occasionally, while others become the names of various things in different areas of human activity.

Some experts continue to insist that the intensive process of borrowing will lead to the loss of the identity in the native language. However, according to experts, the number of the borrowings in the Ukrainian language does not exceed 12%, that is why assertion of dominance of loanwords in our language is an exaggeration. This part of the borrowings cannot threaten the identity of language (Скорейко-Свірська 2009 : 15).

It is important to emphasize that borrowing words is an active process: the Ukrainian language borrows the word, accepts it and in some way rebuilds it, subordinates it under Ukrainian linguistic laws. First, all the phonemes in the composition of borrowing words are replaced with Ukrainian phonemes to hear in the adequate way. Second, the borrowed word is included in the morphological system of language which borrows and receives appropriate grammatical category. Third, the borrowed word is part of a semantic field. In addition, it is expected that the meaning of the borrowing becomes narrower.

Interpretations of borrowing. In the scientific and reference literature, there are a lot of interpretations of borrowing. In the encyclopaedia “Ukrainian language”, we found the most popular, relevant and scientifically accurate definition of the linguistic phenomenon: “Borrowing is a sound, morpheme, word, idiom, syntax expression carried over from one language to another, such as the process of transfer” (Тараненко 2004 : 194).

Prominent scientist A. Zahnitko (Загнітко 2012) notes that “borrowing is a process when different elements of a foreign language (words, word-forming affixes, syntactic structures, etc.) are going from one language to another due to language contact” (Загнітко 2012 : 154).

Linguist Y. Zhluktenko (Жлуктенко 1996) identified two meanings of the term “borrowing”: 1) the process of using of certain elements in the language-recipient from the language-source; 2) the result of this process – the existence of the heterogeneous elements in the system of the language that were transported from the outside from the system language-source (Жлуктенко 1996: 60).

Borrowing can occur either directly from the language-source by oral way (through direct communication, in terms of contact with native speakers of another language) and by written way (through books, legal literature, official documents, fiction, etc.).

Anglicism as a form of the borrowing. Since the end of the 20th century to the present day, there has been an intensive penetration of English borrowings in the Ukrainian language which are called “Anglicisms”. These borrowings are coming in our language in the social, economic, and cultural relations which happen between peoples and nations. It is likely that Anglicisms determine a specific stage of human development, addressing specific marker of globalization.

Based on the experience of researchers who have studied Anglicisms, we will attempt to give our own definition of the Anglicism: it is a word (or phrase) which is borrowed from the English language or modelled on the English word or phrase in the language-recipient. Anglicisms are manifested in all spheres of life, including economic and political spheres of life, in business, in the field of computer technology. This is a very important part of borrowing, because it reflects the international nature and consequences of globalization in our country.

Borrowings’ adjustment. According to the formal and functional characteristics, borrowings’ adjustment to the language-recipient is accompanied by assimilation on the phonetic, morphological, derivational, and lexical-semantic linguistic levels. Usually, subordination of foreign words to the laws of the language-recipient is a process that involves the passage of initial, advanced, and final stages of adaptation.

In the initial stages of penetration into English, Ukrainian scientific and technical terminology units were used primarily in terms of marine affairs (*вельбот* ‘whale-boat’). Subsequently, the special vocabulary, borrowed from English, is beginning to play an important role in the forming of other sectors.

Borrowings of English origin continued to serve as an effective means of enriching the terminology of science and technology. Each period confirms the emergence of Anglicisms. Evolution of the Anglicisms in the new language system is in relations with Ukrainian law on phonetic, graphical, grammatical, semantic language levels. The process of assimilation of new words is an important sociolinguistic dimension that is associated with the features of development of foreign language vocabulary in various social groups of speakers.

Phonetic and graphical conceptualization is necessary to the success of subsequent assimilation with the aim of losing original aspect of the borrowed word. As far as possible, it should be kept phonetic and, above all, phonological features of English. In writing foreign words, it should not be given letters that do not correspond to sounds, typical of this language. However, we should bear in mind the fact of inevitability of substitution of certain sounds of English word to sounds of the Ukrainian language, which usually differ in varying degrees, both phonetically and in phonological respects.

Problems of the graphics are connected with the specific facts of phonetic and phonologic aspects. The letter is a means of sound and image and sound is a means of the phoneme in the language. At the same time, we must remember that in the basis of Ukrainian graphemes, which are usually called phonetic, there is a phonological principle that applies to other systems of this kind. It means that graphic signs, and in some cases, their combinations correlate with phonemes of the English language, but not their sounds. Ukrainian “letter-phonemes” can only transmit a certain approximation of the phonemic structure of English words because of the fact that each language has its own specific phonological system. In such a situation, on the first place, sound importance arises but not phonemic. At the same time, there is substitution of the original sound, then substitution of phonemes and, finally, the entire procedure is completed and appropriate graphic signs of the language appears.

Features of Ukrainian grammar determine the direction of the grammatical changes, happening with English borrowings. Grammatical assimilation of English words is connected with the category of gender, the number, declension of nouns and adjectives and conjugating of the verbs. Generally, words obtain grammatical categories of the language-recipient, regardless of the presence or absence of these categories in the source-language and lose their grammatical meaning. When comparing the two linguistic systems in contact, we can observe the least serious differences between Anglicisms in the Ukrainian language and their source-words in English in a category of number, and the largest in the category of gender.

Conclusion. All in all, Ukraine is not a closed society and the influence of English is becoming more and more obvious. It is likely that such influence is a favourable process. However, at the same time we have to think of the development of our own means of enrichment. This work can be used for further research in the field of sociolinguistics.

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Text 2

The Influence of the Borrowings from Contemporary Languages on the Development of New English

https://www.psych.kiev.ua/Kolesnikova_A.O._The_influence_of_the_borrowings_from_contemporary_languages_on_the_development_of_new_English

Problem setting

The history of the English language is of considerable interest to all students of English, since the English language of today reflects many centuries of development. Any student of English is well aware of the difficulties of phonetic, lexical, and grammar peculiarities of the establishment of English, and the phenomenon of the evolution of the English language as well. Therefore it is necessary to provide the students with a knowledge of all the things mentioned above to make students able to overcome every of the difficulties in the process of learning English.

Last scientific researches and publications analysis

The concern of many linguists is not only the English borrowed words grammatical structure, their phonetic norms, change of meanings, but when, where from, what language and why they were borrowed into the English vocabulary. One of the famous Russian linguists of the 19th

century A. Potebnya ascertained: “Borrowing words mean to take them in order to have a possibility to contribute the treasure of the human being culture; it’s more than to receive”. Such approach relating to the problem of borrowings helps revealing conformities the development of the word-stock of the language depends on, explains the occurring phenomena inside of it, defines their reasons, and shows the connection of the history with single words, the history of the language and the history of its people.

Tetyana Rastorgueva’s research concerning the problem of borrowings in the English language is of great importance. The researcher gives a thorough analysis, comments on the characteristics of the borrowings from contemporary languages in New English.

We should pay attention to T. Rastorguyeva’s investigations relating to the influence of the borrowings from contemporary languages on the word-stock of the English language in New English period.

In Nataliya Rayevska’s scientific works, we observe the phenomenon of the assimilation of the words in the English word-stock borrowed from contemporary languages in New English in the age of Renaissance and in the succeeding centuries. In the process of the prolonged history of the formation and development, the English language borrowed a number of foreign words from different languages. It gives reasons to a plenty of linguists to state that the English language has lost its originality. But we think that the problem demands a more detailed investigation.

The statement of basic material of investigation

According to the estimates made by modern philologists, in the course of thousand years – from Old English (OE) to modern times – the English vocabulary has multiplied tenfold. Among the changes in the English vocabulary, we can distinguish losses of words or their meanings, replacement and additions. Most of the OE words were replaced by other words of the same or similar meanings. Thus OE *clipian* came to be replaced by Middle English (ME) *callen*, and New English (NE) *call*.

Additions to the English vocabulary embrace a large number of vocabulary changes. The sum total of this type of change far offsets the process of obsolescence and decay. Among additions, we can find pure innovations, that is entirely new words which do not take place of any other items but were created to name new things, new ideas, and new qualities, e.g., ME *citee* ‘town with a cathedral’, *duke*, *duchess*, *prynce* – new ranks and titles; NE *bourgeois*, *potato*, *nylon*.

From the 12th to the 19th century, there were a lot of borrowings from Scandinavian, French, Latin, and Greek. E.g., Scandinavian *byr* ‘village’, French *chieftain* ‘captain’, Latin *anonymous*, Greek *drama*, etc.

The foreign influence on the English vocabulary in the age of the Renaissance and in the succeeding centuries was not restricted to Latin and Greek. The influx of French words continued and reached new peaks in the late 15th and in the late 17th centuries.

French borrowings of the later period mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art, and fashions. French remained the international language of diplomacy for several hundred years. Paris led the fashion in dress, food, and in social life and, to a certain extent, in art and literature. Finally, the political events in France in the 18th–19th centuries were of world-wide significance. All these external conditions are reflected in French loans. Examples of diplomatic terms are *attaché*, *communiqué*, *dossier*; the words *ball*, *beau*, *cortege*, *café*, *coquette*, *hotel*, *picnic*, *restaurant* refer to social life; *ballet*, *ensemble*, *essay*, *genre* pertain to art; military terms *brigade*, *corps*, *manoeuvre*, *marine*, *police*, *reconnaissance*; fashions in dress and food are illustrated by words like *blouse*, *chemise*, *corsage*, *cravat*, *champagne*, *menu*, *soup*. Words of miscellaneous character are: *comrade*, *detail*, *entrance*, *essay*, *machine*, *moustache*, *progress*, *ticket*.

As seen from the lists, later French borrowings differ widely from the loan-words adopted in ME. Most of them have not been completely assimilated and have retained a foreign appearance to the present day – note their spellings, the sounds, and the position of the stress. Words like *genre* and *restaurant* have nasalized vowels and a French spelling: *police*, *fatigue*, *marine* receive the stress on the last syllable and are pronounced with long [i:] indicated by the letter “i” like French words; the diagraph “ch” stands for [ʃ] in *machine*, in *beau* the letters “eau” have also retained the sound value of the French prototype [ɔ:].

In addition to the three main sources – Greek, Latin, and French, English speakers of the NE period borrowed freely from many other languages. It has been estimated that even in the 17th century, the English vocabulary contained words derived from no less than fifty foreign tongues. We shall mention only the most important ones.

The main contributors to the vocabulary were Italian, Dutch, Spanish, German, Portuguese, and Russian. A number of words were adopted from languages of other countries and continents, which came into contact with English: Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

Next to French, Latin, and Scandinavian, English owes the greatest number of foreign words to Italian, though many of them, like Latin loan-

words, entered the English language through French. A few early borrowings pertain to commercial and military affairs while the vast majority of words are related to art, music and literature, which is a natural consequence of the fact that Italy was the birthplace of the Renaissance movement and of the revival of interest in art.

In the 14th century, English imported the Italian words *ducato*, *million*, *florin* (from the name of Florence, where the coin was minted), *pistol*, *cartridge*, *alarm* (probably borrowed from French but traced to Italian *all arme* ‘all to arms’). Italian words relating to art are well known to speakers of all European languages. Examples of musical terms adopted in English are: *aria*, *bass*, *cello*, *concerto*, *duet*, *finale*, *piano*, *solo*, *sonata*, *soprano*, *tenor*, *violin*.

The Italian loan-words *balcony*, *cameo*, *corridor*, *cupola*, *design*, *fresco*, *gallery*, *granite*, *parapet*, *pedestal*, *studio* reveal the priority of the Italians in certain spheres of culture. The loans *replica*, *sonnet*, *stanza* indicate new concepts in literature.

As seen from the examples, some loan-words retained their Italian appearance, others were Gallicised (i.e. assumed a French shape); probably they had entered the English language through French, e.g., *artisan*, *campaign*, *intrigue*. Many words in general use do not differ from English words either in sounds or spelling and cannot be distinguished from native words without a special study: *barrack*, *cash*, *canteen*, *escort*, *gallop*, *laundry*, *manage*, *medal*, *pants*, *pilot*; these borrowings were probably imported at an earlier date and have lost their foreign flavour.

Borrowings from Spanish came as a result of contacts with Spain in the military, commercial, and political fields, due to the rivalry of England and Spain in foreign trade and colonial expansion. This is apparent from the nature of Spanish borrowings in English made in the 16th and 17th centuries, e.g., *armada*, *barricade*, *cannibal*, *cargo*, *embargo*, *escapade*. Many loan-words indicated new objects and concepts encountered in the colonies: *banana*, *canoe*, *chocolate*, *cocoa*, *Calibri*, *maize*, *mosquito*, *Negro*, *potato*, *ranch*, *tobacco*, *tomato*.

Borrowings from Germanic languages are of special interest as English is a Germanic language too. The influence of Scandinavian in Early Middle English period has certainly remained unsurpassed and the unique conditions of close language contacts were never repeated. By the 15th–16th centuries, the Germanic languages had driven apart; their linguistic affinities were disguised by the changes of the intervening periods. Therefore loan-words from related Germanic tongues were no less

foreign to English speakers than those from other linguistic groups. Yet their sound form was somewhat closer to English and their assimilation progressed rapidly. Dutch words and some of the German words do not differ in appearance from native English words.

Dutch made abundant contribution to English, particularly in the 15th and 16th centuries, when commercial relations between England and the Netherlands were at their peak. Dutch artisans came to England to practice their trade, and sell their goods. They specialized in wool weaving and brewing, which is reflected in the Dutch loan-words: *pack, scour, spool, stripe* (terms of weaving); *hops, tub, scum*. Extensive borrowing is found in nautical terminology: *bowline, buoy, cruise, deck, dock, freight, keel, skipper*. The flourishing of art in the Netherlands accounts for some Dutch loan-words relating to art: *easel, landscape, sketch*.

Loan-words from German reflect the scientific and cultural achievements of Germany at different dates of the New English period. Mineralogical terms are connected with the employment of German specialists in the English mining industry, e.g., *cobalt, nickel, zinc*. The advance of philosophy in the 18th and 19th centuries accounts for philosophical terms, e.g., *transcendental, dynamics* (going back to classical roots). Some borrowings do not belong to a particular semantic sphere and can only be classified as miscellaneous: *kindergarten, halt, stroll, plunder, poodle, waltz*.

The most peculiar feature of German influence on the English vocabulary in the 18th and 19th centuries is the creation of translation-loans on German models from native English components (sometimes also from foreign roots, borrowed and assimilated before). Whenever compound German nouns, in their alien sound form and morphological structure, were hard to reproduce, translation-loans came in handy in rendering their meaning and creating new terms: English *swan-song* is a literal translation of German *Schwanenlied*; *home-sickness* comes from *Heimweh*, *standpoint* from *Standpunkt*; *environment* was the rendering of *Umgebung*, *masterpiece* consists of two Romance elements reproducing German *Meisterstück*.

Recent German borrowings in English, connected with World War II and other political events, are: *blitz, bunker, Gestapo, nazi*.

The Russian element in the English vocabulary is of particular interest to the Russian student of the history of English. The earliest Russian loan-words entered the English language as far back as the 16th century, when the English trade company (the Moskovy Company)

established the first trade relations with Russia. English borrowings adopted from the 16th till the 19th century indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia, observed by the English: *astrakhan, beluga, boyar, copeck, intelligentsia, muzhik, rouble, samovar, troika, tsar, verst, vodka*.

The loan-words adopted after 1917 reflect the new social relations and political institutions in the USSR: *Bolshevik, Komsomol, Soviet*. Some of the new words are translation-loans: *collective farm, Five-Year-Plan, wall newspaper*. In the recent decades, many technical terms came from Russian, indicating the achievements in different branches of science: *sputnik, cosmonaut* (in preference of the American astronaut), *synchrophasotron*.

English words of Ukrainian origin were words in the English language that had been borrowed or derived from the Ukrainian language. Some of them entered English via Russian, Polish, or Yiddish, among others. They originated in other languages, but were used to describe notions related to Ukraine. Some were regionalisms, used in English-speaking places with a significant Ukrainian diaspora population, especially in Canada, but all of those entered the general English vocabulary. There were some of them: *babka* (ба́бка ‘a sweet Easter bread’, related to French *baba au rhum*); *bandura* (банду́ра ‘a stringed instrument’); *chumak* (чума́к ‘a class of merchants and traders from the area comprising modern Ukraine’); *hetman* (ге́тман ‘a Cossack military leader’); *holubtsi* (голуби́ці ‘cabbage rolls’); *hopak* (гопа́к ‘a lively traditional dance’); *kubasa* (ковбаса́ ‘a garlic sausage’); *paska* (па́ска ‘a decorated Easter bread’, also *paskha* or *pashka* ‘a rich dessert with curd cheese and dried fruit’); *pysanka* (пи́санка ‘a decorated Easter egg’); *varenyky* (варе́ники ‘boiled dumplings with potato or meat inside’).

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Theme 13

Territorial Differentiation of the English and Ukrainian Languages

Standard or literary language (the latter is used with respect to the Slavic languages) is a regularized, regulated form of a language that serves the most diverse spheres of public activity of people: state and public institutions, the press, science, education, etc. In other words, this is the variety of language that has undergone codification so that it is accessible to every speaker of the language. Hence, “standard” here should be understood to refer to the process of regularization and is inextricably linked with stability and uniformity.

13.1 Standard English, its Characteristic Features

Standard English 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.

David Crystal (1994), a profound British linguist, distinguished the most characteristic features of Standard English:

- the linguistic features of a standard language are standardised pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and spelling that have no local base;
- it is used as the norm of communication by the government, law courts, and media;
- it is recommended as a desirable educational target and taught to native speakers in school and learners of English as a foreign language;
- it is a canon of literature and translations;
- it is prestigious within a country and is widely understood, but not widely produced.

On this basis, we may quickly develop a false impression that there is a World Standard English, however “each country where English is a first language is aware of its linguistic identity, and is anxious to preserve it from the influence of others” (Crystal 1994).

Every language, having its standard, allows nevertheless 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.

Albeit all the countries of the Anglosphere use Standard English, one nuance should be taken into consideration: there are vital differences in the varieties that they identify as “standard”. Thus, in American and Australian English, the past-tense forms of *sink* and *shrink* are *sunk* and *shrunk*, which are acceptable as standard, whereas standard British English retains the past-tense forms of *sank* and *shrank* (Burrige and Kortmann 2008). This attests that the “standard” is one of many dialects and varieties of a language (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 1), rather than the totality of the language.

13.2 Standard Ukrainian, its Characteristic Features

Standard Ukrainian, apart from being state language of Ukraine, is one of three official languages of the breakaway Moldovan republic of Transnistria. Ukrainian is also spoken by a large émigré population, namely by Ukrainian diasporas in Canada, United States, and several countries of South America like Brazil, Argentina, and Paraguay.

The literary version of the Ukrainian language evolved through three distinct periods: old (10th–13th centuries), middle (14th–18th centuries), and modern (19th–20th centuries), and the cardinal changes that occurred were conditioned by changes in the political and cultural history of Ukraine. But it is only in the late 17th century, with the establishment of the Cossack Hetmanate, that Ukrainian has been in common use.

In British English, the standard is historically based on the language of the medieval English court of Chancery and the most influential factor in its rise was London as the capital of England per se (Baugh and Cable 2002), whilst the process of reforming the Ukrainian standard language is related to the coexistence of two variants of Ukrainian standard – Eastern and Western. Before Ukraine became an independent state, the usage of

the Eastern standard, which is closer to Russian, was encouraged. Though, after the collapse of the Soviet Union, the Western variant of the language, which had evolved by the first half of the 20th century on the territory, which was a part of the Austro-Hungarian empire, is now considered the more prestigious one.

Contrary to Standard English, which, since the late 17th and 18th centuries, has come to be seen as a mark of good education and social prestige, Ukrainian was oppressed, derided, and banned from formal schooling and for a long time was used, in some territories even clandestinely, only in its folk songs, by itinerant musicians, and prominent authors. By the same token, it was not institutionally regulated. Furthermore, Russian has prevailed over Ukrainian in other spheres of life.

Despite constantly increasing influence of the Russian language, the general character of Standard Ukrainian, as it was defined by Taras Shevchenko and Panteleimon Kulish and codified by Borys Hrinchenko, Oleksa Syniavsky, and the VUAN dictionaries of the 1920s, has remained intact.

In a bid to purify Ukrainian from its cognate language, in 2019, a bill was adopted by the Ukrainian parliament formalizing rules which governed the usage of Ukrainian and introduced penalties for violations. The latter shows that the Ukrainian language is only breaking through making changes to its standard (with the last amendments in 2019).

The Standard Ukrainian language with its long history of establishment (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 2) is regulated by the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine, particularly by its Institute for the Ukrainian Language, Ukrainian language-information fund, and Potebnya Institute of Language Studies.

13.3 Contrastive Typology of the Territorial Variants of the English and Ukrainian Languages

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

Territorial 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 territorial variants of the English national language: British, American, Canadian, Australian, and Indian.

The differences between British English (BE), American English (AE), Canadian English (CnE), Australian English (AuE), and Indian English (InE) are immediately noticeable in the field of phonetics, i.e. articulatory and 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, and AuE.

The variations in vocabulary are not very numerous. The vocabulary of all the territorial 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 territorial variant, there are locally marked lexical units specific to the present-day usage in one of the territorial variants and not found in the others, i.e. Briticisms, Americanisms, Australianisms, Canadianisms. They may be full and partial.

Full locally-marked lexical units are those specific to the British, American, etc. territorial 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*, *kaola*, *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 and school realia:

AE *junior high school*, *senior high school*

CnE *composite high school*

InE *freeship* ‘scholarship’, *upgradation*

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)

InE *swadeshi* ‘made and sold in India’, *hartal* ‘a period when workers do not work’.

Partial locally-marked lexical units are typical of this or that territorial 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 territorial variants of English use different words for the same objects, e.g.:

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

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 over time. 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, e.g.: *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’, etc.

Concomitantly, a number of **Briticisms** came into the language of the USA, e.g., *smog, to brief* ‘to give instructions’, etc. 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, e.g., *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 is colloquial.

Unlike English, there has been little research into the **territorial variants of the Ukrainian language** to make it possible draw a clear distinction. It might be the impression that the Ukrainian languages spoken in Ukraine and, for instance, in Canada are fairly homogeneous, nevertheless, differences and divergences of sound system, vocabulary and grammar among the varieties do exist.

The vocabularies of Ukrainians outside Ukraine reflect the influence of the local language and include loanwords. Thus, Anglicisms abound in Canadian Ukrainian, e.g., *шузи* ‘взуття’, *айскрім* ‘морозиво’, *пресідник* from “president” (‘голова’), *кара* ‘машина’.

Canadian Ukrainian was greatly exposed to the waves of immigration in 1882–1914 and 1918–1939. At that time, Ukrainophones in Canada spoke the dialects of what is now western Ukraine and, as they were introduced to new technologies and concepts, for which they had no words, consequently Ukrainianizations of English words took place, e.g., *трак* ‘truck’, *пампс* ‘pumps’, or *пісін* ‘receipt’. The most common words made up the bulk of their vocabulary.

As such, Canadian Ukrainian contains many more loanwords from Polish, German, and Romanian, and fewer from Russian, than does modern standard Ukrainian, which is mostly based on the dialect spoken in central Ukraine, particularly in the Cherkasy, Poltava, and Kyiv areas.

The use of the Ukrainian language in Canada increased with the introduction of a new wave of post-World War II immigrant speakers who spoke, by and large, Standard Ukrainian, and not Canadian Ukrainian.

We can conjecture that, by analogy with English, the territorial variants of Ukrainian as regional varieties of a standard literary language are characterized by some minor peculiarities, but the exact number of territorial variants continues to be the subject of careful study.

Territorial variants of the English and Ukrainian languages 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 their own literary forms, besides they have dialectal differences of their own.

13.4 Contrastive Typology of the Local Dialects of the English and Ukrainian Languages

Local Dialects 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, every group contains several dialects, up to ten:

- 1) Northern group (between the rivers the Tweed and the Humber);
- 2) Western group;
- 3) Eastern group (between the rivers the Humber and the Thames);
- 4) Southern group (south of the Thames);
- 5) Midland group.

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 (see *Supplementary Material for Self-study*, text 3).

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 chartered town’, *kirk* ‘church’, etc. 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’, etc.

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’, etc.

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 **Cockney**, 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. H. Partridge and H. C. Wyld (1975), 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 (Eliza Doolittle in 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 Great 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.

In **Ukraine**, there are three major groups of local dialects:

1) northern group;

2) south-western group;

3) south-eastern group.

The **northern** (Polissian) group of dialects is used on the territory of modern Volyn, Chernihiv, Zhytomyr, and Kyiv regions, and in the northern part of Rivne region. It is characterized by some outdated elements, such as the usage of the endings -є, instead of -а, after a long consonant, e.g., *життє, весіллє, зіллє*, etc. Also the usage of ending -и, instead of -і, in adjectives of nominative plural case, e.g., *добри, здорови, гарни*, etc.

The vocabulary of the northern dialects uses many terms which are similar in Polish and Belorussian languages, as these languages were forming close to the north-eastern subdialects. Some words used in the northern dialects are not used in the literary language, such as *пуля* ‘курча’, *кукуля* ‘зозуля’, *вивірка* ‘білка’, etc.

The **south-western** group of dialects comprises the following subdialects:

- Volynian-Podillian subdialect, which is spoken on the territory of southern Volyn and Podillia;

- Halitsko-Bukovynian subdialect, which is spoken on the territory of Halychyna and Bukovyna (includes Hutsul subdialect);

- Carpathian including Boyko (Northern-Carpathian), Transcarpathian and Lemko (Western-Carpathian) subdialects.

Among its phonetic peculiarities, there can be distinguished:

- the transformation of unstressed [o] into [y], e.g., *гоулубка, кужух*.
- the mixing of [e] and [i] in words, e.g., *жиевє, вислє*.

The morphological peculiarities are distinguished as follows:

- the usage of various forms of Future Tense, e.g., *бўду читати, бўду читав, читатиму, му читати*;

- the preservation of old forms of singular Dative and Instrumental cases of personal pronouns, e.g., *мі, ми, ти, ти, си* instead of *мені, тобі, собі, менє, тебе, себе*.

The **south-eastern** group of dialects, which contains 3 sub-dialects – Middle Dnieprian, Slobozhan, and Steppe – covers the territory of modern Poltava, Kharkiv, Luhansk, Donetsk, Dnipro, Zaporizhia, Kherson, Odesa, Sumy, Mykolaiv regions, as well as a bulk of Cherkasy region and the southern part of the Kyiv region.

Its features conform more to the norms of the literary language. However, some of the subdialects have features which differentiate this group of dialects from the standard language.

The phonetic and grammar peculiarities include:

- The softening of the consonant [л];
- The usage of epenthetic [н]: *м'ясо, пам'ять, сімня*;
- The convergence of unstressed [е] and [и] in speech.

This group of dialects also has its own unique vocabulary, unfamiliar to the other parts of Ukraine. These are such words as *накидка* 'скатертина', *ремінка* 'пояс', *кобушка* 'глечик', *верх, труба* 'димар', *рептух*, *шанька* 'торба для годівлі коней', *трина*, *збоїни* 'відходи після молотби'.

The south-eastern group of dialects also has a lot of borrowings from the Russian, Turkish, Bulgarian languages, as well as many from the Romanic languages.

It is also worth mentioning that inhabitants of some territories use the so-called *surzhyk*, which means the mixture of the Russian and Ukrainian vocabularies with the phonetics and grammar of the latter. Obviously, it cannot be called a dialect or even a subdialect, as it is merely a sign of poor knowledge of both Ukrainian and Russian languages and should be avoided at all costs.

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Supplementary Material for Self-study

Text 1

Dialect, Accent and Variety: To the Problem of Definition

(From https://publications.aston.ac.uk/id/eprint/439/1/studying_language_2a.pdf)

One way of defining a language is as a group of dialects and accents which have a certain number of forms and structures in common. Put simply, *dialect* refers to words and syntactic structure, whereas *accent* refers to the sounds that speakers produce and the intonation and pitch which accompanies sound. If a dialect describes the words and syntactic structures used by one person or a group of speakers, then accent is the word used to describe pronunciation, and the two often go hand in hand. For example, if someone speaks in a regional dialect of English such as Scouse in the North West or Black Country in the Midlands, then her/his pronunciation will also be particular to that area. If you were to walk north from Land's End in Cornwall to John O'Groats at the very north of Scotland, you would hear different accents and dialects of English – Geordie in the North East, West Country in the South West and Cornish. This is known as a *dialect continuum* or a chain of mutual intelligibility; that is, there is no distinct or complete break from one dialect and accent to another, and speakers of geographically adjacent dialects can understand one another. However, the cumulative effect of linguistic differences is such that the greater the geographical separation, the greater the difficulty of understanding what people say. Europe has many dialect continua, an example of which is Romance, stretching across the Iberian peninsula through France and parts of Belgium down to the southern tip of Italy.

In addition to a purely linguistically descriptive dimension to accents and dialects, there is also a social one. Chambers and Trudgill (1980: 3) point out that dialects are commonly viewed as: ...substandard, low status, often rustic forms of language, generally associated with the peasantry, the working class, or other groups lacking in prestige. DIALECT is also a term which is often applied to other forms of language, particularly those spoken in more isolated parts of the world, which have no written form. And dialects are often regarded as some kind of (often erroneous) deviation from a norm – as aberrations of a correct or standard form of language.

Trudgill and Chambers found that people speaking with rural accents such as those of Devon and Cornwall in South West England, for example, are typified as dim-witted but trusting, whereas people speaking with urban ones such as Cockney in London are typified as quick-witted but untrustworthy. By contrast, speakers of standard English with a *Received Pronunciation* accent are generally thought to be more intelligent than speakers of other dialects and also superior morally as well as socially.

Because of such negative connotations, linguists have come to prefer to use the term variety when describing variation in language. This has none of the negative connotations associated with the terms dialect and accent, and fits in with the idea of descriptive linguistics: that is, basing descriptions of language upon actual use. It can also be applied across a wider range of language features than the terms dialect and accent. For example, we can talk of linguistic variation, historical variation, social variation, geographic variation, stylistic variation and so on.

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1. Chambers, J.K. & Trudgill, P. *Dialectology* London: Cambridge University Press, 1980.

Text 2

The Development and Establishment of Standard Ukrainian

(Shevelov G. Y. Standard Ukrainian. URL:
<http://www.encyclopediaofukraine.com/display.asp?linkpath=pages%5CS%5CT%5CStandardUkrainian.htm>)

The standard version of the Ukrainian language evolved through three distinct periods: old (10th–13th centuries), middle (14th–18th centuries), and modern (19th–20th centuries).

Old Ukrainian is found in extant Kyivan Rus' church and scholarly texts dating from the mid-11th century and the Kyivan charter of 1130, in Galician (see Galicia, Principality of Galicia-Volhynia) church texts dating from the late 11th century, and in Galician charters dating from the mid-14th century. There are hardly any literary monuments from the Chernihiv principality, Tmutorokan principality, and Pereiaslav principality; hence, we can only make conjectures about the literary language used in these principalities. In addition to church and scholarly texts, Old Ukrainian is represented by private letters, chronicles, and belles-lettres works.

The language of all these genres is basically Church Slavonic, with an ever-increasing admixture of local lexical, phonetic, morphological, and syntactic features. Although the language was not institutionally regulated, it remained quite stable, because of the patronage of the church and the concentration of literary life around religious centers. Thus, texts created in Kyiv do not differ much from those transcribed from the Bulgarian. Some scholars, such as A. Shakhmatov, have conjectured that this was also the koine of the most cultured intellectual strata. Hypotheses (by S. Obnorsky and, to a certain degree, L. Yakubinsky and I. Svientsitsky) about a local, urban-vernacular-based literary language that predated the widespread use of Church Slavonic have not been confirmed by known facts. Only the language of the Galician charters reveals a local character, but data allowing us to date back that tradition do not exist.

The decline of Kyivan Rus' and later the Principality of Galicia-Volhynia and the resulting annexation of most Ukrainian lands (except for Galicia, Bukovyna, and Transcarpathia) by the Grand Duchy of Lithuania interrupted the literary tradition of Old Ukrainian. This is particularly evident in the rift that occurred between the language of the church and that of government. The language of the religious genres and styles is characterized in the late 14th and 15th centuries by a renewed 'Church Slavonicization'. This so-called second wave of Church Slavonic influences stemmed from the linguistic reforms of Patriarch Euthymius of Tŭrnovo, who introduced artificial archaisms, a syntax and spelling closer to the Greek, and a rhetorical style. At the same time the language of government drew closer to the vernacular and was influenced also by the Latin, German, Czech, and Polish used in the central European chanceries.

The political division of the Ukrainian lands between Poland and Lithuania led to the development of two variants of administrative language, Galician and Volhynian-Polisian. The Galician variant, which reflected the phonetics and morphology of the southwestern dialects and contained more Polonisms, became obsolete when the government adopted Latin or Polish (1433). The Volhynian-Polisian variant, with its center in Lutsk, reflected the phonetics and morphology of the northern dialects and, after becoming the basis of the official language of the Lithuanian-Ruthenian state, absorbed more and more Belarusian features, especially those shared by the northern Ukrainian and southern Belarusian dialects (e.g., the distinction between *e* and *ě* under stress, hardened *r*, *ž*, *č*, *š*). It became a distinctive koine which was used occasionally in Eastern Europe as a language of diplomacy.

The growth of towns, the rise of a Ukrainian burgher class, and the influence of the Reformation brought about a shift in the language of the higher genres toward the chancery and vernacular languages. Polish cultural, political, and economic expansion after the 1569 Union of Lublin led to the Polonization of the Ukrainian nobility and the cultural and political decline of Ukrainian towns, thereby destroying the ground on which a vernacular-based Ukrainian literary language could rise.

It was under these circumstances that the clergy assumed ideological leadership of the Ukrainian opposition and propagated the restoration and normalization of Church Slavonic as the vehicle of an older, Greco-Byzantine tradition. The grammars and dictionaries produced by L. Zyzanii, M. Smotrytsky, P. Berynda, and others did not revive Church Slavonic in its pure form, but with an admixture of arbitrary changes and with some Ukrainian elements (e.g., pronunciation of the nasal vowels *Ѥ*, *Ѧ* as *u*, *ja*; *g* as *h*; *Ѣ* as *i*; and the nonpronunciation of jers). The result of this policy was the opposite of what was intended: by severing the literary language from the vernacular and blocking the secularization of the literary language, the church in fact facilitated the Polonization process.

In practice, even M. Smotrytsky's standards of Church Slavonic could not be maintained, and many vernacular elements and Western influences (especially Latinisms and Polonisms) crept into the literary language. Thus, an eclectic language based on Church Slavonic became the literary medium of the Cossack Hetman state of the 17th and early 18th centuries. Its variegated composition suited the prevailing style of the period, the baroque. The language was used in homiletics, scholarship, belles-lettres, and, with considerably fewer Church Slavonicisms, official communication and private correspondence. Given the artificial nature of the language, it is difficult to speak of its dialectal base; in general, however, southwestern dialectal elements prevailed over northern ones.

The decline of the Hetman state after the Russian victory at the Battle of Poltava (1709) interrupted the normal development of the literary language. As baroque culture declined and became secularized, tsarist interference, as in the ukases of 1721, 1727–8, 1735, 1766, and 1772 censoring the language of Ukrainian printed books, as well as the Russification of education and the desire of certain strata of the Cossack *starshyna* and the higher Orthodox clergy to consolidate their position in the service of the Russian Empire, put an end to the printing of works in the literary language of the 17th century.

In the second half of the 18th century, the literary language used in Ukraine (e.g., in the late Cossack chronicles, the writings of H. Skovoroda and V. Kapnist, and *Istoriia Rusov*) was, in fact, Russian. The vernacular was used only in satirical, humorous, intimate, or lyrical works, as prescribed by the classicist theory of low style. The authors of such works did not envision creating a new literary language, but merely recorded various 'Little Russian' dialects (e.g., the northern in I. Nekrashevych, the Poltava in I. Kotliarevsky, and the Kharkiv in H. Kvitka-Osnovianenko).

The attitude to the vernacular changed only with the rise of romanticism, which in Ukraine acquired a distinctly populist flavor. Various writers, such as M. Shashkevych, A. Metlynsky, and M. Kostomarov, raised the possibility of a serious, full-fledged literature based on the vernacular. They preferred folklore, which was associated with a historical tradition, to colloquial speech as a source of the literary language. Thus, the southeastern dialectal base of Modern Standard Ukrainian became established.

But these efforts lacked historicity. Building on the achievements of his Romantic precursors from Poltava and Kharkiv, T. Shevchenko first met the challenge of forging a synthetic, pan-Ukrainian literary language encompassing both the historical (e.g., the use of archaisms and Church Slavonicisms) and the geographical dimension (the use of accessible dialects). P. Kulish combined the same elements but in different proportions. Shevchenko's and Kulish's contemporaries and immediate successors failed to grasp the fact that historical and stylistic synthesis was the essence of language reform.

The breadth of the geographic synthesis, however, secured a wide influence for the new literary language. This was the principle which gave direction to the linguistic strivings of the writers grouped around the journal *Osnova* (Saint Petersburg). Later, it had a determining influence on the character of B. Hrinchenko's dictionary, which, despite its apparent dialectal nature, played a major role in normalizing the literary language.

The new literary Ukrainian began to be used in scholarship and publicism in the early 1860s. This development was interrupted by P. Valuev's circular (1863) forbidding Ukrainian-language printing and book publishing within the Russian Empire.

As Ukrainian publishing shifted to Austrian-ruled Galicia, the new literary language took root there, imposed the Middle Ukrainian-based literary language, and thereby undercut the attempts of local Russophiles to establish Russian as the literary language. In Galicia the new language

became strongly influenced by the local vernacular. The impact of the northern dialects was not particularly evident, although they were used by writers living in Chernihiv gubernia (e.g., P. Kulish, B. Hrinchenko, M. Kotsiubynsky).

In the debate on Standard Ukrainian at the turn of the century, V. Mova, O. Pchilka, and M. Starytsky, and then Kotsiubynsky, L. Ukrainka, I. Franko, and Modest Levytsky, favored a synthesis of the Western and eastern vernaculars, while Hrinchenko, A. Krymsky, and I. Nechui-Levytsky argued for eliminating western Ukrainian influences. When Standard Ukrainian “returned” to Russian-ruled Ukraine after the lifting of the ban on the Ukrainian language during the Revolution of 1905, it already had a synthetic character. But its central Ukrainian foundation remained untouched.

The expansion of Standard Ukrainian into all social spheres and literary genres in the independent Ukrainian state of 1917–20 and in Soviet Ukraine in the 1920s necessitated its normalization and codification. Two distinct currents of opinion arose in this regard. Supporters of a purist “ethnographic” orientation, such as Y. Tymchenko, S. Smerechynsky, O. Kurylo (at first), and V. Simovych, advocated the adoption of the popular vernacular as the standard. It was, however, the school led by O. Syniavsky, which took into account not only tradition but also the development of the language, that gained the upper hand and determined the norms of orthography, orthoepy, morphology, and syntax.

J. Stalin's abolition of the policy of Ukrainization in the early 1930s and his suppression of Ukrainian national and cultural life were accompanied by bureaucratic attempts to restrict the use of Standard Ukrainian. It was totally eliminated from the military sphere and severely restricted in the scientific and technological spheres. Western Ukrainianisms and European loanwords existing in Ukrainian but not in Russian were expunged, and the language was reoriented toward the eastern Ukrainian dialects and Russian vocabulary and grammar. Changes in orthography, grammar, and lexicon were carried to such an extreme that some of them were to be rejected even in the official orthography adopted in 1946 and in the 1948 Russian-Ukrainian dictionary.

The general direction of Soviet language policy, however, has remained unchanged. Despite constantly increasing influence of the Russian language in Ukraine, the general character of Standard Ukrainian, as it was defined by T. Shevchenko and P. Kulish and codified by B. Hrinchenko, O. Syniavsky, and the VUAN dictionaries of the 1920s, remains intact.

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Text 3

Types of British Dialects: An Overview

(From <https://englishlive.ef.com/blog/english-in-the-real-world/rough-guide-british-dialects/>)

Cockney

This is one of the UK's most famous dialects, and it goes hand in hand with London. It came about as the dialect of the London working classes, especially in the poorer East End of the city. The Cockney dialect also gave us Rhyming Slang, and you can still hear plenty of market traders round the East End shouting out in Cockney from their stalls. With the Cockney accent there are lots of “glottal stops”, and the “th” sound frequently changes to an “f” sound.

Estuary English

Here's another dialect that is London-based. The “Estuary” in question is the Thames Estuary, and this dialect is spoken by people who live along its stretch. It's now becoming one of the most widely spoken accents down south. It's not as posh as RP, but it's not as “common” as Cockney.

Yorkshire

Yorkshire is a big county in England, and lots of people speak with a variation of the Yorkshire dialect as a result. Known as “God's Own County”, Yorkshire has a delicious dialect. One of the biggest difference

between this dialect and RP is that words ending in an “ee” sound, like *nasty*, are pronounced with an “eh” sound, like *nasteh*.

Northern Irish

The Northern Irish accent is quite a beautiful one, and a strong one too. The first thing you’ll probably notice about Northern Irish is how many letters seem to be missing from words when people speak it. For example, *Northern Irish* would be pronounced more like “*Nor’n Ir’sh*”!

Scottish

The Scottish dialect varies hugely from city to city, town to town, and becomes increasingly like the Irish accent in the Western Isles, and increasingly like Nordic languages in the islands to the far north. The more remote the area, the stronger the accent seems to become, so people from the Shetland Islands can be hard to understand at first. And Glaswegian can be tricky too – even for Scots themselves.

Brummie

If you come from Birmingham, you’ll speak the Brummie dialect – like Ozzy Osbourne. He may have been living in LA for years, but he hasn’t lost his accent – which goes to show just how strong this dialect is. It’s quite soft, and elastic, and lumpy sounding!

Scouse

If you come from Liverpool, like John, Paul, Ringo and George, then you’ll speak Scouse. The Liverpudlian accent is one of the most famous British regional accents thanks to the Beatles, and it’s a very nasal dialect that can be hard to copy at first!

Geordie

People from Newcastle speak the Geordie dialect, and they’re called Geordies too. One of the biggest differences between Geordie and RP is that the “r”s at the end of words aren’t pronounced, and tend to be pronounced as “ah” instead. So a word like *sugar* becomes “*sug-ah*”. And a word like, say, *Space Centre* becomes “*Space Cent-ah*”! There are numerous local words commonly used, e.g., *bonny* ‘pretty’, *burn* ‘stream’, *canny* ‘quite, really, very’, *cushat* ‘wood pigeon’, *hadaway* ‘get away’ or ‘you must be joking!’, *hame* ‘home’, etc.

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Part II

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS FOR SEMINARS IN CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LANGUAGES

Seminar 1

Introduction to Contrastive Lexicology. Fundamentals

1.1 Language as System and Structure.

1.2 Contrastive Lexicology in the Systemic Structure of Language.

1.3 Typological Isomorphism and Allomorphy of the English and Ukrainian Lexicon.

1.1 Language as System and Structure

Exercise 1. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

system, structure, subsystems of language structure, lexical system, segmental units of language, phoneme, morpheme, word, sentence, text, speech counterparts of language units, phone, morph, word-form, phrase, utterance, discourse, supra-segmental units.

Exercise 2. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) paradigmatics	a) is a linguistic unit consisting of a set of linguistic forms (phonemes, words, or phrases) that are in a sequential relationship to one another
2) syntagmatics	b) denotes a set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws
3) paradigmatic relationships	c) is a branch of linguistics that deals with the set of substitutional or oppositional relationships a linguistic unit has with other units, which is observed in the system of language
4) syntagmatic relationships	d) is as a system of forms of one word which reveals the differences and relationships between them
5) syntagm	e) are based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary

6) paradigm	f) is a branch of linguistics that deals with the linear relationship between a linguistic unit and neighbouring words in connected speech
7) system	g) are immediate linear links between the units in a segmental sequence

Exercise 3. Define whether the statement is True (T) or False (F).

1. Contrastive Linguistics aims at establishing similar general linguistic categories which serve as a basis for the classification of languages of different types.

2. It is essential to distinguish between contrastive analysis and typology which are different parts of the same branch of linguistics.

3. Paradigmatic linguistic relationships are based on the linear character of speech, whereas syntagmatic relationships are the relations of the opposition of linguistic units in their associative bonds.

4. The syntagmatic relationships of a word, unlike the paradigmatic ones, are about the lexical company the word keeps (collocation) and grammatical patterns in which it occurs (colligation).

5. In syntagmatics, the units of a language are regarded as determined by their position.

6. Paradigmatic relations coexist with syntagmatic relations in such a way that some sort of paradigmatic connection is necessary for the realization of any syntagmatic series.

Exercise 4. Insert the words missing in the text from the box below:

syntagmatic	paradigmatic	vertical	differentiation	combinability	
system	antonymy	dichotomy	horizontal	linear	synonymy

The linguistic structure is a highly organized 1) _____ where basically can be distinguished syntagmatic and paradigmatic intralingual relations between words. This 2) _____, which Frei renames as “speech relationships” and “memory relationships”, implies further distinctions. 3) _____ relations are 4) _____ since they are based on the 5) _____ character of speech and are usually observed in utterances, whereas 6) _____ relations are 7) _____ and exist between units of the language system outside the strings where they co-occur.

Hence, the study of syntagmatic connections is an important aspect of the problem of the 8) _____ of linguistic elements, their valence, and the principles regulating their ability to combine in the flow of speech. Whilst paradigmatic relations are functional contrasts – they involve 9) _____. Consequently, the main problems of paradigmatic studies are 10) _____, 11) _____, functional styles.

Exercise 5. Answer the questions below:

1. What is a paradigm?
2. What is the difference between minimal and complex paradigm?
3. Dwell on the dichotomy of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations.
4. Which linguistic relationships are referred to as relations “in absentia” = in the absence, that is cannot be directly observed in utterances?
5. Provide the examples to show the difference between lexical, morphological, word-building, and syntactic paradigms.
6. Make distinction between hyponymy, synonymy, and antonymy.

Exercise 6. Define the type of paradigm in each line: 1) lexical, 2) morphological, 3) syntactic, and 4) word-building. Give your reasons for the choice. State if the line cannot be considered as a paradigm at all.

- a) guidance, counsel, inkling, advise, tip-off, rede;
- b) courage, bravery, gallantry, audacity, fortitude, spunk;
- c) abdicate, abdicates, abdicated, will abdicate, abdicating;
- d) yuppie, yuppify, yuppiedom, yuppiegate, techno yuppie;
- e) tenant, tenants, tenancy, tenantable;
- f) noob, noobs, noob’s, noob, noobs’;
- g) bad, worse, good, the best;
- h) rough, rougher, the roughest;
- i) good, nice, cute;
- ж) читати, читання, читанина, читачка, читальня, читиво;
- к) стіни, стін, стінам, стіни, стінами, стінах;
- л) весна, весняний, весніти, веснувати;
- м) витурити, викишкати, виперти, спровадити;
- н) калина, бульденеж, ягода, кущ.

Exercise 7. Provide paradigms for the following words and contrast them in English and Ukrainian.

a) *word-building paradigm*

black – чорний

summer – літо

pink – рожевий

b) *lexical paradigm*

house – будинок

run – бігти

big – великий

c) *morphological paradigm*

focus – фокус

goose – гусак/гуска

fish – риба

difficult – складний

draw – малювати

far – далеко

1.2 Contrastive Lexicology in the Systemic Structure of Language

Exercise 8. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) Lexicology	a) is concerned with the study of vocabulary and its basic units, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language
2) Vocabulary	b) deals with the vocabulary of a particular language at a given stage of its development
3) General Lexicology	c) provides a theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described
4) Special Lexicology	d) is the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses
5) Contrastive Lexicology	e) is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of the words as the main units of language
6) Descriptive Lexicology	f) has been criticised for its atomistic approach, i.e. for treating every word as an individual and isolated unit
7) Historical Lexicology	g) focuses on the description of the peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language

Exercise 9. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Lexicology is inseparably bound up with Grammar.
2. Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes which make up words.
3. Special Lexicology deals with the special cases of using slangs.
4. Contrastive and Comparative Lexicology provides a practical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages in their historic development can be compared and described.
5. The subject-matter of Contrastive Lexicology is the contrastive analysis of language vocabularies and lexical items in respect of their structural, semantic, and functional features.
6. In syntagmatics, the units of a language are not regarded as equal and interchangeable.
7. It is commonly assumed that all languages have vocabulary systems, in which words differ in sound-form but refer to reality in the same way.

Exercise 10. Check if you can find the right word to insert.

Syntagmatics	vocabulary	paradigm	stylistics	approaches
linguistics	word	synchronic	entity	

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics, the science of language. The literal meaning of the term Lexicology is ‘the science of the 1)_____’. General Lexicology is part of General 2)_____; it is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language. There is also a close relationship between Lexicology and to be more exact, Linguo-3)_____.

There are two principal 4)_____ in linguistic science to the study of language material: the 5)_____ and the diachronic.

The word is a structural and semantic 6)_____ within the language system. These entities together form a 7)_____.

The system showing a word in all its word forms is called its 8)_____. According to Vinogradov’s definition, 9)_____ is one of two aspects of the study of language, as contrasted to paradigmatics.

Exercise 11. Make the schemes representing paradigmatic relations and syntagmatic links between the words in the sentences as it is shown below. In the table, paradigmatic relationships are conventionally indicated by vertical presentation and syntagmatic – by horizontal one.

a) *My spouse got a fright seeing that cruel plunderer.*

b) *Ми поласували смачним гарячим сніданком.*

Example:

	Syntagmatic (sequence)					
Paradigmatic (substitution)	<i>The</i>	<i>cousin</i>	<i>ate</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>delicious</i>	<i>lunch</i>
	My	relative	devoured		tasty	luncheon
		kinsman	wolfed down		yummy	meal

Exercise 12. What determines the meaning of the following verbs:

a) morphological characteristics or b) syntactic position? Find the corresponding Ukrainian / English equivalents for the sentences.

<p>a) – If the residents’ association is unable to resolve the matter and make him <i>pay</i> his gas and electricity bills, we will have to refer this matter to our solicitors.</p> <p>– It <i>pays</i> to be courteous.</p> <p>– The incumbent president is expected to <i>pay</i> an official visit to Cannes.</p> <p>– I would like to <i>pay</i> your attention to the fact that she is married by banns.</p> <p>– He complained that his ancestors never <i>pay</i> him any compliments.</p>	<p>а) – Довгий час їм не вдавалося <i>дійти</i> згоди, але врешті-решт досягли консенсусу.</p> <p>– Після важкого дня не залишалось навіть сил <i>дійти</i> додому.</p> <p>– Можна <i>дійти</i> висновку, що запропоновані підходи є дієвими.</p>
<p>b) – She’s put on so much weight that it’s hardly possible to <i>do up</i> her best coat any more.</p> <p>– I always <i>do</i> the presents <i>up</i> beautifully in polka dot paper.</p>	<p>б) – Звідси <i>витикає</i> висновок – синиця в руках краще за солов’я в лісі.</p> <p>– З праски <i>витикає</i> вода, і на одязі залишаються плями.</p>
<p>c) – He <i>answered</i> me in a deadpan voice.</p>	<p>в) – Степан <i>іде</i> лісом і озирається.</p>

<p>– My acquaintances helped us out with a £500 loan and now it's high time we <i>answered</i> the debts.</p> <p>– I did knock, but no one <i>answered</i> the door.</p> <p>– Being a subordinate officer, I was left no choice and <i>answered</i> his orders.</p>	<p>– Крістін <i>іде</i> заміж за англійського принца Генрі.</p> <p>– Шахіст Карпов <i>іде</i> конем.</p> <p>– Пропрацювавши у лікарні сорок років, він <i>іде</i> на пенсію з почеснями.</p>
<p>d) – Come and <i>meet</i> my buddy Tim.</p> <p>– He made up his mind to <i>meet</i> this challenge.</p> <p>– Employees who fail to <i>meet</i> the requirements will get a sack.</p>	<p>г) – Із зусиллям <i>підняв</i> гирю до плеча, потім м'яко опустив, згинаючи ноги і тулуб.</p> <p>– Він першим <i>підняв</i> питання підвищення заробітної платні.</p> <p>– Сам собі <i>підняв</i> настрій і сам зіпсував.</p>

Exercise 13. Correlate the syntagmatic combinatorial relations of a word in English with the same row in Ukrainian as in the example.

<i>go</i>	<i>іти</i>
<i>go home</i> – йти додому	<i>йде жінка</i> – <i>The woman goes/walks</i>
<i>go crazy</i> – з'їхати з глузду	<i>йде дощ</i> – <i>The rain falls</i>
<i>go bung</i> – збанкрутувати	<i>йде поїзд</i> – <i>The train runs</i>
<i>go pale</i> – збліднути	<i>йде дим</i> – <i>It smokes</i>
<i>go back</i> – повертатися	<i>йде весна</i> – <i>The spring approaches</i>
get	отримувати
take	брати
break	ламати
feel	відчувати

Exercise 14. Pick out synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms to the italicized words from the sentences below and state whether the relationships between these words are a) paradigmatic or b) syntagmatic.

a) pick out synonyms:

– “... The Frontshires *staggered* rather than walked down the bumpy trench... About fifty men, the flotsam of the wrecked battalion, stumbled past them.... They shambled heavily along, not keeping step or attempting to, bent wearily for-ward under the weight of their equipment... how

wearisome it could be to drag tired legs and carry burdens...”
(R. Aldington).

– “... а злагідніле сонце проганяло із шибок пишну, узірчасту *паморозь*, що під вечір знову розмальовувала шибки. ... На опалих листях яблунь сивів іній. Небо над садом було низьке, холодне і теж сиве, наче в паморозі. ... сіється осіння мряка, зі стріхи скрапує вода, сутінки накочуються з поля ... З неба уже не мрячить, а сіється крижана крупа, вона шелестить об сухе яблуневе листя ...”
(В. Дрозд).

b) pick out antonyms:

– I cannot proceed without some investigation into what has been asserted, and an evidence of its *truth* and falsehood (Ch. Brontë).

– І неталан наш і талан,

Як кажуть люде, все од Бога (Т. Шевченко).

c) pick out homonyms:

– Holding her, the woman looked deeply into Majah's eyes, then squinting she began to trace her fingers across her *palm*, uttering a strange tongue (Dean). On their left a few feathery coconut palms stretched their necks above the clumped vegetation (E. Queen).

– Проводжає сина *мати* захищати рідний край (В. Сосюра). Хоч би малесеньку хатину Він [Т. Шевченко] мріяв мати над Дніпром (М. Рильський)

1.3 Typological Isomorphism and Allomorphy of the English and Ukrainian Lexicon

Exercise 15. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

allomorphy, isomorphism, notionals, functionals, suffix, prefix, agglutination (pre-positive / post-positive).

Exercise 16. Insert the words (and phrases) missing in the text from the box below:

typological	morphological	inflectional	grammatical
morpheme	root	suppletivity	lexical level
			distinctions

The main 1) _____ constants that make the object of contrasting at the 2) _____ level of English and Ukrainian are three. These constants are morphemes, parts of speech, and morphological categories of the parts of speech.

The principal typological constant of the morphological level is the 3) _____. The words *arm, boy, red*, and similarly in Ukrainian *ніс, лоб, чуб*, represent 4) _____-morphemes. While *oxen, watches* (in Ukrainian *читатиму, важливий*) show the existence of 5) _____ morphemes.

As a means of 6) _____ expression 7) _____ is observed in words, word-forms and morphemes of all Indo-European languages. At the 8) _____ it helps express, both in English and Ukrainian, sex 9) _____, e.g., *man – woman, чоловік – жінка*. Of suppletive nature are most of nouns denoting kinship. Cf. *father – mother, батько – мати*.

Exercise 17. Contrast the morphological structure of the following words / word-forms and figure out the factors facilitating (or otherwise) the identification of their parts of speech:

can, good, goody, better, book, booklet, booking, dark, darkness, conduct, back, dismiss, after, but, around, near, rain, thirty, set, unexpectedly, front, well, less, education, acting, ecology, brotherhood, litter, man, manned, close, business, force, butter;

брати, гірше, вродлива / вродливий, тітчин, дідусів, розвеселити, добре, хоробрість, узлісся, учитися, найдовший, мені, мало, замало, бідно, бідний, бідняк, поперек, берегти, береги, гультіпака, коло, сходи, перед, перше, духотнява.

Exercise 18. In the words given below, find typological isomorphic and allomorphic features of the morphological level: a) suffixes, b) prefixes, and c) agglutinators.

outspread – вихід, motionless – недостовірність, sleep – спатуні, friendship – холостяк, sideways – швидко, skyscraper – однобічність, tight-fisted – шафа-купе, Xmas – Неїжмак, thirteen – двадцять вісім, swoop – ніс.

Exercise 19. Using the model below, group the counter-opposed word-combinations and find the typological isomorphic or allomorphic features of parts of speech in the contrasted languages. Explain your choice.

Model: *spouse's name* → орлиний клюв

Explanation: Allomorphic feature: possessive adjectives in Ukrainian are formed from common and proper nouns denoting living beings by

adding to their roots / stems the suffixes *-іє / -іє, -ин / -ін, -ов-а, -ов-е, -ев-а, -ач / -яч*. Their corresponding forms in English are genitive case forms of nouns: 's.

spouse's name Shakesperian glory less flamboyant to powder oneself worse conditions he will come wandering around willy-nilly the house is being built more slowly	ледве-ледве кращі перспективи орлиний клюв голитися частина будівлі зараз реконструюється читатиму вірші здолавши перешкоди мерщій додому пристаркуватий Малишківські читання
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Exercise 20. Suggest English isomorphism or allomorphism for the Ukrainian italicized words (and vice versa) in the following sentences.

1. «Хвалити бога, й *озимина*, і *ярина* цього року в мене добра, багато краща, ніж торік, та тут мені, Зінько, лихо трапилось.» (І. Нечуй-Левицький).
2. Вона, що їй *спатоньки* любо, *їстоньки* й *питоньки* мило! (М. Вовчок).
3. Ні з ким розмовляти невірлиці молодій, і не промовлять нічого *устоньки* рожеві, та й без мови вичитуються на дівочому *личеньку* усі дівочі *мислоньки* і *думоньки*, уся туга й смуток, й сподіванка, й непевна надія, і любий жаль... (М. Вовчок).
4. Твоя взяла. Ці двоє були зовсім не в змозі *щось зробити*.
5. Ходив по широких кімнатах, дивився на красиві *столики* з різними *витребеньками*, з розкиданим сріблом на них, і мені було болячеболяче... (В. Сосюра).
6. They saw the shore *afar* off, but the storm had carried their boat away and they could not land (J. Bedier).
7. She was shivering when I touched her. Her *ice-cold* hands ...
8. Sandra did her best and was there for Tim, protecting him *in a motherly way*.
9. With a bear you can punch it on the nose or whatever, but with this – this heart attack, this silent scary thing that came at him *from nowhere*, this he cannot punch on the nose (S. Morgan).
10. Her little resolute face under its copper crown was suspiciously eager and *aglow* (J. Galsworthy).

Seminar 2

Semasiology. Problems of Word-Meaning

2.1 Word as the Basic Linguistic Unit of the English and Ukrainian Lexicon.

2.2 Contrastive Typology of the Semantic Structures of English and Ukrainian Words.

2.3 Motivation as a Language Universal.

2.1 Word as the Basic Linguistic Unit of the English and Ukrainian Lexicon

Exercise 1. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

semasiology, onomasiology, sign, referent, reference (referential content), concept, word, semiotic / basic semantic triangle, word-meaning, componential analysis.

Exercise 2. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) word	a) is derived from reality and depends on how the conceptual space is covered by a lexical item
2) semantics	b) the element of objective reality as reflected in our minds and viewed as the content regularly correlated with a certain expression
3) semasiology	c) the thought of the object that represents the most typical and essential features of the object
4) sign	d) the sounding form of the word
5) referent	e) the branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents
6) concept	f) the branch of linguistics which specializes in the study of meaning
7) reference (referential content)	g) the smallest unit of a language, which can function alone, and is characterized by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninteruptability and semantic integrity

Exercise 3. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

7. A word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds characterized by semantic integrity.

8. The word possesses both formal and semantic unity.

9. Meaning can be defined as a component of the word through which a referent is communicated, in this way giving the word the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions, and abstract notions.

10. The referent is the object of thought correlated with a certain linguistic expression.

11. By the concept we understand the essential properties of the object which are reflected in human mind.

12. Semiotic triangle was originally suggested by the English mathematician and philosopher G. Frege and further modified by German scholars C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards.

13. Such characteristic of the word as “positional mobility” can be illustrated in the following sentence: *the – girl – s – walk – ed – slow – ly*, where *the – girl – s* is positionally mobile.

Exercise 4. Insert the words missing in the text below:

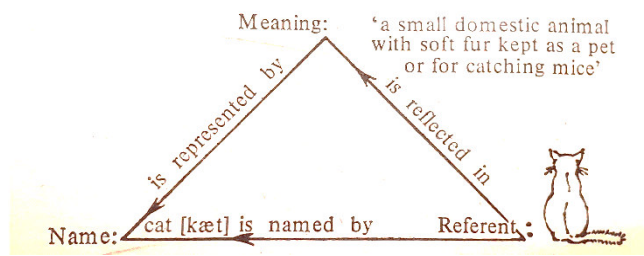
sign	referent	concept	semantic triangle	directly	mental
meaning	elements	semiosis	sound-form	metaphor	facets

A word is a linguistic 1) _____, that is why a discussion of “word 2) _____” focuses on the relationship between the two 3) _____ of the sign, the acoustic image, on the one hand, and the concept, the thing meant, on the other, which is traditionally represented by the 4) _____. A good example of how it works is offered in the book by Daniel Chandler.

The three 5) _____ that make up a sign function like a label on an opaque box that contains an object. At first the mere fact that there is a box with a label on it suggests that it contains something, and then, when we read the label, we discover what that something is. The process of 6) _____, or decoding the sign, is as follows. The first thing that is noticed (the representant – that is the symbol or 7) _____) is the box and the label; this prompts the realization that something is inside the box

(the object – that is the 8) _____). This realization, as well as the knowledge of what the box contains, is provided by the interpretant (the 9) _____, in other words). “Reading the label” is actually a 10) _____ for the process of decoding the sign. The important point to be aware of here is that the object of a sign is always hidden. We cannot actually open the box and inspect it directly. The reason for this is simple: if the object could be known 11) _____, there would be no need of a sign to represent it. We only know about the object from noticing the label and the box and then “reading the label” and forming a 12) _____ picture of the object in our mind.

Exercise 5. Using the semantic triangle, as in the example below (by I. Arnold), explain the meaning of the following words.



cloud, pheasant, blue, tiredness; гіроскутер, квітка, доброта.

Exercise 6. Determine the meanings of the English and Ukrainian words in italics in the following sentences. Say what concept is realized in these lexical meanings in contrasted languages.

1. Get some *sleep*. *Sleep* disruption. Beauty *sleep*. Rub the *sleep* from your eyes. Put family pet to *sleep*. A recurring *dream*. A travel of your *dream*.

3. A *house* in the country. He gets up at six and disturbs the whole *house*. White *house*. Hen *house*. The show has been playing to full *houses*. To keep *house*. On the *house*. Set up *house*.

5. A *big* grin on a face. A *big* decision. Jason Statham is a

2. Тривожний *сон*. Сниться *сон*. Це був просто *сон*. Золотий *сон*. За кілька годин до *сну* ви вимикаєте всі джерела штучного світла.

4. Повен *дім* людей. Господар *дому*. На розі двоповерхового *дому*. Весь *дім* знає новину. Царський *дім*. Божий *дім*. Жовтий *дім*.

6. Світ *великий*. *Великий* пан. *Велика* сім'я. *Великі* вікна.

big star. The *big* boys. *Big* brother. A *big* eater. A *big* problem. Get too *big* for your boots.

A *large* bowl. *Large* sums of money. As *large* as life.

7. Winter *coat*. Put your *coat* on. Morning *coat*. A dog with a glossy *coat*. A *coat* of varnish.

Великий піст. *Великий* шлях. *Мале й велике*. Стати у *великій* пригоді. Підняти *великий* крик. *Великі* справи. *Великі* держави. *Велике* цабе. Він був колись *великий* співака.

8. Батько скидає *піджак*, сорочку. З етажерки звисало новеньке *пальто*.

2.2 Contrastive Typology of the Semantic Structures of English and Ukrainian Words

Exercise 7. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

semantic structure, lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, lexico-grammatical meaning, denotation, connotation.

Exercise 8. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) connotation	a) expresses the degree of intensity
2) emotive connotation	b) is a component of connotation when the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style are conveyed
3) evaluative connotation	c) a part of the connotative component of meaning evoking or directly expressing emotion
4) intensifying / expressive connotation	d) demonstrates approval or disapproval of the object spoken
5) stylistic connotation	e) is a commonly understood cultural or emotional association that a word or a phrase carries, in addition to its explicit meaning
6) meaning	f) exists by virtue of what the word refers to, in other words, the conceptual content of a word
7) denotation	g) a certain reflection in our mind of objects,

phenomena or relations that makes the part of the linguistic sign

Exercise 9. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Sense is the relation between language and the world, and reference is the relationship between words of similar meaning.

2. Lexical meaning is not homogenous and may be analyzed as including denotative and connotative components.

3. E. Sapir points out a very important characteristic of the word, its indivisibility.

4. Both the lexical and the grammatical meanings make up the word-meaning as neither can exist without the other.

5. According to F. de Saussure, who is the proponent of functional approach to the problem of meaning, the meaning of a word may be studied only through its relation to other words.

6. Referential approach distinguishes between the three components connected with meaning: the sounding form, referent, and sense.

7. On the syntagmatic level, the semantic structure of the word is analyzed in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system.

Exercise 10. Insert the words missing in the text below:

significative	conceptual	implicational	functions	virtue
denotative	pragmatic	connotation	context	

The denotative component of lexical meaning expresses the 1) _____ content of a word. Fulfilling the 2) _____ and the communicative 3) _____ of the word, it is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functional language. It is the 4) _____ meaning that makes communication possible. For example, when we say *стіл, лампiон, книга, диван*, etc., we don't imagine its design, creator, year and so on; we imagine only what they denote: *стіл* – 'people can sit in front of it'.

However, we are speaking about 5) _____ when dealing with evaluation, that is the speaker's feelings and the effect of the word upon listeners. If the denotative meaning exists by 6) _____ of what the word refers to, connotative is the 7) _____ communicative value the

word receives by virtue of where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what 8) _____ it is or may be used.

There is one more type of meaning that should be considered. If a word possesses some implied information associated with the word, then it is the 9) _____ meaning.

Exercise 11. Providing linguistic evidence to your answer, comment on the following words as for their a) denotative and b) connotative meaning. State if the word possesses the c) implicational meaning.

wolf, kill, slay, mummy, adore, viper, beseech, like, fresh, brand-new, magic, terrific, walk;

вістряга, тигриця, славетний, квочка, цуцик, шпенделювати, обожнювати, будинок, краса.

Exercise 12. Determine the type of connotation the words convey: a) emotive, b) evaluative, c) expressive, and d) stylistic.

- Catholics – papists,
- cold weather – beastly weather,
- house – residence – hut,
- splendid – gorgeous – magnificent,
- sleep – slumber – shut-eye – doze – snooze – nap – forty winks,
- smell – odour – pong – scent – aroma – stink – fragrance – reek;
- донька, доня, донечка, доця,
- розуміти – усвідомлювати – кумекати,
- збори – збіговисько,
- нехлюй – недбайло – недбаха,
- гарний – красивий – вродливий – пречудовий – чарівний – прегарний – казковий – мальований – розчудесний – преславний – прехороший – файний.

Exercise 13. Guess the words by their definitions. The first letter and the number of letters of each word are indicated to help you.

B (5) Synonym to ‘stomach’ with the connotative emotional meaning

N (3) Synonym to ‘horse’ with the connotative stylistic meaning

M (6) Synonym to ‘follower’ with the connotative evaluative meaning

S (6) Synonym to ‘great’ with the connotative expressive meaning

- Б (7) Synonym to 'просити' with the connotative emotional meaning
 Ч (11) Synonym to 'іти' with the connotative stylistic meaning
 Д (6) Synonym to 'дівчина' with the connotative evaluative meaning
 Х (9) Synonym to 'холод' with the connotative expressive meaning

2.3 Motivation as a Language Universal

Exercise 14. Give the definition to the linguistic terms given below.
 motivation, phonetic motivation, morphological motivation, semantic motivation, (transparent) etymological motivation = etymological transparency.

Exercise 15. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) motivation	a) is the association between particular sound sequences and particular meanings in speech
2) sound symbolism (phonetic motivation)	b) is the study of the origins of words, and how their form and meaning have changed over time
3) etymology	c) is the linguistic relevancy of words as to the interrelation between their outer aspect and meaning
4) non-motivated word	d) is the case when the connection between the meaning of the word and its form is conventional
5) morphological motivation	e) based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning of the same word within the same synchronous system
6) semantic motivation	f) a direct connection between the lexical meaning of the component morphemes, the pattern of their arrangement and the meaning of the word

Exercise 16. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. The term "motivation" is used to denote the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word and its meaning.

2. There are four main types of motivation.

3. The phonetic type of motivation is a direct connection between the sound form of a word and its signification.

4. The morphological type of motivation is displayed by the figurative / connotative meaning of words or phrases, representing the transferred meanings of their denotata.

5. Semantic motivation of lexical units is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning of the same word within the same synchronous system.

6. In their direct meaning, the words *mouth* and *ermine* are both motivated.

7. The words denoting in the contrasted languages popular names of flowers, trees, birds, and animals have a transparent etymological motivation.

8. Ukrainian names of months are a brilliant example of etymological semantic motivation.

9. Compound words are either morphologically or semantically motivated in the contrasted languages.

10. Generally, a great many words in English and Ukrainian have no clear motivation, i.e. their etymology remains obscure, far from explicable at present.

11. Words that seem non-motivated at present were non-motivated in the past either.

Exercise 17. Insert the words missing in the text:

motivation phonetic morphological imitation morphemes semantic connection relationship structural obscure polymorphic connotative

The term “motivation” is used in linguistics to denote the 1) _____ existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and 2) _____ pattern of the word, on the one hand, and its meaning, on the other. Motivation may be determinable, or 3) _____. It is more or less clear in 4) _____ words, where meanings are based on the meanings of their morphemes.

5) _____ motivation is a direct connection between the sounding form of a word and its meaning. It can be of two types: sound 6) _____ and sound symbolism.

7) _____ motivation is the relationship between
8) _____ and the meaning of the word. It is characteristic of numerous notional words, in which it is clearly indicated by the affixal morphemes.

9) _____ motivation of lexical units is displayed by the
10) _____ meaning of words or phrases, representing the transferred meanings of their denotata.

Occasionally, in an attempt to find 11) _____ for a borrowed word, the speakers change its form so as to give it a 12) _____ with some well-known word. These cases of mistaken motivation received the name of “folk etymology”. This phenomenon is not very frequent.

Exercise 18. Classify the following words and word-combinations according to the types of their motivation: a) phonetic, b) morphological, and c) semantic. Find their equivalents in the contrasted languages and then point to the existence or non-existence of isomorphism.

twitter, usherette, spendthrift, mouth of a furnace, judicial ermine, swoosh, prattle, bleat, ocean of eloquence, bottleneck, neigh, gabble, chirrup, to make both ends meet, blue (with cold), paper war, modernise, body of cavalry, legatee, ex-spouse, key to success, smoker, purplish, prefabricated, overrate, self-sufficient, drawbridge, foot of a cliff, tongues of flames, triple-decker (sandwich), harrumphing;

тьох-тьох, тарахкотіти, життєва стежина, белькотіти, апробація, гелготати, тпру, легка рука, дзвеніти, ходяча енциклопедія, цмокати, сьорбати, мистецтвознавець, пастися у холодильника, оглядач, зівака, політичний, передісторія, прибіднятися, доброзичливий, копати під когось, дрібнолистий, всюдихід, серпень, квітневий, вільнодумець, купатися в грошах, липень, копирсатися в минулому.

Exercise 19. Consulting an etymological dictionary, analyze the structure and origin of the following words. Comment on the phenomenon of folk / false etymology.

blackboard, nightmare, may-day, greenhouse, blackbird, tallboy, yellowcup, niggardly, bridegroom, sandblind, wormwood, cheeseburger, hamburger, sparrowgrass, cockroach, cesspool, bonfire, chaise lounge, mushroom, reindeer, rosemary, starboard;

шумівка, безмін, барвінок, кульбаба, толстовка, видра, верстак, кацап, подушка, малиновий дзвін, солянка.

Exercise 20. Find isomorphic and allomorphic features underlying motivation in Ukrainian and English.

кульбаба – dandelion
перекотиполе – tumbleweed
пролісок – snowdrop
веселка – rainbow
журавель – crane
швець – shoemaker
вікно – window
окунь – bass
зошит – notebook

сон – dream (сон, мрія)
хвилеріз – breakwater
подарунок – gift
виноград – grapes
будильник – alarm clock
борода – beard
вітальня – living room
акула – shark
носовичок – tissue

Exercise 21. State whether the words in italics are motivated or not. Deduce their meanings and comment on their formation.

1. I stopped at the tombola, marveled at the *woegeousness* of the prizes – a small bottle of Diet Sprite, a box of Panadol, a tin of kidney beans – and bought a row of tickets (M. Keyes). 2. *Photoreconnaissance* interpretation had always been a narrow field for experts only (T. Clancy). 3. Ms. Regina has 3.7 million followers for his *vlog*. 4. He reached the bottom of the basket and pulled out two scratched and faded *datahedra* (McCafrey). 5. Trix <...> had the glittery, luscious-sticky look of a devotee of the more-is-more school of *slapplication*. Her eyebrows were plucked almost into non-existence, her lipliner was so thick and dark she looked as if she had a moustache ... (M. Keyes).

1. Ну, наприклад, – це було півроку тому – побачив під деревом *алконавта*, а до того ж, було зрозуміло, що він – бомж (І. Роздобудько). 2. В колекції осінь–зима 2018 можна буде побачити *кутюрні* колекції, весільні речі, взуття та аксесуари. 3. Чому «*МіхоМайдан*» не вивів на вулиці мільйони українців? (Deutsche Welle). 4. *Криптовалюта* біткойн продовжує *хайпити* і дорожчати (Finance.ua). 5. Рюкзак, *накладанець* – і в дорогу. 6. Я чую дивне *дзижчання*, напевно неподалік рій бджіл.

Seminar 3

Contrastive Typology of Semantic Changes of English and Ukrainian Words

3.1 Nature of Semantic Change of English and Ukrainian Words.

3.2 Results of Semantic Change of English and Ukrainian Words.

3.1 Nature of Semantic Change of English and Ukrainian Words

Exercise 1. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

semantic change, development of meaning, denotative and connotative components of word meaning, transference, metaphor, metonymy.

Exercise 2. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) metaphor	a) the transfer of name based on the association of contiguity
2) antonomasia	b) the transfer of name when names of animals are metaphorically used to people to denote human qualities; nicknaming from animals
3) zoosemy	c) the transfer of name based on the association of similarity
4) simile	d) a type of metonymy comprising the process when the name of the part is applied to the whole or vice versa
5) metonymy	e) the figure using a pleasant or innocuous term so that a formerly inoffensive word receives a disagreeable meaning
6) synecdoche	f) the semantic change in the word which rises it from humble beginning to a position of greater importance
7) hyperbole	g) the figure expressing the affirmative by the negative of its contrary
8) litotes	h) the transfer of name based on an indirect comparison when two objects are linked by the

	words “like” and “as”, in contrast to the metaphor as an implied comparison
9) euphemism	i) the semantic change in a word whereby, for one reason or another, the word falls into disrepute
10) elevation	j) the transfer of name based on an exaggerated statement which conveys an intensely emotional attitude of the speaker
11) degradation	k) a subgroup of metaphors where the transition of proper names into common ones takes place

Exercise 3. Read the following statements. Are they true (T) or false (F)? Briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Semantic change has traditionally been looked at from a variety of angles but the classifications are not mutually exclusive.

2. The study of diachronic changes in meaning has never been abandoned entirely.

3. Studying semantic change presupposes a more general understanding of semantics.

4. Elevation and degradation of meaning occur as a result of semantic change in the denotative components of word meaning.

5. Among the linguistic factors of semantic changes, which are of paradigmatic and syntagmatic character, are differentiation between synonyms, ellipsis, fixed context, and, what is more important, changes in social, political, and cultural history of the people.

6. The transfer based upon the analogy between duration of time and space is metaphoric.

Exercise 4. Insert the words missing in the text below:

similarity	metonymy	semantic change	generalization
metaphors	transference	anthropomorphic	motivation
fossilized	specialization	transfer	

A necessary condition of any 1) _____, no matter what its cause, is some connection between the old meaning and the new one. Contiguity of meaning, or 2) _____, may be described as a semantic process of associating two things one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. Thus, it is the 3) _____ of name based on

substituting the part for the whole. Whilst 4) _____, as H. Paul points out, may be based on different types of 5) _____, for instance, the resemblance to shape: *the head of a cabbage*. Such metaphors denoting parts of the body are among the most frequent and called 6) _____.

Metaphors present a method of description which likens one thing to another by referring to it as if it were some other one. In actual usage, the 7) _____ of the word meaning may be obscured or completely lost. The latter leads to the development of the so-called 8) _____, or dead metaphors by origin.

Sometimes, the process of 9) _____ may result in a considerable change in the range of a meaning. 10) _____ of meaning presupposes extension of the word range, whereas in the process of 11) _____ a word of wide meaning acquires a narrower sense.

Exercise 5. State on what signs of resemblance the following cases of metaphor are based: a) similarity of function, b) similarity of position, c) similarity of transparency, etc.

naked truth, foxtrot, broadcast (originally ‘to cast seeds out’), mouse (‘rodent’ to ‘computer device’), bookworm, tongues of flame, a parliament of owls, a flash of wit, needle’s eye, green finger, foot of a mountain, cold comfort, on wings of joy, the wings of the plane, the heart of Europe, idle money, surf the net;

втома крадеться, низка думок, ніс чайника, холодний погляд, голова правління, білі ночі, кадрові перетасування, пекучий мороз, успіхи на особистому фронті, ручка дверей, дно життя, грудка суму, троянди днів (В. Сосюра), полетів у магазин.

Exercise 6. Match the metaphors in the contrasted languages and comment on isomorphic and allomorphic features underlying metaphoric transference.

Example: *Українець передає сприйняття морозу не смаковою, а тактильною метафорою.*

bitter frost	гірка правда
bitter truth	з м’яким характером
sweet-tempered	пекучий мороз
white washing	“Ні” – відрізала вона
to cut prices	відмивання грошей

Exercise 7. Find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the following examples of zoosemy. Make up your own sentences to illustrate it.

<i>cat</i> – a woman given to spiteful or malicious gossip	<i>кішечка, киця</i> – пестливе звертання до жінки, іноді зневажливе
<i>crocodile</i> – a person who makes a hypocritical show of sorrow	<i>крокодил</i> – страховисько
<i>cuckoo</i> – a crazy, silly, or foolish person; a simpleton	<i>зозуля</i> – жінка, що відмовляється від дитини
<i>sheep</i> – a meek, unimaginative, or easily led person	<i>вівця</i> – покірна, ляклива людина
<i>ram</i> – no metaphorical meaning	<i>баран</i> – нерозумна слабодуха людина

Exercise 8. Choose the correct italic word (sometimes several options are correct) and state whether in the following examples a) metaphor or b) simile is used.

I was as hungry as a <i>bear / hunter / fox / pig</i> that afternoon, and I told my mother that I could eat a horse.	Він був голодний, як <i>кіт / собака / кінь / свиня</i> і здавалось, що вола б з'їв.
You're next in line at a counter where service is as slow as a <i>clock / bear / snail / tortoise / molasses</i> .	Хоч би швидкості були, я б зманеврував, а то йдеш, як <i>ведмідь / равлик / черепаха</i> (Ю. Янов).
“She was a <i>rose / diamond</i> in the hands of those who had no intention of keeping her” (R. Kaur).	А насправді вона була найвродливішим створінням, яке тільки можна уявити, ніжною й тендітною, як пелюстка <i>троянди / квітки</i> (Г. Андерсен).
The boxer was fighting like a <i>lion / tiger / gorilla / wolf / snake</i> and overpowered his opponent.	Нас семеро було в батька Микити, і бився він з нами як <i>горлиця / як риба об лід / луною</i> (В. Кучер).

Exercise 9. Point out the cases of antonomasia in the sentences below and classify them according to their a) metaphoric or b) metonymic nature.

1. I have to be careful about what I tell Marian because she's such a Nosy Parker that she'll bombard you with questions at the slightest provocation. 2. At the hotel bar she was immediately hit on by the local Don Juan (Л. Шитова). 3. Nowadays, Madeira is noted for its unique winemaking process which involves heating the wine. 4. She walked in on the arm of some blond Adonis, feeling totally proud of it. 5. You'd better get an electrician to fix this - you don't want any Tom, Dick, or Harry messing around with your wiring (Cambridge Dict.). 6. It's Tommy this, an' Tommy that, an' "Tommy, go away"; But it's "Thank you, Mister Atkins", when the band begins to play (R. Kipling). 7. One of the legal companies most feared by Fleet Street began proceedings against the newspaper (Cambridge Dict.).

1. Брехуха! Язиката Хвеська! Ні слова не кажи. Не хочу навіть чути! 2. Із роками ти перетворюєшся на все більшого Плюшкіна. 3. Знаючи історію, можна навчитися читати Тичину між рядками і зрозуміти, які думки він вкладав у той чи інший вірш (Н. Зінченко). 4. А ти Іване все роби, а вони наживатись тільки будуть. 5. Київ прокидається після потужних снігопадів. 6. Ех, Манілов, під лежачий камінь вода не тече. Ти б хоч би раз спробував, бодай щось і вийшло. 7. Карамелізовані яблука, головно макінтош чи антонівка, найкраще смакують з шоколадом.

Exercise 10. Say if the sentences below are a) metaphors or b) metonymy. Define their types based either on similarity or different associations.

1. *The stars and stripes* dangled languidly from a flagstaff (S. Maugham). 2. There was not a *soul* in the street. 3. He was *a man of cloth*. 4. He took to the *bottle* after his wife's death. 5. The *pound* has risen in strength today against the *dollar*. 6. She has a perfect *ear* for music. 7. They want to control every aspect of our lives, from the *cradle* to the *grave*. 8. The kettle has boiled over. 9. *Mrs Grundy* frowns on *shirt skirts*.

1. Наш панич вже має собі панну: там така *кучерява*, а *ходить уся в золоті* (Нечуй-Левицький). 2. Випив *склянку соку*, затамував спрагу і далі працювати. 3. *Слухали Г. Ф. Генделя* у Віденській опері і серце завмирало. 4. Сам народний *бас*, що сидів попереду, теж *вибіг* на сцену, трохи поспівав (Ю. Яновський). 5. Це *заплямує* йому

репутацію. 6. Аудиторія мовчала. Віолета ладна була заприсягтися, що чує гурчання глядацьких животів у першому ряді (О. Галетка). 7. Ревізія виявила деякі недоліки в роботі менеджера. 8. Накивати п'ятами звичайно легше, аніж “повернутися обличчям” до труднощів.

Exercise 11. Comment on the following cases of synecdoche. State whether a) the part stands for the whole, b) the individual – for the class, c) the name of the material – for the thing made, etc.

1. Give us our daily bread and we will go away. 2. He has many mouths to feed. 3. Though wearing a mink was the apogee of elegance at that time, she still thought it was over the top. 4. She was sitting there tickling the ivories and crooning softly to him. 5. I'm not a scientist. Nor am I a doctor. But drinking the whole keg might not do you any good. 6. He is only 18 months old, but already knows ABC properly. 7. The cat stalks the gazelle. Cheetah is agile. 8. She gave me her last penny. 9. He lived under my roof.

1. Він скрізь руку має, а нам що з цього? 2. І по Австріях, і по Іспаніях роз'їжджає... 3. Гринджолами мовчазно кожух проїхав (М. Драй-Хмара). 4. Ноги моєї тут більше не буде. 5. Карась добре ловиться на шматочки черв'яка і мотиля. 6. Я б не лишила тебе в самотині, Країно моя! (Л. Українка). 7. Сини Міцкевича, Словацького, Шопена, сини Коперніка (М. Рильський). 8. Однієї ночі з пасовища пригнали сто голів худоби до загороди біля будинку, щоб завтра відправити їх на схід (О. Генрі). 9. Поки синтетичний голос вичитував загальні відомості Петро вмився крижаною водою, неквапливо заварив каву і підійшов з паруючою філіжанкою до вікна (В. Усатенко).

Exercise 12. Point out the cases of a) hyperbole and b) litotes in the following sentences.

1. I have heaps of time and bored to death. 2. The long awaited H&M store finally opened its doors in Kyiv. The whole city was there. 3. You will find millions of reasons not to go there. 4. I fear my father's unwise investments have made us paupers. Don't let my clothes fool you. I kept this suit only to impress people. The rest have been sold... (C. Miller).

5. Ruth was thunderstruck when he presented her with an engagement ring (Cambridge Dict.). 6. The room was chock-full of people.

1. І дав Бог Соломонові дуже багато мудрості та розуму, а широкість серця як пісок, що на березі моря (І. Огієнко). 2. Тепер вже ділу не зарадиш. Можеш не лити крокодилячі сльози. 3. А Дюймовочка раділа, що жаба не може її наздогнати, навколо так гарно! Сонце світило на воді. Вода сяяла на сонці, як розтоплене золото (Г. К. Андерсен). 4. Еге, вже сонечко височенько підбилося, а в мене ще й ріски в роті не було... (М. Кропивницький).

3.2 Results of Semantic Change of English and Ukrainian Words

Exercise 13. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

restriction, extension, amelioration, pejoration, ellipsis, differentiation of synonyms, fixed context, linguistic analogy.

Exercise 14. Determine the type of the semantic change in the denotative components of the following words: a) restriction, b) extension.

skyline	<i>the original meaning:</i> any horizon → <i>now:</i> a horizon decorated by skyscrapers (especially in the USA)
voyage	travel, journey → a journey by sea
hound	a dog → a dog used for hunting and racing
girl	child, young person of either sex but most frequently of females → a female young child or young woman, especially one still at school; a daughter
vandal	from the Vandals, the Germanic tribe that sacked Rome in 455 → any person who intentionally damages or destroys property, what is beautiful or venerable
barn	barley house, covered building for the storage of farm produce → a large building on a farm in which animals or hay and grain are kept
печиво	усе спечене з борошна → кондитерські вироби з борошна
гарант	той, хто гарантує що-небудь → держава, організація чи особа, які гарантують що-небудь; (розм.) президент

	країни, який гарантує дотримання конституції
амплуа	спеціалізація актора на виконання ролей, схожих за своїм типом і об'єднаних умовним найменуванням → рід занять, характер обов'язків, які виконує людина, специфічність виконуваної роботи
дрейф	відхилення судна від курсу, його мимовільне переміщення при спущених вітрилах або непрацюючому двигуні під впливом вітру, течії → мимовільний рух, переміщення під впливом вітру, течії
офсайд	вигідна позиція гравця, але зайнята ним із порушенням правил гри; поза грою (початково в англійському футболі) → правило в деяких командних видах спорту (футбол, хокей, регбі, водне поло), що забороняє гравцю брати участь у грі при певному положенні на полі
плацебо	фізіологічно інертна речовина, яка використовується як лікарський засіб, позитивний лікувальний ефект якої пов'язаний з підсвідомим психологічним очікуванням пацієнта → будь-яка діяльність, спрямована на одужання хворого (імітація акупунктури, електрошокової терапії, тощо)

Exercise 15. Comment on the results of semantic changes in connotation: a) amelioration or b) degradation, comparing present-day and former meanings of the words in italics.

1. If you pack for every possible contingency – better bring the hiking books in case we go hiking, ... better bring dress shoes and slacks in case we go to a *nice* restaurant (T. Ferriss). 2. For some, the dream will be *fame*, for others fortune or prestige. All people have their vices and insecurities (T. Ferriss). 3. He was an avid talker, a boaster and a *boor* (M. Lesser). 4. Mix a little foolishness with your serious plan. It is lovely to be *silly* at the right moment (Horace).

nice – ‘foolish, stupid, senseless’, from Old French *nice* ‘careless, clumsy; weak; poor, needy’, from Latin *nescius* ‘ignorant, unaware’;

fame – from Latin *fama* ‘talk, rumor, report’, also ‘ill-fame, scandal, reproach’;

boor – ‘country-man, peasant farmer, rustic’;

silly – from Old English *gesælig* ‘happy, fortuitous, prosperous’.

1. Необхідність “давати” настільки в’їлася в ментальність українців, що це навіть не вважають хабарем, просто – подяка.

2. Хочеш, вуса тобі для хвацькості залишу? Ваш брат хохол завжди при вусах (З. Тулуб). 3. Не можна було гаяти ані хвилини. 4. Він уявляв себе мало не маршалом Манштейном, який одним розчерком пера спрямовує в бій свої танкові дивізії (Ю. Бедзик).

подяка – почуття вдячності за послугу, допомогу, зроблене добро; вияв цього почуття;

хохол – чуб, чуприна-оселедець;

гаяти – проводити час у Священних Гаях;

маршал – конюх, сторож коней.

Exercise 16. Contrast the process of changing the meaning in the following words. State the type of semantic change.

fruit – фрукт

– *originally* (from early 13th century) ‘all products of the soil (vegetables, nuts, grain, acorns)’;

– (mid-14th century) ‘the consequence of some effort or action, profit’;

– (from 1935) *slang* ‘a gay man’.

volunteer – волонтер

– *originally* ‘one who offers himself for military service,

– *спочатку* ‘той, хто став на військову службу за власним бажанням; доброволець’.

kill – вбивати

– torment → slaughter

rival – суперник

– ‘one on the opposite side of the stream’ → ‘the contestant you hope to defeat’.

Exercise 17. Give direct words to the euphemisms below.

a) to be in an interesting position, to be in the family way, to have a bun in the oven, to have a watermelon on the vine;

b) to paint a pretty picture, to be economical with truth, to speak with forked tongue, a stranger to the truth;

c) to enjoy Her Majesty’s hospitality, Hanoi Hilton, cross-bar hotel, corrective training camp;

d) to make old bones, to be long in the tooth, mutton dressed as lamb, to be no spring chicken;

e) піти у краще місце, піти у вічність, засніти вічним сном;

f) незрячий, підсліпуватий, невидючий.

Seminar 4

Polysemy and Homonymy as Language Universals

4.1 Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Word.

4.2 Contrastive Typology of the Types of Lexical Meaning Viewed Synchronically.

4.3 Polysemy Viewed Diachronically. Sources of Polysemy.

4.4 Homonyms in English and Ukrainian. Classification and Sources of Homonyms.

4.1 Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Word

Exercise 1. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

polysemy, polysemantic, monosemantic, lexico-semantic variant, semantic structure of a word, denotative and connotative components of lexical meaning, context (lexical, grammatical, extra lingual), second-degree context.

Exercise 2. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) polysemy	a) approach presupposes understanding polysemy as the growth and development (or change) in the semantic structure of the word
2) second-degree context	b) is the one which expresses the conceptual content of a word
3) diachronic	c) approach to polysemy views it as the co-existence of various meanings of the same word at a certain period of the development of the language
4) synchronic	d) is applied when a minimum context fails to reveal the meaning of the word
5) combinability	e) is characteristic of words possessing more than one meaning
6) referential component	f) the parts of something written or spoken that precede or follow a word or passage and elucidate its meaning
7) context	g) is the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts

Exercise 3. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. The direct meaning is when the referent is named and at the same time characterized through its similarity with other objects.

2. According to “Zipf’s law” the shorter the word, the higher its frequency of use, the higher the frequency, the wider its combinability; the wider its combinability, the more meanings are realized in these contexts.

3. Polysemy may sometimes arise from homonymy.

4. In polysemantic words, we are faced not with the problem of analysis of individual meanings, but primarily with the problem of the stratification of meanings of the word.

5. The word “polysemy” is of Greek origin.

6. Polysemy exists only in speech, not in the language.

7. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word is a structured set of interrelated lexico-grammatical variants with identical denotative and sometimes connotative components of meaning.

Exercise 4. Insert the words missing in the text below:

homonymy	identical	metaphor	diachronic	synchronically	semantic
analytical	variant	syntagmatic	polysemantic	monosyllabic	context

Due to the 1) _____ character of the English language and the 2) _____ character of the English word, the English vocabulary and most words in many other languages are 3) _____.

Every meaning in language and every difference in meaning is signalled either by the form of the word itself or by 4) _____, that is its 5) _____ relations depending on the position in the spoken chain. The unity of the two facets of a linguistic sign – its form and its content in the case of a polysemantic word – is kept in its lexico-semantic 6) _____.

Polysemy may sometimes arise from 7) _____. When two words become 8) _____ in their sounding form, the meanings of these words are felt as making up one 9) _____ structure. Thus, *the human ear* and *the ear of corn* are from the 10) _____ point of view two homonyms. One is etymologically related to Latin *auris*, the other to Latin *acus, aceris*. 11) _____, however, they are perceived as two meanings of one and the same word. *The ear of corn* is felt to be a

12) _____ of the usual type (*the eye of the needle, the foot of the mountain*) and consequently as one of the derived or, synchronically, minor meanings of the polysemantic word *ear*. Cases of this type are comparatively rare and illustrate the vagueness of the border-line between polysemy and homonymy.

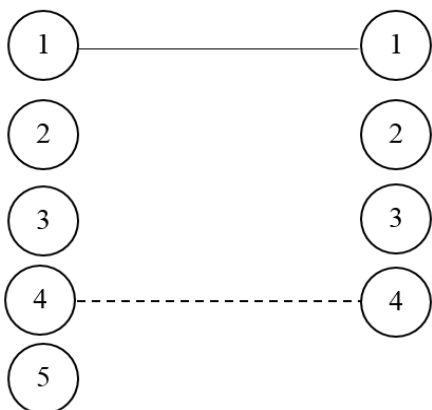
Exercise 5. Contrast the dictionary entry of the following polysemantic nouns. Find isomorphic and allomorphic features of the semantic structures of the words using the scheme as in the example.

Example:

<i>ticket</i>	<i>квиток</i>
1) proof of payment;	1) паперова або картонна картка, що дає право користуватися чим-небудь, входити куди-небудь і т. ін.;
2) a piece of card or paper that is put on an object to show its size or price;	2) документ, особове посвідчення про належність до організації, товариства, установи тощо;
3) a number of people representing a particular political party in an election;	3) <i>заст.</i> квитанція, розписка;
4) an official piece of paper that tells someone that a traffic law has been broken;	4) <i>заст.</i> судова повістка.
5) a means of access or passage.	

ticket

квиток



Contrasting the semantic structures of the words *ticket* in English and *квиток* in Ukrainian, we can state that the main meaning, that is the first one, is identical in both languages. The other isomorphic feature is that *ticket*₄ partially coincides with *квиток*₄, while other lexico-semantic variants differ. For instance, *квиток*₂ corresponds to the word *card* in English, e.g., *a membership card*.

(you can find more examples in Манакин В.Н. *Сопоставительная лексикология*, 2004, с. 257–262).

bridge	міст
<p>1) a structure carrying a pathway or roadway over a depression or obstacle (such as a river);</p> <p>2) something that makes it easier to make a change from one situation to another;</p> <p>3) <i>nautical</i> part of a ship;</p> <p>4) the top part of the nose, between the eyes, or (on a pair of glasses);</p> <p>5) <i>dentistry</i> a denture anchored to teeth on either side of missing teeth;</p> <p>6) <i>music</i> a piece raising the strings of a musical instrument;</p> <p>7) a card game for four players who play in pairs;</p> <p>8) <i>billiards</i> the hand as a rest for a cue;</p> <p>9) <i>chemistry</i> a connection that joins two different parts of a molecule.</p>	<p>1) споруда для переїзду або переходу через річку, залізницю, автомагістраль і т. ін.;</p> <p>2) <i>перен.</i> те, що є проміжним між чим-небудь, що з'єднує щось;</p> <p>3) <i>спорт.</i> положення тіла з вигнутою догори грудною кліткою і з упором на долоні й п'яти;</p> <p>4) <i>спец.</i> частина шасі автомашини, трактора;</p> <p>5) <i>діал.</i> поміст, підлога.</p>
hand	рука
<p>1) a part of human arm;</p> <p>2) power, possession, responsibility;</p> <p>3) skill;</p> <p>4) person who does something, performer;</p> <p>5) workman, member of a ship's crew;</p> <p>6) share in something;</p> <p>7) indicator on a dial of a watch;</p> <p>8) position, direction;</p> <p>9) handwriting;</p> <p>10) signature;</p>	<p>1) кожна з двох верхніх кінцівок людини від плечового суглоба до кінчиків пальців;</p> <p>2) кожна з верхніх кінцівок людини як знаряддя праці;</p> <p>3) <i>перен.</i> слід, результат чиеїсь діяльності;</p> <p>4) манера писання, почерк;</p> <p>5) <i>тільки мн., перен.</i> робоча сила, робітники;</p> <p>6) <i>тільки мн., перен.</i> про людину взагалі, яка має відношення до того, про що йдеться;</p>

11) applause.	7) <i>перен.</i> символ влади; 8) <i>тільки одн., перен., розм.</i> впливова людина, яка може захистити, підтримати і т. ін.; 9) <i>тільки одн.</i> згода на шлюб, на одруження.
line	лінія
<p>1) piece or length of thread, string, rope or wire;</p> <p>2) long narrow mark made on a surface;</p> <p>3) mark made to limit a court (in games);</p> <p>4) outline, contour;</p> <p>5) row of persons or things;</p> <p>6) direction, course, track;</p> <p>7) row of words on a paper;</p> <p>8) way of behavior;</p> <p>9) conditions of life.</p>	<p>1) риска, вузька смужка на якій-небудь поверхні;</p> <p>2) смуга, справжня або уявна, яка визначає межу, границю чого-небудь;</p> <p>3) <i>заст.</i> кордон якоїсь держави, а також ряд укріплень на ньому;</p> <p>4) ряд кого-, чого-небудь у вигляді безперервного ланцюжка; назва деяких вулиць;</p> <p>5) шлях, полотно залізниці, трамваю, метро і т. ін.;</p> <p>6) послідовний ряд осіб, об'єднаних кровною спорідненістю від предків до нащадків;</p> <p>7) <i>перен.</i> напрям або система поглядів, дій;</p> <p>8) <i>перен.</i> галузь, ділянка якої-небудь діяльності тощо.</p>
crane	журавель
<p>1) a tall metal structure with a long horizontal part, used for lifting and moving heavy objects;</p> <p>2) a tall water bird with long, thin legs and a long neck;</p> <p>3) <i>techn.</i> a tube used to convey liquid upwards from a reservoir and then down to a lower level of its own accord.</p>	<p>1) великий перелітний птах з довгими ногами, шиєю і прямим гострим дзьобом, живе на лісових та степових болотах;</p> <p>2) довга жердина, приладнана біля колодязя як важіль для витягування води, або й весь пристрій з такою жердиною;</p> <p>3) народний сюжетний танець, в якому танцюючі зображують журавлів.</p>

Exercise 6. Study the following passage. Find polysemantic words used with all their lexico-semantic variants (there should be 2 words). Correlate the semantic structure of the words under analysis with their semantic paradigms in Ukrainian (below).

In times of myriad changes parties with opposing political ideologies are prone to bring an army of supporters with them. Such revolts, which initially aim at using the whole army of words, sometimes go hand-in-hand with savagery, harshness, vandalism, and crippling people. As a result, the government mobilizes its armies and instigates new measures to suppress the rebel army, but pressure from the international community averts further escalation as the country does not want to cripple international cooperation. The crowd of demonstrators like an army of insects gradually dissipates as the situation becomes clear.

Армія –

- 1) сукупність усіх сухопутних, морських і повітряних збройних сил держави;
- 2) сухопутні збройні сили;
- 3) з'єднання, що складається з кількох корпусів або дивізій різних родів військ для ведення бойових операцій під час війни;
- 4) *перен.* маса людей, об'єднаних спільною ознакою, справою.

Калічити –

- 1) робити калікою; завдавати шкоди; нівечити, марнувати;
- 2) вимовляти неправильно, перекручувати, ламати (слова).

Exercise 7. Determine lexico-semantic variants of the word *youth* in the following sentences and comment on how grammatical context helps to uncover the meanings of the word.

1. A book of short stories “Friend of My Youth” by Alice Munro was described as spellbinding and earned her many admirers. 2. Rock music appeals to the youth (Fine Dict.). 3. Over the past year I’ve been threatened and blackmailed by a gang of youths (Longman Dict.).

Exercise 8. Say whether lexical or grammatical context is predominant in determining the meaning of the word *saw*.

1. All you can hear now is the buzzing of that *saw*. 2. An old *saw* says a hospital can be a dangerous place for a healthy person (Cambridge

Dict.). 3. He *sawed* through a power cable by mistake. 4. She *saw* him and it became clear that it took all morning to *saw* up the logs.

4.2 Contrastive Typology of the Types of Lexical Meaning Viewed Synchronically

Exercise 9. Find correlation pairs and comment on the following linguistic terms:

primary meaning, derived, main, peripheric, general, particular, concrete, abstract, direct, figurative	вторинне значення, пряме, основне, конкретне, додаткове, переносне, абстрактне, конкретне, загальне, первинне
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Exercise 10. Match the definitions with the terms below:

a) terms denoting different types of lexical meaning:

1) general meaning	a) when it nominates the referent without the help of a context
2) special meaning	b) is formed from the primary meaning
3) central meaning	c) indicates at a referent and belongs to words representing things and concepts that are more intellectual and untouchable
4) minor meaning	d) stands first, usually it is the earliest
5) primary meaning	e) is the meaning that does not occurs to us first when we hear the cluster of sounds
6) secondary meaning	f) when the referent is named and at the same time characterized through its similarity with other objects
7) direct meaning	g) is a characteristic of terms that identify things and events that can be measured and observed
8) figurative meaning	h) possesses the highest frequency at the present stage of vocabulary development
9) concrete meaning	i) occurs in various and widely different contexts
10) abstract meaning	j) is observed only in certain contexts

b) terms denoting different types of lexical meaning viewed stylistically and historically

1) archaic meaning	a) current in an earlier time but rare in present usage
2) etymological meaning	b) no longer in use
3) bookish	c) language of an informal register consisting either of new words or of “hodiernal” words employed in order to establish group identity or exclude outsiders
4) present-day meaning	d) used in friendly, informal sphere of communication mostly by the young and semi-educated and presupposes the usage of emotionally coloured words, slang and rude / vulgar vocabulary
5) familiar colloquial	e) limited in their use, but often have their neutral counterparts in the basic vocabulary
6) obsolete meaning	f) belongs to the stratum of vocabulary which is associated with the printed page only
7) slang	g) the earliest meaning of a word traced back to its most basic components
8) stylistically-marked words	h) the most frequent meaning in the contemporary language and the original one serving as a basis for the derived meanings

Exercise 11. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. The process of distinguishing between the different meanings of one word and the different variations of combinability is indeed a question of singling out different denotations within the semantic structure of the same word.

2. Synchronically we investigate polysemy as a phenomenon of coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the language.

3. On the first level of analysis of the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, this semantic structure is treated as a system of meanings.

4. On the second level of analysis, each separate meaning is a subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of connotative components.

5. Polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language.

6. General, poetical and learned words are the ones having stylistic connotations.

7. Meaning is extended when the referent is named and at the same time it is described through its similarity with other objects.

Exercise 12. Fill in the blanks with the words from the box.

context	polysemous	semantic	direct	archaic	synchronic
meaning	polysemy	figurative	diachronic		

In general linguistics, Breal was the first to introduce the term “polysemy” to describe the ability of words to have more than one 1) _____. For this eminent French linguist, polysemy was primarily a 2) _____ phenomenon, arising as a consequence of 3) _____ change. Words acquire new meanings through use, albeit these do not automatically eliminate the old ones. 4) _____, hence, is the result of the parallel existence of new and old meanings; it is the “5) _____ side” of the lexical change. However, at this level, the 6) _____ of discourse determines the sense of a 7) _____ word and eliminates its other possible meanings.

Take, for example, the adjective *dull*. We find it in its 8) _____ meaning when it names something boring, uninteresting, monotonous, as in the case of *a dull film*. But there also exists an 9) _____ meaning when the word is applied to ‘deficient in eyesight or hearing’, as in *dull eyes*. When the same word means ‘not active, lifeless’ (like *dull canal*), it possesses 10) _____ meaning.

Exercise 13. Comment on the meanings of the adjective *high* in the following sentences as elements of the semantic structure of the word (e.g., *witness*₁ ‘evidence, testimony’ – a direct, abstract, primary meaning). Then contrast with the lexico-semantic variants of the same word in the Ukrainian language. Use the following oppositions:

- general :: special / particular
- central / main :: peripheric / minor
- primary :: secondary / derived
- direct :: figurative
- concrete :: abstract

English	Ukrainian
<p><i>high</i> – from OE “of great height, tall”</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) extending far upwards; 2) chief; 3) shrill, sharp (of sounds); 4) extreme, tense, great; 5) noble; 6) slightly tainted (of food); 7) <i>colloq.</i> intoxicated; 8) <i>slang</i> under the influence of drugs. 	<p><i>високий</i> –</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) який має відстань знизу вгору; 2) який знаходиться на далекій відстані від землі чи поверхні; 3) дуже великий, більший кількістю, інтенсивністю; 4) дуже добрий, відмінний, розвинений; 5) небуденний, сповнений глибокого змісту; 6) важливий; видатний, почесний; 7) урочисто-піднесений, вишуканий (про стиль, мову); 8) тонкий, пронизливий (про звук, голос і т. ін.): 9) <i>заст.</i> пов’язаний з владою монарха; знатний, аристократичний.

1. The chauffeur job demands a high level of concentration. 2. High winds caused maritime casualties. 3. Her tenant was a high-ranking official in the embassy. 4. I think it’s nice that Dave wants to be in his church choir, but not only does he fail to reach the high notes, but he also can’t carry a tune! 5. This brisket is rather high – I’m going to throw it out. 6. He was high on heroin at that time. 7. She was so high after winning the competition that couldn’t sit still. 8. It’s high time we cottoned on what was actually happening. 9. This gentleman has a high calling – to cure people. 10. I didn’t know that the company dealt with such high tech, so I had to think on my feet. 11. She was nothing but a socialite relishing the high life. 12. They have high ideals so it is really hard to please them.

Exercise 14. Define the type of lexical meaning of the italicized words.

general :: special / particular

1. I’ve no <i>power</i> over her – she does what she wants to.	1. Еней в чужих землях блукає, Дружину в поміч набирає
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2. The ship was only slightly damaged in the collision and was able to sail into port under its own <i>power</i> (Cambridge Dict.).	(І. Котляревський). 2. Брязнуло до землі намисто й розкотилось по куточках (М. Коцюбинський).
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central / main :: peripheric / minor

1. He's plodded away at the same <i>dull</i> routine job. 2. Take care of your <i>dull</i> eyes.	1. Пишу тобі листа, від часу до часу оглядаючись, чи вже зникли остатні гмари з <i>горизонту</i> (Л. Українка). 2. Відомо, що змиті ґрунти мають неглибокий гумусовий <i>горизонт</i> (Наука і життя).
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primary :: secondary / derived

1. Lawyers <i>queried</i> Ann about what she wore that day (Cambridge Dict.). 2. He <i>queried</i> the bill as the sum was really sufficient. Note: <i>query</i> 'to question', 1650s.	1. На другому вікні стояли інші Квіти: з <i>паперу</i> зроблені і шовком перевиті (Л. Глібов). 2. – Чого прибіг? – запитав він, не відриваючись від <i>паперів</i> (Г. Тютюнник).
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direct :: figurative

1. A lot of trees were blown down in the recent <i>storms</i> in Indonesia. 2. Her performance has taken the critics by <i>storm</i> .	1. Осінній вітер свистів на рівнині, гнав аж до обр'ю круглі кущі <i>перекотиполя</i> (О. Донченко) 2. Стів – <i>перекотиполе</i> , він усе ще уявляє, що в коледжі протестує проти війни у В'єтнамі (С. Кінг).
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concrete :: abstract

1. It is a well-known fact that the tip of the <i>tongue</i> is sensitive to salt and sweet stimuli. 2. Immigrants struggling to learn a	1. Роками працювали над родовідним <i>деревом</i> , і таки спромоглися відновити історію. 2. Вулиці обсаджено плодовими і
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foreign <i>tongue</i> is a commonplace nowadays.	декоративними деревами.
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Exercise 15. Find correlations between the lexico-semantic variants of the polysemantic word *wall* as used in the following English and Ukrainian sentences and contrast the semantic structures of the word.

1. Найкращі роки життя пройшли в університетських стінах.	a) She crammed her suitcase and left it near the blank masonry wall.
2. Блукали ми по заростях високої трави, густих кущів, та замість озера – стіна очерету.	b) He barricades himself behind an unassailable wall of self-sufficiency (ABBY Lingvo).
3. Надворі ревла сердита буря, стугоніла в стіни, вила в димарі, гуркотіла у вікна (П. Мирний).	c) The ancient Greeks and Romans never buried a dead body within the walls of their cities.
4. З одного боку дороги стирчала жовта стіна урвища, а з другого – чорніла широка безодня (М. Коцюбинський).	d) Taking into consideration numerous complaints of the patient, gastroenterologist decided to investigate the stomach wall.
5. Київські стіни не раз були свідками героїчної боротьби народу за соціальну справедливість, незалежність і свободу (Наука і життя).	e) The economic recession triggered a wave of protests. The demonstrators formed a solid wall to block the government.
6. Висока кам'яна стіна обвивала кругом великий розкішний садок (П. Мирний).	f) Pogba curved the free kick past the Southampton defensive wall.
7. Хоч і обступили гетьмана, але стіна Війська Запорозького вистояла, ніхто не побіг назад.	g) As an aftermath of typhoon Jebi lots of houses were washed away by a wall of water and mud.
8. Між ними зростала невидима стіна непорозуміння.	h) With the newly-bought wall her garden looked modern and stylish.
9. Стояв гарний літній ранок, а сумна людська стіна, вбрана у траурний одяг, у цій сонячній ейфорії була зовсім недоречною (Л. Когут).	i) The Atlantic Wall was built by Nazi Germany as a defence against the invasion from the United Kingdom during World War II.

Exercise 16. Analyse the meanings of the verbs in the contrasted languages according to their historical characteristics and define their type: a) etymological, b) archaic, c) obsolete, d) present-day meaning.

The manager <i>loosed</i> an angry tirade against his football team.	Гори <i>ламай</i> , але свого досягай!
Don't let your bull terrier <i>loose</i> on the beach.	Надвечір скресає річка й <i>ламає</i> кригу (М. Коцюбинський).
The police <i>loosed</i> the captives' bonds and set them free.	Все <i>зламає</i> , все розтрощить, нічого не вціліє.
Priests can <i>loose</i> sins, but it is also of vital importance to forgive sins.	Як тільки не вмовляли, підбивали, <i>ламали</i> її, але так нічого і не випитали.
The Court <i>ex arbitrio</i> can modify a sum, upon finding caution for which the arrestment is <i>loosed</i> (W. M. Morison).	Лише один довгобровий Яків Данько ... не захотів <i>ламати</i> свого баришницького норову (М. Стельмах).
<i>Loosing</i> off his last arrow, the man hoped that the bear would fall.	Мала Целінка морщила брівки, <i>ламала</i> губки і з загніваним личком кричала (І. Франко).
He couldn't resist sneaking in a tree house when the school <i>loosed</i> .	Надвечір <i>ламало</i> в суглобах, усе боліло – терпіти не було сил.

Exercise 17. State whether any of the meanings of the italicized words is stylistically neutral or it has stylistic connotations: a) bookish, b) colloquial.

1. The clouds finally parted and a ray of *sunshine* through a gap. Come on, *sunshine*, get to work. 2. Let not the *sun* go down upon your wrath. He was working from *sun* to *sun*. The *sun* of the Plantagenets went down in clouds (Oxford Dict.). After going so many *suns* without food, I was sleeping. 3. In the middle of the storm, the lights suddenly *dimmed*. Our expectations *dimmed* as the hours passed.

1. У книзі багато *води*. Принеси, будь ласка, *води*. 2. – А ти – *лебідка* моя. – Твоя? – ще дивується дівчина (М. Стельмах). На березі воркували лебідь і *лебідка*. 3. Велика картина в золотій рамі гойдалася на *шнурку*. Не чіпайте *шнурка*, у нас салага з'явився. 4. На

випускному *акті* його урочисто вітали викладачі (П. Колесник). Сів голова на своє місце за столом, звелів принести *акти*.

Exercise 18. Using dictionaries, compare the meanings of the following polysemantic words and find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the semantic structures (viewed synchronically) in the contrasted languages.

Paper (n) – папір, bug (n) – жук, sharp (adj) – гострий, stub (n) – пень, draw (v) – малювати, free (adj) – вільний.

4.3 Polysemy Viewed Diachronically. Sources of Polysemy

Exercise 19. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

diachronic approach, meaning, usage, the semantic centre of the word, radiation, concatenation, radial-chain polysemy, intersection, inclusion.

Exercise 20. Say whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Concatenation is a semantic process in which the primary meaning stands at the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it in every direction like rays.

2. Radiation always follows concatenation.

3. When secondary meanings of a word appear like a chain, this type of semantic development is called concatenation.

4. Etymologically, the word radiation may be explained as “linking together”.

5. When one of the meanings of a polysemantic word is more complicated and broader than the other, then this type of relationship between the meanings can be called intersection.

6. All lexico-semantic variants of a word are united together by a certain meaning – the semantic centre of the word.

Exercise 21. Insert the words missing in the text below:

concatenation	original	central	contextually	derived	second
primary	general	diachronic	derivative	radiation	

Linguists have long been interested in the polysemy phenomenon. Traditional approach regards polysemy as being represented in terms of a single, maximally 1) _____ meaning, from which the 2) _____ appropriate senses are 3) _____.

To understand the 4) _____ background of lexical polysemy, we need, first of all, to consider two schemes of the development of polysemy. 5) _____, a 6) _____ of Latin *catena* ‘chain’, is the development by which a second meaning derives naturally from the first, a third from the 7) _____, and so on, with the result that the final meaning of the word may differ completely from the 8) _____ sense. When 9) _____ takes place, the new meanings are derived independently from the 10) _____ meaning. Thus, the various senses of *head* are mostly made up from its meaning ‘part of the body’.

An example of the differences between the 11) _____ and later meanings of a word *treacle* (‘pertaining to a wild animal’ and present-day – ‘a sweet syrup’) is the result of 12) _____.

Exercise 22. Consult dictionaries and trace the process of developing the meaning in the semantic structure of the following words. State whether there are cases when radiation and concatenation are combined together.

candidate	морж
sweet	оператор
crust	хребет
trip	рука
fiction	стіл
neck	кишеня

4.4 Homonyms in English and Ukrainian. Classification and Sources of Homonyms

Exercise 23. Match the following linguistic terms and provide definitions:

омоніми, омографи, омофони, омоформи, пароніми, розрив полісемантичних зв'язків; оноματοпея, фонетичні зміни	homonyms, homophones, heteronyms, homonyms proper, paronymy, disintegration (split of polysemy), phonetic change, sound-imitation,
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Exercise 24. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) historical homonyms	a) belong to the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm
2) etymological homonyms	b) when the homonyms have developed from one common source and belong to various parts of speech, which results in the invariant lexical meaning
3) lexical homonyms	c) differ in grammatical meaning only
4) grammatical homonyms	d) words appearing as a result of breaking up of polysemy
5) lexico-grammatical homonyms	e) words of different origin which are either written or pronounced alike, or have both equal forms
6) patterned homonymy	f) differ both in lexical and grammatical meanings, they belong to different parts of speech

Exercise 25. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. From the diachronic point of view, there are two ways by which homonyms appear: convergent semantic development and divergent development of meaning.

2. The problem of discriminating between polysemy and homonymy is closely connected with the problem of the basic unit at the semantic level of analysis.

3. Homoforms are frequently used for stylistic purposes.

4. Homonyms refer to different words which happen to share the same form, while a polysemant refers to the one and same word which has several distinguishable senses.

5. In dictionaries, homonyms have their meanings all listed under one headword whereas a polysemant is listed as separate entries.

6. Homonyms appear when the derived meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones.

Exercise 26. Fill in the blanks with the words from the box.

polysemy	homonymy	grammatical	homographs	perfect
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homonymous	phonetic	homoforms	homophones
sounding	spelling	folk	etymology

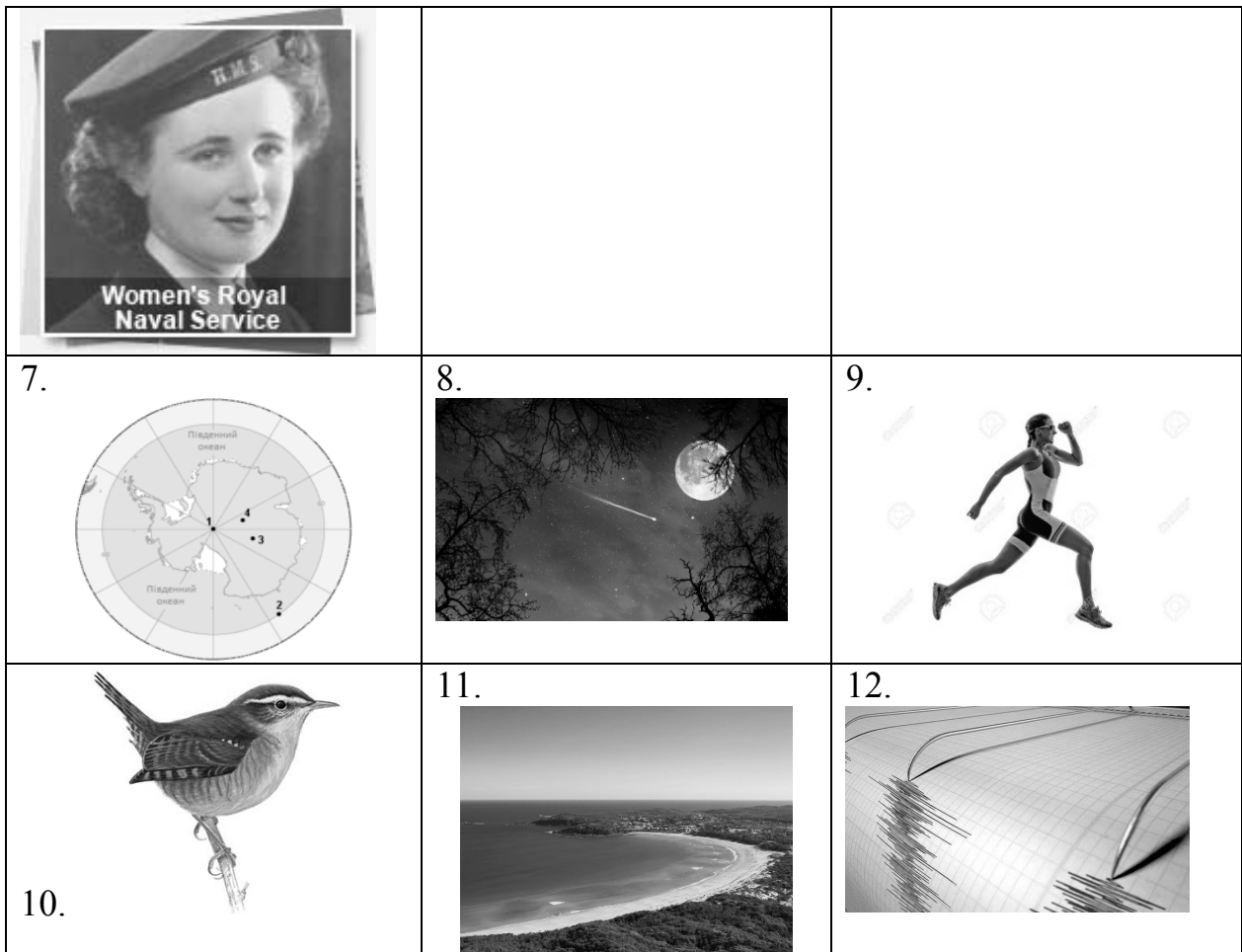
The most debatable problem is the differentiation between homonymy and polysemy. 1) _____ results from the lexicalization of an associative process and therefore is semantic in nature, while 2) _____, in the vast majority of cases, arises from 3) _____ clash. According to the etymological criterion, two senses are 4) _____ if they are historically unrelated. In speech, however, “5) _____” helps to determine the demarcation line.

The most widely accepted classification is that done by Walter Skeat who recognizes three groups of homonyms according to their 6) _____ and 7) _____ forms: 8) _____ homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling; 9) _____, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently; 10) _____, that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently. It is worth mentioning one more group – 11) _____, represented by the words *bound* (past and past participle form from *bind*) and *bound* ‘jump’, which are identical only in some of their 12) _____ forms.

Exercise 27. Match the pictures to form the homonymic pairs either in English or Ukrainian (the words below to help to) and after that insert them in the sentences below.

wrens, knights / nights, bay;
балку, бал, бігуни.





1. The noise of the car startled the _____ and the whole flock flew up into the air. Initially _____ undertook domestic duties like cleaning and cooking, but over time a greater variety of roles such as wireless telegraphists and electricians was available for them.

2. I'm reading about King Arthur and his noble _____. Because she is a nurse she frequently has to work _____.

3. What impressed us most of all was a stunning view over the Wineglass _____. _____ is very tough – almost sharp. It is normally not eaten directly. Instead, the whole leaf (or several leaves) are put into a dish or sauce while cooking.

4. Вийшов він в поле, спустився у _____, де колись ходив будучи ще малим. Стіна тріснула, розійшлася, _____ треба міняти, адже почала підгнивати.

5. В останні часи вона почувала себе такою втомленою..., байдужою до всього, немов вона і світ були два _____, які ніколи не стрінуться (М. Коцюбинський). Поки _____ долали дистанцію, Христя ні на мить не відводила погляду від майбутніх чемпіонів

6. Був справжній маскарадний _____, дуже людний і парадний (М. Коцюбинський). Землетрус магнітудою 1 _____ ніхто не відчув.

Exercise 28. Pick out homonyms in the following sentences and define their types:

a) lexical, b) grammatical, c) lexico-grammatical.

1. It is such a fag having to sweep the courtyard every day, whilst any fag can come and litter again. 2. He was standing in a hall wondering how quickly she could haul herself up into the tree. 3. Some premises are still in use, particularly the hangar which was constructed to accommodate the rigid airships. A wooden hanger is thought to be more stable. 4. On the left a few feathery coconut palms stretched their necks ... Johnny puffed at his cigarette in his closed palm.

1. Осел – про Байкаря: «О, слів йому не жаль для нас, Ослів». 2. Через вузьку протоку, що відокремлює острів від довгої піщаної коси, котяться спінені хвилі (М. Трублаїні). До обіду покосили, гострі коси потупили. 3. В ярку огні..., а круг огнів бандитів стан. Сидить, задумався глибоко їх чорновусий отаман (В. Сосюра). Донедавна економічний стан не сприяв закупівлі нового обладнання, але сьогодні вже можемо говорити про прокатні стани гарячого й холодного прокату. 4. Я присів і збирав лисички, як зненацька на велику світлу галявину вискочили дві лисички.

a) homonyms proper, b) homophones, c) homographs

1. She tears up all his letters and her eyes are filled with tears. 2. I didn't lead the man there. Lack stirred slightly. His head was heavy – heavy as lead. 3. No sweet without sweat. 4. I cite both Freud and Goethe in my articles. One site in Vienna was of particular value.

1. Теплий вітре, шуми, ясне сонце, в zenіті світи, ми будуєм для щастя світи (В. Сосюра). 2. І в ситуації крутій із пастки вислизне крутій. 3. Погрюкуючи промчався потяг, і потяг Тарас валізу назад. 4. Потри моркву і спасеруй її. Командир роти наказав стати по три і йти на полігон.

Exercise 29. Below are listed the homonyms. Define their sources.

1. representative → *rep.*, reputation → *rep.* 2. *iron* → *to iron*.
 3. *flower* and *flour* from one word ME. flour, cf. OFr. flour, flor, L. flos – florem. 4. *reader* – a person who reads and a book for reading. 5. *to bear* from *beran* (to carry) and *bear* from *bera* (an animal). 6. *fair* from Latin *feria* and *fair* from native *fager* (blond). 7. *base* from the French *base* (Latin *basis*) and *base* (low) from the Latin *bas* (Italian *basso*). 8. *corncrake* (bird) – *Derkach* (broom). 9. the club (smoke) – club (with eng. – society, space).

Exercise 30. Make distinction between homonymy and polysemy.

1. The farm was used to produce produce. 2. If you overcook the cabbage it will turn to mush. I was becoming a 27-year-old cabbage. 3. How can you intimate this to you most intimate friend? 4. Help me to draw a straight line. He drew the blanket over his head and tried to fall asleep. 5. In England monarchs reign but do not rule. The rain in England stays mainly in the plain.

1. Тут з діда-прадіда, із віку в вік збирали мед, з беріз точили сік (І. Нехода). Сніг під ногами не скрипів, а вищав, наче об нього мечі точили (Г. Тютюнник). 2. Переговори йшли вже третю годину, але консенсусу так і не знайшли. Ми йшли, і часто це було складно: перевали, вершини, каміння, трава в людський зріст. 3. У мовчазнім натхненні ліс мішає фарби на палітрі (Мур.). Я йде потихеньку, як звичайно, бо хоч нічого й не чуєш, а все ж осторога не мішає. 4. Блукаю я і сонце світить, легких береговий вітрець дмухне, і бачу диво я ... та потім розумію: сон це.

Exercise 31. Point out the cases of interlingual homonymy in the following sentences. Comment on the overlap in the meanings of false friends of a translator.

Five obscure or fringe parties with unelectable presidential aspirants also threw their hats into the ring (Cambridge Dict.).	Розв'язання цієї стратегічної задачі було зрозумілим, принаймні аспірант мав план дій.
The motivation was to create a \$70 billion behemoth out of two	Незважаючи на свою вагу, яка може досягти 4 тони, бегемот

embattled phone-equipment companies (Cambridge Dict.).	може бігти швидше за людину.
Although it was stained with blood, he could make out the words on it; the Head's cursive had been fine and clear (S. King).	Курсив і похилий друкарський шрифт при всій їх схожості не одне і те ж.
He's just having a little doze on the settee (Cambridge Dict.).	Добова лікувально-профілактична доза вітаміну D становить 400 МО.
That talon looked more ferocious and threatening.	Купуючи новий гіроскутер, поставтесь особливо уважно до того, як заповнений гарантійний талон.

Seminar 5

Semantic Relations in Paradigmatics. Contrastive Typology of Semantic Classifications of English and Ukrainian Lexicon

5.1 Semantic Relations of Inclusion. Contrastive Typology of Hyponyms

5.2 Semantic Relations of Similarity. Contrastive Typology of Synonyms

5.3 Semantic Relations of Opposition. Contrastive Typology of Antonyms.

5.1 Semantic Relations of Inclusion. Contrastive Typology of Hyponyms

Exercise 1. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

Semantic relations, families of semantic relations (relations of contrast, relations of inclusion, relations of similarity), hyponymy, hyponym, hyperonym, co-hyponyms, semantic field.

Exercise 2. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) hyponym	a) a generic term which serves as the name of the general in comparison to the names of the species
2) hyperonym	b) the semantic relationship when an entity type contains other entity types
3) semantic field	c) a closely knit sector of vocabulary characterised by a common concept
4) hyponymy	d) a word or phrase whose meaning is more specific than its hyperonym
5) inclusion	e) the semantic relationship of inclusion existing between elements of various levels

Exercise 3. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

8. The three families of semantic relations are singled out in terms of three properties of semantic relations: inclusion / noninclusion, contrasting / noncontrasting, and taxonomy / function.

9. The family of similars consists of terms that overlap in either denotative or connotative meaning, sometimes both meanings.

10. The semantic relations in class inclusion involve case, syntactic, and syntagmatic relations.

11. The relations of contrast involve one term whose denotative meaning subsumes that of the other term.

12. Hyponymy is a transitive relation so long as a word can be both a hyperonym and a hyponym.

Exercise 4. Insert the words missing in the text below:

hyponymy	specific	co-hyponyms	hyponym	paradigmatic
inclusion	general	hyperonym	semantic	

1) _____ is the semantic relationship that exists between two (or more) words in such a way that the meaning of one word includes the meaning of other word(s). We say that the term whose meaning is included in the meaning of other term(s) is the 2) _____ term; linguists usually refer to it as a superordinate or 3) _____. The term whose meaning includes the meaning of the other term is the 4) _____ term. The set of specific terms which are hyponyms of the same superordinate term are called 5) “_____”.

However, the problem is created by viewing hyponymy simply as 6) meaning-_____, in which the 7) _____ components of one item are a subset of the hyponym's. For Magnusson and Persson (1986), treating hyponymy as a meaning-inclusion relation means that *employ* > *employee* is a 8) _____ relation since the meaning of *employee* presumably includes the meaning of *employ*. Such an approach confounds the notion of hyponymy as a 9) _____ relation, and thus demonstrates that meaning-inclusion is not so definable a concept as class-inclusion.

Exercise 5. Classify the following pairs of words according to the families of semantic relations: a) contrast, b) class inclusion, and c) similars.

hand – palm, sommelier – wine, airplane – cockpit, insect – ladybird, Austria – Vienna, mile – foot, maim – injure, scalding – burning, peace – silence, trouble – pester, snake – hiss, snake – venom, season – summer,

vegetable – courgette, wipe – mop, cut – shredder, brainy – dense, servant – master, alive – dead, teach – learn, fast – slow;

маклер – посередник, машина – гальма, машиніст – потяг, кіт – лапа, будинок – кімната, Україна – Київ, колос – зерно, емоція – радість, квітка – волошка, глибоко – мілко, йти – чимчикувати, дощ – мряка, шум – гуркіт, хірург – скальпель, світло – темрява, наука – лінгвістика, нападати – захищатися, дерево – клен, перемога – поразка.

Exercise 6. Pick out hyponyms from the sentences below. Think of the appropriate hyperonyms.

1. You could find lots of tools in his workshop: a screwdriver, scissors, pliers, and even a hammer. 2. There is something for everybody, from a quick snack to a more substantial meal, but all I want is a peach, a plum and a several segments of orange. 3. I was mulling over crimson, violet, and lavender. 4. – Look at his face expression! He is definitely in love, he is staring at her all day long. – I would not say so. It seems like he is trying to peer through the fog.

1. Не хотілося сідати ні в автобус, ні в тролейбус, і він пішов пішки. 2. Для витинанок папір фарбують у червоний, рожевий, синій, зелений кольори, а також користуються вохрою (Н. Кочережко). 3. Другим фронтом були офісні застосунки (Word, Excel і PowerPoint), веб-браузер (Internet Explorer), серверна операційна система (Windows Server) та інші додаткові програмні продукти (М. Кусумано, Д. Йоффі). 4. Зацікавлено переглядав полицю художньої прози. Свіженький роман, чи може новела, а ось видніється збірка оповідань. Додому прямував із новеньким томиком віршів.

Exercise 7. Arrange the following words into groups, comprising the generic term (hyperonym) and the names of the species (hyponyms).

acacia, animal, amusement rides, asteroid, baobab, badger, beaver, big dipper, birch, carousel, chestnut, comet, dodgems, eucalyptus, ferris wheel, ghost train, hickory, meteor, mole, palm, python, rhinoceros, rifle-range, sequoia, space, star, tree, woodpecker;

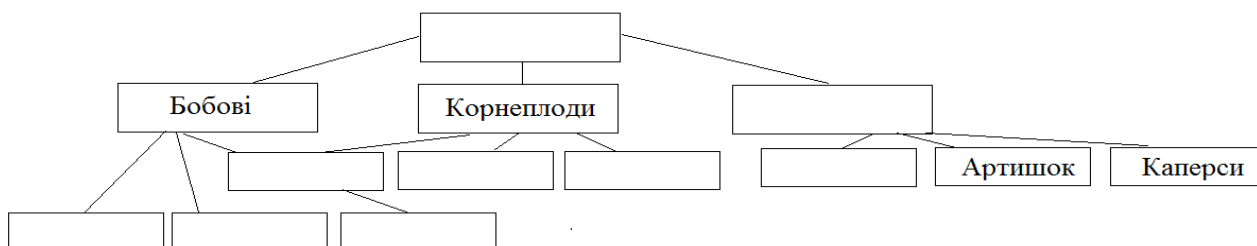
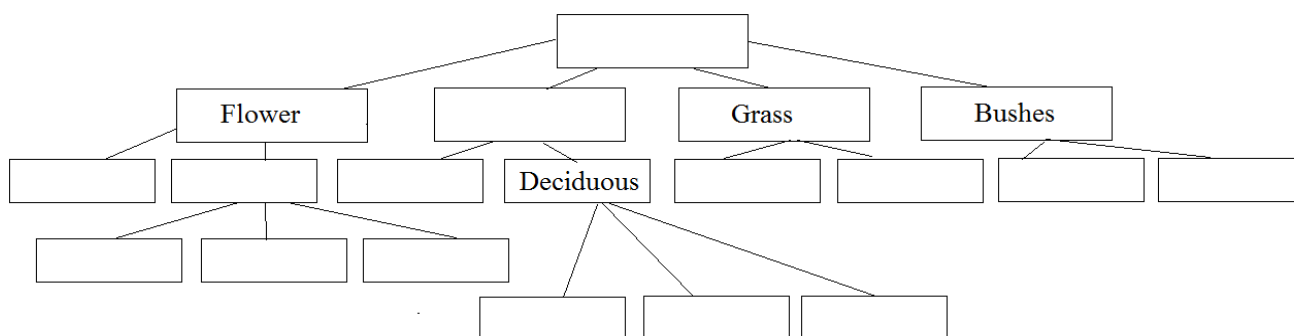
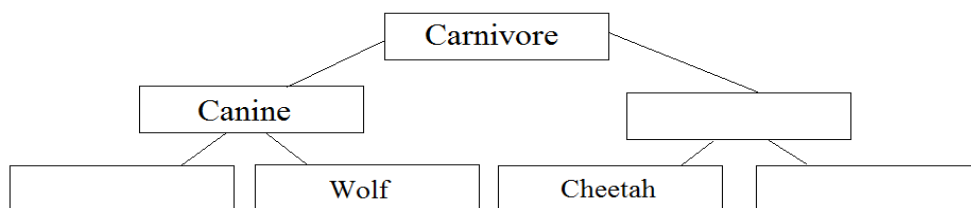
віник, гриби, дощовик, кальсони, лисички, маслюки, мітла, музичні інтервали, мухомори, одяг, октава, опеньки, підберезовики,

пензлик, помазок, прима, септима, сиріжки, секунда, джинси, спідниця, жакет, терція, щітка.

Exercise 8. Give 10 hyponyms to the generic terms below.

1. crime, stone, shape, beverage; 2. тканина, риба, планета, освіта.

Exercise 9. Complete the tables below to illustrate the semantic relations of inclusion.



Exercise 10. Create the best scheme you can from the following word forms to illustrate the semantic relations of inclusion:

Breadboard, butter knife, butter dish, bread knife, cake dish, cake slice, coaster, corkscrew, dessert spoon, fork, knife, mug, napkin, napkin ring, pepper, soup bowl, tablecloth, teaspoon, table mat, tin opener, tumbler, vinegar, water jug, wine glass;

антисептик, бікс, бинт, вата, градусник, зеленка, знеболююче, інвалідний візок, йод, крапельниця, лейкопластир, мазь, пінцет, піпетка, стетоскоп, таблетки, тонометр, ходунки, шприц, штатив.

***Exercise 11.** In each case, state the type of hyponymy; a) taxonomic or b) functional.

1. In India animals like *cow* are worshiped as mother god. In Ukraine *cows* are commonly raised as livestock for meat and for milk.
2. Community should support young people to not become involved in *knife* / weapon related offences.

1. Я маю автомобіль. Це – *вантажівка*. 2. *Пануга* – найяскравіший екзотичний птах, якого приручила людина. За золотими ґратами оселився домашній улюбленець ошатний *пануга*.

5.2 Semantic Relations of Similarity. Contrastive Typology of Synonyms

Exercise 12. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

semantic relation of similarity, synonymy, synonyms, synonymic dominant, total synonyms, ideographic synonyms, contextual synonyms, stylistic synonyms.

Exercise 13. Match the definitions with the terms below:

1) synonyms	a) the coincidence in the essential meaning of words
2) contextual synonyms	b) words which can substitute each other in any given context without the slightest change / shift in denotative or emotional meaning and connotations
3) ideographic synonyms	c) words which are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditionals
4) stylistic synonyms	d) words denoting different shades of meaning or degrees of a given quality
5) total synonyms	e) words having similar denotative meanings, but different emotive value or stylistic sphere of application

6) synonymic dominant	f) two or more words belonging to the same part of speech and possessing similar denotative meanings and different in their connotative meanings
7) synonymy	g) the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group

Exercise 14. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. The more developed the language, the poorer the diversity and therefore the greater the possibilities of lexical choice enhancing the effectiveness and precision of speech.

2. It is inconceivable that polysemantic words could be synonymous in all their meanings.

3. The interrelation of the denotative and the connotative components of meaning of synonyms is considered to be quite facile.

4. *Buy* and *purchase* are similar in their stylistic reference and therefore are not completely interchangeable but differ in meaning.

5. Diachronically, we speak about the origin of synonyms and the causes of their excess in the language.

6. Only particular groups of synonyms have a dominant element, which contains the specific features rendered by all the other members of this group.

7. There are no two absolutely identical words in the language.

8. The dominant synonym possesses such features as the highest frequency of use, the highest combinability, and the abundance of connotations.

Exercise 15. Fill in the blanks with the words from the box.

classification	denotative	ideographic	synonymous	stylistic
contextual	synonyms	connotative	total	

This 1) _____ proceeds from the assumption that synonyms may differ either in the 2) _____ meaning (this is the case of 3) _____ synonyms, which denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality) or the 4) _____ meaning, or to

be more exact stylistic reference (this is the case of (5) _____ synonyms, which differ not so much in denotative as in emotive value or stylistic sphere of application). This assumption cannot be accepted as 6) _____ words always differ in the 7) _____ component.

Semanticists also argue for a notion of 8) _____ synonymy, in which there is full identity of sense and 9) _____ relatedness. John Lyons even goes further: characterizing the nature of complete correspondence of meaning and identity of potential contextual occurrence and hence usage, he sets up three types: full, complete, and total 10) _____, differentiating them on the basis of the totality of meaning and context.

Exercise 16. Match the words in the left column to the appropriate synonyms on the right. Classify the following synonyms according to their morphological structure into 3 groups: a) having the same roots, b) having different roots, c) synonymous expressions. Find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the contrasted languages.

wind	play	вітер	воротар
family	breeze / gale	сім'я	вітерець / вітрище / вітрюган
unarmed	present	неозброєний	дарунок
to glance	goalie	кинути погляд	родина
gift	household	подарунок	кинути оком
around	armless	кругом	навкруги
get experience	to take a look	наловчитись	літера / графема
goalkeeper	round	голкипер	собаку з'їсти
letter	character / grapheme	буква	вистава
performance	to cut one's teeth	спектакль	беззбройний / роззброєний

Exercise 17. Find the synonymic dominant in the following synonymic groups.

1. hope, expectation, anticipation; 2. audacious, brave, bold, daring, courageous, gallant, valorous; 3. perfume, scent, smell, fragrance, odour; 4. malicious, malignant, venomous, harmful, damaging, injurious,

detrimental, dangerous, deleterious, unfavorable, disadvantageous, unhealthy, unwholesome, hurtful, destructive, noxious, hazardous;

1. балакати, розмовляти, казати, мовити, говорити, гомоніти, гуторити, базікати, варнякати, верзти, патякати, плести, плескати, ляпати, молоти, мимрити, бубоніти; 2. метелиця, хуртовина, заметіль, завірюха, буран, пурга, хурделиця, хвища; 3. лікар, доктор, ескулап.

Exercise 18. Pick out synonyms in the sentences below and comment on their semantic features, comprising whether they are a) total, b) ideographic, c) contextual or d) stylistic.

1. He contrived to appear as cool and unemotional as ever (A. Christie). How did he manage to do it? 2. An outbreak of scarlet fever had taken the eight-year-old twins in little more than a week. They were not vaccinated against scarlatina. 3. After hours of backbreaking work she fell into an uneasy slumber, because she really needed to get some shut-eye. 4. I can't stand it when you start nagging me about my diet. I can't bear it when you ram their views down my throat.

1. Буря оплесків зірвалася серед зібраних на засіданні. Трибуна нагородила переможця гучними аплодисментами. 2. Тепер, коли ми пройшли гори, ти день і ніч стогнеш, що хочеш жертви! З мене досить твого скавуління, нещасна собако (Дж. Аберкромбі). 3. Цього року аграрії зібрали високий урожай пшениці. Такого багатого урожаю не було вже декілька років поспіль. 4. У очах втіха зяснила, Усмішка грає гордолита (Л. Українка). І він з великою радістю повів Герду на прогулянку.

Exercise 19. Define the stylistic colouring of the words in italics and substitute them with corresponding neutral synonym.

1. The red tip of his cigarette was *glowing* in the dark (Longman Dict.). 2. There are some really *dense* people in our group. 3. "You never give up, once you get something in your *nut*, do you?" (H. Robbins). 4. She has achieved a *rudimentary* education along with the valuable tools of logic and objective thinking (I. Stone). 5. This is not a question of *toffs* versus the working class (Cambridge Dict.). 6. Montparnasse has still for me the *tranquil* air of a provincial town (S. Maugham). 7. Tim and Bill have skived off school today to watch the match.

1. *Старий* друг краще нових двох. 2. Незабаром було чути, як там заходились вони од буйного, шаленого, невтриманого *реготу* (С. Васильченко). 3. Погода тут *файна*. Хоч часами вітер приносить дощі (М. Коцюбинський). 4. *Зодчий* збудував католицький храм на кшталт готичних соборів. 5. Що *плямкав*, по кімнаті плив аромат якоїсь страви, якої Оксана ніколи не куштувала (С. Тимченко). 6. Нині триває «*мертва*» тиша. Не чути обстрілів навіть у старій частині міста. 7. Незалежна і єдина наша *ненька* – Україна! 8. Отак навіть *беркицьнутись* можна! – ледве втримався на санках Хведько (М. Стельмах).

Exercise 20. Give as many synonyms to the given neutral stylistic words as you can (both in English and Ukrainian). Try to contrast them basing on semantic features. State whether the difference lies in a) denotation or b) connotation.

angry – злий
 father – батько
 clever – розумний
 look – дивитись

eat – їсти
 calm – спокійний
 talk – розмовляти
 sleep – сон

Exercise 21. Match the words on the left with the words on the right to form synonymic pairs and arrange them into groups according to the sources of synonymy: a) borrowings, b) dialectal words, c) euphemisms, d) word-forming process, e) figurative use of words.

abdomen	autumn
fall	on the ball
quick-witted	instruction
guidance	lie
alcoholic drink	pregnant
underground	bevvу
drunk	belly
in the family way	subway
mad	tipsy
unmentionables	unbalanced
mug	trousers
influenza	flu
to verbalize	face
visit	to word

дефект	мити
мемуари	торба
бульйон	пихатий
ексклюзивний	винятковий
давній	парубок
банити	недолік
легінь	пита
тайстра	спогади
бутний	відвар
люди в білих	співа
халатах	прадавній
чорне золото	матуся
повненький	нафта
товстий	двієчник

prattle	drop in
bark	cackle
long-distance call	bellow
distort facts	trunk call
knave	rascal

недостатньо вмотивований учень	медпрацівники
питає	
співає	
мама	

Exercise 22. Complete the sentences by choosing the correct words. Explain your choice.

- Some of Dali's paintings are _____.
a) valuable b) priceless c) worthless d) precious
- You should _____ your car against fire and theft.
a) ensure b) insure c) reassure d) make sure
- All the _____ in the spectators applauded the winner of the marathon.
a) viewers b) onlookers c) audience d) spectators

Exercise 23. Give Ukrainian equivalents to the following words. Explain your choice.

- гнуздати
а) угамовувати б) приборкувати в) упокорювати г) затамовувати
- маніфестувати
а) підсумувати б) переповісти в) опротестувати г) представити
- фіаско
а) успіх б) припис в) провал г) перемога

Exercise 24. Define the functions of synonyms in the following sentences.

- He *looked* at her now, *peering* through the bars (Sh. Jackson).
- "Are you *honest* with me?" "Well I want to be quite *frank* with you".
- Their new house is rather *big*. Oh it is *huge*! I think it has 50 rooms.
- A *mistake* – a *foul-up* in the paperwork (T. O'Brien).
- "Nothing," she said, "upsets me more than being hungry; I snarl and snap and burst into tears" (Sh. Jackson).

1. Ще була вона, Наталочка, зовсім, зовсім *маленькою*, ну просто *малюсінькою*, і придумувала казки (Г. Хоткевич). 2. Кохаю *край* наш дорогий, що зветься Україна. *Вітчизні* хочу я своїй зрости достойним сином (В. Коломієць). 3. *Хуртовина* ось-ось обернеться на чорну *хуртечу*, тобто чорну *пургу* (О. Плевако). 4. Один за одним почали входити *високі*, *рослі* молодці (Г. Хоткевич). 5. – Ти чого? – налякано

спитала дівчина. – А тобі вулиці мало, що біля перелазу чалапаєш?! – одразу *grimнув* на неї (М. Стельмах).

5.3 Semantic Relations of Opposition. Contrastive Typology of Antonyms

Exercise 25. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

opposition, antonymy, antonym, antonyms proper, complementary antonyms, conversive antonyms, vectorial antonyms, root antonyms, derivational antonyms, oxymoron.

Exercise 26. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) antonym	a) words characterized by the denial of one member of the opposition, which implies the assertion of the other
2) antonymy	b) words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, that is the subject and that of the object
3) antonyms proper	c) a type of paradigmatic relations based on oppositeness of meaning
4) complementaries	d) antonyms having the same root but different affixes
5) conversives	e) words denoting differently directed actions, features
6) vectorial antonyms	f) antonyms having different roots
7) root antonyms	g) words belonging to the same part of speech and characterized by semantic polarity of their denotation meaning
8) derivational antonyms	h) words with relative semantic polarity, gradual opposition and characterized by different degrees of the same property

Exercise 27. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Antonyms are words that share the same spelling and the same pronunciation but have different meanings.

2. The logical basis of antonymy are two kinds of opposites – contrary and complementary.

3. Antonyms differ in style, emotional colouring or distribution.

4. An antonymic substitution never results in a change of stylistic colouring.

5. Complementary antonyms are not gradable and cannot be used in the comparative or superlative degree.

6. Antonyms are believed to appear in pairs only.

7. In derivational antonyms the affixes serve to deny the quality stated in the stem.

8. Oxymoron is a stylistic figure which uses an ostensible self-contradiction to illustrate a rhetorical point or to reveal a paradox

Exercise 28. Put each of the following words into its correct place in the passage below.

antonym	opposite	opposed	complementary	generic	antithesis
relational	definitions	gradable	context	lexical	
	phraseological	emotive	correlation		

An “antonym” is one of a pair of words with 1) _____ meanings. Each word in the pair is the 2) _____ of the other. A word may have more than one 3) _____.

There are three categories of antonyms identified by the nature of the relationship between the 4) _____ meanings. Where the two words have 5) _____ that lie on a continuous spectrum of meaning, they are 6) _____ antonyms. Where the meanings do not lie on a continuous spectrum and the words have no other lexical relationship, they are 7) _____ antonyms. Where the two meanings are opposite only within the 8) _____ of their relationship, they are 9) _____ antonyms.

There should be distinguished one more group of antonyms – 10) _____ antonyms. These are co-reference phraseologisms which are related to the same grammatical class, they partially match or

completely do not coincide with 11) _____ composition. The most important semantic characteristics of antonyms are opposite values and semantic commonality which is manifested in the 12) _____ of values, i.e. in the fact that they express the same 13) _____ concept. Importantly, one-style phraseological antonyms belong to the same functional style and different expressive and 14) _____ characteristics.

Exercise 29. Express the contrary meaning by using antonyms to the following words and classify the pairs of antonyms according to the parts of speech.

strong, attentive, sane, gratitude, truth, rational, to underestimate, to find, down, early, carefully, now, sometimes, sorrow, to hire, warmly;
прогрес, еміграція, лепський, місто, завжди, мало, легко, пусто, купувати, культурний, спека, збирати, добро, низький, світлий, цей.

Exercise 30. Arrange the following antonyms according to morphological classification into 3 groups: a) root antonyms; b) derivational antonyms; c) phraseological antonyms.

true – untrue, crammed – empty, to carry a sentence – to beat the rap, astounded – unimpressed, banned – legitimate, spellbinding – boring, to cost an arm and a leg – cheap, happy – unhappy, with flying colours – lousy, legal – illegal, hopeless – hopeful, beautiful – ugly, prewar – postwar, far – a stone’s throw away, dubious – certain;

стабілізація – дестабілізація, логічний – алогічний, зима – літо, заплутати – розплутати, милість – немилість, лісистий – безлісний, гріти чуба – бити байдики, як бджіл у вулику – мало/ на волосину, підземний – наземний, земля – небо, як свиня на коня – як дві краплі води, день – ніч, білий – чорний, питання – відповідь.

Exercise 31. Arrange antonyms given below into four columns according to the character of semantic opposition: a) antonyms proper; b) contradictory antonyms; c) conversive antonyms; d) vectorial antonyms.

ancestor – descendant, to arrive – to depart, left – right, above – below, to appear – to disappear, clean – dirty, old – young, male – female, huge – tiny, distraction – attraction, to spend – to save, happiness – unhappiness, justice – injustice, asleep – awake, fixed – movable;

засвітити – загасити, перший – останній, збирати – розбирати, важкий – легкий, висхідний – низхідний, живий – мертвий, нижній – верхній, істинний – хибний, дорогий – недорогий, в’їжджати – виїжджати, на лице – навиворіт, сміливець – боягуз.

Exercise 32. Complete the table below with the pairs of antonyms either in English or Ukrainian. State their types in terms of morphological and semantic classifications. Find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the contrasted languages.

.... –	майбуття – минувшина
correct – wrong –
uniformity –	однорідність –
.... –	тішитися – журитися
.... –	малесенький –
excluded – –
tangible –	відчутний –
.... –	низом – верхом

Exercise 33. Comment on antonyms used to create oxymoron in the sentences below.

1. “A tedious brief scene of young Pyramus, And his love Thisby; very tragical mirth. Merry and tragical! tedious and brief! that is hot ice and wondrous strange snow.” (W. Shakespeare). 2. Crowded loneliness. 3. The living dead. 4. Practical theory. 5. Bittersweet.

1. Гукала тиша рупором перонним (Л. Костенко). 2. Гаряча сніжка у руках сльозинками стекла (В. Корж). 3. Ненависний коханий світ (М. Бажан). 4. На нашій, не своїй землі (Т. Шевченко).

Exercise 34. Complete the proverbs with the missing word. Classify the antonyms used in them.

1. Art is long, life is ... 2. Who has never tasted ..., knows not what is sweet. 3. Fire and water are, but bad masters. 4. What soberness conceals, 5. No great ... without some small 6. Like teacher, like 7. Advice is like castor oil: easy enough to ... but dreadfully uneasy to

1. Правда і в ... не горить, і в ... не тоне. 2. Надія – ... сніданок, але ... вечеря. 3. Дай серцю ... – заведе в 4. Де ... крику, там ... роботи. 5. ... руки не рідня ... голові.

Exercise 35. Using a dictionary, prove that the words below possess antonymic meanings, that is multiple meanings, one of which is the reverse of another (contronyms). Use them in the sentences of your own:

Model: The state is threatening to *sanction* employers for hiring illegal workers. The government was reluctant to *sanction* intervention in the crisis.

«На які ж Ви гори *сходили*?» – спитали мене журналісти. З гори *сходять* кілька хлопців (*сходити* – *підніматися*, *спускатися*).

anxious, to consult, biannual, a handicap, a model, to trim, vital, to root	боргувати, поступ, сходити, вихідний, злітати, позичати, з'їжджати
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Exercise 36. From the sentences given below, pick out synonyms and antonyms and comment on them.

It was the best of times, it was the worst of times, it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness, it was the epoch of belief, it was the epoch of incredulity, it was the season of Light, it was the season of Darkness, it was the spring of hope, it was the winter of despair, we had everything before us, we had nothing before us, we were all going direct to Heaven, we were all going direct the other way – in short, the period was so far like the present period, that some of its noisiest authorities insisted on its being received, for good or for evil, in the superlative degree of comparison only (from “A Tale of Two Cities” by Charles Dickens.)

Exercise 37. What linguistic phenomenon do the sets below illustrate? Explain your point of view.

- money – cash – dosh (moneta) – dough – dead presidents;
- cold – cool – tepid – warm – hot;
- friendly – warm – affable – amiable – genial – cordial;
- to fire – to sack – to dismiss – to give sb the boot – to suspend – to shed – to make sb redundant.

Seminar 6

Contrastive Typology of English and Ukrainian Phraseology

6.1 Phraseological Unit and its Distinguishing Features

6.2 Set-Phrases and Free-Phrases in English and Ukrainian: The Problem of Differentiation.

6.3 Typology of English and Ukrainian Phraseological Units.

6.4 Sources of Phraseological Units in English and Ukrainian.

6.1 Phraseological Unit and its Distinguishing Features

Exercise 1. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

phraseology, phraseological unit, idiom, set-phrase, word-equivalent, phraseme, stability, reproducibility, idiomaticity, motivation (complete motivation, partial motivation, non-motivated).

Exercise 2. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) phraseology	a) is a binary phrase in which one of the components has a phraseologically bound meaning dependent on the other
2) phraseological unit	b) a branch of linguistics which studies different types of set expressions, in which the component parts of the expression take on a meaning more specific or not predictable from the sum of their meanings when used independently
3) reproducibility	c) stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word-groups, their aptness to function in speech as single words
4) stability	d) implies that the essential feature of the linguistic unit is idiomaticity or lack of motivation
5) idiomaticity	e) regular use of phraseological units in speech as single unchangeable collocations
6) phraseme	f) the quality of a phraseological unit when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the part
7) set-phrase	g) implies that phraseological unit exists as a ready-made linguistic unit which does not allow any

	variability of its lexical components or grammatical structure
8) idiom	h) often defined as a phrase with such a meaning which cannot be readily analyzed into the several semantic elements which would ordinarily be expressed by the words making up the phrase
9) word-equivalent	i) presupposes that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups

Exercise 3. Answer the following questions.

1. Who was the first to define the term “phraseological unit”?
2. What is the difference between the terms “phraseological unit”, “idiom”, “set-phrase”, and “word-equivalent”?
3. Name the essential features of phraseological units.
4. What is phraseological stability, or macrostability?
5. What is phraseological stability based on?
6. What are the types of phraseological units according to their meaning?
7. Make distinction between idiomatic, idiophraseomatic and phraseomatic meaning conveyed by phraseological units.
8. What is full transference of meaning based on?

Exercise 4. Insert the words missing in the text below:

phraseology	phrasemes	phraseological units	semantic stability
transferred	motivated	compositionality	syntactic frozenness
formal frozenness		institutionalization	

1) _____ can be defined as “the study of the structure, meaning and use of word combinations” (Cowie 1994). It embraces the view of language that lexis and grammar are inseparable. The basic units in phraseology are often referred to as 2) _____, or 3) _____. Phraseological units are stable word-groups with partially or fully 4) _____ meanings (e.g., *Greek gift*, *drink till all’s blue*). We can find the meaning of a phraseological unit by one of its components (when it is 5) _____).

Many definitions of phraseological units can be found in the scientific literature, some of which are based on a single criterion, such as

non-6) _____, or conventional co-occurrence. Others are based on multiple criteria, including 7) _____ (the phrasal meaning is not the sum total of the meanings of its individual constituents), 8) _____ (idioms are resistant to grammatical operations), and / or 9) _____ (idioms usually do not allow the replacement or deletion of constituents or changes in phrase structure) as well as figuration, 10) _____, evaluative meaning, and so on.

Exercise 5. Substitute the italicized words for the appropriate phraseological units from the list:

to join hands, to get out of hand, blood and thunder, hot under the collar, out of a blue sky, as cool as cucumber, the upper crust, as green as grass.

1. We must *unite* with our friends in Africa. 2. She dropped upon me *unexpectedly* and began asking questions which I had to answer. 3. I thought there would have been protestations and tears when I told her I wanted to move out of the flat, but no, she stayed *calm*. 4. She was *naïve* when she was 15 but other girls in the typing pool taught her the ways of the world. 5. When his son was in Madrid, the boy *ill-behaved* and caused many difficulties. 6. He got very *angry* when I suggested that he might be mistaken. 7. Joan belongs to *the aristocracy*; you can tell by the way she walks and talks. 8. I don't like to hear people sneering at positions and titles they'd have accepted *immediately* if they'd got the offer.

6.2 Set-Phrases and Free-Phrases in English and Ukrainian: the Problem of Differentiation

Exercise 6. Find correlation pairs and comment on the following linguistic terms:

word-group, set-phrase, free-phrase, semi-fixed combination, substitution, distribution, lexical valency (collocability), grammatical valency, combinability	граматична валентність, стійке словосполучення, лексична валентність, словосполучення, вільне словосполучення, розподіл, сполучуваність, напівстійкі фразеологічні сполучення, заміна
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Exercise 7. Match the definitions with the terms below:

1) set-phrase	a) the complex of contexts in which the given lexical unit can be used
2) free-phrase	b) the aptness of a word to appear in various combinations with other words
3) semi-fixed word-combination	c) adhere to strict constraints on word order and composition, but undergo some degree of lexical variation
4) word-group	d) functionally and semantically inseparable word-groups
5) combinability	e) the aptness of a word to appear in specific syntactic structures
6) collocability	f) is formed on a syntactic pattern and based on a subordinating grammatical relationship between two or more content words; can be endocentric and exocentric
7) grammatical valency	g) word-combination permitting substitution of any of its elements without semantic change in the other element or elements
8) distribution	h) the ability of the word to have a lexical or grammatical valency

Exercise 8. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Structural separability and semantic cohesion are the very features of phraseological units that separate them from free phrases.

2. A free phrase is usually characterized by full and partial transference of meaning.

3. In a free phrase, the information is additive and each element has a much greater semantic independence in comparison with a phraseological unit.

4. A phraseological unit is generally formed on a generative pattern of a free word-combination.

5. The freedom of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary.

6. The departures from the norms of lexical valency are frequent, unlike the departures from the grammatical valency norms, which are not admissible.

Exercise 9. Fill in the blanks with the words from the box.

combinations	combinability	semi-fixed	set expressions	grammatical
free phrases	substitution	substitutability	valency	

In the pioneering work on word combinations undertaken by V. Vinogradov, three main categories of word groups are identified and the criterion of 1) _____ is selected as focal in determining the degree of rigidity in word 2) _____. Thus, 3) _____ are transparent and non-restricted; they also permit the 4) _____ of each part of the combination. 5) _____ combinations are those containing a delexical verb, and, finally, 6) _____ are a varied category which is further subdivided into phraseological combinations, phraseological unities, and phraseological fusions.

The combinability of words is as a rule determined by their meanings, not their forms, thus one may speak of lexical, grammatical, and lexico-grammatical combinability. Each word belonging to a certain part of speech is characterized by 7) _____ or, in other words, the 8) _____ of lexical units. For example, in the sentence *I tell you a joke* the verb *tell* is two valent, and in the sentence *I will tell you a joke about a Scotchman* – three valent. While 9) _____ valency is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to.

Exercise 10. Identify which of the italicized units are a) phraseological units and which are b) free word-groups.

1. The author *leaves the beaten track* and offers a new treatment of the subject. 2. The tourist *left the beaten track* and saw a lot of interesting places. 3. I didn't expect that he would *throw cold water* upon our project. 4. He *threw some cold water* on his face to wake up. 5. *Keep the eye on* the child. 6. *Keep the butter* in the refrigerator. 7. *The reverse side of the medal* is we'll have to do it ourselves. 8. Have a look at *the reverse side of the jacket*. 9. I couldn't stand that noise any longer. I *lost my temper*. 10. Where do you think you *lost your wallet*?

1. Я не знаю, хто *лє ці помії* на мене (В. Большак). 2. Я думав, що таке можливо побачити тільки в кінокомедії. Але щоб серед біла дня *лити помії* з відра! 3. На столі вже тиждень лежить *черствий хліб*. 4. А дід Панас завжди був доволі *черствою людиною*. 5. Мама спекла до обіду *тертий калач*. 6. Він був, як кажуть, *тертий калач*, на такий немудрий розіграш не піддався, сказав. 7. Корабель зайшов у

гавань і кинув якір. 8. Вирішив він кинути свій важкий якір, позаяк набридло йому по світі блукати.

Exercise 11. Explain the meaning of the following combinations of words as: a) free word combinations and b) phraseological units.

Be on firm ground, best man, the bird has flown, black ball, blow one's own trumpet, break the ice, burn one's fingers, first night, keep one's head above water, meet smb. halfway, show smb. the door, run straight, touch bottom, throw dust in one's eyes, throw fat in the fire.

Ставати дибки, відводити очі, грати з вогнем, де раки зимують, бити себе в груди, дерти носа, сидіти на двох стільцях, білими нитками шитий, під мухою, доливати оливи до вогню, перші півні, як на долоні, виляти хвостом, не в тім'я битий? Тикати під ніс кислці.

Exercise 12. Arrange word-groups given below into three groups: a) set phrases, b) free phrases, and c) semi-fixed combinations.

go early, go to school, dead list, deadline, a shake of the hands, shake a leg, red rose, to shine brightly, by leaps and bounds, to curl lips, keep an eye, years of dust, come and go, fast asleep, about time, kick the bucket;

день за днем, піду подивлюся, бити лежачого, бити скло, бити байдики, білий вірш, чорне золото, мовний апарат людини, саме так, дубовий стіл, лишати слід, обернене число, протилежний напрям, встромляти носа.

Exercise 13. Identify which of the italicized units are a) set phrases, b) free phrases, and c) semi-fixed combinations. Explain your choice.

1. The author *leaves the beaten track* and offers a new treatment of the subject. 2. You'll *cut a poor figure* at the job interview if you wear jeans! 3. The tourist *left the beaten track* and saw a lot of interesting places. 4. I didn't expect that he would *throw cold water* upon our project. 5. He *threw some cold water* on his face to wake up. 6. *Keep the eye on* the child. 7. *Keep the butter* in the refrigerator. 8. *The reverse side of the medal* is we'll have to do it ourselves. 9. Have a look at *the reverse side of the jacket*. 10. I couldn't stand that noise any longer. I *lost my temper*. 11. Where do you think you *lost your wallet*?

1. Весь стіл завалений, *ніде курці клюнути*, ще не переглянутими книжками (Л. Українка). 2. Я почувався, наче *не в своїй тарілці*. 3. Не

лізь не в свою тарілку: за столом так себе не ведуть. 4. Як свої п'ять пальців знали хлопці ці місця. 5. Розсердившись, він вирішив їм дати відкоша. 6. Ідучи на зустріч, він зрозумів, що невірний крок може все звести нанівець. 7. І що з його «дитини» буде? Ні Богові свічка, ні чортові куришка, ні заміж, ні так, нікуди (П. Мирний). 8. Ми лише проти тієї інтимної лірики, <...> де немає ні глибоких людських переживань, ні справжньої любові, а солоденько-сиропні віршики чи мініатюри, з яких, як кажуть, ні Богу свічки, ні чорту кочерги (А. Малишко). 9. Часом їй допомагає Лі: вони завжди здійсмають галас, коди сходяться вдвох (Ш. Бронте). 10. Та що це ти мені байки плетеш, на глум здійсмаєш / береш, чи смієшся в вічі? 11. Вона не настільки небачена, щоб падати на коліна й здійсмати очі до неба (А. Сапковський).

Exercise 14. Find frequent collocations (verbal, adjectival, nominal etc.) with these words. If you do not know, use a dictionary or online corpus to help you. Say whether they are used metaphorically or literally and group them into: a) set phrases, b) free phrases, c) semi-fixed combinations. Then use them in the sentences of your own.

knowledge – знання
 success – успіх
 hand – рука

play – грати
 run, v. – бігти
 word – слово

Exercise 15. Compare the lexical combinability of words in the English and Ukrainian languages.

- англ. brown sneakers – укр. коричневі снікери
 Але: англ. brown eyes – укр. карі очі
 англ. brown hair – укр. каштанове волосся
 англ. brown bread – укр. чорний хліб
 англ. brown horse – укр. карий, гнідий, каро-гнідий кінь
- англ. flamboyant colour – укр. яскравий колір
 Але: англ. flamboyant personality – укр. різнобічна особистість
 англ. flamboyant foliage – укр. пишна листва
 англ. flamboyant sword – укр. вигнутий меч
- англ. engaging smile – укр. чарівна посмішка
 Але: англ. engaging boy – укр. привабливий хлопець
 англ. engaging frankness – укр. підкупаюча відвертість

- укр. високий замок – англ. high castle
- укр. високий тиск – англ. high pressure
- Але: укр. високий парубок – англ. tall boy
- укр. висока дівчина – англ. tall girl
- англ. to wash the face – укр. умивати обличчя
- Але: англ. to wash the linen – укр. прати білизну
- англ. to waste time – укр. згайнувати час
- Але: англ. to waste money – укр. розтринькати гроші
- англ. to impose one's opinion – укр. нав'язувати точку зору
- Але: impose an embargo – укр. накладати ембарго
- англ. to go home – укр. іти додому
- Але: to go by bus, to go by train – укр. їхати на автобусі, їхати на поїзді

Exercise 16. Give Ukrainian / English equivalents of the collocations below and state whether the lexical combinability in different languages coincide. Can you think of other examples to prove your point of view?

- rancid bacon, rancid butter;
- put on a dress, put on the shoes;
- green frog, green hand, green bananas;
- stale bread, stale cheese, stale air, stale data;
- sharp fall, sharp cry, sharp walk, sharp tactics, sharp envy, sharp ascent;
- red hair, red sweatshirt, red cheeks;
- sour milk, sour soup;
- wet sponge, wet compress, sopping wet, wet evening, wet blanket;
- dense forest, dense texture, dense person, dense poverty, dense ignorance.
- насипати цукор, насипати борщу, насипати пшениці;
- розв'язати задачу, розв'язати шнурки;
- красиві слова, красива жінка, красивий чоловік;
- висока трава, високий будинок, високе положення, високий чоловік;
- добрий борщ, добре серце, добрий знак, добрий шмат;
- свіже м'ясо, свіжий запах, свіжі сліди, свіжі слова, свіжа рима, свіжа квартира, свіжий одяг, свіжий голос;
- золота підвіска, золоті руки, золоті піски;
- теплі чоботи, тепле слово.

Exercise 17. Determine whether the word-combinations below are determined by a) lexical and / or b) grammatical valency. Contrast these word-groups with corresponding Ukrainian ones.

hot water, hot news, hot dog; to propose a plan, to suggest a plan, to propose to go abroad; to construct a sentence, to construct an argument; degree of comparison; word order change, a change of government, fundamental changes; garden plants, hot-house flowers, pot plants; to agree with somebody; to make tea, to make beds, to make faces, to make apologies.

Exercise 18. Complete the following sentences with appropriate words which are frequently collocated with the given ones. State the types of valency which determine these word-groups.

1. Maybe it was true love, or maybe it was _____ love, but love it was! (A. Elkin)	1. Неправда, що _____ кохання, Бо більше, все ж не менше бачить! Перевагає тут зізнання – Любов понад усе пробачить (Р. Lana).
2. It is important to _____ into account all options before _____ a decision. _____ yourself tea and think properly.	2. Якщо вони лише взялися до роботи, повернулися з обіду чи _____ собі каву і перепочили, позитивні рішення _____ більш ніж у 60 відсотках випадків (Дж. Сазерленд).
3. It was a _____ mistake, I am aware of it and I apologise to everyone for this.	3. _____ помилка в захисті призвела до того, що сьогодні ми зазнали першої поразки.
4. Who stirred and _____ the air? The credit crunch _____ public convictions about European financial system.	4. Безконечне гудіння літаків; повітря _____ над горами. Він сказав досить, щоб _____ переконання вісімнадцятирічної дівчини; досить, щоб зробити Фанні щасливішою, ніж вона була останнім часом (Дж. Остен).

6.3 Typology of English and Ukrainian Phraseological Units

Exercise 19. Give the definitions of the linguistic terms below.

phraseological fusions, phraseological unities, phraseological collocations, phraseological expressions (proverb, familiar quotation, cliché); phraseological polysemy, phraseological homonymy, phraseological synonymy, phraseological antonymy, absolute equivalents, near equivalents, genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies.

Exercise 20. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) phraseological fusions	a) word-groups such as proverbs, sayings and aphoristic familiar quotations
2) phraseological unities	b) completely non-motivated word-groups representing as their name suggests the highest stage of blending together
3) phraseological collocations	c) when phraseological units have similar meanings but different componential structures in contrasted languages
4) phraseological expressions	d) when all components of phraseological units are the same and absolutely identical or slightly different meaning in contrasted languages
11) absolute equivalents	e) clearly motivated with a high degree of stability
12) near equivalents	f) when a phraseological unit has one or more components missing or different either in one language or in contrasted languages
13) genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies	g) one part of such phraseological units has a figurative meaning and the other appears in its literal sense

Exercise 21. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. When the meaning of components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole and a word-combination is stable and indissoluble, such word-combination is called “phraseological unity”.

2. The majority of linguists classify phraseological units either on the basis of semantic motivation or on the basis of structure (transformation possibilities).

3. Semantic approach stresses the importance of idiomaticity, functional – syntactic inseparability, contextual – stability of context combined with idiomaticity.

4. The lexico-semantic classification was first introduced by V. V. Vinogradov in 1905.

5. The central component of a phraseological collocation is used in its direct meaning, while the others are used metaphorically.

6. The most common patterns of English and Ukrainian phrasemes are adjective+noun and verb+adverb.

Exercise 22. Insert the words missing in the text below:

phraseological units	phraseological fusions	phraseological unities
phraseological combinations	phraseologically bound	phrasemes
context	semantic motivated	idioms
	typology	function

Phraseological units are classified in accordance with several criteria. In the classification proposed by Ch. Bally and V. Vinogradov, which is the most widely accepted in both Ukrainian and English studies, 1) _____ are classified into 3 groups by taking into consideration the 2) _____ principle, namely, the degree of motivation of meaning. Thus, non-motivated units or units with a very low degree of motivation are called 3) “_____” 4) “_____”, on the contrary, are 5) _____ having one component in its direct meaning. When the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred, such phrases are called 6) “_____”.

Prof. N. Amosova classifies phraseological units according to the type of 7) _____. Phraseological units are marked by fixed context, therefore there are two groups: phrasemes and idioms. 8) _____ are characterized by idiomaticity (*mare's nest* ‘ночсеhc’), while 9) _____ consist of two components, one of which is 10) _____ and the second serves as the determining context: *green wound* ‘незагоєна рана’. Another 11) _____ is advocated by prof. O. Kunin and is based on the 12) _____ of the phraseological unit in communication. Phraseological units are classified into: nominative, nominative-communicative, interjectional, and communicative.

Exercise 23. State which of the phraseological units are a) fusions ‘фразеологічні зрощення’, b) unities ‘фразеологічні єдності’, c) phraseological collocations ‘фразеологічні сполучення’, d) phraseological expressions ‘фразеологічні вирази’.

a bee in one’s bonnet, black frost, to bear a grudge, to pull smb’s leg, once in a blue moon, small talk, gospel truth, bosom friends, a fish out of water, neck and crop, to dance attendance on smb, a little bird told me that, hell is paved with good intentions, to show the white feather, everyone calls his own geese swans, to shed crocodile tears, brevity is the soul of wit, green room, by heart, to make haste, under the weather, under attack, under the microscope, under the table; blow a fuse, blow the gaff, blow your own trumpet, blow a trumpet; a blind alley, spill the beans, fill the sink, burn the candle at both ends, go to the dogs, a chequered career, it takes two to tango, to paint the town red, knock one’s socks off;

пекти раків, чиста совість, дуба врізати, море по коліна, гарбуза дати, точити лясси, розводити антимонії; згода будує, а незгода руйнує; покласти край, дихати на ладан, відвести очі, прикусити язика, покласти зуби на полицю, закинути вудку, насупити брови; як дбаєш, так і маєш; не все те золото, що блищить; серце – не камінь, зітерти в порошок, живе на широку ногу, шолудиве порося і в петрівку мерзне, у сірка очі позичати.

Exercise 24. Classify the following phraseological units according to paradigmatic classes of idioms into: a) substantival, b) verbal, c) adjectival, and d) adverbial.

full of beans, couch potato, from scratch, bear fruit, off your own bat, cost an arm and a leg, safe and sound, on the mend, out of a clear sky, jack-of-all-trades, to milk the ram, a dog in the manger, by fits and starts, German silver, to the bitter end, spick and span, as cool as a cucumber;

синя панчоха, пускати цапа в капусту, лебедина пісня, неостання спиця в колесі, наріжний камінь, як на долоні, білими нитками шитий, клювати носом, одним миром мазані, під мухою, з відкритим серцем, мотати на вус, ускочити в халепу, хай тобі грець, цур тобі.

Exercise 25. a) Define the meanings of the following polysemantic phraseological units.

1. “That’s all up *in the air*. That’s the trouble with you. You are too impractical for words (A. J. Cronin). 2. Some were excited because there was scandal *in the air* (Ch. P. Snow). 3. There is such a feeling of joy *in the air*.

1. *Рота* як слід не вспіє *роззявити*, – зараз готове усе (П. Грабовський). 2. Ну, гони биків, чого *рота роззявив*? (Г. Тютюнник). 3. У хаті слухали, *роззявивши роти*, намагаючись не пропустити жодного слова (Я. Кочура). 4. На чуже добро ще змалку *рота роззявляє* (С. Голованівський). 5. Старі діди *роти пороззявляли*, бо ще ніколи не бачили такого нахабства. 6. Ось і чоботи в мене *роти пороззявляли* (Г. Квітка-Основ’енко).

b) Make up your own sentences to illustrate phraseological polysemy:

- off colour; come a cropper; be a far cry from smth;
- вести перед; ставати дибки; брати близько до серця.

Exercise 26. Group the phraseological units below into synonymous pairs. Give their Ukrainian / English equivalents.

1) to come to the wrong shop	1) that’s where the shoe pinches
2) to pin smb to the wall	2) to bark up a wrong tree
3) my little finger told me that	3) to raise a big smoke
4) to kick up a dust	4) by a short cut
5) in a bee line	5) one’s heart sinks into one’s boots
6) there is the rub	6) to drive smb into a corner
7) to have one’s heart in one’s mouth	7) as the tree, so the fruits
8) like teacher, like pupil	8) to hear it on the grapevine
1) лавровий вінок	1) байдики бити
2) у чорта на рогах	2) стріляний горобець
3) пройшов Крим і Рим і мідні труби	3) простягти ноги
4) врізати дуба	4) знати, де раки зимують
5) висіти на хвості	5) виводити на чисту воду
6) клеїти дурня	6) пальма першості
7) бувати в бувальцях	7) за тридев’ять земель
8) зривати маску	8) вити мотузки
9) варити воду	9) наступати на п’яти

Exercise 27. Match phraseological units in the left column to the appropriate synonyms on the right and describe your participation in classroom today.

1) twiddle your thumbs	1) грати в мовчанку / ні пари з уст
2) play the fool	2) байдики бити
3) to be busy as a bee	3) грати першу скрипку
4) bend over backwards	4) як білка в колесі
5) play first fiddle	5) ламати голову
6) rack your brains	6) відкрилося друге дихання
7) talk rubbish	7) верзти нісенітниці
8) have (got) one's head in the clouds	8) справляти посиденьки
9) get smb's second wind	9) витати у хмарах / ловити гав
10) killing time	10) валяти дурня
11) go through the motions	11) зі шкіри пнутися
12) wear out the seat of one's pants	12) зробити для галочки
13) not open one's mouth	13) протирати штани

Exercise 28. Group the phraseological units below into antonymic pairs. Give their Ukrainian / English equivalents.

1) dead from the neck up	1) as wise as a serpent
2) to keep mum	2) talk nineteen to dozen
3) as poor as a church mouse	3) as rich as Croesus
4) a green hand at smth	4) an old hand at smth
5) safe and sound	5) under the weather
6) as quick as a flash	6) as slow as a snail
1) з іншого тіста	1) у рот води набрати
2) рукою подати	2) за тридев'ять земель
3) макітра розуму	3) не довести до пуття
4) кури не клюють	4) як кіт наплакав
5) довести до пуття	5) вітер у кишнях свистить
6) хоч греблю гати	6) пустий лоб
7) теревені правити	7) як кіт наплакав
8) набитий гаманець	8) попускати віжки
9) натягати віжки	9) з одного тіста

Exercise 29. Comment on the phenomenon of phraseological homonymy and illustrate it with the sentences of your own.

to hang by one's eyebrows – 1. be in danger; 2. insist on, persevere

dead horse – 1. something that is no longer of any use or relevance; 2. a seaman who incurs debt for wages paid in advance

to break down – 1. to stop hurrying; 2. to fall apart, to stop operating, to lose control of one's emotions

дати чосу – 1. поспішно тікати, 2. бити когось, обороняючись

пущати півня – 1. влаштовувати пожежу, 2. зірватися на високій ноті

закривати очі – 1. помирати, 2. навмисно не помічати щось

ходити навшипінки – 1. підлещуватися, 2. ходити на кінчиках пальців

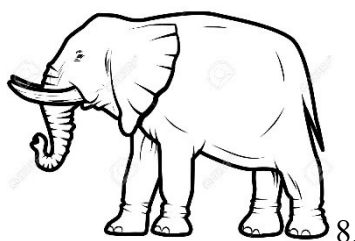
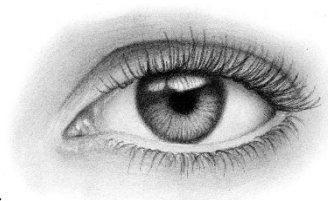
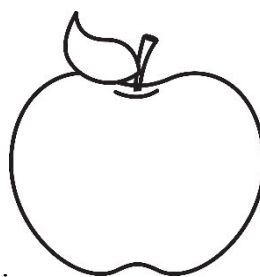
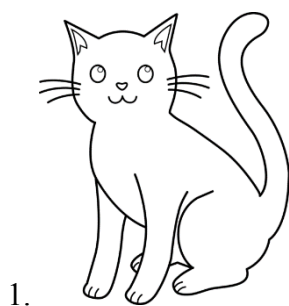
брати слово – 1. виступати, 2. брати обіцянку

стояти в голові – 1. з'являтися в пам'яті, 2. очолювати кого-небудь чи що-небудь

зав'язати голову – 1. вийти заміж, 2. заклопотатися чим-небудь

Exercise 30. Give the idioms with the words on the pictures below in English and Ukrainian. Determine whether they are a) absolute equivalents, a) near equivalents, or a) genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies in the contrasted languages. For example:

<i>(Has the) cat got your tongue?</i>	Язика проковтнув? Рот заціпило?	genuine and approximate
to buy a pig in a poke	купити kota в мішку	near equivalents
...



Exercise 31. Match English phraseological units on the left with Ukrainian ones on the right. Determine whether they are a) absolute equivalents, b) near equivalents, or c) genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies.

1) not for all the tea in China	1) на сьомому небі від щастя
2) from scratch	2) вночі всі кішки сірі
3) on cloud nine	3) називай речі своїми іменами
4) a lot of water has run under the bridge since then	4) охи та зітхання
5) all cats are grey in the dark	5) сіль землі
6) the salt of the earth	6) ні за що у світі
7) measure twice, cut once	7) з тих пір стільки води витекло
8) call things by their proper names	8) з нуля
9) flies go to a lean horse	9) сім раз одміряй, один раз одріж
10) to cast the first stone at one	10) першим кинути у когось каменем
11) to be tied to one's mother's apron strings	11) триматися за мамину спідницю
12) moan and groan	12) дружина Цезаря поза підозрою
13) Caesar's wife is above suspicion	13) ворон ворону око не виклює
14) to make a cat's paw of something	14) на похиле дерево і кози скачуть
15) dog does not eat the dog	15) не вмер Данило, так болячка задавила
16) to come off scot free	16) чужими руками жар вигрібати
17) it is six and half a dozen	17) ні пуху, ні луски!
18) more power to your elbow	18) вийти сухим з води

6.4 Sources of Phraseological Units in English and Ukrainian

Exercise 32. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

native phraseological units, borrowed phraseological units, national idioms, international idioms

Exercise 33. What are the main sources of a) native and b) borrowed phraseological units? Provide your own examples to each source of phraseological units.

Exercise 34. Insert the words missing in the text below:

native	borrowed	ancient	origin	Bible	literary sources
sources		customs	professional	speech	expressions

Phraseology of English and Ukrainian languages evolved over centuries due to contacts of one nation with other nations and their cultures. There are several 1) _____ of 2) _____ and 3) _____ idioms. The main source of creation and updating of idioms is a living ever-developing language, which gives popular expressions, proverbs, sayings, and jokes. Such statements related to rituals, 4) _____, way of life and the nature of people, e.g., *all roads lead to Rome, the seven deadly sins*, etc.

A lot of idioms are 5) _____: *many a little makes a mickle, measure thrice and cut once*, etc. In Ukrainian and English, there are also idioms of 6) _____: *the sword of Damocles, the Augean stables, Golden Fleece, Olympian calm, Gardens of Babylon*, etc. Idioms from the 7) _____: *Adam and Eve, the end of the world, the road to hell is paved with good intentions*, etc.

A large number of phraseological units were 8) _____ from European languages at a later time. These are expressions from world-famous fiction of H. C. Andersen, Galileo, Socrates, Descartes, etc. Phraseological expressions are figurative sayings, quotations, aphorisms, emerged from famous 9) _____ and begin to live their separate lives.

Exercise 35. Determine the source of phraseological units (literature, historical facts, legends, etc.) and state whether they are a) native or b) borrowed.

to pull smb's leg, with a grain of salt, sotto voce, la dolce vita, to save for a rainy day, to eat the humble pie, the iron curtain, spill the beans, a bird of passage, a fool's paradise, the curse of Scotland, according to Cocker, baker's dozen, an unlinked cub, an ugly duckling, the last of the Mohicans, the law of the jungle, to bury the hatchet, the hot seat, big card, the apple of discord, to hide one's head in the sand, to fiddle while Rome burns, penny wise and pound foolish, blue blood, the fair sex, to meet one's Waterloo, the kiss of Judas, to cast pearls before swine, to do a Thatcher, the green-eyed monster, to cut the painter;

теревені правити, з голови до п'ят, на ловця і звір біжить, з іншої опери, се ля ві ('таке життя'), Хома невіруючий, терновий вінок, співати Лазаря, Прокрустове ложе, Сізіфова праця, лінивому все ніколи, пропаша сила (П. Мирний), послухали Лисичку і Щуку кинули у річку (Л. Глібов), мій будинок – моя фортеця, як з гуся вода, золота орда, мудрий як лях по шкоді, дати гарбуза, на злодієві шапка горить, як медом по губах, молочні ріки й кисільні береги, опинитися в лещатах, з одного тіста, шукати голку в сіні, комар носа не підточить, як гриби після дощу, тут собака заритий, гомеричний сміх, як мертвому кадило, до сьомого коліна, утерти носа.

Exercise 36. Make distinction between a) national and b) international idioms.

Pandora's box; the Abbot of Unreason; honest Elb; Herculean pillars; a Dutch Bargain; to change one's base; Gordian knot; to beat the Dutch; between Scylla and Charybdis; to keep up with Joneses; to cross the Rubicon; I came, I saw, I conquered; Billy Wind; Bob's your uncle; the Ten Commandments; carry / bring / take coals to Newcastle; wise Solomon; prodigal son; to be in the seventh heaven; man on the Clapham omnibus; play gooseberry; to rain cats and dogs.

Як та мара, всі дороги ведуть до Риму, передати куті меду, крокодилові сльози, жити як кішка з собакою, як рукою зняло, розбити глек, носа не показувати, як з гуся вода, як вареник у сметані, у ногах правди немає, мотати собі на вус, крізь рожеві окуляри, блудний син, тримати язик за зубами, гнути спину, іти в ногу, вовк у овечій шкірі, на руку ковінька, піймати облизня, з'їсти пуд солі.

Exercise 37. Can you think of any Ukrainian idioms which became international or exist in English nowadays? Are there any Ukrainian idioms borrowed from English?

E.g. *the Orange revolution* *Останній з мозікан*

Exercise 38. Provide more examples of native phraseological units with proper names. State the source of phraseological units.

King Charles's head	язик до Києва доведе
A good Jack makes a good Jill	Не зівай, Хомка, на те ярмарок!
...	...

Seminar 7

Contrastive Typology of Word Formation in the English and Ukrainian Languages

- 7.1 Two Levels of Morphological Analysis: Morphemic and Derivational.
- 7.2 Morphological Way of Word-Formation in the English and Ukrainian Languages: Affixation.
- 7.3 Conversion as a Purely English Way of Word-Formation.
- 7.4 Syntactic Way of Word-Formation in the English and Ukrainian Languages: Compounding.
- 7.5 Shortening as a Language Universal.

7.1 Two Levels of Morphological Analysis: Morphemic and Derivational

Exercise 1. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

nomination, primary nomination, secondary nomination, word formation, word-derivation, word-composition, morphological analysis, morphemic analysis, the method of immediate and ultimate constituents, morpheme, root-morphemes, affixational morphemes, free morphemes, bound morphemes, semi-free morphemes, monomorphic (root) words, polymorphic words, derivational analysis, derivational affixes (stem-building, word-building), morphological stem, derivational pattern, derivational raw, derivational cluster, derivational base.

Exercise 2. Find equivalents in English to the following linguistic terms in the Ukrainian language.

словотвірна пара, словотвірний ланцюжок, словотвірна парадигма, словотвірне гніздо, словотвірний тип, твірна основа, словотвірне значення.

Exercise 3. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) morphemic analysis	a) an affixal morpheme which modifies the lexical meaning of the root and forms a new word
2) derivational analysis	b) occur only as a constituent part of a word

3) morpheme	c) aims at establishing structural and semantic patterns words are built on
4 root-morphemes	d) a regular meaningful arrangement of immediate constituents in the derived word; a structure that imposes rigid rules on the order and the nature of the derivational bases and affixes that may be brought together
5) derivational morphemes	e) the lexical nucleus of a word; common to a set of words making up a word-cluster
6) free morphemes	f) the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning which occurs in speech only as a part of a word
7) bound morphemes	g) the segmentation of a word into morphemes, the defining their number and types
8) derivational pattern	h) a complex unity of words possessing the same root-morpheme, but built on a number of patterns and characterized by specific organization
9) derivational base	i) a group of words built on the same derivational pattern
10) derivational cluster	j) coincide with the stem or a word-form
11) derivational raw	k) the part of the word to which another base or an affix is added to make up a new word

Exercise 4. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Derivational morphology refers to the ways in which new words are made on the basis of other words or morphemes.

2. The morphemic analysis aims at breaking the word into constituent derivatives determining their number and types.

3. The morphological stem of a word is the part of the word which takes on the system of grammatical inflections and remains unchanged throughout its paradigm.

4. Polyradical words fall into 3 subtypes: radical-suffixal, radical-prefixal, and prefixo-radical-suffixal.

5. The morphemic analysis reveals the way a word is constructed.

6. A bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word.

7. Derivational affixes in their stem-building functions build a lexical unit of a structural and semantic type different from the one represented by the source unit.

Exercise 5. Insert the words missing in the text below:

morphological analysis	morphemic analysis	derivational analysis	
division	method	derivational affix	derivational pattern
morpheme	derivational base	free	bound
Immediate Constituent	Ultimate constituent		

There are two levels of 1) _____: morphemic and derivational.
2) _____ is word-formation analysis, the basic units of which are a
3) _____ (a part of word to which a rule of word-formation is
applied), a 4) _____ (stem-building and word-building ones), and a
5) _____ (a regular meaningful arrangement, a structure that
imposes rules on the order of affixes that may be brought together).

6) _____ is the segmentation of a word into morphemes,
defining their number and types, e.g., en / camp – en / camp / ment (2
morphemes – 3 morphemes). 7) _____ is defined as the smallest
meaningful unit of a language (Lim Kiat Boey). Words are made up of
morphemes. The morphemes which can meaningfully stand alone are
called 8) _____ morphemes while the morphemes such as *-er* and
-s, which cannot meaningfully stand alone, are called 9) _____
morphemes. Bound morphemes must be attached to free morphemes.

The procedure of segmenting words is generally carried out
according to the 10) _____ of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents.
This method consists of breaking a word into the constituent morphemes –
Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. We cut out the morpheme without
which the word exists. Each 11) _____ at the next stage of analysis
is in its turn broken into two smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is
completed when we arrive at constituents, incapable of further
12) _____, i.e. morphemes. 13) _____ is part of a word which
cannot be further divided. 14) _____ is part of the word which can
be further divided.

Exercise 6. Analyse the following words morphologically and
classify them into:

1. a) simple, b) derived, c) compound;

2. a) monomorphemic, b) polymorphemic (monoradical, polyradical)

absorptiveness, adjustment, antithesis, decentralization, fatherhood,
driver, red-hot, short, misbehave, cinema-goer, perfectionist, bathtub,
inaccessible, long-term, malformed, hard, kingdom, flambé, old-fashioned,
class-consciousness, outdo, lamp-shade;

самоаналіз, книга, мовознавство, кіловат-година, перекладати, цар-жайворонок, зелений, антигуманний, ультразвук, підвіконня, заморський, жебрак, вікно, річечка, веселун, бог, міль, донині.

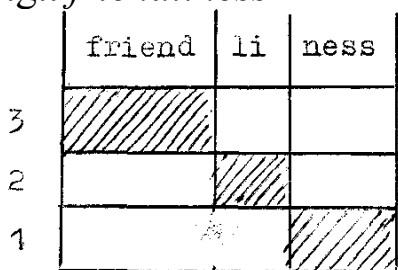
Exercise 7. Use morphemic analysis strategy to decode word meanings. State whether morphemes are a) free, b) bound, or c) semi-free (semi-bound).

Thatcherism, intermarriage, semi-literate, airsickness, thumbtack, hospitalization, uncivilized, auctioneers, exceptionally, low-maintenance, hypoallergenic, non-indigenous, co-signatories, carefully-controlled;

безмежний, перепідготовка, позаплановий, закидати, відбиток, знеособлення, широколистий, варенична, вельмишановний, залізобетонний, мінпраці, розшукувати, колискова, керуючий, протоплазманий.

Exercise 8. Present the word-structures on the morphemic level with the help of a box-like diagram, applying the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents.

E.g.: *friendliness*



- acceptability, enslavement, disagreeable, barbarism, unsmiling;
- відбудувати, віднаходити, прижиттєвий, заробіток, лісництво.

Exercise 9. Provide morphological composition and derivational patterns for the words below as it is shown in the example:

im / person / a / liz / ation – pf + R + 3sf (morphological composition)
impersonalize / ation – v + sf = N (derivational pattern)

disproportionateness, confidentially, temporarily, antiplagiarism;
 прозелень, пританцьовувати, змилюватися, нарукавник.

Exercise 10. Give derivational clusters to the words below in the contrasted languages.

black – чорний
 brother – брат
 forest – ліс

mother – мати
 write – писати
 love – кохання

Exercise 11. Match the terms on the left with the illustrations on the right. Explain your choice.

a derivational set	impersonalization, dependence, education
a derivational cluster	sideward, headward, homeward
a derivational category	to niece – niece – nieceless
a derivational pattern	kingdom, assemblage, brotherhood, authorship

Exercise 12. Choose words in which morphemic and derivational structures coincide.

dipolar, unfair, amoral, impulsive, painless, inky, epidermic, ashen, oceanic, delicate, moony, silken, antiwar, western, morphological, reconstruction, brotherly, justification, reproduction;

урбанізація, лісок, пролісок, безлісся, клеїти, прадід, антизакон, контрудар, кривляка, дідуган, гуманізм, сибіряк, поетеса, прибережжя, порошити, горб, виярок, обезлюдніти, якати, прийти.

7.2 Morphological Way of Word-Formation in the English and Ukrainian Languages: Affixation

Exercise 13. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

morphological way of word-formation, affixation, affix, stem, root, inflection, suffixation, prefixation, productive, nonproductive, augmentative, diminutive.

Exercise 14. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) word-formation	a) the formation of new words with the help of derivational affixes
2) morphological way of word-	b) the ability to form new words after existing patterns which are readily understood by the

formation	speakers
3) affix	c) the formation of new words with the help of prefixes
4) affixation	d) a morpheme that is attached to a word stem to form a new word or word form
5) suffixation	e) affixation, compounding, and non-affixal word-formation
6) prefixation	f) not active in word-formation any more, not building new words
7) productivity	g) the creation of new words from elements already existing in the language
8) nonproductive	h) the formation of new words with the help of suffixes

Exercise 15. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. The ways of word-formation are morphological, morphological-syntactic, lexical-semantic, and semantic-syntactic.

2. By productive affixes are meant the ones, which take part in deriving new words in this particular period of language development.

3. From the etymological point of view, affixes are classified into living and dead affixes.

4. A prefix is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class.

5. Stem is unsegmentable, the core of the word, once all affixes are removed, while the root is that part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm.

6. A suffix is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a different word class.

Exercise 16. Insert the words missing in the text below:

affix	affixation	derivation	category	compounding	stem
word formation	inflectional	lexemes	suffixation	circumfixation	

The term 1) “_____” refers to the creation of new lexemes in a language and is generally said to be composed of compounding and derivation. By 2) “_____” we therefore mean to refer to those parts of word formation other than compounding, a definition that is used by Aikhenvald. Derivation may be either 3) _____ -changing, or non-4) _____ -changing; for example, personal nouns may be formed from verbs but also from other nouns. Bauer defines 5) _____ as “the formation of a new lexeme by adjoining two or more lexemes”. What we are left with when we subtract compounding from word formation are ways of creating new lexemes other than putting two or more 6) _____ together. In formal terms, this encompasses various kinds of 7) _____ (prefixation, 8) _____, infixation, 9) _____), but also reduplication, conversion, pattern word formation.

Affixation is one of the two traditional processes of word formation. Affixation entails the addition of an 10) _____ to a 11) _____ to yield a complex stem. For clarity, affixes are classified functionally in the literature into three, namely: 12) _____, derivational, and extensional.

Exercise 17. Comment on the meaning of the prefixes and arrange them into groups according to their semantics into:

a) negative, b) reversative, or privative, c) pejorative, d) locative, e) oppositive, f) temporal, g) repetitive.

amoral, antipode, contradiction, restate, foresee, anomalous, pseudo-science, non-resident, ungrateful, immobile, misprint, ex-trophy wife, unfasten, unleash, counter-bid, post-classical, decentralize, maltreat, sub-prime, transformation, superstructure, intercontinental, pre-historic, overspread, repay.

Exercise 18. Classify the following prefixes into:

1. a) international, b) national;
2. a) productive, b) semi-productive, c) non-productive.

Exemplify your answer. Find allomorphic and isomorphic features.

extra-	post-	без-	на-
sub-	pre-	не-	за-
anti-	part-	пере-	від-
co-	ampni-	при-	про-
ex-	ob-	над-	об-
em-	retro-	по-	анти-

intra- mono- mega- fore-	up- circum- forth- Euro-	щонай- якнай- з- до-	роз- через- екстра- архі-
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Exercise 19. Classify prefixes according to the type of base to which prefixes are added into:

a) denominal, b) deverbal, c) deadjectival, d) mixed type.

Provide the examples.

arch-, co-, over-, contra-, dys-, per-, be-, de-, sub-, en-, pre-, out-, re-, un-, ir-, ex-, mis-, post-	па-, пра-, су-, до-, пре-, зверх-, над-, за-, поза-, не-, без-, від-, пере-, пре-, під-, по-, про-, спів-, екстра-, у-, о-, об-, зне-, обез-, недо-
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Exercise 20. Contrast the ways of forming words with negative prefixes in English and Ukrainian providing equivalents to the following words:

нездара, недогодовувати, неук, недбалий, недалекий, невідомий, невинний, неублаганний, невдалий, невдоволений, незгода, ненапад, неповага, непорядок, недооцінювати, неволя, нечесний, нещасний, несмачний, недобррозичливий, нетактовний, невиразний, невпинний, невидимий, невітшний, недобрий, невдячний, нечуваний, небачений, невиліковний, невгамовний.

Exercise 21. Give English equivalents to the following words with prefix *роз-*.

розлити, розрядити, роздягати, розв'язати, розклеїти, розчинити, розцвісти, розтоптати, розпалити, розвінчати, розмірковувати, розморозувати, розіслати, розгвинтити, розірвати, розвантажити, розкрутити, роздавати, роз'єднати, роззброїти, розлюбити, розрити.

Exercise 22. Comment on the meaning of the prefixes *non-* and *mis-*. Give English equivalents to the following words.

non-believer, non-ability, non-existence, non-fulfillment, nonsense, non-voter, non-freezing, non-ferrous, non-logical, non-slip, non-solicitation;

misinform, misanthropic, misunderstand, miscarry, misleading, misprinted, mispronounce, misbehaving, misaddress, mis-sale, misalignment.

Exercise 23. Paraphrase the following word-combinations using the verbs with the prefix *en-* / *em-*. Can you think of any words with the same suffix in Ukrainian?

to reduce to slavery, to give power, to place on a throne, to put into a cage, to hold fast with a chain, to enclose in a circle, to expose to danger, to make rich.

Exercise 24. Pick out prefixed words and say whether there are any divergences in the means of expressing the same meaning in the contrasted languages.

1. There would be a time for rearrangements and readjustments. 2. Your co-believers, my dear chaplain, are remarkably unscrupulous and remarkably insensitive about those of us who have come to the opposite conclusion (C. P. Snow). 3. In all big cities there are self-contained groups that can exist without intercommunication. 4. He argues that farm subsidies help keep agricultural land away from corporate monopolies (Cambridge Dict.).

1. Від люті, від відчуття жагучої несправедливості, від небажання заплющувати очі на очевидність я почав вкриватися гусячою шкірою, мене почало підтрисувати (О. Дроздов). 2. Воно й справді так мене налякало, що я перемиг незручність і підійшов до кінооператора, ... і зважився натякнути йому, чи він не підкинув би своїх друзів до поліції, ... а я зобов'язаний деінде залагодити одну дуже пильну справу, таку пильну, якої ніяк не відкласти, і мушу негайно від'їхати а йому ж справді по дорозі (Е. Андієвська).

Exercise 25. Classify the following suffixes into:

- a) international, b) national;
- a) productive, b) semi-productive, c) non-productive.

-able, -al, -ance, -er, -ment, -or, -ist, -ness, -ise, -tion, -ful, -ous, -ive, -ish, -y, -ure, -hood, -dom, -ee, -ing, -ship, -th, -ster, -ancy, -ess	-ся, -изува-, -тель, -іст, -ар, -ант, -ент, -ізм, -ав, -н-, -альн-, -жн-, -ат, -есеньк-, -юсіньк-, -ев, -атор, -ор, -ант, -щик
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Exercise 26. Enumerate the suffixes according to their semantics and exemplify your answer. Point out isomorphism or allomorphy in the corresponding suffixes in the contrasted languages.

Semantics	Suffixes in English	Suffixes in Ukrainian
agent	<i>-ant (defendant), ...</i>	<i>-ант (курсант), ...</i>
nationality
collectivity		
diminutiveness		
quality/state		
relating to		
direction		
absence/lack of sth		
condition		
cause		
female sex		

Exercise 27. Identify whether the words below carry grammatical information (inflectional suffixes) or lexical information (derivational / lexical suffixes). Provide your own examples in Ukrainian.

peckish, priest, hungriest, mummy, closure, closer, central, laziness, elusive, dependence, bored, played, wolves.

Exercise 28. Give the corresponding Ukrainian words to the nouns below. What meanings does the suffix *-er* possess in each particular case?

barrister	worker	owner
bumper	poacher	newcomer
duster	employer	prisoner
poster	Londoner	folder
interceptor	teacher	reminder
marauder	tanker	blabber
frontier	intruder	fiver
boaster	player	thinker
fourter	loser	rectifier

Exercise 29. Give the corresponding English words to the nouns below. What meanings does the suffix *-ник* possess in each particular case?

чарівник	суперник	візник
кулеметник	купальник	записник
олійник	намотувальник	напильник
двірник	рятівник	довідник
провідник	заготівник	мандрівник
заступник	керівник	відправник

Exercise 30. Classify prefixes according to the type of base to which prefixes are added into: 1) noun-suffixes, 2) adjective-suffixes, 3) verb-suffixes, 4) adverb-suffixes. Provide at least one example for each suffix.

-er, -dom, -ness, -en, -fy, -ly, -ize, -ation, -able, -les, -ful, -ous, -ward, -ic, -ive, -ure, -ful, -ment, -ism, -ant, -ese, -ate, -ance, -ish	-ець, -ун, -ува, -ш, -ень, -ит, -уват, -атор, -тель, -ниц, -ств, -ощ, -очок, -альн, -езн, -ки, -ськ, -ів, -їн, -ома, -о, -е, -ма
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Exercise 31. Form diminutive and augmentative nouns from the following nouns. State which suffixes are diminutive and which are augmentative. Find allomorphic and isomorphic features in the contrasted languages.

-ee, -zilla, -let, -ling, -kin, -el / -le, -ing, -cule, -o, -ock, -ette, -ie, -icle, -een, -y

boot, God, velvet, cloud, granny, kitchen, wolf, lord, hill, lady, ring, bird, mount, mors (Old French), doll, wack;

-ань, -к, -ок, -ил, -ач, -ищ, -яр, -юр, -ик, -ець, -ичка, -инка, -очк / -ечк, -еньк, -ун, -ик, -е / -є

морда, брат, друг, дівчина, здоровий, маляр, собака, вовк, рука, ніс, борода, тато, вершок, Тарас, копійка, річка, молода, мати, край, син, бабуся, вікно, музикант, франт, мішок, діжка.

Exercise 32. State whether the prefixes or suffixes in the words below are stylistically marked.

rhomboid, over-allotment, overrate, asteroid, crustaceous, cyclotron, super-commuting, steerable, pre-approach, pre-election, sublieutenant, capable, customer;

річенька, завучка, пристанище, становище, видовище, дідище, писака, мамій, читака, попобігати, попозаглядати.

Exercise 33. Define the way of word formation paying attention to a) postfixation, b) suffixation-postfixation, and c) prefixation-postfixation.

outsourcing, semi-independent, interpersonal, antechamber, internationalism, mispronunciation, retribution, deforestation, indifference, incompleteness, dishonesty, excruciatingly, misjudgment;

якнайвседозволеніший, перештовхування, розбігтися, суцвіття, виярок, суглинок, вчитатися, колоситися, співрозмовник, перешийок, безкласовий, навколоземний, міжнародний, віддієслівний, сушитися.

7.3 Conversion as a Purely English Way of Word-Formation

Exercise 34. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

conversion, zero-derivation, adverbialization, verbalization, substantivation, adjectivation, denominal verbs, deverbal substantives, reconversion, occasional conversion.

Exercise 35. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) conversion	a) verbs which are converted from nouns
2) adverbialization	b) the process of producing a noun from another part of speech by changing the category of a part of speech
3) verbalization	c) the formation of an adjective from another part of speech by changing the category of a part of speech
4) substantivation	d) nouns which are converted from verbs
5) adjectivation	e) way of forming words by changing the category of a part of speech in a given context only
6) reconversion	f) when the semantic structure of the base in a converted pair in the course of time may acquire a new meaning or several meanings under the influence of the meanings of the converted word
7) occasional conversion	g) the formation of adverbs from other parts of speech by a non-affixal way
8) denominal	h) a process of making a new word from some

verbs	existing root word by changing the category of a part of speech
9) deverbal substantives	i) the process of the formation of verbs from a different part of speech by a non-affixal way

Exercise 36. Say whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Conversion is a highly productive way of coining new words in Modern Ukrainian.

2. Conversion is sometimes referred to as zero derivation, root formation, transposition, or functional change.

3. The syntactic structure of Modern English contributes to the productivity of conversion.

4. The semantic change regularly accompanies each instance of conversion.

5. The flexibility of the English vocabulary system makes a word created by conversion capable of further derivation.

6. Conversion can be combined with other word-building processes, namely composition.

7. Being a way of forming words, conversion leads to a numerical enlargement of the English wordstock, whereas reconversion only brings about a new meaning correlated with one of the meanings of the converted word.

Exercise 37. Insert the words missing in the text below:

conversion	derivation	zero-derivation	morphemic
category	adjectivation	adverbalization	verbalization
	denominal verb	deverbal	substantivation
		substantive	

From canonical point of view, conversion is part of lexical 1) _____. One school of thought views 2) _____ as “zero-affixation” or “3) _____”, that is on analogy with affixation. An alternative interpretation places conversion outside derivation and presents it as lexical creation. It consists of making new words from some existing ones by changing the 4) _____ of a part of speech, the 5) _____ shape of the original word remaining unchanged.

Among the main varieties of conversion are the formation of verbs (6) _____), the formation of adverbs (7) _____), the formation of nouns (8) _____), and the formation of adjectives (9) _____. When the verb is converted from a noun, it is called a 10) “_____”, while a noun converted from a verb is called a 11) “_____”.

Exercise 38. Discriminate between a) adverbialization, b) verbalization, c) substantivation, and d) adjectivation in the contrasted languages.

1. He called the new building unoriginal and said that it merely *aped* the classical traditions (Cambridge Dict.). 2. The vase stands out against the *white* of the wall (Cambridge Dict.). 3. I am going home for dinner. 4. If debt or equity securities are traded on an exchange, their *market* price is considered to be the last price at which they were sold (www.accountingtools.com). 5. The soldiers used to *black* their faces (Cambridge Dict.). 6. We must arrange the negotiations so we have an *out* if we need it (Cambridge Dict.). 7. She *briefed* him on last week’s decisions’. 8. Click on the *down* arrow. 9. Where did you *winter* last year?

1. Не вернеться *чорнобривий* Та й не привітає (Т. Шевченко). 2. *Іспанська* виникла в Кастилії. 3. Я б не радив тобі їхати *зайцем*. 4. На першому місці, звичайно, свіже коров’яче молоко. А також *кип’ячене* або *парене* у печі (О. Кононенко). 5. *Хворий* прийшов до лікаря на черговий огляд. 6. *Моя* прийшла, мушу бігти. 7. Що буде від милого, Мого чорнобривого? Прийшов *милий* з дороги, А я йому *бух* в ноги: Що я, *милий*, зробила, Корівоньку пропила! (Укр. народна пісня). 8. Марія працює *ранком*. 9. А тоді *хан* рукою за бороду, *хан* за шапку (Г. М. Тютюник).

Exercise 39. Comment on the meaning of denominal verbs in the following word-combinations: a) instrumental meaning; b) acquisition, c) addition or d) deprivation, etc.

to monkey somebody, to oil the engine, to air the room, to skin the apple, to chair a candidate, to finger the pages, to dress a wound, to speed the car, to dust a cake with sugar, to dust furniture, to milk the cows, to hook a picture, to fish for compliments, to nail one’s audition, to nail a shelf, to map a programme, to table a resolution, to honeymoon in the Bahamas, to groom for leadership, to lunch with somebody, to value one’s life.

Exercise 40. Comment on the meaning of deverbal substantives in the following word-combinations: a) agent of the action, b) process, c) state, etc.

his last try, a fizzy drink, a good wash, a violent pull, a return of her capital, go for a bite, a run of bad luck, a compulsive flirt, the most expensive purchase, a tax cheat, beauty sleep, a floppy drive, to give a push, important archaeological finds, a stag hunt.

Exercise 41. Convert the words below into other parts of speech and use them in the sentences of your own.

ladle (n.) – ...	bitter (adj.) – ...	cut (v.) – ...
camp (n.) – ...	wet (adj.) – ...	move (v.) – ...
cod (n.) – ...	regular (adj.) – ...	jump (v.) – ...
redbrick (n.) – ...	natural (adj.) – ...	switch (v.) – ...
looking glass (n.) – ...	dirty (adj.) – ...	supper (v.) – ...
soul (n.) – ...	empty (adj.) – ...	garage (v.) – ...
butcher screw (n.) – ...	calm (adj.) – ...	can (v.) – ...

Exercise 42. Make up sentences, using the following words and word combinations. Prove they are converted stating the derivational pattern of conversion.

to tame, too many ifs and buts, cotton (adj.), a must, a monthly, to dirty, ologies and isms, to father, to up and do it, to down tools, to pale, to slim, to take a swim, the ups and downs, to capture, to pen.

Exercise 43. Comment on the examples of converted words in the sentences below. State what part of speech they belong to and the derivational pattern of conversion.

1. He up and awayed to London. He had never been outed before (L. V. Ganetska). 2. This business has its ups and downs. 3. Miss Watkins was a nobody. She was a drifter (P. Benchley). 4. Their coffee cooled in front of them. 5. I am going to take a dip in the pool. 6. She is to give you a ring after dinner. 7. His face crimsoned and two big veins stood out on his forehead (A. Christie). 8. A little staircase corkscrewed up to it from the hall. 9. Soames walked eastward, mousing along the shady side (J. Galsworthy). 10. Mother stopped ladling the broth.

Exercise 44. Pick out the cases of occasional conversion and comment on them.

1. “Five chairs were set in a semi-circle around Ariella’s desk. ‘Siddown,’ she Don Corleoned. ‘Okay, the good news is that you’re not fired. Yet.’ We all laughed far too loud and long” (M. Keyes). 2. He worked in design – it was how they’d met – but sometimes he DJ’d at festivals and wore the pork-pie hat of a hipster (M. Keyes). 3. «If you could be a vegetable, would you be boiled, dauphinoise, turnips or julienned? ‘Julienned. Definitely.’ ‘As I suspected,’ she said. ‘The most elegant choice.’ (M. Keyes). 4. And there was Shay Delaney, hail-fellow-well-met-ing his way around the party, but he wasn't coming within a mile of me (M. Keyes).

7.4 Syntactic Way of Word-Formation in the English and Ukrainian Languages: Compounding

Exercise 45. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

compounding, compound word, word-composition, juxtapositional compounds, morphological compounds, syntactic compounds, idiomatic compounds, motivated compounds, distributional and derivational patterns of compounds.

Exercise 46. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) compounding	a) are compounds in which two compounding stems are combined by a linking vowel or consonant
2) a compound word	b) is a type of compound with figurative meaning
3) neutral compounds	c) is a type of compound that denotes a referent (a person, animal or thing) by specifying a certain characteristic or quality the referent possesses
4) morphological compounds	d) is a type of word-building when new words are produced by combining two or more stems
5) syntactic compounds	e) are nonce-compounds in which elements of a phrase united by their attributive function and are united graphically by a hyphen, or even solid spelling

6) idiomatic compounds	f) is a type of compound where words are composed without any linking elements
7) derivational compounds	g) is two or more words linked together to produce a word with a new meaning
8) coordinative compounds	h) is a type of compound which has affixes in its structure
9) holophrasis (quotation compounds)	i) are integrated phrases formed from segments of speech, preserving articles, prepositions, and adverbs in their structure
10) a bahuvrihi compound	g) is a type of compound in which both components are structurally and semantically independent

Exercise 47. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Compounding is the way of word-building when a word is formed by joining just two stems to form one word.

2. The structural unity of a compound word does not depend upon the unity of stress.

3. English compounds have the unity of morphological and syntactic functioning.

4. According to the order of the components, compounds are divided into compounds with direct order and with indirect order.

5. Compounding by juxtaposition of free words (root words or stems) is considerably more productive in Ukrainian.

6. Ukrainian has only a few compound adverbs of its own and some nouns of foreign origin of this type.

7. Unlike Ukrainian, both immediate constituents of an English compound are as a rule bound forms.

8. The regular pattern for the English language is a two-stem compound.

9. Structurally, compounds are distinguished as syntactic and asyntactic combinations.

Exercise 48. Insert the words missing in the text below:

composition stems clipped constituents juxtapositional solid inseparable unity semantic functioning features syntactic immediate
--

Compounding or word- 1) _____ is one of the productive types of word-formation in Modern English. Compounds are made up of two Immediate 2) _____ (ICs) which are both derivational bases. Compound words are 3) _____ vocabulary units.

The structural unity of a compound word depends upon: a) the 4) _____ of stress, b) 5) _____ or hyphenated spelling, c) 6) _____ unity, d) unity of morphological and syntactic 7) _____. These are characteristic 8) _____ of compound words in all languages.

Compound words may be classified according to the type of composition and the linking element into 9) _____, morphological, and 10) _____ compounds. According to the structure of 11) _____ constituents, we distinguish compounds, consisting of simple 12) _____; compounds, where at least one of the constituents is a derived stem; and where at least one of the constituents is a 13) _____ stem.

Exercise 49. Choose either a) a compound or b) a free word-group to complete each sentence.

1. Sam led the *sightseers / sight seers* on a mountain hike. 2. I like to keep my *household / house hold* tidy and organized. 3. When I saw his new *lap top / laptop*, I thought, “Wow! What a *supercomputer / super computer!*” 4. The police targeted a radius of six blocks for a crime *crackdown / crack down*. 5. No one likes to ride with Rachel because she drives like she has a *lead foot / leadfoot*. 6. The eastern exposure and large windows make this a very *hothouse / hot house*. 7. Do you know the secret *catchphrase / catch phrase?* 8. The plane will not leave until we are all *onboard / on board*. 9. I’d like to find a way to avoid being *bed ridden / bedridden* because of my terrible *back ache / backache*. 10. If your *roommate / room mate* decides to move out, I plan to move in.

Compare similar compounds with free word-groups in Ukrainian.

мати й мачуха – мати-й-мачуха, вічно зелений – вічнозелений, гідний жалю – жалюгідний, батько й мати – батько-мати, хто знає – хтозна, бог знає – бозна.

Exercise 50. Arrange the following compounds according to the means of joining their IC's together into a) juxtapositional compounds, b) morphological compounds, c) syntactic compounds.

difficult-to-learn, nearby, night-flight, once-a-year, sunburnt, clean-shaven, whitewash, handicraft, saleswoman, queen-bee, breath-taking, Anglo-American, servant-of-all-work, undertaker, killjoy, necktie, touch-me-not, butterfly-fingers, sunbathe, whoever, yes-man, sick-leave, tender-hearted	залізобетон, хвилеріз, землемір, матч-реванш, жовто-блакитний, лікар-терапевт, морозостійкий, диван-ліжка, землекористування, харчоблок, соціально-політичний, пилосос, чорнозем, газонафтовий, фільм-опера, дотла, втридорога, чимдуш, горілиць, самопал, обидва, гуртожиток, вічнозелений
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Exercise 51. Classify the following compounds into a) co-ordinative and b) subordinative. Define the semantic centre of each of them.

Lazy-bones, standstill, pine-apple, beetroot, air-base, frontbenchers, sea-coast, airman, helter-skelter, secretary-manager, doorbell, pickpocket, scarecrow, nosebleed, skyscraper, frost-resistant, cinema-goer, oil-poor, good-for-nothing, dark-blue, freedom-loving;

секретар-референт, миротворець, сіро-зелений, словотвір, блідо-жовтий, ракета-носій, бронетранспортер, сонцезахисний, казково-недосяжний, законопроект, сніжно-білий, народовладдя, медико-санітарний, місто-гігант, триповерховий, вагон-ресторан.

Exercise 52. Analyse the structure of the IC's of the following compound words consisting of a) simple stem, b) derived stem, c) compound stem, d) clipped stem.

Film-star, fancy-dress-maker, week-end, baby-sitter, aircraft-carrier, telesale, aircraft-carrier, left-winger, A-bomb, wastepaper-basket, letter-writer, snowball, bluestocking, backbencher, do-gooder;

хліб-сіль, новорічний, сон-трава, батько-мати, татар-зілля, україно-німецький, спортбаза, дрібнолистий, близько-споріднений, сільгосптехніка, книгодрукар, всюдихід, світловодолікарня.

Exercise 53. Discriminate between the ICs of compound words representing bases that coincide with a) morphological stems, b) word-forms, c) word-groups. Provide corresponding Ukrainian examples for each structural type.

Paper-bound, four-roomed, day-dreamer, wind-driven, blue-eyed, long-fingered, heart-broken, glass-walled, woman-grown, tax-payer, window-cleaner, wind-screen-wiper.

Exercise 54. Find one word, which will go in front of or after these words to make compounds. Comment on their meanings.

1. _____ work, _____ made, _____ coming
2. _____ mail, _____ board, _____ bird
3. surf _____, chess _____, card _____
4. _____ less, _____ broken, _____ beat, _____ burn, _____ throb
5. _____ dresser, _____ brush, _____ do, _____ style
6. _____ piece, _____ wash, _____ watering
7. _____ дійний, _____ плинний, _____ друкувальний,
8. _____ значність, _____ полюсник, _____ вимірний,
9. біло _____, довго _____, кругло _____,
10. блакитно _____, каро _____, чорно _____,
11. морозо _____, волого _____, жаро _____.

Exercise 55.

- a) Analyse compounds below on the base of the a) graphic, b) phonetic, c) morphological, and d) semantic criteria.

депутат-коаліціант – ...	shrewd-head – ...
всюдихід – ...	heat-resistant – ...
середньовіччя – ...	spick-and-span – ...
життєздатний – ...	up-to-date – ...
всього-на-всього – ...	milkman – ...
землетрус – ...	light-blue – ...
Нацбанк – ...	splashdown – ...
всезнайко – ...	off-set – ...
лихословити – ...	shilly-shally – ...

b) Provide their English / Ukrainian equivalents and contrast them.

c) Can you point out any idiomatic compounds in the list above?

d) Provide your own examples to illustrate isomorphic and allomorphic features of compounding in the contrasted languages.

7.5 Shortening as a Language Universal

Exercise 56. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

shortening, clipping, blending, abbreviations, acronyms, splinters, apocope, aphaeresis, syncope, telescoping.

Exercise 57. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) shortening	a) the result of clipping of the end or the beginning of a word
2) abbreviations	b) words in which some syllables or sounds have been omitted from the middle
3) blends	c) words shortened at the end
4) splinters	d) formed by means of merging parts of words (not morphemes) into a new word
5) clipping	e) the way of formation of new words by means of substituting a part of the word for a whole
6) apocope	f) words shortened at the beginning
7) aphaeresis	g) are formed from the first letters of the words to be shortened
8) syncope	h) the creation of new words by shortening a word of two or more syllables without changing its class membership

Exercise 58. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Blending is also called telescoping because the words seem to slide into one another like sections of a telescope.

2. Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word.

3. As a type of word-building, shortening of spoken words is also called clipping, curtailment or contraction.

4. Abbreviations are formed from two or more words and are used to represent a long form of the words.

5. Sometimes analogy as a psycholinguistic phenomenon influences the creation of the new abbreviations.

6. In blends, two ways of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition.

Exercise 59. Insert the words missing in the text below:

shortening	blend	apocoptation	aphaeresis	stress	beginning
lexical abbreviation		graphical abbreviation	syncope		middle
	compounds		distinction		

1) _____ is any form of a word that is “shrunk”. Distinction should be made between shortening of a word in written speech (2) _____) and in the sphere of oral intercourse (3) _____).

To begin with, back clipping, or 4) _____, is the most common type, in which the 5) _____ is retained. The unclipped original may be either a simple or a composite. Fore-clipping, or 6) _____, retains the final part. Examples: *chute* (parachute), *coon* (raccoon), *gator* (alligator). In middle clipping, or 7) _____, the 8) _____ of the word is retained. Examples are: *flu* (influenza), *jams* or *jammies* (pajamas / pyjamas), *polly* (apollinaris), *shrink* (head-shrinker).

Complex clipping. Clipped forms are also used in 9) _____. One part of the original compound most often remains intact. Examples are: *cablegram* (cable telegram), *op-art* (optical art), *org-man* (organization man). Sometimes both halves of a compound are clipped as in *navicert* (navigation certificate). In these cases, it is difficult to know whether the resultant formation should be treated as a clipping or as a 10) _____, for the border between the two types is not always clear. The easiest way to draw the 11) _____ is to say that those forms which retain compound 12) _____ are clipped compounds, whereas those that take simple word stress are not.

Exercise 60. Discriminate between the types of shortenings. Comment on their meanings.

Ltd, Dr., flu, exam, Mrs., ft, Mon, vamp, pants, Jap, Ph.D., A.D., a.o.b., in, p.m., lb, op. cit., Ala, Inc, lab, Gen., e.g., mag;

канд. філол. наук, Київпастрас, заст., агропром, проф., п., мількрада, р-н, обл., м., м, с., мотель, з-д, пр., комбат, райуо, змі, профком, в / ч, а / с, р / р.

Exercise 61. Arrange the following shortenings into those formed by a) apocope, b) aphaeresis, and c) syncope.

decaf, pub, tween, limo, polio, prof, doc, copter, specs, cute, fridge, flu, modem, tec, ma'am, ad, bike, photo, math, gym, mend, ne'er, sis, zoo, comfy, chap, chute, van, peal, pop, fend, auto, plane, drome;

вертоліт, криголам, авто, лаби, більш, хтіли, съодні, білобрисий, мо, бад, дюраль, спец, опер, кіло, універ, декрет, клава, плекс.

Exercise 62. Match the clipped forms in list A with the full names in list B. Arrange the following shortened proper names into those formed by a) apocope, b) aphaeresis, and c) syncope.

A.

Con, Lu, Prue, Andy, Debby, Ray, Vee, Archie, Dora, Tilda, Bella, Gene, Net, Tina, Bert, Lottie, Nora

B.

Antoinette, Albertina, Eugene, Theodora, Andrew, Arabella, Constance, Herbert, Mathilda, Veronica, Archibald, Deborah, Prudence, Charlotte, Eleonora, Luisa, Raymond

A.

Міца, Варка, Катря, Муся, Ілка, Тоній, Гапон, Осіпов, Костя

B.

АНТОНІЙ, Катерина, Ілонка, Маруся, Маріца, Варвара, Агафон, Йосип, Костянтин

Exercise 63. Choose the right variant of shortening and define the types.

A	B	C	D
1)A.S.A.P.	asap	ASAP.	ASAP
2)ca.	cir.	c.	C.
3)Ph.D.	PHD.	PhD	DPh
4)Sep.	Spt.	Sept.	Sptr.
5)Th.	Thurs.	Thur.	Thy.
6)Mon.	Mnr.	Msgr.	Msg.
7)tpke.	Trk.	Tnpk.	Tpk.
8)Ln.	Le.	La.	In.
9)Eqr.	Eqe.	Esq.	Esr.
10)BoA	Bas	B.A.	b.a.

Exercise 64. Replace the shortenings with full names. Define the type of word-formation.

USA, laser, AD, NATO, Fri, UNESCO, CLASS, Nov, PEN, NB, FBI, SOS, TV, UNO, dol, VP, COD, scuba, ABC, GCE, EEC, OPEC, M.P., AIDS, DJ, ch, GBS, JFK, jeep, x-ray, vol.;

ОБСЄ, ЕОМ, ЦСУ, КамАЗ, генштаб, РАТАУ, політгодина, рацс, ОУН, інформбюро, ВР, нардеп, колгосп, сільгосп, БЮТ, КПІ, КСУ, ГПУ, ОПК, АМУР, КАСКАД, бор, МАРС, ДТСААФ, райво, АУП, ООН, СБУ, ОПЕК, МВФ.

Exercise 65. Choose the correct word to complete the acronyms. Arrange them into:

- a) initialisms with alphabetical reading,
- b) initialisms which are read like words,
- c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound forms.

Time, Best, Face, Now, Moment, Possible, Loud, Information, Way, Kisses, Chat, Days

- 1) AFDA – a few _____ ago
- 2) AMBW – all my _____ wishes
- 3) ASAP – as soon as _____
- 4) BTW – by the _____
- 5) B4N – by for _____
- 6) CWOT – complete waste of _____
- 7) CWYL – _____ with you later
- 8) F2F – face to _____
- 9) FYI – for your _____
- 10) HAK – hugs and _____
- 11) LOL – laughing out _____
- 12) ATM – at the _____

Exercise 66. Arrange the blends given into three groups as to the type of contraction:

1. the initial element + the final element;
2. one notional word + the final element;
3. the initial element + the notional word;

Brexit, skurfing, washeteria, camcorder, Swatch, Brangelina, animule, bascart, brunch, cablegram, electrocute, flurry, galumph, glaze, laundromat, macon, mobus, seadrome, slash, smaze, smog, swellegant.

Мерон, біоніка, рація, алконавт, погрозиція, старпер, працеголіки, інтригація, грабіонал.

Exercise 67. Pick out telescoped words. Arrange them into the groups according to the type of contraction. Find Ukrainian equivalents.

1. 'Brexit, Grexit, with the possibility of Spexit'. 2. Just chillax, Dan, they'll be here soon. 3. That man was electrocuted, as far as I remember. 4. The porter was glazing at her for some minutes as if he were trying to recall where he had seen her before. 5. Could you tell me where the nearest laundromat is? 6. Can you explain what a seadrome is? 7. The smaze is too thick, one can hardly see anything. 8. Smog is said to be a characteristic feature of England's weather. 9. At the door he was met by a swellegant girl 10. London is a city of smaze.

Exercise 68. Compile a list of English and Ukrainian shortenings which are usually used in your profession (occupation and positions abbreviations). Try to contrast them.

Seminar 8

Etymological Survey of the English and Ukrainian Lexicon

8.1 Native Word Stock of English and Ukrainian.

8.2 Sources of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages.

8.3 Types of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages.

8.4 Assimilation of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages.

8.1 Native Word Stock of English and Ukrainian

Exercise 1. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

etymology, word stock, a native word, a loan word / borrowing, a cognate, nationally biased lexicon, international words, neologisms.

Exercise 2. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) etymology	a) words of a common etymological origin
2) a native word	b) words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source
3) a borrowed word	c) the study of the history of words, their origins, and how their form and meaning have changed over time
4) borrowing	d) a word which belongs to the original stock of a particular language
5) cognates	e) non-equivalent words designating national customs, traditions, folk rites and other spheres of a nation's life
6) nationally biased lexicon	f) a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the target language
7) international words	g) the process of adopting words from other languages
8) a neologism	h) is a word coined to describe a new subject or express new concepts

Exercise 3. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Etymologically, the vocabulary of any language consists of two layers – the native stock and borrowed stock of neologisms.

2. Words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source are called international words.

3. The native words of Ukrainian are subdivided by diachronic linguistics into those of the Indo-European group and those of Common Germanic origin.

4. International words can also be considered to be borrowings so long as they originate from one Indo-European group.

5. By a neologism, we mean not only a newly created lexical unit but also an existing lexical unit that has acquired a new meaning.

6. The native word stock in English comprises around 60% of total vocabulary, with the rest made up of outside borrowings, namely Latin and French.

7. *Father, nose, sun, potato* are the native elements in English.

Exercise 4. Insert the words missing in the text below:

native	borrowed	word stock	purism	etymologically	Roots
	Anglo-Saxon	Germanic		Indo-European	

Linguistic 1) _____ in the English language is the belief that words of 2) _____ origin should be used instead of foreign-derived ones (which are mainly Latin and Greek). “Native” can mean “3) _____” or it can be widened to include all 4) _____ words. In its mildest form, it merely means using existing native words instead of 5) _____ ones (such as using *begin* instead of *commence*). In a less mild form, it also involves coining new words from Germanic roots (such as 6) _____ for *vocabulary*). In a more extreme form, it also involves reviving native words that are no longer widely used (such as *ettle* for *intend*). The resulting language is sometimes called 7) _____ *English* (referring to the idea that it is a “return to the roots” of English). The reasons for concern about the vocabulary of English boil down to the fact that 8) _____ native words, those of 9) _____, Common Germanic origin and English Proper, constitute only 30% of the English words.

Exercise 5. Classify the following words of native origin into:
(a) Indo-European, (b) Common Germanic, (c) English proper.
Give linguistic evidence to your answer.

be, bear, birch, bird, blue, boy, child, cow, daisy, daughter, eat, goose, grey, hand, hundred, know, lady, lip, lord, make, night, nose, old, sheriff, three, thousand, tree, red, room, sea, see, ship, spring, water, winter, woman, for.

Exercise 6. Classify the following words of native origin into:
(a) Indo-European, (b) Common Slavic and East Slavic,
(c) Ukrainian proper. Give linguistic evidence to your answer.

стіл, колесо, хурделиця, білий, кулак, кішка, мати, брат, зерно, я, береза, чобітки, ніс, рудий, вареники, зуб, язик, дім, жити, два, мрія, віхола, свита, риба, день, бити, пиріг, молоко, жайворонок, осінь, голуб, Червоноград, р. Бистриця.

Exercise 7. Find English words of Indo-European origin cognate to the following German, Spanish, French, and Ukrainian words:

Bruder, брат; tres три; le sel, сіль; Kuh, корова; Sonne, сонце; Birke, береза; Tocher, дочка; ganso, гуска; la nuit, ніч; stehen, стояти; yo, я; sitzen, сидіти; Apfel, яблуко.

Exercise 8. Find native words in the extracts given below:

It was a glorious morning, late spring or early summer, as you care to take it, when the dainty sheen of glass and leaf is blushing to a deeper green; and the earth seems like a fair young maid, trembling with strange, wakening pulses on the brink of womanhood (J. K. Jerome).

Отже мій брат вислухав смутну історію самотної жінки, сестри свого невдашливого приятеля; виявилось, що й вона має долю таку ж горопашну. Шуміла хурделиця й засипала нас снігом, і крізь той шум прорізався десь у нас за спиною тоненький тремтливий голосок (В. Шевчук).

Exercise 9. Among native word stock, find a) nationally biased lexicon, b) international words, and c) neologisms.

lady, Brexit, to binge-watch, antibiotic, playlistism, Trumpism, bungalow, football, mango, pound, jam, oak, calf, cruise, John Bull, muffin, constitution, thick, bench, finger, rails;

борщ, вареники, возлюбити, біологія, грядущий, премудрий, нісенітниця, дошкуляти, паляниця, диванна сотня, майоріти, вада, козак, банан, опера, демократія, беркутівець, анаконда, гопак, тітушки, нардеп.

Exercise 10. Give the “false cognates” in the Ukrainian language to the given English words. State the difference in their meanings.

Model: argument

The false cognate of the word *argument* is Ukrainian – *аргумент*. The word *argument* means ‘an angry disagreement between people’, whereas the word *аргумент* has the meaning of ‘reasoning’.

Baton, order, to reclaim, delicate, intelligent, artist, sympathetic, fabric, capital, to pretend, romance.

8.2 Sources of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages

Exercise 11. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

borrowing, source of borrowing, origin of borrowing.

Exercise 12. Choose the correct answer.

1. The term applied to the language from which a particular word was taken into English, or any other language, is:

- a) a borrowed word,
- b) origin of borrowing,
- c) source of borrowing.

2. What was the reason of Latin and Greek borrowing into English?

- a) the Norman Conquest,
- b) the decline of the Roman Empire,
- c) the adoption of Christianity in the 6th century.

3. Latin and Greek borrowings are mostly ...
 - a) artistic terms,
 - b) scientific terms,
 - c) cultural terms.
4. What alphabet in England was ousted by the Latin one?
 - a) the Celtic alphabet,
 - b) the Runic alphabet,
 - c) the Greek alphabet.
5. What is the largest group of borrowings in English?
 - a) Latin,
 - b) Greek,
 - c) French.
6. Find a Celtic borrowing among the following words:
 - a) altar,
 - b) parliament,
 - c) whisky.
7. What was the main source of French borrowings?
 - a) French literature,
 - b) French theatre,
 - c) French immigrants.
8. What is the origin of the word “skin”?
 - a) Latin,
 - b) Scandinavian,
 - c) Greek.
9. Loan words, which mostly denote basic, practical things, usually borrowed during ...
 - a) the Anglo-Saxon period,
 - b) the Norman Conquest period,
 - c) 750–1016 when the Viking began attacking the northern and eastern shores of Britain.
10. When words have “x” letter read as /z/ like in “Xerox” and “ph” read as /f/ like in “photograph” they are of ...
 - a) French origin,
 - b) Latin origin,
 - c) Greek origin.
11. Ukrainian loan words *дошка*, *котел* came via ... but are of ... origin.
 - a) the French language, Latin;
 - b) the Germanic languages, Latin;
 - c) the Germanic languages, Greek.

12. Ukrainian words *бокс, гол, джаз* were borrowed ...
- during the Kyivan Rus' period,
 - in the 19th century,
 - at the Church Slavonic time.
13. New words from Latin, German and Czech usually came into Ukrainian via ...
- Polish,
 - Church Slavonic,
 - directly.

Exercise 13. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

- Angles, Saxons, Jutes, and Frisians enriched the English language with the words denoting social and political spheres.
- The third period of French borrowings, with words being more elegant and sophisticated, is from around 1400 onwards.
- By the second half of the 19th century, the Ukrainian language had formed its scientific, journalistic, and documentary styles.
- Pra-Indo-European words constitute the nuclear part of the Ukrainian lexicon.
- Borrowings from Turkish came into the Ukrainian language via Church Slavonic.
- Borrowings in the Ukrainian language occupy 50% of its vocabulary.
- Religious terms were brought to the English language in AD 597.

Exercise 14. Insert the words missing in the text below:

source of borrowing	origin of borrowing	Greek	French	12-15 th
Germanic tribes	Early Latin loans	Christianity	Renaissance	
	the Norman Conquest	16 th		

The term “1) _____” is applied to the language from which the loan word was taken. It should be distinguished from the term “2) _____” which refers to the language to which the word may be traced. Three languages contributed a great number of words to the English word-stock, they are: Greek, Latin, and French.

Latin borrowings can be subdivided into 4 layers:

1) 3) _____ when the 4) _____ had been in contact with Roman civilization and had adopted several Latin words.

2) Latin borrowings the 6th and 7th cent. due to 5) _____ – *altar, chapter, candle, cross, feast, disciple, creed*, etc.

3) The Renaissance and 6) _____ in 1066. Many scholars began to translate classical literature into English and as they couldn't find English word for translation, they took Latin word and transformed it in accordance with the rules.

4) After the 7) _____ up to the present – abstract and scientific words adopted exclusively through writing.

8) _____ borrowings go back to an early period. In the 7th century, with the introduction of 9) _____, such words as *church, abbot, episcopo, bishop, angel* were borrowed.

10) _____ borrowings came into English at different times. The Norman Conquest in 1066 resulted in the fact that the important places in the government, at court and in the church were filled by French speaking adherents of the conquerors. They may be subdivided into two main groups: a) *early loans* (11) _____ century) were simple short words: *age, arm, cage, car, case*; b) *later loans* – beginning from the 12) _____ century.

Exercise 15. Group the words according to their origin:

lilac, operetta, machine, vanilla, waltz, telescopic, skipper, algebra, law, mule, chocolate, telephone, khaki, pagoda, kangaroo, tobacco, coyote, wallaby, chauffeur, beauty, umbrella, jasmine, chess, devil, nun, anchor, kimono, violin, sky, sentiment, photogenic, wall, trousseau, bacon, they, scorch, bog, door, live, yoga, corrida, affagato, quinzhee, mandarin, borsch, saffron;

алібі, корабель, фарба, кедр, біфштекс, тренер, бакен, цегла, абітурієнт, кипарис, філософія, логіка, бібліотека, міністр, лоцман, театр, дисципліна, імперія, ґрунт, глас, сага, блават, гейзер, завод, декабрист, бутерброд, гросмейстер, сюжет, квартира, аршин, байрак, карамель, москіти, аташе, аркан, ампула, чабан, спонсор, віолончель, соната, барва, маєток, ківш, варяг, кутюр'є, ніндзя, автобан, алкоголь.

Exercise 16. Explain the origin of the following proper names:

Manchester, Theodor, George, London, Thames, Derby, Sandtoft, Althorp, Applethwaite, Lincoln, Sussex, Exeter, Beaulieu, Newport, Cheapside, Strathclyde, Cambridge, Worcester, Aberdeen, Dundee, Dover, Norfolk, Inchape, Lancashire, Edinburgh, Washington, Devonport, Chester;

Катерина, Анатолій, Севастополь, Зоя, Ігор, Ольга, Василь, Андрій, Гліб, Дністер, Вікторія, Маріуполь, Мелітополь, Ставрополь, р. Сула, Донець, Дунай.

Exercise 17. Match the words with the languages they are borrowed from.

1) wine, disc, plum	a) later French loans
2) analysis, botany, comedy	b) Spanish
3) belle-lettres, conservatoire, brochure, nuance, pirouette	c) early French loans
4) stucco, violin, volcano	d) Latin (early loan)
5) rouble, verst, tsar	e) Turkic languages
6) e.g., i.e., etc.	f) Latin (4 th period)
7) age, air, bolt	g) Italian
8) священник, хрест, ангел	h) Latin (2 nd period)
9) атаман, басурман, барабан	i) Greek (relate to English)
10) mazurka	j) Old Slavonic
11) altar, chapter, candle	k) German
12) apricot, banana, negro	l) Greek (relate to Ukrainian)
13) борт, офіцер, штиль	m) Polish
14) граматика, логіка, історія	n) Russian

Exercise 18. In the following word combinations, substitute the borrowed words for native English / Ukrainian. State the cases when substitution is impossible.

let the meeting commence, the aroma of freshly baked bread, a cordial smile, a cast-iron alibi, utter chaos, geography lesson, voices in the chateau, a bit bourgeois joining a golf club;

досвідчений рефері, креативна діяльність, вербальні засоби, кульмінація твору, ретроспективний показ фільмів, на паритетних умовах, утилітарний підхід до мови.

Exercise 19. Group the following loans according to the period of borrowing. Point out the structural and semantic peculiarities of the words from each period.

Latin: cheese, intelligent, candle, moderate, priest, music, datum, phenomenon, plum, pepper, e.g., philosophy, method, stimulus, mill, altar, proviso, index, cf., temperate, fungus, elephant, fishmonger;

French: alloy, warden, grotesque, lieutenant, comrade, moustache, statute, plaintiff, felon, noble, confection, sardine, jewel, terrier, pantry, parlour, novelist, vogue.

Exercise 20. Give adjectives of Latin origin corresponding to the following nouns:

e.g. *heaven – celestial*

father, eye, child, cloud, day, tree, truth, ox, hand, wife, akin, spring, life, cow, husband, foe, body, lip, home, house, water.

Exercise 21. Match the borrowed English words with their equivalents in native language.

1. cabinet	a) xocolatl(Mexico)
2. weak	b) Kruisen(Dutch)
3. cruise	c) patata(Spanish)
4. chemist	d) veikr(Old Norse)
5. property	e) leggr (Old Norse)
6. chocolate	f) oeconomia(Latin)
7. science	g) cabine(French)
8. person	h) propreté(Anglo-Norman)
9. potato	i) chimiste(French)
10. economy	j) persona (Latin)

8.3 *Types of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages*

Exercise 22. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

translation loans, calque, semantic borrowings, etymological doublets, etymological triplets.

Exercise 23. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) borrowing	a) words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the language according to the patterns of the source language, but under the influence of some foreign words or expressions
2) translation loans	b) a group of three words of common root formed as a result of borrowing either from the same language or from different languages
3) semantic loans	c) the term is applied to the language from which the loan word was taken
4) etymological doublets	d) the process of adopting words from other languages and also the result of this process
5) etymological triplets	e) the term refers to the language to which the word may be traced
6) sources of borrowing	f) the development in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language
7) origin of borrowing	g) a pair of words originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonemic shape and in meaning

Exercise 24. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. A word is borrowed from the same language and, as the result, there exist two different words with different spelling and meaning but, historically, they come back to one and the same word. These words are called etymological doublets.

2. The influence of a foreign language can be exerted in two ways: either through the spoken word or through the written one.

3. Semantic borrowings are words taken from one language and translated in a literal or word for word way to be used in another.

4. In modern English, there are etymological doublets of Latin, French, and native origin.

5. Examples of Latin doublets in English are “shadow” and “shade”.

6. Etymological doublets also arise as a result of shortening when both the shortened form and the full form of the word are used.

Exercise 25. Insert the words missing in the text below:

borrowings	borrowed	native	patterns	existing
loan words proper	translation-loans		semantic borrowings	

Though borrowed words undergo changes in the adopting language, they preserve some of their former peculiarities for a comparatively long period. There are various degrees of “foreignness” (H. Marchand) which differentiate various types of 1) _____:

1) 2) _____ (or *alien* words) – words 3) _____ from a foreign language without any change of the foreign sound and spelling. These words are immediately recognizable as foreign, e.g., *ballet*, *chauffeur*, *coup d'état*, etc.

2) 4) _____ are words and expressions formed from the material already 5) _____ in the British language but according to 6) _____ taken from another language, by way of word-for-word translation, e.g., *mother-tongue* (from Lat. *lingua materna*). Most of the given words are international in character.

3) 7) _____ is the appearance in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language. The word *pioneer* meant ‘explorer’, now under the influence of the Russian word “пионер”, it means ‘a member of the Young Pioneers’ Organization’.

The majority of the 8) _____ are remodeled according to the system of the English language system, so it is sometimes difficult to tell an old borrowing from a 9) _____ word (e.g., *cheese*, *street*, *wall*, *wine* and other words belonging to the earliest layer of Latin borrowings).

Exercise 26. State the origin of the following translation loans. Find equivalents in Ukrainian / English. Give more examples.

kindergarten, tête-à-tête, coup d'état, enfant terrible, leitmotiv, class struggle, thing-in-itself, superman, bon mot, blitzkrieg, collective farm, wonder child, chain-smoker, Fatherland, a slip of the tongue, wet work;

натюрморт, мильна опера, трубка миру, ставити крапки над і, гучномовець, трудоголік, гарячі факти.

Exercise 27. Define the type of the borrowings given below. Give linguistic evidence to your answer:

- a) translation loans (calques),
- b) semantic loans.

Manchester, perhaps, swan song, drinkable, a guestworker (Germ. *Gastarbeiter*), the moment of truth, first dancer, earworm (Germ. *Ohrwurm*), by heart, graceful, near abroad (Russ. *близкое зарубежье*), a slip of the tongue, dream (O.E. 'joy, music' ← O.N. 'a vision during sleep'), the fair sex.

Exercise 28. Subdivide all the following words into: a) loan words proper, b) translation loans, c) semantic borrowings.

1) ballet (Ital. <i>balletto</i>)	10) mother-tongue (Lat. <i>lingua materna</i>)
2) a slip of the tongue (from Lat. <i>lapsus linguae</i>)	11) wall newspaper (Rus. <i>стенгазета</i>)
3) by heart (from Fr. <i>par coeur</i>)	12) Sunday (Lat. <i>solis dies</i>)
4) bouquet (Old Fr. <i>bosquet</i>)	13) brigade (borrowed into Russian 'a working collective, бригада', then was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing).
5) chauffeur (Fr. <i>chauffer</i>)	14) masterpiece (Germ. <i>Meisterstück</i>)
6) pioneer (meant 'explorer', now under the influence of the Russian word "пионер" it means 'a member of the Young Pioneers')	15) hummus (Arab. <i>ḥummuṣ</i> , <i>ḥammoṣ</i>)
7) phenomenon (Lat. <i>phaenomenon</i>)	
8) table d'hôte (Fr.)	
9) vis-à-vis (Fr. <i>face to face</i>)	

Exercise 29. Give English equivalents to the words below. Take a note of their usage. Explain what linguistic phenomenon they illustrate:

- a) calques, b) cognate words.

аудиторія, адвокат, курйозний, актуальний, акуратний, вельвет, делікатний, претендувати, костюм, кондуктор, комплекція, директор,

драматичний, економічний, транслювати, історичний, недійсний, персонал.

Exercise 30. Match each line of doublets with the way of their building.

1) shortening	a) temper – tempo, holer – holey, accept – exept, time – thyme, latter – letter, fir – fur
2) stressed and unstressed position of one and the same word	b) cattle – chattel, warden – guardian, pocket – pouch, convey – convoy, car – chariot, wallop – gallop, warranty – guarantee
3) borrowing the word from the same language twice, but in different periods	c) bicycle – bike, television – telly, advertisement – ad, influenza – flu, violoncello – cello, weblog – blog, rhinoceros – rhino
4) development of the word in different dialects or languages that are historically descended from the same root	d) corpse – corps, travel – travail, cavalry – chivalry

Exercise 31. Comment on the different formation of the etymological doublets / triplets and the difference in meaning, if any:

abbreviate – abridge artist – artiste balm – balsam capture – catch – chase captain – chieftain goal – jail hospital – hostel – hotel legal – loyal liquor – liqueur	major – mayor nay – no of – off pauper – poor salon – saloon senior – sir shade – shadow suit – suite skirt – shirt
кристал – кришталь вузол – вензель бригантина – бриг пресс – пресса фікус – фіга опера – опус	ліквор – лікер аніс – ганус араб – арап анкер – якір банджо – бандура дивізія – дивізіон

вампір – упир ліквор – лікер аніс – ганус	параграф – параф шапіто – капітель адамант – алмаз джунта – хунта
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8.4 Assimilation of Borrowings in the English and Ukrainian Languages

Exercise 32. Comment on the following linguistic terms:

assimilation, phonetic assimilation, grammatical adaptation, semantic adaptation, completely assimilated loan words, partially assimilated loan words, barbarisms, hybrid words.

Exercise 33. Match the definitions with the terms:

1) assimilation	a) changes in sound form and stress of the adopted word
2) phonetic assimilation	b) borrowings which have undergone all types of assimilation
3) grammatical adaptation	c) the words which lack one of the types of assimilation
4) semantic adaptation	d) the process of changing the adopted word
5) completely assimilated loan words	e) the words in which a borrowed suffix is joined to a native root
6) partially assimilated loan words	f) words of foreign origin, which have not entirely been assimilated into the language and bear the appearance of a borrowing and are felt as something alien to the native tongue
7) barbarisms	g) the change of the paradigm of a borrowed word
8) hybrid words	h) adjustment of a borrowing to the system of meanings of the vocabulary

Exercise 34. Answer the following questions:

1. Why is the English language rich in borrowings?

b) borrowings not assimilated 11) _____ (e.g., Latin or Greek borrowings which keep their original plural forms *crisis* – *crises*);

c) borrowings not completely assimilated 12) _____ (e.g., some French words keep the accent on the final syllable (*machine*, *cartoon*, *police*);

d) borrowings not completely assimilated 13) _____ (e.g., French borrowings may keep a diacritic mark (*café*, *cliché*).

Exercise 36. Indicate whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F) and briefly explain or justify your answer.

1. Numerous English compounds are coined from Greek roots like *auto*, *chroma*, *ge*, *logos*, *phone*.

2. When final consonants *p*, *s*, *t* are not pronounced as in *debut*, *debris*, we consider them French borrowings.

3. *Caftan* is of Russian origin.

4. *Waltz*, *cobalt*, *zinc* are German borrowings.

5. *A.m.* and *v.v.* are Latin loaned abbreviations.

Exercise 37. Analyse the following words from the point of view of the type and degree of assimilation. State which words are:

a) completely assimilated, b) partially assimilated, c) non-assimilated.

alter ego, addio, ad hoc, a la carte, Al Queda, animal, article, auto-da-fe, bourgeois, bouquet, brioche, call, chair, cheese, ciao, clan, corps, coup d'Etat, dolce vita, face, fellow, figure, finish, formulae, geisha, Grand Prix, happy, hara-kiri, husband, ill, incognito, khaki, low, matter, macaroni, mile, old, perestroika, prestige, root, soprano, samurai, sister, street, table, take, they, tobacco, viz., wall, want, whiskey, wine, wing, wrong;

блазень, гасло, беркут, ганьба, вирок, сподіватися, застава, батіг, пюре, а капела, кайдани, ковбаса, альма матер, карбюратор, авокадо, портмоне, де-юре, чіпси, постскриптум, афіша, гуд бай, де-факто, торба, калач, хазяїн, гарячий, багатий, альтер его, дольче віта, меню, тріо, кашне, кавун, пікнік.

Exercise 38. Explain the meaning of the barbarisms below. What is their origin?

ad libitum, addio, happy end, alma mater, alter ego, de facto, de jure, simper tiro, terra incognita, tabula rasa, persona grata, status quo, post scriptum, ciao.

Exercise 39. Arrange the following partially assimilated loans into:
 a) not assimilated semantically, b) not assimilated grammatically,
 c) not assimilated phonetically, d) not assimilated graphically.

sombrero, sherbet, macaroni, café, toreador, memoir, brioche, rouble, phenomenon – phenomena, buffet, incognito, sabotage, foyer, cliché, rupee, bei, euro, rickshaw, crisis – crises, memoir, boulevard, index – indices, mélange, tobacco, camouflage, mantilla.

Exercise 40. Read the sentences given below. Consider the hybrids (underlined) and describe their patterns:

a) borrowed affix + native stem; b) native affix + borrowed stem;
 c) borrowed affix + borrowed stem; d) borrowed affix + borrowed stem + native affix.

1) Patient: Do you extract teeth painlessly? Dentist: Not always – the other day I nearly dislocated my wrist.

2) Willie was invited to a party, where refreshments were bountifully served.

“Won't you have something more, Willie?” the hostess said.

“No, thank you,” replied Willie, with an expression of great satisfaction.
 “I'm full.”

“Well, then,” smiled the hostess, “put some delicious fruit and cakes in your pocket to eat on the way home.”

3) A lady who was a very uncertain driver stopped her car at traffic signals which were against her. As the green flashed on, her engine stalled, and when she restarted it the colour was again red.

Exercise 41. Match the stems with the affixes to make up hybrids.

1) develop	a) -hood
2) friend	b) -ance
3) man	c) -al
4) four	d) -en
5) assist	e) -ous
6) novel	f) -doom
7) free	g) -teen

8) weak	h) -ist
9) form	i) -ship
10) homonym	j) -ment
1) патріот	a) наступ
2) роман	b) яр
3) анти	c) мільйонер
4) контр	d) звук
5) рад	e) аж
6) стол	f) изм
7) ультра	g) скоп
8) архі	h) теза
9) метр	i) іст
10) мікро	j) ість

Exercise 42. Match the Ukrainian word with its borrowed equivalent. Be careful, for there are extra words:

Вивезення Царина Об'єднання Гуманність Виборці Ввезення
Нарада Втручання Терпимість Посередник Освітлення
Протистояння Збір

1. Імпорт	6. Електорат
2. Конфронтація	7. Толерантність
3. Коаліція	8. Ілюмінація
4. Інтервенція	9. Гуманність
5. Маклер	10. Мітінг

Exercise 43. Define whether the given Ukrainian words are borrowed or native:

алкоголь, гавань, візія, свекор, пляж, святий, білий, байбак, цирк, урожай, вересень, директор, позначка

Exercise 44. In the text below, find Ukrainian words borrowed from English, and translate them into the English language.

Численні англiцизми на сьогоднішній день вживаються у нашому усному та писемному мовленні. Останніми роками в українську мову надійшло немало запозичень, що стосуються сфери

торгівлі й послуг, а саме *шопінг, супермаркет, дизайн-центр*. Чи не є ці слова зайвими, тобто в українській мові вже наявні слова, що називають ці предмети й явища, наприклад, замість *супермаркета* існує *універмаг*.

Аналіз запозичень показав, що з англійської мови надходять як слова для позначення нових понять і реалій, так і слова, що замінюють українські, надаючи їм більш конкретних значень. Так, слово *менеджер* з англійської мови означає ‘управляючий, менеджер’, а «Словник іншомовних слів» визначає, що *менеджер* – це: ‘1) підприємець у галузі професійного спорту, шоу-бізнесу тощо, який організовує виступи спортсменів, артистів та ін.’

Останнім часом, внаслідок значного поживлення на різних рівнях контактів між Україною та англійськими країнами світу в українській мові з’явилася значна кількість англіцизмів: *дайджест, імідж, спонсор, лобі, брифінг, уїкенд, шейпінг, трафік, маркетинг*, тощо. На сучасному етапі часто зустрічаємо чимало слів, засвоєних безпосередньо з англійської мови. Так, наприклад, *сканер* ‘прилад для оптичного введення зображення (текстів, графіків, малюнків тощо) в пам’ять комп’ютера’; *інтерфейс* ‘апаратні чи програмні засоби, що забезпечують взаємодію програм усередині обчислювальної системи, зв’язок комп’ютера з іншими приладами чи з користувачем’; *стрімер* ‘запам’ятовуючий пристрій комп’ютера на магнітній стрічці для зберігання і запису великих масивів інформації’ тощо.

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