



ШУТОВА

Марія Олександрівна

доктор філологічних наук, доцент,
завідувач кафедри германської
і фіно-угорської філології
Київського національного
лінгвістичного університету



БЕРЕЗЕНКО

Вікторія Миколаївна

кандидат філологічних наук, доцент,
доцент кафедри германської
і фіно-угорської філології
Київського національного
лінгвістичного університету



ГНЕЗДІЛОВА

Ярослава Володимирівна

доктор філологічних наук, доцент,
декан факультету германської
філології і перекладу
Київського національного
лінгвістичного університету

**В. М. БЕРЕЗЕНКО,
М. О. ШУТОВА,
Я. В. ГНЕЗДІЛОВА**



**ЗІСТАВНА
ГРАМАТИКА
АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ ТА
УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ МОВ**

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
КИЇВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ ЛІНГВІСТИЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ



В. М. БЕРЕЗЕНКО
М. О. ШУТОВА
Я. В. ГНЕЗДІЛОВА

ЗІСТАВНА ГРАМАТИКА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ ТА УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ МОВ

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Рецензенти:

Наталія СТЕФАНОВА	доктор філологічних наук, доцент, професор кафедри англійської філології і філософії мови Київського національного лінгвістичного університету
Ігор КОРОЛЬОВ	доктор філологічних наук, професор, професор кафедри полоністики Навчально-наукового інституту філології КНУ імені Тараса Шевченка
Наталія ІВАНИЦЬКА	доктор філологічних наук, професор, завідувач кафедри іноземної філології та перекладу Вінницького торговельно-економічного інституту Державного торговельно-економічного університету
Мікеле ВАНДЖІ	Асистент професора германських мов, культур і літератури, Лектор ДААД

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Підручник із зіставної граматики англійської та української мов підготовлений відповідно до робочої програми із зіставної граматики англійської та української мов й спрямований на формування знань, умінь та навичок аналізу фонетичних, граматичних, лексичних та синтаксичних процесів і явищ в англійській та українській мовах у межах вимог робочої програми дисципліни. Для досягнення цієї мети підручник містить теоретичну частину, питання для семестрового контролю, вправи для самостійної роботи.

Для студентів мовних спеціальностей, аспірантів та викладачів англійської мови закладів вищої освіти.

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CONTENS

PREFACE	6
CHAPTER 1 CONTRASTIVE GRAMMAR, ITS AIMS AND TASKS.	
VARIOUS TYPOLOGIES	7
The object and the subject of contrastive studies	7
Main branches of contrastive investigations.....	13
Constants of contrastive analysis.....	15
Contrastive grammar, its object and aims.....	17
Points for revision	19
Points for self-control	20
CHAPTER 2 A SHORT HISTORICAL OUTLINE	
OF CONTRASTIVE INVESTIGATIONS	23
Historical and comparative investigations of languages	
in the 17 th and 18 th centuries	23
The 19 th century typological investigations.....	26
The 19 th century (1 st half) typological investigations.....	26
The 19 th century (2 nd half) typological investigations	29
The 20 th century typological investigations.....	30
Mutilateral or graded typology.....	30
Charactereological typology	31
Quantitative typology	31
Typological classifications	32
Morphological classification.....	32
Phonological classification.....	33
Syntactic classification.....	34
Ukrainian typologists.....	35
Points for revision	36
Points for self-control	37
Revision test 1	38
CHAPTER 3 METHODS OF CONTRASTIVE INVESTIGATIONS	39
The introduction of a method	39
Comparison as the main method of typological investigations	40
Structural method	42
Immediate constituent analysis	42
Distributional analysis.....	43
Transformational analysis	46
Deductive and inductive methods.....	47
Quantitative method: the typological indexes method of j. Greenberg	48

Points for revision	50
Points for self-control	51
CHAPTER 4 TYPOLOGY OF PHONETIC / PHONOLOGICAL AND SUPERSYGMENTAL SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES	53
The phoneme as the main typological unit in the comparison of the phonological systems	53
The typology of the system of vowels in the contrasted languages, their qualitative and quantitative characteristics.....	56
The typology of the system of consonants in the contrasted languages	65
Phonological / phonetic phenomena in the systems of vowels and consonants ...	69
The syllable peculiarities in the contrasted languages.....	70
Supersygmental phonology and its constituents.....	76
Points for revision	84
CHAPTER 5 TYPOLOGY OF THE LEXICAL SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES	85
The main constants of lexicon, general principles of its classification	85
Onomasiological and semasiological characteristics of lexicon.	
Means of nomination	93
Types of motivation of words in the contrasted languages	96
Typology of word-formation in the contrasted languages.....	98
Means of enriching the vocabulary of any language	113
Typology of idiomatic expressions.....	117
Points for revision	125
CHAPTER 6 TYPOLOGY OF THE MORPHOLOGICAL SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES	126
The morpheme, its types in the contrasted languages	126
Ways of reflecting morphological categories	128
Typology of parts of speech	131
Typology of the noun	138
Typology of the adjective	148
Typology of the numeral	152
Typology of the pronoun	154
Typology of the verb	156
Typology of non-finites	162
Typology of the adverb.....	176
Typology of statives	178
Points for revision	181
CHAPTER 7 TYPOLOGY OF THE SYNTACTIC SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES	182
Typological constants of the syntactic level.....	182
Syntactic relations, their types and ways of realization.....	183

Syntactic processes, their types and ways of realization	186
Typology of the word-group.....	190
The typology of the simple sentence	194
The typology of the main parts of the sentence.....	197
Secondary parts of the sentence.....	199
Homogeneous parts of the sentence	204
Complex members of the sentence	205
Non-segmentable sentences in english and ukrainian	212
Independent elements of english and ukrainian sentences	213
Subjunctive mood in simple sentences	214
The typology of the composite sentence	216
Compound sentences in english and ukrainian.....	216
Typology of semi-compound sentences	219
Complex sentences in english and ukrainian.....	220
Compound-complex sentence in english and ukrainian	222
Subjunctive mood in complex sentences in english	223
Points for revision	227
REVIEW EXCERCISES	229
INDIVIDUAL ASSIGNMENTS	234
SENTENCE ANALYSIS SAMPLES	258
FINAL SELF-CONTROL ZONE	260
REFERENCE LITERATURE	274

PREFACE ПЕРЕДМОВА

“Зіставна граматики англійської та української мов” посідає важливе місце в системі підготовки майбутніх філологів. Підручник із зіставної граматики покликаний сприяти науково обґрунтованому використанню ізоморфних та аломорфних явищ англійської та української мов з метою поліпшення знань та практичних умінь студентів з обох мов.

На **меті курсу** – доповнити й систематизувати набуті раніше знання та навички аналізу фонетичних, граматичних, лексичних та синтаксичних процесів і явищ в англійській та українській мовах, навчити студентів основним принципам та закономірностям розрізнення граматичної будови сучасної англійської та української мов в аспекті їх структури та функціонування. Для здійснення означеної мети в посібнику передбачається вивчення базових теоретичних питань з акцентом на здійсненні порівняльного аналізу лінгвістичних одиниць в фонетичній/фонологічній, лексичній, морфологічній та синтаксичній системах англійської та української мов.

Основне завдання підручника – ознайомити студентів з теоретичними положеннями про граматичну будову сучасної англійської та української мов з використанням сучасних лінгвістичних теорій, визначити спільні та відмінні риси мовних одиниць та явищ англійської та української мов, розвинути у студентів уміння використовувати знання з зіставної граматики англійської та української мов при аналізі мовних явищ у практичному викладанні англійської мови, розвинути у студентів уміння працювати з науковою лінгвістичною літературою та знаходити інформацію, що може бути використана для аналізу мовних явищ та процесів у викладацькій практиці.

Підручник із зіставної граматики англійської та української мов складений у відповідності до робочої програми з зіставної граматики англійської та української мов й містить всі необхідні структурні компоненти, покликаний забезпечити ефективне засвоєння матеріалу курсу. Теоретичні положення ілюстровані прикладами та схемами. Завершують теоретичний цикл практичні завдання та матеріал, необхідний для студента при підготовці до семінарських занять та семестрового іспиту.

CHAPTER 1

CONTRASTIVE GRAMMAR, ITS AIMS AND TASKS.

VARIOUS TYPOLOGIES

CONTENTS

- 1.The object and the subject of contrastive studies.
- 2.Main branches of contrastive investigations.
- 3.Constants of contrastive analysis.
- 4.Contrastive grammar, its objects and aims.

THE OBJECT AND THE SUBJECT OF CONTRASTIVE STUDIES

According to the Bible at the dawn of the mankind history all people in the world spoke the same language. Once when the town of Babylon was settled, they began building a huge in height tower in it. People were longing for the world power so they decided to erect a tower up to the Heaven. The God became infuriated with the people's arrogance and punished people by mixing the languages they spoke to such an extent they couldn't understand each other. Consequently, people were not able to finish up building the tower and little by little settled all over the world.

There exist different testimonies to the hypothesis of the unified language in the past. For instance, during the period of cattle breeding one and the same denotata (plants, animals) have much in common in nominating them in different languages.

E.g.:

Ukrainian	<i>Вовк</i>
Bulgarian	<i>Вълк</i>
Serbian	<i>Вук</i>
Czech	<i>Влк</i>
Polish	<i>Wilk</i>
Lithuanian	<i>Vilkas</i>
Lettish	<i>Vilks</i>
German	<i>Wolf</i>
English	<i>Wolf</i>
Gothic	<i>Wulfs</i>
Albanian	<i>Ulk</i>

So, there are many languages in the world, and all of them have some specific and some universal features. Contrasting different languages, we can often reveal structural identity not only in genealogically close but in genealogically far languages.

E.g.: *Common structural features can be found in different languages, even in genealogically far / alien ones: an attributive word-combination in which an adjective in the pre-position isn't agreed with a noun can be found in English, Turkic, Mongolian, Japanese and Chinese.*

At the same time in the structure of the genealogically close languages different features may be observed.

e. g. There is no category of case of nouns in such Slavic language as Bulgarian. The Bulgarian language is unique among Slavic languages, having eliminated the case system and transformed the definite article into a suffix system.

If we set ourselves a task to show up all **regularities** and **singularities** in the languages contrasted, we'll get a set of characteristics according to which we can distinguish one group of languages from another.

“Different languages are not different designations of the thing, they are different views (impressions, understandings) of this thing” (W. von Humboldt).

That is why a contrastive investigation of languages has become one of the most attractive areas of today's linguistics. It is the apprehension of different world pictures, unique linguistic cultures, ethnic peculiarities of perception of the environment and fixing the person's location in it, e.g. the Korean culture has two features – **respect** for seniority and age, and quite an authoritarian style.

Culture-specific differences between English and Ukrainian speakers in their inborn attitude to privacy, private property and quality service can be grammatically traced in the following examples:

English usage	Ukrainian usage
<i>The Dean's office</i> (a possessive attribute in preposition)	<i>The office of the Dean – Кабінет декана</i> (the owner is not emphasized)
<i>She changed her haircut</i> (a possessive pronoun is peculiar)	<i>She changed haircut – Вона змінила зачіску</i> (a possessive pronoun is never emphasized)
<i>I want my room repainted</i> (the passive role of a customer is implicit)	<i>I want to repaint my room – Я хочу перефарбувати кімнату</i> (the passive role of a customer is semantically implicit)
<i>Every customer may use Internet at his/her convenience</i> (a gender aspect is explicit)	<i>Every customer may use Internet at his convenience – Кожен відвідувач може використовувати Інтернет на власний розсуд</i> (a gender aspect has always been neglected)

Culture-specific patterns of business discourse, both written and oral, can be effectively analyzed in various genres: presentations, meetings, negotiations, business letters, getting through an interview, resume writing etc. A resume genre may serve a vivid illustration of specific cultural assumptions which differ in the choice of layout, content and language across cultures. The pragmatic goal of the resume genre to promote, “to sell oneself”, is much less explicit in Ukrainian as compared to English which reflects Ukrainians’ national peculiarities and attitudes.

It has always been interesting for those who deal with many languages why we find different colour terms in them though we have the same ability for colour vision, or why we name the same parts of the body in different ways, or why different linguistic communities categorize one and the same phenomenon from different standpoints.

For instance,

The gestures of “yes” and “no” are completely opposite in the Bulgarian and English Languages;

- When gesturing “yes”, Bulgarians shake their head from side to side ;
- When gesturing “no”, Bulgarians nod their head up and down, sometimes making a loud “clicking” sound ;

This would pose to be extremely confusing for an English Language Learner, mainly due to the fact that the gestures are completely opposite in English;

Classification of the main, essential features of languages and revealing the linguistic regularities has become the prerogative (**the subject**) of **linguistic typology** which can be defined as a study of types of languages and types of language structures.

Typology as a term comes from “type” or “typical”, it aims at establishing similar general linguistic categories which serve as a basis for the classification of the languages of different types, irrespective of their genealogical relationship.

The basic notion of linguistic typology is “**the language type**”, which can be understood as the language structure with an accent on its dominating features.

e.g. In all Turkic languages some common typologically dominant features can be observed, such as:

1) monosemantic and standard suffixes, so called ‘stickers’,

2) a strictly prescribed order of suffixes etc. (okul ‘школа’, okullar ‘школы’, okullarimiz ‘наши школы’, okullarimizda ‘в наших школах.)

These features are permanent for Turkic languages, so it is possible to contrast them to another group of languages.

The **object** of typological investigation may be:

1) **a separate language feature or phenomenon** pertained to some genealogically close or genealogically far languages,

2) **separate features, language units or phenomena** pertained to both living and one or two dead languages,

3) **language / languages.**

Therefore, the **object** of typological investigation may be a restricted object of investigation or an extensive language material.

The number of different languages which can be simultaneously subjected to typological contrasting is not limited. These languages or some of their features / phenomena may also be contrasted either synchronically or diachronically.

So, **the task** of a special branch of linguistics – linguistic typology – is to group the most important characteristics and regularities, observed in some languages.

Contrastive typology represents a linguistic subject of typology based on the **method of comparison or contrasting**.

Like typology proper contrastive typology also aims at establishing the structural types of languages on the basis of their dominant or common phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic features.

Apart from this contrastive typology may equally treat common features only as well as divergent phenomena only, which are found both in languages of the same structural type (synthetic, analytical, agglutinative etc.) as well as in languages of different structural types (synthetic and analytical, agglutinative and incorporative etc.).

The final aims of typological investigations are the following:

- 1) to identify the main isomorphic and allomorphic features characteristic of the languages under investigation;
- 2) to draw from these common or divergent features respectively the isomorphic regularities (закономірності) and the allomorphic singularities (відмінності) in the languages contrasted;
- 3) to establish on the basis of the obtained isomorphic features the typical language structures and the types of languages;
- 4) to perform on the basis of the obtained practical data a truly scientific classification of the existing languages in the world;
- 5) to establish the universal features pertained to each single language in the world.

So, typological investigations may be focused on various linguistic phenomena ranging from separate signs of the phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic planes up to several languages.

Practical aims are:

- 1) to supply the ground for translation theory and practice;
- 2) to foresee and overcome the unnecessary interference of languages in teaching practice.

The results of contrastive grammar can be applied for the development of the methodology of foreign language teaching. The methodology, which is based on the results of the contrastive language study, creates a lot of advantages for the studying process, namely: provides increasing of effectiveness and intensifying of the learning process, gives the possibility to widen the didactic material, reduces the factor of native language interference, increases the level of language culture awareness. The contrastive aspect as well provides the possibility to determine the study direction of the language material presentation: from the form to the content (in case of analogies in presenting phenomena, easy for acquisition), or from the content to the form (in case of analogies absence and presence of differences, creating difficulties for a certain national group of language learners).

The contrastive analysis of language systems is substantial for the translation dictionary compiling. The lexicographic work upon the bilingual types of dictionaries is, in fact, language contrasting.

The practical value of contrastive grammar is constantly increasing. It is widening the sphere of its application, which is connected with the growing role of cross-language and cross-cultural communication in all its forms (internationalization of European education standards, the increase in effectiveness of foreign language teaching, as well as in demands to translation quality in different spheres of activity). Contrastive linguistics is changing with the shift of linguistics interests towards the sphere of language usage; with the appearance of corpus linguistics and development of applied/computer linguistics, which present researchers with the possibilities of language data analysis.

MAIN BRANCHES OF CONTRASTIVE INVESTIGATIONS

- **Universal typology** which investigates all the languages of the world and aims at singling out in them such features/phenomena which are common in all languages. These features are referred to as *absolute universals*. Their identification is carried out not only on the basis of the existing (living) languages but also on the basis of the dead languages like Sanskrit, ancient Greek or Latin. Also the hypothetic abstract *etalon language* is widely made use of by universal typology.
- **Special or caractereological typology**, in contrast to universal typology, usually investigates concrete languages, as a rule the native tongue. The language in which the description of isomorphic and allomorphic features is performed is referred to as *metalanguage*. In our case the metalanguage is English.
- **General typology** has for its object of investigation the most general phonetic, morphological, lexical, syntactic or stylistic features. This typological approach was introduced by the German scholar W. Humboldt, who suggested the first typological classification of languages (on the morphological basis).
- **Partial typology** investigates a restricted number of language features/phenomena, e.g. the system of vowels/consonants, the syntactic level units. As a result, several level typologies are distinguished:
 - a) *typology of the phonetic/phonological level units;*
 - b) *typology of the morphological level units;*
 - c) *typology of the lexical level units;*
 - d) *typology of the syntactic level units.*
- **Areal typology** investigates common and divergent features of languages of a particular geographical area with respect to their mutual influence of one language upon the other.
- **Structural typology** has for its object the means of grammatical expression, the order of constituent parts at the level of words, word-combinations and sentences.

- **Functional typology** investigates the frequency of linguistic units in speech, the regularities and peculiarities of their use with the aim of expressing different meanings.
- **Content typology** investigates the types of possible meanings expressed by various linguistic units and their forms in the contrasted languages.
- **Qualitative typology** establishes predominant features (phonetic, morphological, syntactic) in the contrasted languages. Therefore languages are found to be *vocalic, consonantal* etc.
- **Quantitative typology**, identified by the American linguist J.Greenberg, investigates the quantitative correlation of some features/phenomena and their dominant role in the contrasted languages (e.g. the small quantity of inflexions and the great role of analytical means for composing syntactic structures characterizes the language as predominantly analytical).

CONSTANTS OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Contrastive grammar as a branch of linguistics employs some terms and notions of its own. The principal and the most often occurrent of them are as follows:

- **Absolute universals** – features or phenomena of a language level pertaining to any language of the world (*vowels and consonants, word-stress and utterance stress, parts of the sentences, parts of speech etc.*).

There exist different principles of classifying universals. The most informative for linguistics is the classification performed on the basis of different language levels.

The absolute universals of the **phonological** level are:

- 1) *in each language CV syllable type can be found,*
- 2) *the consonantal minimal set comprises plosives /p/, /t/, /k/ fricative /f/ and sonorant /j/.*

The **morphological** level can be characterized by such absolute universals:

- 1) *in all languages words can be classified into parts of speech,*
- 2) *The most frequent noun category is the category of number,*
- 3) *the most frequent verb category is the category of tense,*
- 4) *in all languages pronouns are available.*

The absolute universals of the **syntactic** level are:

- 1) *in any language there exist the class of conjunctions,*
- 2) *constructions of comparison can be found in any language.*

- **Near universals (неповні/часткові універсалії)** – features or phenomena common in many or some languages under typological investigation.

For instance:

- 1) *in most of languages there is a nasalized consonant,*
- 2) *in a great number of languages two vocalic phonemes can be found,*
- 3) *if the noun in a language can be characterized by the category of gender, the same category can be applied to analyze the pronoun.*

- **Typologically dominant features (типологічні домінанти)** – features or phenomena dominating at a language level or in the structure of one/some contrasted languages. Dominant in present-day English are known to be analytical means: fixed word order in word-groups and in sentences, the prominent role of

prepositions and placement as a means of connection and expression of case relations and syntactic functions. The change of placement of the part of the sentence may completely change its sense: e.g. *The hunter killed the bear – The bear killed the hunter*. Cf. in Ukrainian: *Мисливець убив ведмедя. – Ведмедя убив мисливець*. In Ukrainian the change of the placement of the subject and the object of the sentence does not cause any changes in the meaning of the sentence, because case, gender and number categories are expressed by means of inflexions (*братові книги, він співав – вона співала*).

- **Typologically recessive features** – features or phenomena losing their former dominant role (dual number in Ukrainian: *верба́ – ве́рби* (МН.) – 2,3,4 *верба́*; case forms in English).

- **Isomorphic features (ізоморфні риси)** – common features or phenomena in languages under contrastive analysis. Isomorphic in English and in Ukrainian is, for instance, assimilation, categories of number, person, tense as well as parts of speech, the existence of sentences etc.

- **Allomorphic features (аломорфні риси)** – features or phenomena which are observed in one language and missing in the other. For example, the gerund or diphthongs or analytical verb forms in English, which are completely missing in Ukrainian.

- **Unique features (унікалії)** – features or phenomena which can be found only in one definite language and nowhere else. For example, the final position of prepositions in English questions.

- **The etalon language (мова-еталон)** – a hypothetical language created by typologists for the sake of contrasting any language. This “language” is supposed to contain exhaustive quantitative and qualitative data or characteristics concerning all existing language units and phenomena.

- **Metalinguage (метамова)** – is the language on the basis of which the actual presentation of different features of the contrasted languages is carried out. In our case it is English.

CONTRASTIVE GRAMMAR, ITS OBJECT AND AIMS

Contrastive Grammar is a branch of partial typology as it investigates only the grammatical system of the languages.

Its object is a feature/phenomenon of the morphological or syntactic level in the contrasted languages. Contrastive grammar treats two specific languages one of which is the native language. In the second language, the description of common and divergent features is performed. It is referred to as a metalanguage.

Metalanguage is the language in which the fundamental analysis of different phenomena of the contrasted languages is carried out. From this point of view, contrastive grammar belongs to special typologies. Generally, typology is a branch of linguistics that aims at establishing similar general linguistic categories serving as a basis for the classification of languages of different types, irrespective of their genealogical relationship.

Comparative or Contrastive grammar, as the notion itself reveals it, represents a linguistic subject of grammar based on the method of *comparison* or *contrasting*. Comparative grammar aims at establishing the most general structural types of languages on the basis of their dominant morphological and syntactical features. Apart from this, comparative grammar may equally treat dominant or common features only, as well as divergent features / phenomena only, which are found both in languages of the same structural type (synthetic, analytical) as well as in languages of different structural types (synthetic and analytical).

Traditionally, grammar includes *morphology* and *syntax*. Morphology deals with the internal structure of the words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories and their semantics while syntax deals with the rules governing combinations of words into sentences. Thus, the object of Contrastive grammar is to investigate basically the morphological and syntactic structures of the contrasted languages, while the aims are to find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the above mentioned parts.

The aim of contrastive grammar is to compare and identify the similarities and differences between two or more languages with the goal of enhancing language learning and translation skills. Contrastive grammar helps learners recognize and understand the divergences and convergences in the grammatical structures, vocabulary, and usage patterns of different languages. By highlighting the distinctions between languages, contrastive grammar enables learners to better comprehend and apply their native language knowledge to the target language and

vice versa. This comparative approach aids in identifying and minimizing errors and difficulties that may arise during language acquisition and translation processes.

The practical aims of contrasting languages include:

1) Facilitating language learning: By contrasting different languages, learners can better understand the similarities and differences between their native language and the target language, which can help them acquire the new language more efficiently.

2) Improving translation and interpretation skills: Contrasting languages allows translators and interpreters to identify similarities and differences in vocabulary, grammar, and cultural nuances, enabling them to provide accurate and effective translations and interpretations.

3) Enhancing cross-cultural communication: By contrasting languages, individuals can develop a deeper understanding of different cultures and their linguistic expressions, leading to improved communication and intercultural competence.

4) Aiding language teachers: By comparing and contrasting different languages, educators can identify specific challenges and difficulties that learners may face, enabling them to develop tailored teaching materials and strategies to address these issues more effectively.

5) Stimulating linguistic research: Contrasting languages can help researchers uncover patterns, linguistic universals, and language-related phenomena, contributing to the advancement of linguistic theories and understanding of language diversity.

6) Fostering cognitive benefits: Contrasting languages can enhance cognitive skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving, and pattern recognition. It also helps individuals become more flexible and open-minded in their thinking by appreciating different linguistic systems.

Overall, contrasting languages helps promote language learning, improve translation and interpretation, enhance cross-cultural communication, aid language teachers, stimulate linguistic research, and foster cognitive development.

POINTS FOR REVISION

- 1) What does Contrastive Grammar study?
- 2) What is the object of Contrastive Grammar?
- 3) What is the subject of Contrastive Grammar?
- 4) What are its theoretical aims?
- 5) What are the practical aims of contrasting languages?
- 6) What typological constants can you name?
- 7) What are the main branches of typological investigations?
- 8) What do linguistic typology, contrastive typology, historical and comparative linguistics differ in?
- 9) State the difference between:
 - Absolute VS unique universals*
 - Dominant VS recessive features*
 - Isomorphic VS allomorphic features*
 - General VS partial typology.*

POINTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF CONTRASTIVE TYPOLOGY

TASK 1. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

- 1) What does Contrastive Grammar study?
- 2) What is the object of Contrastive Grammar?
- 3) What is the subject of Contrastive Grammar?
- 4) What are the practical aims of contrasting languages?
- 5) What does Contrastive Typology study?
- 6) What are its theoretical aims?
- 7) What typological constants can you name?
- 8) What are the main branches of typological investigations?
- 9) What is the difference between the type of the language, the language type and the typical in the languages?
- 10) What do linguistic typology, contrastive typology, contrastive grammar, historical and comparative studies differ in?
- 11) State the difference between:
 - Absolute VS unique universals*
 - Dominant VS recessive features*
 - Isomorphic VS allomorphic features*
 - General VS partial typology*
 - The language type VS the type in the language.*

**TASK 2. COMPLETE THE STATEMENTS WITH
THE APPROPRIATE TERMS:**

1. **Universal typology** which investigates _____ and aims at singling out in them such features/phenomena which are _____ in all languages. These features are referred to as _____.
2. **Special or caractereological typology**, in contrast to universal typology, usually investigates _____ languages, as a rule the _____ tongue. The language in which the description of isomorphic and allomorphic features is performed is referred to as _____. In our case the metalanguage is English.
3. **General typology** has for its object of investigation the most _____, _____, _____ or _____ features. This typological approach was introduced by the German scholar _____.
4. **Partial typology** investigates a restricted number of language _____, e.g. the system of vowels/consonants, the syntactic level units.
5. **Areal typology** investigates common and divergent features of languages of a particular _____ with respect to their _____ influence of one language upon the other.
6. **Structural typology** has for its object the means of grammatical _____, the order of constituent parts at the level of _____, _____ and _____.
7. **Functional typology** investigates the _____ of linguistic units in speech, the regularities and peculiarities of their use with the aim of expressing different meanings.
8. **Content typology** investigates the types of possible _____ expressed by various linguistic units and their forms in the contrasted languages.
9. **Qualitative typology** establishes predominant _____ (phonetic, morphological, syntactic) in the contrasted languages. Therefore languages are found to be *vocalic*, *consonantal* etc.
10. **Quantitative typology**, identified by the American linguist _____, investigates _____ correlation of some features/phenomena and their dominant role in the contrasted languages.

TASK 3. MATCH THE TYPOLOGICAL CONSTANTS
WITH THEIR INTERPRETATION:

Part 1

- 1) *The etalon language*
- 2) *Typologically dominant features*
- 3) *Isomorphic features*
- 4) *Absolute universals*
- 5) *Unique features*
- 6) *Metalanguage*
- 7) *Allomorphic features*
- 8) *Near universals*
- 9) *Typologically recessive features*

A) phenomena of a language level pertaining to any language of the world (*vowels and consonants, word-stress and utterance stress, parts of the sentences, parts of speech etc.*);

B) features common in many or some languages under typological investigation;

C) phenomena dominating at a language level or in the structure of one/some contrasted languages;

D) features losing their former dominant role;

E) convergent units in languages under contrastive analysis;

F) features observed in one language and missing in the other under study;

G) features or phenomena which can be found only in one definite language and nowhere else;

H) a hypothetic language designed for the sake of contrasting any language. This “language” is supposed to contain exhaustive quantitative and qualitative data or characteristics concerning all existing language units and phenomena;

I) is the language on the basis of which the actual presentation of different features of the contrasted languages is carried out.

CHAPTER 2 A SHORT HISTORICAL OUTLINE OF CONTRASTIVE INVESTIGATIONS

CONTENTS

1. Historical and comparative investigations of languages in the 17th and 18th centuries.
2. The 19th century typological investigations.
 - 2.1. The 19th century (1st half) typological investigations.
 - 2.2. The 19th century (2nd half) typological investigations.
3. The 20th century typological investigations.
 - 3.1. Multilateral or graded typology.
 - 3.2. Characterological typology.
 - 3.3. Quantitative typology.
4. Typological classifications.
 - 4.1. Morphological classifications.
 - 4.2. Phonological classifications.
 - 4.3. Syntactic classifications.
5. Ukrainian typologists.

HISTORICAL AND COMPARATIVE INVESTIGATIONS OF LANGUAGES IN THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES

Linguistic typology as a scientific discipline appeared much later than Grammar, Phonetics, Lexicology. But its birth was a remarkable turning point in the development of linguistics, which took place **at the end of the 18th – the beginning of the 19th centuries.**

It's hard to say when the interest for contrastive investigations appeared. Many European scientists as early as the 17th and 18th centuries pointed to the existence of some common (mainly lexical) features in different languages (**Yan Amos Komensky, Wilhelm Leibnitz**).

Earlier this idea came into sight of the first Europeans who visited India in the 16th and 17th centuries. They were often struck by **the great similarity in sounding and in meaning of a number of common words like *mother, sister, brother*.**

Those observations, however, did not initiate then a regular typological study of languages.

Only some centuries later while **examining a great many Sanskrit words**, scientists arrived at the conclusion that similarities in languages can be explained by the existence of a common root – **some parent language** which served as a source for modern languages (the Sanskrit words *mātar*, *vidgāva*, *юван*, *нас* correspond to the Ukrainian words *мати*, *вдова*, *юнак*, *ніс* and have such English counterparts *mother*, *widow*, *young*, *nose*).

The recognition of isomorphism of languages resulted in an attempt to create a grammar on “common in all languages principles” which was made by the Frenchmen **Claude Lancelot and Antoine Arnaud** in their “**Universal or Rational Grammar**” (written in Pour Royal monastery in 1660, thus having sometimes another equivalent “Pour Royal Grammar”).

The historical and comparative method was originally employed to **diachronically investigate genealogically related languages**, principally Indian, Germanic and Romanic.

At the same time **general observations in non-related languages** were being carried out. These observations helped to establish the languages’ isomorphic and allomorphic features. Thus, together with the historical and comparative study, typological investigations were born.

So, the 17th and 18th centuries investigations are concerned with such scientists as:

I. KOMENSKY, W. LEIBNITZ (17th, 18th c.), who pointed to the existence of some common (mainly lexical) features in different languages.



CLAUDE LANCELOT, ANTOINE ARNAUD with their “Universal or Rational Grammar” (Pour Royal Monastery 1660), which was an attempt to create grammar on “common in all languages principles”.



And yet only the beginning of the 19th century with its **historical and comparative method** brought a dynamic development to the European linguistics.

THE 19th CENTURY TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

THE 19TH CENTURY (1ST HALF) TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

One of the first linguists to apply a scientific approach to the regular study of structurally different languages was a German scholar **FREDERICK SHLEGEL** (1772-1829).



On the ground of a thorough study of ancient Indian and modern Chinese, Polynesian, Turkic and major West-European languages on the basis of morphological principle he singled out among them two clearly distinguishable groups:

1) Affixal languages,

in which the form-building of words is realized through affixes added to invariable root morphemes. These languages were Turkic, Polynesian and Chinese;

2) Inflexional languages,

which included among others all Semitic languages and also French as well as the Georgian language.

F. Shlegel was greatly interested in the culture of ancient India and its language. His famous work is “About the language and wisdom of Indians” (1808).

AUGUST SHLEGEL (1767-1845)

Perfected his brother's attempt of typological classification of languages and added to the mentioned above type – **those without any grammatical structure** (Chinese).



WILHELM VON HUMBOLDT (1761-1835)

Made a decisive step forward in typological classification of languages on the basis of the same morphological principle and is considered to be **the father of typology**.

The scientist studied a great number of languages including those of Polynesia and American Indians. Having taking into account the morphological divergencies in a large number of languages, he suggested a much more embracing typological classification of languages than those suggested by his predecessors. It was partly a perfected and more scientifically supported variant of morphological classification.



Thus, W. Humboldt grouped all known to him languages into the following four classes:

- 1) **the isolating** languages, which are devoid of the form-building morphemes (like Chinese);
- 2) **the agglutinative languages** (like those of the Turkic group);
- 3) **the flexional languages** (like the Indo-European and Semitic languages);
- 4) **the incorporating languages** of American Indians, which are characterized by the possibility of words to combine and form specific word-sentences.

The isolating languages were considered by him to be archaic, the agglutinative – to be at the intermediary stage of development and the inflexional ones as those representing the highest degree in language evolution. The divergences found in languages Humboldt explained with the help of existence of **ethnic psychology**, he used the notion of folk's spirit represented in national language.

FRANZ BOPP (1791-1867)

On the basis of the syllabic root morphemes structure singled out:

- 1) the language type (LT) with the root consisting of one syllable only (the so-called **monosyllabic L.**);
- 2) the LT in which **the root morpheme can combine with other root and affixal morphemes** (I-E L.);
- 3) the LT **with disyllabic and even trisyllabic root word structures** (as Semitic L.).



AUGUST SHLEICHER (1821 – 1868)

Is a representative of a *biological* approach in linguistics. On the ground of his biological conception he believed that three types of languages singled out by brothers Shlegel reflected three levels of development of language similar to what happens in nature:

a mineral – a plant – an animal.

He was also the first to use the symbols to mark the structural components of a word.



SUMMARY: IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE 19TH CENTURY TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS WERE BASED ON THE MORPHOLOGICAL PRINCIPLE. THE ATTEMPTS WERE MADE TO SHOW DIFFERENT STRUCTURAL TYPES OF LANGUAGES AS THE STAGES OF ONE PROCESS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGES IN GENERAL AS THE MOVEMENT FROM LESS PERFECT TO MORE PERFECT.

The 19th century (2nd half) typological investigations

Heimann Steintal investigated syntactic connections in different languages. Thus, he moved from morphological phenomena to syntax.

Franz Mistely added one more principle of typological classifications: the position of the word in the sentence. *E.g. the predicate always follows the subject in statements in analytical languages like English, Swedish, Norwegian etc. whereas in the Turkic languages it mostly occupies the closing position.*

Franz-Nickolaus Fink also considered a word to be the main typological unit. He suggested two more principles for the typological classification of different languages: *1) the correlation between the unbreakable word structure and the breakable word structure; 2) the type of concord and the manner of its realization.*

SUMMARY: ALL THROUGH THE SECOND HALF OF THE 19TH CENTURY AND DURING THE BEGINNING OF THE 20TH CENTURY THE ONLY OBJECT OF TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION WAS A **WORD / WORD-FORM**. IT WAS INVESTIGATED WITH AN ACCENT ON ITS COMMON AND DIVERGENT FEATURES WITH THE AIM TO ESTABLISH A UNIVERSAL MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION. NEVERTHELESS, IN SOME RESEARCHES THE OBJECT OF INVESTIGATION HAS MOVED FROM MORPHOLOGY TO SYNTAX.

THE 20TH CENTURY TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

The 20th century typological investigations were marked by some new approaches to the contrastive study of languages. The main typologies are:

MUTILATERAL OR GRADED TYPOLOGY

MUTILATERAL OR GRADED TYPOLOGY is connected with the name of the most prominent American linguist **Edward Sapir** (1884-1939).



He criticized the 19th century typological classifications and the evolutionary approach to the development of different language types when isolating languages were considered more primitive than flexional. He came to the conclusion that some languages, though distant in location, could in the course of their development acquire common features and thus move to a common model and language type.

He was the first to treat **language as a system**. He suggested for typological classification of different languages the following principles:

a) the degree of cohesion between the root and the affixal morphemes in a word.

On the basis of this criterion he singled out such types of languages as:

- 1) **isolating** (no formal elements),
- 2) **agglutinative** (affixal morphemes don't cause the changes in root morphemes),
- 3) **fusional** (when it is difficult to find the boundary between the root and the affixal morphemes),
- 4) **symbolic** (root morphemes change because of the shift of the stress , the change of intonation etc);

b) the degree of synthesis, on the basis of which there can be established

1) analytical,

2) synthetic and

3) polysynthetic languages.

CHARACTEREOLOGICAL TYPOLOGY

CHARACTEREOLOGICAL TYPOLOGY was elaborated by the Prague school linguists **Vladimir Skalička**, **Vilem Mathesius**, **Irvis Levyn** and others. The representatives of caractereological typology aimed at a detailed description of the essential features of one language as compared to another one in order to show its singularity. In other words, caractereological typology usually investigates concrete languages, one of which is, as a rule, the native tongue. The language on the basis of which the description of isomorphic and allomorphic features is performed is usually referred to as *metalanguage*. In our case it is English.

QUANTITATIVE TYPOLOGY

QUANTITATIVE TYPOLOGY was elaborated by **Joseph Greenberg**. He used the quantitative method in connection with the main features of the typology of languages such as 1-synthesis in language, 2-the degree of agglutination, 3-the way of word building etc. The basic figure used by him to count per cent was 100. The aim of this typology is to investigate the quantitative correlation of some features in the contrasted languages.

SUMMARY: Of special attention in the 20th century were questions concerning the classification of universals (universal typology), the ways of contrasting the microsystems of related and non-related languages with the aim of investigating mainly morphological features. At the same time syntactic relations (**C.Bazell**) and phonological features (**Ch.Hockett**, **O. Isachenko**) were taken into account.

TYPOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATIONS

MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION

1) **THE ISOLATING languages**, which are devoid of the form-building morphemes, they are also called amorphous or formless. Grammatical relations in these L. are expressed by word order.

The best specimen of an I. L. is Chinese, which is monosyllabic and invariable. It is a tonal L. and the meanings of words of the same structure are distinguished by tones. A Chinese “*da*” can be used as a noun ‘*greatness*’, an adjective ‘*great*’, a verb ‘*to be great*’ and an adverb ‘*greatly*’. The exact meaning is made clear by where it stands in the sentence.

2) **THE AGGLUTINATIVE languages**, in which the form-building of words is realized through affixes added to invariable root morphemes.

Characteristic features of A. L. are:

a) **monosemantic affixes**, so-called “stickers”;

b) **a strictly prescribed order of elements** (like those of the Turkic group):

e.g. *okul* – *школа*,

okullar – *школу*,

okullarimiz – *наши* *школи*,

okullarimizda – *в наших школах*.

3) **THE FLEXIONAL languages**, in which the form of a word changes to show a change in meaning or grammatical function. Often there is no clear morphemic boundary between the root and the part which shows the grammatical meaning (e.g. *mice* (*mouse* + *plural*)) (like the Indo-European as Greek, Latin, English, Ukrainian etc. and Semitic languages);

4) **THE INCORPORATING / POLYSYNTHETIC languages** of American Indians, with no word / sentence distinction which are characterized by the possibility of words to combine and form specific sentence structures.

e.g. *I came to give it to her* (English) = *inialudam* (American Indian)

i - n - i - a - l - u - d - a - m

i-past time
n-personal pronoun “I”
i-personal pronoun “it”
a-possessive pronoun “her”
l-preposition of direction “to”
u-indicates movement away from the speaker
d-give
am-modifies the verbal content in a local sense

The Nahuatl languages spoken in central Mexico are agglutinative, polysynthetic languages that make extensive use of compounding, incorporation and derivation. That is, they can add many different prefixes and suffixes to a root until very long words are formed, and a single word can constitute an entire sentence (by the way, English words of Nahuatl origin include "avocado", "chocolate", "coyote" and "tomato").

PHONOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION

The **quantitative variation** of the phonemic stock in different languages is the main criteria for classification, based on the phonological principle, after O. Isachenko.

In some languages the number of consonants is rather limited as in the Samoan language where there are only 9 consonantal phonemes. In other languages the number of consonants raises to 60 as in Abkhasian.

The number of vowels varies also. There are 17 vowels in Sweden, for instance, and only 7 in Italian.

Consequently, on the basis of the phonological principle languages can be of two types:

- 1) **CONSONANTAL** languages (if there dominates the system of consonants which is characterized by the variety of consonantal phonemes and the small number of vocalic phonemes – *Polish* with 35 consonantal phonemes each and 6 vowels, – *Ukrainian* with 32 consonantal phonemes each and 6 vowels);
- 2) **VOCALIC** languages (if there dominates the system of vocalic phonemes with the limited number of consonants, and if the number of vowels exceeds the average number of vocalic phonemes – *Slovenian* with 18 vowels and 21

consonants, *Serbian-Croat* with 18 vowels and 24 consonants, *English* with 20 vowels and 24 consonantal phonemes).

SYNTACTIC CLASSIFICATION

A) ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF GRAMMATICAL WORD-FORMATION:

- 1) **SYNTHETIC** languages, in which the grammatical relations between words are expressed by forms of the words themselves.
- 2) **ANALYTICAL** languages, in which the grammatical relations are expressed by means of prepositions. They are also characterized by the use of auxiliary words and a fixed word order (S-V-O).

Compare: *The hunter killed the bear & The bear killed the hunter*, the change of placement of the elements is possible in synthetic L. only:

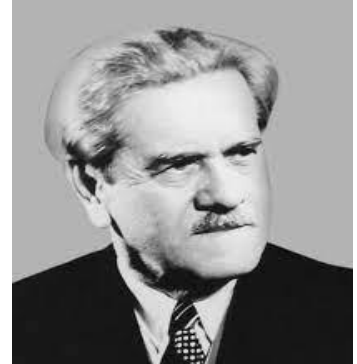
e.g. *Мисливець убив ведмедя = Ведмедя убив мисливець.*

B) ACCORDING TO THE WAY OF EXPRESSING SUBJECT-PREDICATE RELATIONS

- 1) **NOMINATIVE** languages, in which the subject stands for the doer of the action and is expressed in the Nominative Case (Indo-European and Semitic L.).
- 2) **ERGATIVE** languages, in which there is no positional difference between the subject and the object and with the subject in the Ergative Case. Such a structure can be illustrated by the sentence e.g. *Його убило блискавкою* (some Caucasian L.).
- 3) **PASSIVE** languages, in which neither the subject nor the object have special grammatical forming up within the syntactic unit). They merge with the verb-predicate into a single unit, in which the predicate is a leading component (incorporative L.).

UKRAINIAN TYPOLOGISTS

Yu. O. Zhluktenko studied English and Ukrainian languages and their interrelations in the North-American countries.



O. Isachenko investigated Slavonic languages. He divided languages into vocalic and consonantal on the principle of their quantitative representation.



M. A. Kalinovich morphological divergencies in European and South-Asian languages.



R. P. Zorivchak studied English and Ukrainian correspondencies in nominating different things and objects of the surrounding world with an accent on their national peculiarities.



POINTS FOR REVISION

- 1) Who was the first to make a scientific research of the language types?
- 2) What types of languages did W. Humboldt differentiate?
- 3) Who is known for biological approach to studying languages?
- 4) When and by whom syntactic relations between language units were investigated?
- 5) What scientists of the 17-18th c. are concerned with studying structures of different languages?
- 6) What typological investigations are characteristic of the 1st half of the 19thc.? the 2nd half of the 19th c.? the 20th c.?
- 7) What Ukrainian typologists do you know?
- 8) Identify the typological studies created by the following linguists:

Claude Lancelot, Antoine Arnaud

Frederick Shlegel

August Shlegel

Wilhelm von Humboldt

Franz Bopp

August Shleicher

Heimann Steinthal

Edward Sapir

Joseph Greenberg

The Prague school linguists

Oleksandr Isachenko

I.I.Meshchaninov

- 9) What are the main principles to classify languages?
- 10) Give examples to illustrate the language types:

Synthetic

Analytical

Isolating

Agglutinative

POINTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

HISTORY OF TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS. TYPOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATIONS

TASK 1. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

- 1) Who was the first to make a scientific research of the language types?
- 2) What types of languages did W. Humboldt differentiate?
- 3) Who is known for biological approach to studying languages?
- 4) When and by whom syntactic relations between language units were investigated?
- 5) What scientists of the 17-18th c. are concerned with studying structures of different languages?
- 6) What typological investigations are characteristic of the 1st half of the 19th c.? 2nd half of the 19th c.? 20th c.? What are modern tendencies?
- 7) Who is considered to be the father of typology?
- 8) Who was the first to move to syntax in typological investigations?
- 9) What Ukrainian typologists do you know?
- 10) What are the main principles to classify languages?
- 11) Whom was the syntactic classification suggested?
- 12) Name the types of languages singled out within the morphological classification.
- 13) Who investigated languages in order to classify them on the basis of their morphological features?
- 14) What Ukrainian scientist is the author of the phonological classification of languages?
- 15) Identify the languages within the phonological classification.
- 16) Provide the types of languages classified on the basis of the syntactic criterion.
- 17) Give examples of the languages of different types (synthetic::analytical, nominative::passive, vocalic::consonantal).
- 18) Do you think it possible that there might be a pure language type? Motivate your answer.

REVISION TEST 1

HISTORY OF TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS. TYPOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATIONS. TYPOLOGICAL CONSTANTS

1. Arrange the names of following linguists in the succession order and identify the typological studies created by them:

Wilhelm von Humboldt
Oleksandr Isachenko
Edward Sapir
Joseph Greenberg
August Shlegel
Claude Lancelot, Antoine Arnaud
I.I.Meshchaninov
August Shleicher
Heimann Steinthal
The Prague school linguists
Frederick Shlegel
Franz Bopp

2. Explicate the language types and illustrate them by examples:

Synthetic
Analytical
Isolating
Agglutinative

3. Explain the difference between:

Absolute VS unique universals
Dominant VS recessive features
Isomorphic VS allomorphic features
General VS partial typology
The language type VS the type in the language

CHAPTER 3

METHODS OF CONTRASTIVE INVESTIGATIONS

CONTENTS

1. The introduction of a method.
2. Comparison as the main method of typological investigations .
3. Structural method.
 - 3.1. Immediate constituent analysis.
 - 3.2. Distributional analysis.
 - 3.3. Transformational analysis.
4. Deductive and inductive methods.
5. Quantitative method: the typological indexes method of J. Greenberg.

THE INTRODUCTION OF A METHOD

One of the main aims of the human activity is **the cognition of the surrounding world**. Usually the knowledge received from everyday experience is not systematized and as a result it doesn't have any scientific background.

In order to cognize the surrounding world scientifically, its characteristics and laws, it is necessary to investigate it, to define its main features and determine its relationships.

Method is some approach to reality. The method of cognition is the unity of scientific theses and practical devices, due to which we have an opportunity to study some phenomenon better.

In specific scientific meaning *methods* are the ways of finding, collecting, describing new linguistic facts.

Method is a system of approaches used to study phenomena and regularities of nature, society and thinking, to reach any definite results in practice, to organize and systematize theoretical and practical results obtained in the research.

There are **2 points of view** as to when a science about language appeared:

- 1) The first one states that linguistics was born **when a language became an object of interest** in ancient Rome, ancient Greece and India;
- 2) The second one insists the science about language appeared only **when a special method of language facts analysis (historical method) was applied to language research**, i.e. in the 1st half of the 19th c.

Thus, the **introduction of a method provokes the appearance of a new branch of knowledge**, though the relations between the method and the branch are flexible enough.

For instance, structuralism as a branch of linguistics emerged when a structural method came into being. In the course of time, however, structuralism has lost its significance, but its methods are still of vital importance in the language facts analysis.

There exist **2 groups of methods** usually applied to linguistic research. These are:

- 1) **General**, that are used in any sphere of human knowledge. Among the general scientific methods we distinguish between *deduction, induction, analysis and synthesis*;
- 2) **Specific** play an extraordinary important role in the development of a certain branch of science. Specifically linguistic methods of language investigation comprise *descriptive, comparative, structural* etc.

COMPARISON AS THE MAIN METHOD OF TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

Every science has its own methods and devices of investigation. **The aim of typology is to compare languages.** So, let's study its methods of analysis.

The main method of contrastive typological investigations is the **comparative one**, which is also employed in historical and comparative linguistics. Nevertheless, **the final aims** of contrastive typology and of historical and comparative linguistics **differ greatly**.

Historical and comparative method, suggested by *F. Bopp* and elaborated by *Y. Grimm*, is the first scientific method in linguistics. Historical and comparative method bases:

- 1) on the study about the genealogical kinship of some languages (the theory of genealogical tree of A. Shleicher). In other words, it aims at establishing the **parent language**:

*e.g. Comparing Ukrainian новий, Greek néos, Lettish novus, English new, German neu, Armenian nov, Tadjik nav gave the possibility to reconstruct the indoeuropean preform *nevos;*

2) it studies the obligate changes in phonological, grammar and the word-stock of the **daughter languages** under investigation.

Unlike historical and comparative method, **the contrastive method** is used to find phenomena of some languages which have analogous functions **regardless of the fact whether the contrasted languages are genealogically close or not.**

The contrastive linguistic method **aims at** establishing **the isomorphic (alongside of allomorphic) features**, the dominant features and on their basis the establishment of structural types of languages under investigation.

STRUCTURAL METHOD

The structural method analyses the language phenomena taking into consideration only relations and connections between the language elements. The method appeared **in the 20s of the 20th c.**

The structural method **aims at studying language as the whole structure**, the elements of which are interrelated and are connected with the system of linguistic relations.

The structural method is very significant as it studies the organization of the language. This method realizes itself in 4 methodologies:

1. Immediate constituent analysis
2. Distributional analysis
3. Transformational analysis
4. Componental analysis (which is not relevant for contrastive typology and is employed in Lexicology with “semes”)

IMMEDIATE CONSTITUENT ANALYSIS

The ICs method represents the word-forming structure of a word and the syntactic structure of a word-group or a sentence as the hierarchy of elements. It was formulated by **Ch. Hockett** in the 20s of the 20th c. and elaborated by such American scholars as Z. Harris, R. Wells and others.

The ICs method bases on the presumption that **any complex language unit consists of two simpler linearly disjoint units – its immediate constituents (ICs)**. The latter can be decomposed into smaller ICs up to indivisible ones. The received ICs are maximally independent from each other, i.e. they can be used independently beyond this construction.

In typology the ICs method is employed to contrast language units with the aim of establishing their constituent parts in the contrasted languages.

These may be consonantal and vocalic components in words or syllables **on the phonological level**:

*e.g. in the word **garden** there are 4 sounds forming 2 syllables [ga: dn], the second of which is specific for the English language consonantal syllable. The Ukrainian correspondent word consists of one syllable only.*

At the morphological level the ICs method helps to establish the morphemic components of words:

*e.g. the word **writings** consists of 3 ICs: the root morpheme (writ-), the suffix (-ing) and the ending (-s). The Ukrainian word “**надпису**” is split into prefix (над-), root (-nuc-) and ending (-u).*

At the syntactic level the constituent parts of the word-group or sentence are singled out:

*e.g. the sentence “**I have English lessons twice a week**” has the following ICs: the predicative WG “I have”, the attributive WG “English lessons” and the adverbial WG “twice a week”.*

DISTRIBUTIONAL ANALYSIS

Distributional method comes from the Latin “**distributio**” – розподіл. It was firstly suggested in phonology and morphology by L. Bloomfield.

This method of investigation of the language is based on **the study of distribution of separate units in the text**. It does not deal with the full lexical meanings of units.

The basic approach this method works on is the “deciphering” one: “**tell me the surrounding of the element, and I’ll tell you what element is spoken about**”.

Each linguistic unit has its **own surrounding**. Some of the units have a **single distribution** as in case with *e.g. перочинный нож, am with I, bin with ich, bist with du*.

In case two language units sound the same, they **have different surrounding**:

Ukrainian:

“Мати” (іменник) і “мати” (дієслово):

1) *Мати* (іменник) is combined with adjectives (*старенька мати*), pronouns (*моя мати*), verbs (*мати прийшла*);

2) *мати* (дієслово) is combined with the noun in the Accusative Case (*мати успіх*).

English:

a) “High” (with objects) and “tall” (with living beings);

b) “Two” (numeral) and “too” (particle):

1) *Two* (*два*) can be combined with nouns (*two daughters*); whereas

2) *Too* (*також*) stands at the end of the phrase.

STAGES OF DISTRIBUTIONAL ANALYSIS:

1. **Segmentation** of the text into the smaller elementary units – phones and morphs;

2. **Identification** of units and classifying them. For identification of units the method of substitution is used (e.g. *Я купив п'ять книг / яблук, олівців тощо*). So, *книг / яблук, олівців* belong to the same class of countable nouns. Compare: **Я купив п'ять молока/вод*);

3. **The establishment of relations** between classes.

• TYPES OF DISTRIBUTION:

1. **Complementary** distribution (доповняльна), when two textual units belong to one language unit and **are never met in one and the same surrounding** (*u – i: “u” is not possible after palatalized consonants and at the beginning of the word*);

2. **Free** distribution (вільного варіювання), when two textual units **are met in one and the same surrounding without any difference in meanings** (e.g. *the endings of the Dative Case of nouns of the masculine gender in Ukrainian –у, -ові: абзацу / абзацові, фікусу / фікусові; the plural of some English words like: formulas – formulae*);

3. **Contrastive** distribution (контрасна), when two textual units belong to different language units and **are met in one and the same surrounding but with difference in meaning** (*sounds [ɛ], [m] in Ukrainian words “гопе”, “мопе”; sounds [t], [l] in English words “took”, “look”*).

TRANSFORMATIONAL ANALYSIS

Transformational method originated as **an addition to the distributional analysis** which is not effective in the analysis of the syntactic structure of the sentence.

It was suggested by **Zellig Harris** in the 50s of the 20th c. and elaborated by **Noam Chomsky** in his conception of generative grammar.

It was noticed that not all personal sentences, for instance, can be easily transformed into the correspondent impersonal ones with the doer of the action in the Dative Case:

*e. g. Микола працює добре = Миколі працюється добре;
Станок працює добре ≠ Станку працюється добре.*

Generally, this method **studies the syntactic structure of the sentence**. It is the study of much more complicated structures on the basis of more simple ones, which are composed **by means of transformational rules**.

The main principles of transformational analysis are:

1. The syntactic system of the language can be divided into some subsystems, one of which is nuclear/kernel and the rest are its derivatives (**system – subsystems**);
2. Every nuclear/kernel sentence describes an elementary situation (**sentence – situation**);
3. Any complicated syntactic type is a result of different transformations used to one or some nuclear sentences (**sentence – a result of transformations**).

Transformational method in typology is employed:

- 1) **To identify the nature of a language unit** in the contrasted languages:

e. g. Думаю, завтра прийду

= *Зараз подумаю. – Завтра прийду* (2 homogeneous predicates).

= *Думаю, що завтра прийду* (main clause + object clause).

e. g. The lessons over, we went home

= *оскільки уроки закінчилися* (adverbial clause of cause) or

= після того як уроки закінчилися (adverbial clause of time)

2) **To reveal the difference in the meaning** of the structure:

<i>e. g. Flying planes can be dangerous</i>	<i>e. g. Запрошення актора</i>
= <i>Planes fly or</i>	= <i>Він запросив чи</i>
= <i>People fly by planes</i>	= <i>Його запросили</i>

DEDUCTIVE AND INDUCTIVE METHODS

1. The deductive method is based on **logical inferences** and is such a means of investigations when a **general idea** makes it possible to give conclusions about separate members of the class.

In linguistics deductive approach is very important and sometimes the only possible, when we need to investigate the phenomena we cannot observe.

e. g. exactly in this way linguists investigate the mechanism of sense perception.

With deduction the notion of **hypothesis** is connected. Hypothesis is the method of investigation when one of the possible answers to the question is suggested before the research is carried out. The investigation either proves or denies the hypothesis. The one proved by the facts becomes a **scientific theory**.

e. g. Firstly, the existence of a parent language was presupposed, then this logical computation was proved.

2. The inductive method needs no verification whatsoever, since the investigated phenomenon was proved already by the preceding generations of researchers. The reliability of the results or the data provided by the inductive method are indisputable.

e.g. the data concerning the qualitative characteristics of vowels in some European languages were obtained by the preceding researchers long ago and are taken from the corresponding phonetics bona fide (добросовістно) by everybody interested in the nature of vowels in these languages (i.e. there are no central formed vowels in Ukrainian, French, there are no long vowels in Ukrainian).

QUANTITATIVE METHOD: THE TYPOLOGICAL INDEXES METHOD OF J. GREENBERG

In the quantitative typology of J. Greenberg each of languages has its own place as to its statistic feature of the checked feature on the basis of which languages are classified. There were 10 indexes suggested for contrasting languages.

The typological indexes or quantitative method by J.Greenberg helps to identify the quantitative co-occurrence or frequency of some feature or phenomenon in the contrasted languages.

The parameters of his computations were as follows:

1. The degree of synthesis in the words or the complexity of the word.

When the number of morphemes in the passage is lettered as M and the number of words as W , then M/W ratio will express **the synthetic structure index** (index of synthesis). According to it the synthetic structure index of analytical languages will be lower than that of synthetic. *E.g. index of synthesis for Vietnamese – 1.06, English – 1.61, German – 1.97, Ukrainian – 2,18, Sanscrit – 2.59.*

2. The ways in which various morphemes are joined in notional words.

When the number of agglutinative constructions in the passage is lettered as A and the number of junctions between morphemes as J , then A/J ratio will reflect the degree of cohesion between the morphemes in these notional words and is called **the index of agglutination**. The higher the index, the greater the role of agglutination. The language with high index of agglutination is an agglutinative one, with low index of agglutination is a fusional / flexional one. *E.g. index of agglutination for Vietnamese – 0, English – 0.30, Sanscrit – 0.62, Turkic – 0.69.*

3. The productivity degree of the form-building morphemes

When the number of root morphemes in the passage is lettered as R and the number of words as W , then R/W ratio will express **the index of derivation**. If we count all derivational morphemes D then D/W ratio will indicate the word-forming capacity of the language.

4. The correlation of affixal morphemes in the relation to root morphemes.

If to count all prefixal morphemes P , then P/W ratio will constitute the index of prefixation.

Similarly, the S/W ratio with the letter S standing for suffixal morphemes will be the index of suffixation.

POINTS FOR REVISION

- 1) What are the general methods?
- 2) What general methods does Typology employ?
- 3) What special methods are used in Typology?
- 4) What is the difference between the contrastive and the hystorico-comparative methods?
- 5) What is the aim of the ICs analysis?
- 6) What is the main approach in the distributional method?
- 7) What stages of distributional analysis do you know?
- 8) What types of distribution are differentiated?
- 9) What is the transformational method employed for?
- 10) What is the use of deductive and inductive methods in Contrastive Typology?
- 11) What does the quantitative method identify in the contrasted languages?
Whom was it suggested by?

POINTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

TASK 1. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

1. Provide the definition of the scientific term “method”.
2. What types of methods do you know?
3. What are general methods?
4. What general methods does Contrastive Typology employ?
5. What special methods are used in Contrastive Typology?
6. What is the difference between the contrastive and the historical and comparative methods?
7. What is the aim of the ICs analysis?
8. Provide examples to show the importance of the ICs analysis in contrasting languages.
9. What is the main approach in the distributional method?
10. What stages of distributional analysis do you know?
11. What types of distribution are differentiated?
12. Give examples to illustrate types of distribution.
13. What is the transformational method employed for?
14. Provide examples to show the application of the transformational method in contrasting languages.
15. What is the use of deductive and inductive methods in Contrastive Typology?
16. What does the quantitative method identify in the contrasted languages? Whom was it suggested by?
17. Name the parameters chosen for calculation of linguistic features in contrasting languages.

TASK 2. COMPLETE THE STATEMENTS

WITH THE APPROPRIATE TERMS:

- 1) **the comparative/contrastive method** aims at establishing the _____ and _____ features and on their basis the determining of structural types of languages under contrastive investigation;
- 2) **the deductive method** is based on _____ which suggests all the possible variants of realization of a certain feature/phenomenon in speech of one or more contrasted languages;
- 3) **the inductive method** which needs no _____, since the investigated feature/phenomenon was proved already by linguists and therefore the results or data obtained are reliable;
- 4) **the statistic method** for establishing the necessary _____ and qualitative representation of some features or for identifying the percentage of co-occurrence of some features/phenomena or linguistic units in the contrasted languages;
- 5) **the IC (immediate constituents) method** is employed to contrast only linguistic units for investigating their _____ in one or some contrasted languages (e.g. consonantal or vocalic components in words, the morphemic analysis of words or syntactic units);
- 6) **transformational method** for identifying the nature of a linguistic unit in the source language or for determining the difference _____ in the form of expression in the contrasted languages.

CHAPTER 4

TYOLOGY OF PHONETIC / PHONOLOGICAL AND SUPERSYGMENTAL SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

CONTENTS

1. The phoneme as the main typological unit in the comparison of the phonological systems.
2. The typology of the system of vowels in the contrasted languages, their qualitative and quantitative characteristics.
3. The typology of the system of consonants in the contrasted languages.
4. Phonological/phonetic phenomena in the systems of vowels and consonants.
5. The syllable peculiarities in the contrasted languages.
6. Supersygmental phonology and its constituents.

THE PHONEME AS THE MAIN TYPOLOGICAL UNIT IN THE COMPARISON OF THE PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEMS

Any typological investigation of phonetic/phonological levels inevitably involves a contrastive study of their constants, the principal of which are: 1) sounds and phonemes; 2) syllables; 3) word stress; 4) intonation or supersegmental features.

The phoneme as the main unit of the phonological level is a distinctive unit which serves for differentiating words. The phoneme exercises two functions:

- 1) **a constitutive function**, as phonemes are the necessary materials for the units of other levels (without phonemes morphemes and words cannot exist). In other words, the ability of phonemes to constitute separate morphemes and words, e.g. the English phonemes [b], [æ], [k] may constitute [bæk] *back* and [kæb] *cab* or in the Ukrainian language the phonemes [p] and [k] may constitute different words *пак, пік, рок, пук, кап, кір*;
- 2) **a distinctive function**, which gives an opportunity to distinguish one morpheme from others, one word from others. This function can be illustrated by the substitution of speech sounds in different positions in words:

Table 1. The substitution of speech sounds in words

Position	English	Ukrainian
Front/initial	<i>pie-tie-lie-die</i> <i>dry-try-cry</i>	<i>мак-пак-мак-бак-зак</i>
Medial	<i>cut-cart,ladder-latter,</i> <i>beat-bit-but-bat</i>	<i>тук-тiок-тiк-мак</i>
Final	<i>cup-cud-cuff-cull-cut</i>	<i>ліс-лід-лік-лiнь-літ</i>

The substitution of phonemes / speech sounds can also be investigated through:

- 1) oppositions and
- 2) historical correlations.

1) The phonological opposition is understood as the counterdistinction of two or more phonemes, the aim of which is to elicit some feature/phenomenon. In general, opposition is the counterdistinction of at least two forms having common and differentiating functions. There are no oppositions in Ukrainian to the English vowels [æ], [ə], [a:] or to such consonants as [ð], [h], [ŋ], [θ]. There are such types of oppositions:

- **Binary** – There are binary oppositions consisting of two elements as [i:] :: [ɪ], [s] :: [z]. In English there exist 6 strong oppositions between 15 voiced and 9 voiceless consonants, in Ukrainian – 11 ones between 20 voiced and 12 voiceless consonants.
- **Tertiary** – When three phonemes are counteropposed this opposition is called tertiary. Tertiary opposition of common nature can be observed between the voiceless consonants of three different articulatory zones as [p]::[t]::[k] *pot::tot::cot* in English and *пap::map::kap* in Ukrainian or [b]::[d]::[g] *bad::dad::cad* in English and *бpамu::дpамu::зpамu* in Ukrainian. If a voiceless consonant sound is opposed to two voiced consonants such tertiary opposition is called **parallel** (e.g. [п::б::д] *ноки-боки-доки*).
- **Multiple** –The opposition having more than three elements is referred to as multiple: [p]::[t]::[k]::[h] in *pat::tat::cat::hat* or in Ukrainian *пap::map::kap::zap*.
- **Group** – Apart from the binary, tertiary and multiple oppositions in the system of consonants, for instance, there also observed similar group oppositions in both

contrasted languages. Among the most represented of them are the following:
1) voiced English consonants :: voiced Ukrainian consonants; 2) voiceless English consonants :: voiceless Ukrainian consonants or vice versa.

2) Historical or traditional correlation of consonants and vowels is also of isomorphic nature in the contrasted languages. These correlations can express different categorial meanings such as tense, person, number, case (in Ukrainian nouns mostly) etc. E.g. *know-knew* (tense), *a woman-women* (number), *носити-ніс/несла* (tense, person), *кінь-коня-конем* (case).

Consonants/vowels in this case perform either a word-building or a word-forming function.

- **The word-building function** can be observed in correlation of words:
 - a) differentiated by an affix only producing a new word with a slightly different meaning, like [t]::[ʃ] in *act-action*, [s]::[ʃ] in *confess-confession*, [x] :: [ш] *вухо-вушко*, [k]::[ц] *юнак-юнацтво*, [ц]::[ч] *синиця-синичка*
 - b) differentiated in grammatical categories: *present* (N)-*present* (V), *свята* (N)-*свята* (Adj).

- **The word-forming function** of the correlation of words may be illustrated in such pairs of words which differ in categorial/grammatical meanings as *yourself-yourselves* (number), *man-men* (number), *foot-feet* (number), *wife-wives* (number), *knife-knives* (number), *wolf-wolves* (number), *друг-друже* (case), *око-очі* (number), *ставка-ставка* (case), *садити-саджу* (person, number), *писати-пишу* (person, number), *козак-козаче* (case). In Ukrainian the correlation of words representing different categorial meanings are much numerous than those of English.

THE TYPOLOGY OF THE SYSTEM OF VOWELS IN THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES, THEIR QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE CHARACTERISTICS

The systems of vowels in the contrasted languages are characterized both by isomorphic and allomorphic features.

Isomorphism is observed, firstly, in the existence of a group of similar monophthongs and, secondly, of factors which predetermine their systemic organization.

Allomorphic in the vowel system of English and Ukrainian is their quantitative representation (there are 20 vowels – among which 10 are monophthongs, 8 diphthongs and 2 diphthongoids – in English, while there are only 6 vowels in Ukrainian, all of which are monophthongs) and their qualitative characteristics.

Both English and Ukrainian vowels may be contrasted on the basis of some common principles, the main of which are the following:

- 1) *The stability of articulation;*
- 2) *The tongue position;*
- 3) *Length of vowels;*
- 4) *The lip position;*
- 5) *Nasalization;*
- 6) *Checkness.*

STABILITY OF ARTICULATION

The number of vowels **in English** is **20** among which:

- **10 monophthongs** [i, e, æ, a:, ʌ, o, o:, ʊ, ɜ:, ə],
- **8 diphthongs** [eɪ, aɪ, oɪ, aʊ, εʊ, ɪə, εə, ʊə] and
- **2 diphthongoids** [i:, u:]

The English vowel spectrum exceeds considerably that of Ukrainian almost three times.

The number of **the Ukrainian** vowels is **6** [i, и, е, у, о, а]. There are **no diphthongs and diphthongoids** in Ukrainian. Hence, it can be, at least typologically, justified to speak of some Ukrainian quasy diphthongs or better to name them something like diphthongoids [i^u, и^e, е^u, о^y] as in *о́країна, зима, весна, зозу́ля*.

Two types of binary oppositions are observed in English, but they are not available in Ukrainian. They are:

Table 2. Oppositions according to the stability of articulation

monophthong vs diphthong	[ɪ]::[ɪə]	<i>bid-beard</i>
	[e]::[ɛə]	<i>dead-dared</i>
	[o:]::[ʊə]	<i>paw-poor</i>
	[ʊ]::[ʊə]	<i>took-tour</i>
diphthong vs diphthong (there are 36 such oppositions)	[eɪ]::[aɪ]	<i>bay-buy</i>
	[eɪ]::[əɪ]	<i>bay-boy</i>
	[eɪ]::[aʊ]	<i>bay-bow</i>
	[eɪ]::[ɪə]	<i>bay-beer</i>

THE TONGUE POSITION

The tongue may move forward and backward, up and down, thus changing the quality of vowels. For the sake of conveniences the position of the tongue in the mouth cavity is analysed from two aspects, i.e. horizontal and vertical.

According to **the horizontal movement** of the tongue there are **5** classes of English vowels: *front, front-retracted, central, back and back-advanced*.

According to **the vertical movement** of the tongue there exist **6** classes of English vowels: *high narrow, high broad, mid narrow, mid broad, low narrow, low broad*.

Table 3. The classification of English vowels according to the position of the tongue

According to the vertical movement of the tongue		According to the horizontal movement of the tongue				
		<i>Front</i>	<i>front-retracted</i>	<i>central</i>	<i>back</i>	<i>back-advanced</i>
close/high	<i>narrow</i>	[i:]			[u:]	
	<i>broad</i>		[ɪ]			[ʊ]
mid	<i>narrow</i>	[e]		[ɜ:]		
	<i>broad</i>			[ʌ], [ə]		
open/low	<i>narrow</i>				[o:]	
	<i>broad</i>	[æ]			[a:], [ɑ]	

In Ukrainian there differentiated according to **the horizontal movement** of the tongue **2** classes of vowels: *front and back* (allomorphic: there are no vowels in Ukrainian formed with the *central position* of the bulk of the tongue, as well as there are no *front-retracted and back-advanced vowels*).

According to **the vertical movement** of the tongue there are **3** classes of the Ukrainian vowels: *high, mid, low* (allomorphic: there is no subdivision of *high, mid, low* vowels into *narrow and broad*).

Table 4. The classification of Ukrainian vowels according to the position of the tongue

According to the vertical movement of the tongue	According to the horizontal movement of the tongue	
	<i>Front</i>	<i>back</i>
close/high	[i]	[y]
mid	[ɪ]	[o]
open/low	[e]	[a]

Summary:

I. In contrasting both vowel systems **according to the vertical movement** of the tongue some divergent features were noticed:

- 1) the Ukrainian vowel [o] belongs to the mid-level parameter, whereas its English counterparts [o] and [o:] are formed at the low tongue position;
- 2) the Ukrainian vowel [e] belongs to the low-level parameter, whereas its English counterpart [e] is formed at the mid tongue position;
- 3) English unlike Ukrainian has **broad and narrow variants of vowels**.

II. According to **the horizontal movement** of the tongue there are no vowels in Ukrainian formed with the central position of the bulk of the tongue, as well as there are no front-retracted and back-advanced vowels.

OPPOSITIONS (BASED ON THE TONGUE POSITION)

Of isomorphic and allomorphic nature are **group oppositions**. Thus, in the system of vowels, group oppositions can be distinguished depending on the horizontal and vertical movements of the tongue.

Accordingly, according to the horizontal movement of the tongue there can be found 6 group oppositions in English and 6 group oppositions in Ukrainian

Table 5. Group oppositions in English and Ukrainian according to the horizontal movement of the tongue

	English (6)	Ukrainian (6)
front::back	[i:]::[u:] <i>beat-boot</i> [æ]::[a:] <i>cat-cart</i>	[i]::[y] <i>бік-бук</i> [i]::[a] <i>грам-грам</i> [i]::[o] <i>сім-сом</i> [и]::[y] <i>мир-мур</i> [и]::[o] <i>син-сон</i> [и]::[a] <i>линь-лань</i>
front-retracted::back-advanced	[ɪ]::[ʊ] <i>kick-cook</i>	
front::central	[e]::[ɜ:] <i>bed-bird</i>	
central::back	[ʌ]::[ɔ:] <i>tuck-talk</i>	
back::back	[ɑ:]::[ɒ] <i>heart-hot</i>	

There can be distinguished 6 group oppositions in English vs Ukrainian without such oppositions on the vertical movements of the tongue at the same position heights:

Table 6. Group oppositions in English and Ukrainian according to the vertical movement of the tongue (at the same position heights)

	English (6)	Ukrainian (-)
close/high	[i:]::[i] <i>feel-fill</i> [i:]::[u:] <i>feel-fool</i> [u:]::[ʊ] <i>pool-pull</i>	There are no such oppositions
mid	[ɜ:]::[ə] <i>foreward-forward</i>	
open/low	[o:]::[o] <i>port-pot</i> [æ:]::[a:] <i>cat-cart</i>	

There can be distinguished 7 group oppositions in English vs Ukrainian 6 oppositions on the vertical movements of the tongue at different position heights:

Table 7. Group oppositions in English and Ukrainian according to the vertical movement of the tongue (at different position heights)

	English (7)		Ukrainian (6)
close narrow- open broad	[i:]::[æ] <i>seed-sad</i> [u:]::[o] <i>soup-sop</i>	close-open	[i]::[e] <i>лід-ледь</i> [y]::[a] <i>тук-так</i>
close narrow- mid narrow	[i:]::[e] <i>neat-net</i>		
close narrow- open narrow	[u:]::[o:] <i>fool-fall</i>	mid-close	[ɪ]::[i] <i>рив-рів</i> [y]::[o] <i>крук-крок</i>
close broad - mid broad	[ʊ]::[ʌ] <i>look-luck</i>		
close broad - mid narrow	[i]::[e] <i>bill-bell</i>	mid-open	[ɪ]::[e] <i>клин-клен</i> [o]::[a] <i>сом-сам</i>
close broad - open broad	[ʊ]::[a:] <i>look-lark</i>		

LENGTH OF VOWELS

All English vowels with the exception of diphthongs are divided into long [i:, a:, o:, u:, ɜ:] and short [ɪ, e, ʌ, ɒ, ʊ, ə]. The vowel [æ] is not included into the category of short vowels because of its specific length.

All Ukrainian vowels are equally long in similar phonetic contexts.

THE LIP POSITION

Here we speak about labialized/unlabialized vowels:

Table 8. Labialization of English and Ukrainian vowels

	English	Ukrainian
labialized	[o, o:, ʊ, u:]	[y, ɔ]
unlabialized	[i:, ɪ, e, æ, a:, ʌ, ɜ:, ə]	[a, e, и, і]

According to some latest observations of prof. Wells the vowels [ʊ], [u:] have lost their labialization.

NASALIZATION

Nasalisation of vowels in English is observed before the sonorants as in *mumps*, *moonlight*, *reading* and slightly nasalized are the vowels before the sonorants in Ukrainian as in *гнані*, *тонна*, *денне* тощо.

CHECKNESS

(CHARACTER OF VOWEL END OR DISTRIBUTION)

Distribution of vowels has typological differences in the contrasted languages.

1) In English if a stressed vowel is followed by a strong voiceless consonant this vowel is *checked*, if by a weak consonant or no consonant at all it is *free*.

In Ukrainian all vowels are free.

2) In the open syllables in English only **long vowels and diphthongs** can be found; in an unstressed position – neutral sound [ə]. In most cases short vowels are not found in the open syllables. In Ukrainian there are no restrictions as to what vowel should be used in some position in a syllable.

**ALL THE DISCUSSED ABOVE FEATURES CAN
BE SUMMARISED IN THE TABLE:**

Table 9. Typological features of the vowel system in English and Ukrainian

	English	Ukrainian
Monophthongs	10	6
Diphthongs+diphthongoids	8+2	---
The number of horizontal movements of the tongue	5	2 (no central, front-retracted, back-advanced)
The number of vertical movements of the tongue	6	3 (no narrow:: broad)
The opposition according to the <i>horizontal</i> movements of the tongue	6	6 (front:: back only)
The opposition according to the <i>vertical</i> movements of the tongue at the <u>same</u> position height	6	--- (no narrow:: broad at all)
The opposition according to the <i>vertical</i> movements of the tongue at <u>different</u> position height	7	6
The vowel length	+	---
Labialization	4	2

THE TYPOLOGY OF THE SYSTEM OF CONSONANTS IN THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

Consonants are the backbones of a word and give it its basic shape. The sentence “**What book are you reading now?**” is easy for understanding, even if all vowels are left out “**Wh-t b - - k - r- y- - r - -d - ng n - w?**”. But if leave all consonants out “**- -a- -oo- a-e -ou -ea-i-- -o- ?**” it is impossible to make any sense of it.

The **quantitative** representation of consonantal sounds/phonemes is different in either of the contrasted languages: in English their number is 24, in Ukrainian – 32. The number of the Ukrainian consonants is larger due to palatalization.

As to the **qualitative** characteristics the consonants are classified in the contrasted languages according to the following principles:

- *The degree of noise;*
- *The manner of articulation;*
- *The place of articulation;*
- *Palatalization.*

THE DEGREE OF NOISE

According to the degree of noise English and Ukrainian consonants are divided into a) noise consonants and b) sonorants.

a) Noise consonants:

Noise consonants in their turn are subdivided into

- 1) **voiced**: 8 in English (b; d; g, **v**; **ð**; z; **ʒ**; d**ʒ**) and
11 in Ukrainian (**б**, д, **д'**, г, **г**, з, **з'**, дз, **дз'**, дж, ж) and
- 2) **voiceless**: 9 in English (p, t, k, f, **θ**, s, **ʃ**, t**ʃ**, h) and
12 in Ukrainian (п, т, **т'**, к, ф, с, **с'**, х, ц, **ц'**, ч, ш).

b) Sonorants:

There are 7 sonorant consonants in English (m, n, **ŋ**, **w**, l, r, j) and
9 in Ukrainian (м, н, **н'**, в, л, **л'**, й, р, **р'**).

Note: The allomorphic noise consonants and sonorants are given in bold type.

THE MANNER OF ARTICULATION

According to the manner of articulation noise consonants and sonorants are subdivided into three more classes each:

- occlusive (проривні),
- constrictive (щільні) and
- occlusive-constrictive (африкати).

Table 10. Classification of the English and Ukrainian consonants according to the manner of articulation (manner of noise production)

	Noise consonants			Sonorants		
	<i>Occlusive stops (plosives)</i>	<i>Constrictive fricatives</i>	<i>Occlusive-constrictive (affricates)</i>	<i>Occlusive</i>	<i>Constrictive</i>	<i>Occlusive-constrictive (affricates)</i>
English	p, b; t, d; k, g	f, v; θ, ð; s, z; ʃ, ʒ; h	tʃ, dʒ	m, n, ŋ	w, l, r, j	---
Ukrainian	б, п; д, д', т, т'; г, к	ф; з, з', с, с'; г, х, ж, ш	дз, дз', ц, ц'; дж, ч	м, н, н'	в, л, л', й	р, р'

Allomorphic features:

- 1) There exist 6 classes of consonants in Ukrainian and 5 classes in English. There are **no sonorant affricates in English**;
- 2) English [v] – **noise**, constrictive, Ukrainian [в] – **sonorant**, constrictive;
- 3) Ukrainian [r] has no English counterpart;
- 4) Ukrainian дз, дз', ц, ц' also have no English counterparts;
- 5) English [r] – sonorant, constrictive, Ukrainian [р, р'] – sonorant, affricates;
- 6) **The number** of each opposed class is different due to the existence of palatalized consonants in Ukrainian.

THE PLACE OF ARTICULATION

Table 11. Classification of the English and Ukrainian consonants according to the place of articulation

Articulatory zones			English	Ukrainian
Labial	Bilabial		p, b, m, w	П, б, М
	Labiodental		f, v	ф, В
Lingual	forelingual	Interdental	θ, ð	---
		Dental	---	Д, Т, З, С, Ц, Л, Н, ДЗ,
		Alveolar	t, d, s, z, n, l	Ж, Ч, Ш, ДЖ, p , p'
		post-alveolar	r	Д', Т', З', С', Ц', Л', Н', ДЗ'
		palato-alveolar	ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ	---
	medio-lingual	Palatal	j	Й
	back-lingual	Velar	k, g, ŋ	Г, К, Х
Glottal			h	Г

Allomorphic features:

- 1) There exist **9 articulatory zones in English and 8 in Ukrainian**;
- 2) There are **no dental sounds in English**;
- 3) There are **no interdental and palatoalveolar in Ukrainian**;
- 4) There are no counterparts in Ukrainian for the bilabial [w], glottal [h], post-alveolar [r] and back-lingual [ŋ];
- 5) In English [t, d, s, z, n, l] – **alveolar**, in Ukrainian [Д, Т, З, С, Ц, Л, Н, ДЗ] – **dental**;
- 6) In English [r] – **post-alveolar**, in Ukrainian [p, p'] – **alveolar**;
- 7) Ukrainian **dental** [Д, Т, З, С, Ц, Л, Н, ДЗ] **have their palatalized post-alveolar** variants;
- 8) The **qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the classes of alveolar and post alveolar consonants** in the contrasted languages are completely divergent.

PALATALIZATION

Palatalization **in Ukrainian** is a typologically distinct feature serving for differentiating lexemes (e.g. *син-синь, рис-рись*).

The sound [й] is always soft in Ukrainian (e.g. *йод, верхній, яблуко*).

Palatalization **in English** is almost resolutely denied, i.e. it is recognized not to be typical of English. And yet such consonants as [ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ] are soft in English (e.g. *sheep, cheap, Jimmy*), which is not the case with their Ukrainian counterparts [ж, ч, ш, дж] except for the cases they are followed by the front vowel [i] (e.g. *шість, родичі, дріжджі*).

PHONOLOGICAL / PHONETIC PHENOMENA IN THE SYSTEMS OF VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

- **Assimilation**

Of *isomorphic* nature in English and Ukrainian are also some phonological and phonetic phenomena, which can be found in the sound systems of both languages. Among these can be progressive and regressive assimilation, the latter being more productive in both contrasted languages than former.

1) **Progressive assimilation,**

e.g. askedd /a:skt/

clippedd /kliptt/

вісті /v'ic'ti/

2) **Regressive assimilation,**

e.g. does she /d[^]ʃi/

gooseberry /guzbəri/

отже /otʃe/

нігті /n'ix't'i/

зтобою /с t/обою

NB Progressive assimilation is less common in both contrasted languages.

- **Elision**

Elision is the complete loss of vowels or consonants in speech.

It is an *isomorphic* feature of both contrasted languages as well.

It mostly happens in both languages in rapid colloquial speech.

e.g. already /o: redi/

all right /o:rait/

смієшся /s'm'ijecɣ:j/

агєнтство /агєнство/

- **Neutralization**

Common in English and Ukrainian, in contrast to German, is the absence of neutralization of the voiced consonants when used in the initial, medial or final position in words. As a result, the English voiced consonants /b, d, g, z/ and the Ukrainian /б, д, г, ґ, з/ do not become voiceless:

e.g. Bobb /bob/

nose /nouz/

дуб

голуб

THE SYLLABLE PECULIARITIES IN THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

The syllable as a speech continuum is considered to be the unit of both phonetic and phonological nature.

The **definition** of the syllable from the functional point of view existing in modern linguistics tends to single out the following **features of the syllable**:

- a) A syllable is *a chain of phonemes* of varying length;
- b) A syllable is constructed on the basis of *contrast of its constituents* (which is usually of vowel-consonant type);
- c) The *nucleus of a syllable* is a vowel, the presence of consonants is optional; there are no languages in which vowels are not used as syllable nuclei, however, there are languages in which this function is performed by consonants (the English language, for instance);
- d) The *distribution of phonemes* in the syllabic structure follows the rules which are specific for a particular language.

A **syllable** can be defined as a speech unit consisting of a sound or a sound sequence one of which is heard to be more prominent than the others.

The most prominent sound being the peak or the nucleus of a syllable is called **syllabic**. Syllabic forming sounds are generally *vowels* (monophthongs, diphthongs and diphthongoids) and *sonorants*.

The peculiarity of English syllabification is that apart from the vowels there exist *consonantal syllables* that are formed by the combination of sonorants with other consonants as in *garden* /ga:-dn/, *little* /lɪ-tl/.

In Ukrainian syllabic are the vowels (monophthongs) only though not without some single exceptions (e.g. *дубль, рубль*).

The number of syllables dominating in the structure of the words in the contrasted languages is divergent either.

The bulk of the English words constitute monosyllabic words, while **in Ukrainian** disyllabic and trisyllabic words are the most occurent.

The correlation of syllables in English and Ukrainian words can be illustrated by the table:

Table 13. Quantitative syllable correlation in words

language	Correlated percentage representation of syllables					
	<i>1 syll.</i>	<i>2 syll.</i>	<i>3 syll.</i>	<i>4 syll.</i>	<i>5 syll.</i>	<i>6 or more</i>
<i>English</i>	55.6	30.1	11	2.7	0.6	0.1
<i>Ukrainian</i>	9.7	39.3	29.8	15.4	4.8	1

Theories of syllabification

The approaches to syllabification as well as establishing the rules of syllabification which could be acceptable in different languages are not yet agreed upon.

Up to now there have been suggested some approaches which are based on the different principles. Among the basic ones are such principles:

1) **The articulatory principle,**

which was elaborated by the American scholar R.N. Stetson. According to it there supposed to be as many syllables in a word as there are chest pulses (aspirations) in it. Hence, the English words like *are*, *ear* or the Ukrainian *мум*, *он*, *крім* are monosyllabic.

2) **The acoustic principle,**

which was first suggested by R. Jakobson and according to which the consonantal sounds were considered to be devoid of syllable forming function (mainly on the basis of the sonorant sounds **l, m, n, r**). This theory doesn't work as in English as well as in Serbian, Croatian, Slovenian languages, for instance, there are syllable forming sonorants.

Eg. *Vlk* (*wolf*), *vrba* (*willow-tree*), *krst* (*cross*), *prst* (*finger*).

3) **The combinatorial / functional principle,**

which is the most profoundly elaborated nowadays. According to it syllables in each language are created due to the rules of combinability of vowels and sonorants. The levels of sonority are presented on the imaginary scale of sonority, which is as follows:

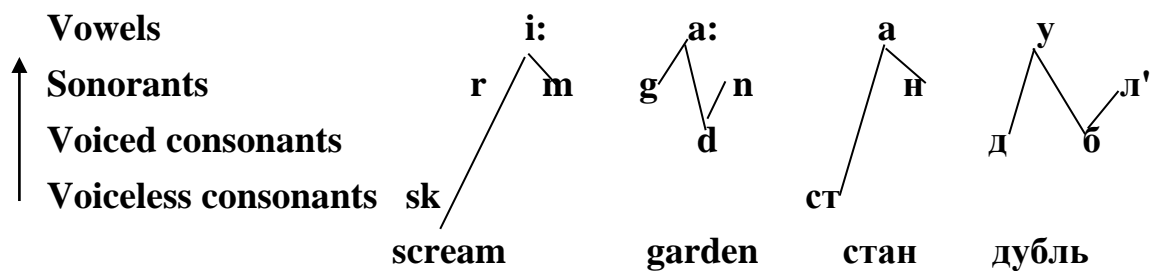
- a) Vowels (the most loud),
- b) Sonorant consonants,
- c) Voiced consonants,

d) Voiceless consonants.

According to this theory, the syllabic structure of the word is predetermined by the sonority (ДЗВІНКІСТЬ) of their constituent sounds, which occupy different positions on the Sonority Scale.

Table 12. Sonority scheme

SONORITY



Types of syllables

Syllable formation is based on the phonological opposition vowel::consonant. The structure of the syllable is known to vary because of 1) the number and 2) the arrangement of consonants. In both languages there distinguished 4 types of syllables:

- | | | | | |
|----|-----------|-------|-------------|--------------|
| 1) | OPEN | CV | no | <i>но-ра</i> |
| 2) | CLOSED | VC | <i>odd</i> | <i>акт</i> |
| 3) | COVERED | CV(C) | <i>note</i> | <i>ніс</i> |
| 4) | UNCOVERED | V(C) | <i>oak</i> | <i>ом</i> |

Historically, **the English language** has more closed structure types of syllables (67% in English to 27% in Ukrainian) whereas **Ukrainian** has a predominance of open types syllables. **The most occurent** in both languages are **CV**, **VC** and **CVC** syllable structures.

The typological correlation of consonants and vowels in common in English and in Ukrainian syllables can be presented by the table:

Table 14. English and Ukrainian syllable structures

Open syllables	English	Ukrainian	Closed syllables	English	Ukrainian
V uncovered	<i>are [a:]</i>	<i>i-mu</i>	VC	<i>ice [ais]</i>	<i>Ой</i>
CV covered	<i>bee [bi:]</i>	<i>ви-ти</i>	VCC	<i>ask [a:sk]</i>	<i>Акт</i>
CCV covered	<i>dry [draɪ]</i>	<i>жни-ва</i>	VCCC	<i>afts [a:fts]</i>	<i>англ. мова, іскр</i>
CCCV covered	<i>straw [stro:]</i>	<i>спро-буї</i>	VCCCC	<i>isthmus [ɪstms, ɪθms]</i>	<i>Айстр</i>

The divergent syllables in the contrasted languages are as follows:

1) Presented **only in English** are:

CCVCCCC prompts /**prompts**/
CCCVCCC constructs /kən-'**str**^kts/

Consonantal syllables:

CC garden /ga:-**dn**/
CCC gardens /ga:-**dnz**/
CCCC functions /f^ŋ-**knz**/
CCCCC minstrels /min-**strlz**/

2) Presented **only in Ukrainian** are:

CVCCCCC агентств / а-**гентств**/
CCCCVC впхнув /**впхнув** /
CCCCVCC впхнувсь /**впхнув'с'** /

Morphemic division VS Syllabic division

Very often syllabification of words in either of the contrasted languages does not coincide with the morphemic structure as can be seen from the following examples below:

Words	Morphemic division	Syllabic division
Snows	snow + s	/snəuz/ CCVC
Workers	work + er + s	/wə:- kəz/ CV-CVC
Борець	бор + ець	/ бо-рець' /CV-CVC

Unlike English, the Ukrainian language has prolonged consonants which form syllables in disyllabic and polysyllabic words with the vowel that follows the consonant: *знання* /зна-**н':a** /, *буття* /бу-**м':a** /.

Functions of the syllable

The syllable performs two very important **functions: constitutive and distinctive**. The first function lies in the ability of a syllable to be a part of a word or a word itself. The syllable forms language units of higher levels. The other function is concerned with the ability of syllables to differentiate words and word-forms as in

SUPERSYGMENTAL PHONOLOGY AND ITS CONSTITUENTS

The constituents of the supersygmental phonology are word stress, utterance stress and intonation.

Stress is emphasizing of a syllable in the word or a word-group in the utterance.

WORD STRESS

Like the syllable and many other linguistic phenomena, **word stress** also belongs to near universals. However, not all the types of stress and its functions can be found in different structural types of languages.

The sequence of syllables in the word is not pronounced identically. The syllable or syllables which are uttered with more prominence than the other syllables of the word are said to be **stressed** or **accented**. Stress in the isolated word is termed word stress; stress in connected speech is termed sentence stress.

Stress is defined differently by different authors. **D. Jones** defined stress as the degree of force, which is accompanied by a strong force of exhalation and gives an impression of loudness. **H. Sweet** also stated that stress, is connected with the force of breath. According to **A. C. Gimson**, the effect of prominence is achieved by any or all of four factors: force, tone, length and vowel colour.

Word stress can be defined as the singling out of one or more syllables in a word, which is accompanied by the change of the force of utterance, pitch of the voice, qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the sound which is usually a vowel. The correlation of varying prominences of syllables in a word is understood as the **accentual structure of the word** or its stress pattern.

In different languages one of the factors constituting word stress is usually more significant than the others. According to the most important feature different **types of word stress** are distinguished in different languages:

1) if special prominence in a stressed syllable or syllables is achieved mainly through the intensity of articulation, such type of stress is called **dynamic**, or **force stress** (e.g. English, German, French, Ukrainian);

2) if special prominence in a stressed syllable is achieved mainly through the change of pitch, or musical tone, such accent is called **musical**, or **tonic**. It is characteristic of the Japanese, Korean and other oriental languages;

3) if special prominence in a stressed syllable is achieved through the changes in the quantity of the vowels, which are longer in the stressed syllables than in the unstressed ones, such type of stress is called **quantitative**;

4) **qualitative** type of stress is achieved through the changes in the quality of the vowel under stress.

English word stress is traditionally defined as dynamic, but in fact, the special prominence of the stressed syllables is manifested in the English language not only through the increase of intensity, but also through the changes in the vowel quantity.

Word stress in a language performs three functions:

1. Word stress constitutes a word, it organizes the syllables of a word into a language unit having a definite accentual structure, that is a pattern of relationship among the syllables; a word does not exist without the word stress. Thus the word stress performs the **constitutive** function. Sound continuum becomes a phrase when it is divided into units organized by word stress into words.

2. Word stress enables a person to identify a succession of syllables as a definite accentual pattern of a word. This function of word stress is known as **identificatory** (or recognitive). Correct accentuation helps the listener to make the process of communication easier, whereas the distorted accentual pattern of words, misplaced word stresses prevent normal understanding.

3. Word stress alone is capable of differentiating the meaning of words or their forms, thus performing its **distinctive** function. The accentual patterns of words or the degrees of word stress and their positions form oppositions, *e.g.* *'import — im'port*, *'billow — below* and vowel quality and pitch of the voice.

Functions of the stress.

The main functions of the word stress are: 1) the constitutive and 2) the distinctive.

Word stress arranges syllables into words, thus fulfilling **the constitutive function**.

The **distinctive** function of the stress can be demonstrated by the oppositions of words, having the same form, but different lexical or categorial meaning.

So, word stress helps to differentiate:

- 1) **Lexical meaning** of the words: *мука* – *мука*, *замок* – *замок*, *брати* – *брати*;
- 2) **A word and a word-group**: *a blackboard* – *a black board*, *a blackbird* – *a black bird*, *a dancing girl* – *a dancing-girl*;
- 3) **Categorial meaning** of the word: *козак* – *козаки*, *диво* – *дива*;
- 4) **Parts of speech**: *import* – *to import*, *тепла* – *тепла*,
поверх – *поверх*, *назви* – *назви*.

Position of the stress. The bulk of English and Ukrainian disyllabic, trisyllabic and polysyllabic words have a **permanent** stress. Nevertheless, many English and Ukrainian words have **dynamic or shifting stress**: *'syllable* but *sy'llabic*, *'real* but *re'ality*, *'transport* but *transpor'tation* and *trans'porting*; *за'ходити* – *'захід*, *'знати* – *знан'ня*, *'бігти* – *вибі'гати*, *'діяти* – *ді'яч* etc.

Quality of the stress. There differentiated in both languages two types of the stress: primary and secondary.

The **primary** stress is the main one and the secondary is an additional. In English as well as in Ukrainian isomorphic are disyllabic, trisyllabic and polysyllabic words and compounds with one and sometimes two primary stresses: *'six'teen*, *'tip'top*, *'shoe'maker*, *'сяк'-так*, *'рано'-вранці*, *'гуси'-лебеді*.

The existence of the **secondary** rhythmic accentuation in polysyllabic words is a distinctive feature of the English language: *,'possi'bility*, *,'exami'nation*, *,'consti'tution* etc.

This phenomenon is almost alien to Ukrainian, though a weaker secondary stress is usually met **in compounds**: *,'жовто'блакитний*, *,'загально'освітній*.

Some words in English and Ukrainian may have **parallel accentuation**, i.e. they may have two different stresses in a word of the same lexical meaning. Cf. in English: *'already – al'ready*, in Ukrainian: *'усмішка – ус'мішка, 'також – та'кож, 'завжди – за'вжди, зо'крема – зокре'ма, 'сміливий – смі'ливий* etc.

In English monosyllabic, disyllabic and three-syllabic words are stressed on the first syllable (*'phoneme, 'palate, 'prefix, 'family*). In words with inseparable prefixes the stress falls on the syllable next to the prefix (*be'gin, pre'pare*). Most of four-syllable words have the stress laid on the third syllable from the end (*po'litical, ex'periment*). Compound nouns are stressed on the first component; the second though unstressed has a vowel of full formation (*'blackboard*). Polysyllabic words have the primary stress on the third syllable from the end and a secondary stress on the second pretonic syllable (*,uni'versity, as,simi'lation, ,possi'bility*). Some words in English have two primary stresses: numerals from 13 to 19 (*'four'teen*); compound adjectives (*'well-'known, 'good-'looking*); compound verbs (*'get 'up, 'sit 'down*); words with separable prefixes (*'un'known, 'ir'regular, 'vice-'minister, 'anti'war*). However, when these words are used attributively, the second stress is lost; when used predicatively, the first stress is lost (*'Fourteen ,years - He is four,teen*).

In Ukrainian stress may fall on the root of the word (*no'mіk, ну'года*), on the last syllable (*рід'ня, коб'зар, крадько'ма*). Ukrainian adjectives ending in -чий are usually pronounced with a stress on the second syllable from the end (*т'ворчий, пло'дючий*). A great number of Ukrainian words with prefixes (especially such prefixes as без-, на-, пра-, не-, про-, під-, при-) are pronounced with a stress on the prefix (*'безліч, 'прадід*). Verbal prefixes are generally unstressed, with the exception of the prefix ви- which is usually stressed (*'винимати*). Ukrainian compound adjectives are pronounced with a single stress on the second element (*багато'бічний*). Most compound nouns are also pronounced with a stress on the second element (*головноуправ'ляючий*). Compound nouns, the first element of which is a noun, are pronounced with two strong stresses on the two elements (*'генерал-'лейтенант*).

UTTERANCE STRESS

Utterance stress has peculiarities of its own in both languages.

In Ukrainian almost all words in a sentence can be stressed.

In English unlike Ukrainian, only notional words are stressed in utterances, whereas functional are stressed only when pointed out logically or emphatically:

e.g. *The definite article “the” is not used with the names of peaks of mountains.*

Utterance stress is a greater prominence given to one or more words in a sentence.

The normally accented words in English are:

- ✓ Nouns
- ✓ Pronouns: demonstrative, indefinite, interrogative, emphatic, absolute form of possessive pronouns
- ✓ Notional verbs
- ✓ Adjectives
- ✓ Adverbs
- ✓ Numerals
- ✓ Interjections

The unstressed parts of speech as a rule are:

- Pronouns: personal, possessive, reflexive, relative
- Auxiliary and modal verbs
- Prepositions
- Conjunctions
- Articles
- Particles.

In Ukrainian almost all words can be stressed. It depends on what the speaker wants to emphasize, so we are dealing with the logical stress.

Both in Ukrainian and in English there are 2 types of utterance stress: logical and emphatic.

Logical: I go to school **by bus**. (English) Emphatic: It was **he** who did it. (English)

Я їду до школи **на автобусі**. (Укр.) Саме він це зробив! (Укр.)

With regard to rhythm, some linguists divide languages into:

1) *Syllable-timed languages*, such as French and Japanese, in which the rhythm appears to be fairly even, with each syllable giving the impression of having about the same weight as any other;

2) *Stress-timed languages*, such as English and Arabic, in which stressed syllables recur at intervals. In recent years, a somewhat ‘weak’ version of this view has gained ground.

The absolute division has been replaced by a sliding scale, in which there are few pure types, though many which can be placed towards one or the other end of the scale. There is no doubt that English is on the stress-timed end of the scale.

Another distinction is sometimes made between *tone* or *tonal languages*, such as Mandarin Chinese, and *intonation* or *non-tonal languages*, such as English.

In a tone language, the pitch level of any syllable is of critical importance, since words are sometimes distinguished from one another purely by the tone, such as Mandarin *ma* with level tone (*mother*), with rising tone (*hemp*), with a dipping tone (*horse*), and a falling tone (*scold*).

In a language such as English, however, sentence intonation plays a crucial role, as in *You saw him!* Versus *You saw him?* where difference in meaning is signalled by the intonation.

The rhythm of the English speech depends upon stressed syllables of word groups which repeat in more or less constant time intervals. That’s why it is called **the syllable-timed rhythm**.

The rhythmic structure of the Ukrainian speech depends on the length of syllables – **the syllable-length rhythm**.

Utterance stress can be:

- 1) logical or
- 2) emphatic.

Logical accentuation helps to form the meaning of the utterance. The speaker can emphasize different words in it and receive semantically different utterances:

Cf. *I want her to help me.* – *I want **her** to help me.* – *I want her to help **me**.*

Logical stress is used in speech to point out a word or a word-combination considered by the speaker to be the most significant.

Emphatic stress in the contrasted languages is much stronger than the logical one. It is mostly employed to express different emotions. These may be positive (admiration, delight, joy, gratitude) or negative (indignation, horror, sadness).

Emphatic stress in both languages can be placed on a word, a word-combination or the whole utterance. Emphatically pronounced words or word-combinations are marked by raising or dropping the pitch level and widening the range between the prominent units.

INTONATION

DEFINITION

The term 'intonation' implies variations of pitch, force and tempo.

- **Pitch** variations are produced by moving the voice up and down.
- **Force** of intonation is signalled by the loudness of syllables which are the most prominent.
- **Tempo** is designated by the rate of speech and the length of pauses.

Intonation or melody serves to generate the meaning of the utterance as well.

INTONATION PATTERNS

In various languages different intonation patterns for different types of sentences are used.

- **In English** the basic intonation pattern is the descending one.
- **In Ukrainian** speech an uneven intonation scale is observed.

FUNCTIONS

In both languages **intonation** is a complex combination of speech melody (nationally specific), tempo, voice timbre, pausation, sentence stress.

Isomorphic features: The functions of intonation are the same in Ukrainian and English:

1) distinctive, 2) attitudinal, 3) sentence forming and delimiting.

Intonation is realized by means of tone units (intonation groups) which coincide with the word, w-comb-n, clause, utterance.

Allomorphic features: **intensity** with which the stressed syllables are pronounced is stronger in English, the **duration** is longer in Ukrainian. Speech in Ukrainian is **fluent**, in English is **harsh**. English is **stress-timed** (stress occurs at

approximately equal periods of time). Ukrainian utterances are organized according to the time duration of syllables. In Ukrainian syntagms **stressed syllable=unstressed**, in English **stressed>unstressed**.

The most vivid **allomorphic** feature is the **pitch range**. It is narrower in unemphatic Ukrainian speech units. Common are falling and rising tones (Low Fall, High Fall, Rise Fall) which are used in different English and Ukrainian syntagms and High-Rise in English and Rise-Fall in Ukrainian to mark different communicative units:

- 1) The **Falling Tones** express finality, completeness, definiteness: a) In simple affirmative or negative sent: *No. Hi.* b) in greetings: *Добрий вечір. Good evening.* c) in special questions: *What is your name? But: Що ти /сказав?* To express warm greetings, joy, surprise Low Rise is used in both languages.
- 2) The **Rising Tones** Low Rise, High Rise, Fall-Rise in English, in Ukrainian Low Rise, High Rise mostly. a) to express request in both languages: *Give me the book, please? Чи можна /хліба, будь ласка?* b) enumeration, echoed statements etc.
- 3) the use of **level tones** is also common in Ukrainian and English e.g. to mark parentheses: *He will come, of course. Він, звичайно, прийде.* Intonation as an indicator of theme and rheme in the utterance is sometimes different in Ukrainian and English.

Intonation performs different **functions** in speech:

- ✓ Syntactic function consists in the fact that the units with the same syntactic structure can acquire different meanings pronounced with different intonation: e.g. *Він не прийшов. Він не прийшов! Він не прийшов?*
- ✓ Besides, intonation plays a great role in expressing emotions: e.g. *The day is wonderful. The day is wonderful!*

BASIC TONES

The **basic tones** in the contrasted languages are:

1. **Falling** (in affirmative or negative utterances, in greetings, in special questions, to express order or command, surprise etc.),
2. **Rising** (in general questions, while counting or enumerating, to express doubt, uncertainty, suggestion etc.),
3. **Level** (to mark the author's words, parenthesis etc).

POINTS FOR REVISION

- 1) What are the typological constants of the phonetic/phonological level?
- 2) What is the phoneme?
- 3) What is the quantitative correlation of phonemes in English and Ukrainian?
- 4) What is the qualitative correlation of phonemes in English and Ukrainian?
- 5) What type of language is the English one? And the Ukrainian language?
- 6) What are the principles of classifying vowels in English and Ukrainian?
- 7) What are the main allomorphic features of vocalic systems of the contrasted languages?
- 8) What are the principles of classifying consonants in English and Ukrainian?
- 9) What are the main allomorphic features of consonantal systems of the contrasted languages?
- 10) What is the phonological opposition? Give examples.
- 11) What types of phonological oppositions do you know?
- 12) What is “parallel opposition”?
- 13) What is the traditional/historical correlation? Give examples.
- 14) What phonetic processes do you know?
- 15) What is assimilation? What are its types? Give examples.
- 16) What is elision? Illustrate by giving examples.
- 17) What is neutralization?
- 18) What is the syllable?
- 19) What principles of syllabification do you know?
- 20) What syllables are peculiar only for the English language?
- 21) What is the word stress? What are its characteristics in the contrasted languages?
- 22) What is intonation?

CHAPTER 5

TYOLOGY OF THE LEXICAL SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

CONTENTS

1. The main constants of lexicon, general principles of its classification.
2. Onomasiological and semasiological characteristics of lexicon. Means of nomination.
3. Types of motivation of words in the contrasted languages.
4. Typology of word-formation in the contrasted languages.
5. Means of enreaching the vocabulary of any language.
6. Typology of idiomatic expressions.

THE MAIN CONSTANTS OF LEXICON, GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF ITS CLASSIFICATION

Lexical constants are:

- words,
- LSG – lexico-semantic groups,
- idioms.

The central here is **THE WORD**. It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word.

It is the basic **nominative unit** of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized.

One of the most characteristic features of the word is its **indivisibility**.

As any other linguistic unit the word is a **bilateral entity**. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides – the content and expression sides.

We proceed from the assumption that the word is a **structural and semantic entity** within the language system and is the basic unit of the language system.

Like any other language aspect constituting a structural level, lexical units are systematically arranged. The systemic organization of lexicon is predetermined by both lingual and extralingual factors which are of universal nature.

EXTRALINGUAL FACTORS. Among the extralingual factors the following can be pointed out:

1) **The physical and mental factors**, which predetermine the existence of a great number of common notions.

Due to **the physical needs** of human beings all languages have a great number of common notions designated by words such as *live, drink, eat, sleep, go, run, jump* etc.

Due to the common **mental activity** of man every language of the world comprises the notions designated by such words as *think, speak, read, ask, answer, comprehend* etc.;

2) **The environmental factors**, which explain the fact that we find the names of objects and phenomena common to people all over the world. As a result of a common natural environment, all languages have many common notions designated by the words reflecting the many objects and phenomena surrounding people (*the sun, the moon, the stars, the sky, thunder, lightning, rain*) and various species of living beings, plants, trees, fruits, colours etc.;

3) **The social factor**. The social factors involve different social phenomena as well as relationships and activities of a man. These come to being already at the family level (*mother, father, sister, brother, aunt, cousin* etc.). To these words belong those reflecting any other social activity of people (*a teacher, a student, a passenger, a shop-assistant* etc.).

All words designating the many notions which appear due to the above-mentioned principles, constitute a large typologically common class referred to as **universal lexicon**, which constitutes the nucleus of the lexicon of any language.

Apart from this, all developed languages have some other common layers of lexicon which came to being under the influence mainly of social, economic,

historical and other extralingual factors. These are **dialectal, international and specifically national lexicons**, which constitute the periphery of the lexicon.

The examples of the **English dialectal lexicon** can be the Scottish dialect (beer [bir], hurt [hʌrt], house [hu:s], through [ʃru:], though [θo:]) or London cockney (hopen for open, hup for up, mornin').

Scottish Accent.

Scotland actually has more variation in dialects than England! The variations do have a few things in common, though, besides a large particularly Scottish vocabulary:

- rolled r's.
- "pure" vowels (/e:/ rather than /ei/, /o:/ rather than /ou/)
- /u:/ is often fronted to /ö/ or /ü/, e.g. *boot, good, muin* (moon), *poor*...

There are several "layers" of Scottish English. Most people today speak standard English with little more than the changes just mentioned, plus a few particular words that they themselves view as normal English, such as to jag (to prick) and burn (brook). In rural areas, many older words and grammatical forms, as well as further phonetic variations, still survive, but are being rapidly replaced with more standard forms. But when a Scotsman (or woman) wants to show his pride in his heritage, he may resort to quite a few traditional variations in his speech. First, the phonetics:

- /oi/, /ai/, and final /ei/ > /i/, e.g. *oil, wife, tide*...
- final /ai/ > /i/, e.g. *ee (eye), dee (die), lee (lie)*...
- /ou/ > /ei/, e.g. *ake (oak), bate (boat), hame (home), stane (stone), gae (go)*...
- /au/ > /u:/, e.g. *about, house, cow, now*... (often spelled oo or u)
- /o/ > /a:/, e.g. *saut (salt), law, aw (all)*...
- /ou/ > /a:/, e.g. *auld (old), cauld (cold), snaw (snow)*...
- /æ/ > /a/, e.g. *man, lad, sat*...
- also: pronounce the ch's and gh's that are silent in standard English as /kh/:
nicht, licht, loch...

And finally, the many unique words: *lass, bairn* (child), *kirk* (church), *big* (build), *bonny, greet* (weep), *ingle* (household fire), *aye* (yes), *hame* (home). As you can see, Scottish English in its original glory is as near to being different language as one can get, rather than simply another dialect of English.

Dialectal properties of Australian English

Australian English is predominantly British English, and especially from the London area. R's are dropped after vowels, but are often inserted between two words ending and beginning with vowels. The vowels reflect a strong "Cockney" influence: The long a (/ei/) tends towards a long i (/ai/), so *pay* sounds like *pie* to an American ear. The long i (/ai/), in turn, tends towards oi, so *cry* sounds like *croy*. Ow sounds like it starts with a short a (/æ/). Other vowels are less dramatically shifted.

Even some rhyming slang has survived into Australian English: *Butcher's* means "look" (butcher's hook); *loaf* means "head" (loaf of bread); *Noah's ark* means "shark"; *Richard the third* means "turd", and so on.

Like American English has absorbed numerous American Indian words, Australian English has absorbed many Aboriginal words:

- *billibong* – watering hole;
- *coolabah* – a type of tree;
- *corroboree* – a ceremony;
- *nulla-nulla* – a club;
- *wallaby* – small kangaroo;
- *wombat* – a small marsupial;
- *woomera* – a weapon;
- *wurley* – a simple shelter.

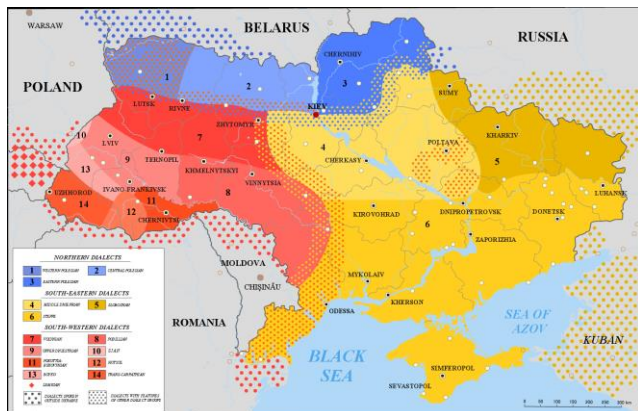
Another characteristic of Australian English is abbreviated words, often ending in -y, -ie, or -o:

- *aussie* – Australian;
- *chalky* – teacher;
- *chewie* – chewing gum;
- *chockie* – chocolate;
- *coldie* – a cold beer;
- *cossie* – swimming costume (swimsuit);
- *footy* – football (Australian rules, of course).

Dialectal differences are also observed in **Ukrainian** (between the Western, Northern and Central regions). For instance, "чоловічий жилет" – *філіжанка*, "чашечка" – *горнетко*, "подруга" – *коліжанка*, "виймати кісточки" – *дреглювати*, "перший відрізаний шматок хліба" – *окраєць*, *країк*, *закрайок*,

цілушка, поцілунок, пелюстка, горбушка, осушок, сухар, припілка, шкуринка, твєрдушка, крумка, сплочок, верхушка, потиличник.

Dialectal properties of Ukrainian (the south-eastern group)



A dialect is a territorial, professional or social variant of a standard literary language. In the Ukrainian language there are 3 major dialectal groups according to territory: the south-western group, the south-eastern group and the northern group of dialects [1].

South-eastern dialects, for instance, are:

- **Middle Dnieprian** is the basis of the Standard Literary Ukrainian. It is spoken in the central part of Ukraine, primarily in the southern and eastern part of the Kiev Oblast. In addition, the dialects spoken in Cherkasy, Poltava, and Kiev regions are considered to be close to "standard" Ukrainian.
- A **Steppe** dialect is spoken in southern and southeastern Ukraine. This dialect was originally the main language of the Zaporozhian Cossacks.

The **international** lexicon exists in all languages in common linguistic form and identical lexical meaning. E.g. *history, waltz, parliament, poet, revolution* etc.

Nationally specific lexicon presents things or phenomena pertained only to the certain lingual community. For instance, specifically English words are *shilling, dollar*, while *кутя, вареники, каменяр (І.Франко), кобзар (Т.Шевченко), ставати на рушник*, and the so-called kid's language *вусьо, нозя, киця, руця, дядя, цяця* are peculiar only to Ukrainian.

LINGUAL FACTORS. The linguistic principles of typological classification of lexicon are based on the following principles:

1) common **lexico-grammatical nature**

In accordance with their common general lexico-grammatical meaning all words are grouped into 1) notionals and 2) functional.

Notionals serve as principle means of nomination and constitute the bulk of the English and the Ukrainian lexicons. They have different morphological, semantic, syntactic and stylistic features, which are of not equal importance in the contrasted languages.

It is impossible to define the part of speech of many English words as *white*, *back* without a context.

It is not mostly so in Ukrainian, whose words, even out of microcontext, clearly display their lexico-grammatical nature: *ходить, гарний, кімната, ясно*.

Functionals are common in both languages, except for the article (*the, a/an*), which is missing in Ukrainian.

2) belonging to **the lexico-semantic group**

The second isomorphic class can be understood as closely knit sectors of vocabulary, each characterised by a common concept and formed on the basis of notionals as well as on the basis of functionals:

e.g. **LSG formed by adjectives denoting “size”**: *big, large, great, huge, enormous, small, little, tiny* etc. The same in Ukrainian: *великий, здоровий, гігантський, малий, невеликий, дрібний, малесенький* etc.

LSG formed by adjectives denoting “colour”: *red, yellow, green, blue, pink, brown, violet*,

LSG comprising verbs of speaking: *say, tell, talk, speak, announce, declare, etc.*: *говорити, балакати, розмовляти, шепотіти, промовляти* etc.

LSG of prepositions denoting direction: *to, into, from, towards, up, down*; *у, в, з, вгору, вниз, від, до* etc.

Similar LSGs exist also among the English conjunctions, particles and other parts of speech which have their corresponding equivalents in Ukrainian and in other languages.

3) **peculiar stylistic function and meaning**

According to the stylistic principle the lexical meaning of words is predetermined by their use in a speech style. Therefore, the lexicon in both languages can be of high, neutral and low styles.

Table 15. English and Ukrainian lexicon (according to the stylistic principle)

STYLE		English	Ukrainian
High	poetic	<i>ceil</i> (ceiling), <i>heaven</i> (sky), <i>babe</i> (baby), <i>to pass away</i> (die), <i>to affright</i> (frighten)	<i>лжа, злото, літа, чоло, благословен</i>
	bookish	<i>contrariety</i> (протилежність), <i>wonderment</i> (здивування), <i>brumal</i> (зимовий)	<i>всесилля, властолюбство, людомор</i>
	archaic	<i>thee</i> (you sing.), <i>thy</i> (your), <i>whereof</i> (of which), <i>teen</i> (горе) <i>austere</i> (суворий),	<i>гетьман, хорунжий, зигзиця</i> (зозуля), <i>піт</i> (поет), <i>шкло</i> (скло)
Neutral		<i>face, life, money, boy</i>	<i>земля, вода, квітка</i>
Low	colloquialisms	<i>disco(theque), It(alian), bike(bycicle), gonna</i>	<i>велик, ровер, бабій, хануга, вискочка, базікало</i>
	jargonisms slangisms	<i>veaky</i> (носатий), <i>lemon</i> (негарна дівчина), <i>governor</i> (батько), <i>to beef</i> (скиглити), <i>beans</i> (brass, dibs, dough, off-гроші)	<i>хвіст</i> (академ. заборгованість), <i>плавати</i> (в темі), <i>шпора, шара, зарубіжка, предки, лимони</i>
	vulgarisms	<i>hell, shit, mug</i> (морда), <i>cad</i> (тварюка), <i>hound</i> (негідник), <i>bastard</i>	<i>чорт, прокляття, морда, вилупок</i>

The main bulk of the vocabulary of a language is **stylistically neutral**. But on the periphery of the lexicon various types of colloquialisms, jargonisms, slangisms, vulgarisms and some others can be found. The functioning of the mentioned in table 15 stylistic subclasses of words are common not only in the contrasted languages.

Slang may be briefly defined as informal, nonstandard vocabulary composed chiefly of a novel-sounding synonyms for standard words and phrases. Slang has a vital social dimension; it is used mostly in the derisive speech play of youthful, raffish or undignified persons or groups.

Often equivalent in English and Ukrainian are also **low colloquialisms**, which mostly express disregarding or contemptuous attitude: *бабій, хануга, вискочка, базікало*.

Functionally similar to them are **vulgarisms**: *hell, shit, mug* (морда), *cad* (тварюка), *hound* (негідник), *bastard, чорт, прокляття, морда, вилупок*, and jargonisms, mostly used in oral speech by representatives of different groups (professional groups, criminal communities etc).

4) **denotative or connotative meaning**

Denotative words constitute the bulk of the lexicon of any language and include the so-called nomenclature. Most denotative words are stylistically neutral and may be represented by the whole lexico-grammatical classes:

- pronouns (*he, she, it, they, we, you* etc.),
- numerals (*five, ten, twenty* etc.), most of verbs (*live, love, be* etc.),
- nouns,
- adjectives,
- adverbs.

Connotative words directly or indirectly correlate with their natural denotata. Many words in English and Ukrainian may also have both denotative and connotative meanings. For instance, the nouns *bear, fox, pig, parrot* and some others in their stylistically neutral meaning designate definite animals and birds, but being metonymically reinterpreted, they often acquire a vituperative (abusive) connotation, thus becoming the connotative words. Correspondingly, in Ukrainian: *свиня, собака, пануга, лисиця* designating people.

ONOMASIOLOGICAL AND SEMASIOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF LEXICON. MEANS OF NOMINATION

Irrespective of the lexico-grammatical class to which a word belongs, it may be characterized in the contrasted languages from two sides:

- a) onomasiological side, i.e. from its structure and nomination capacity;
- b) semasiological or content side.

A. The onomasiological investigation of the lexicon solves the problem how concepts (ideas) can be represented in the language. That is the structure of a language unit is studied with respect to its expressive abilities or, in other words, means of nomination. The latter can be inner and outer.

Inner means of nomination include: words, word-groups and sentences.

Words in both languages are the main means of nomination (75% In English and Ukrainian).

Structurally they may be:

- a) simple words (*book, boy, new, ten, soon, книга, сам, там, п'ять*);
- b) derivative words (*teacher, friendship, kitten, книжечка, дівчинка, знавець, спатоньки*);
- c) compounds (*blackboard, homework, schoolboy, railway, добродій, літописець, книголюб, мовознавець, першочергово, перекотиполе, лиходій, Незовибатько, Добридень, Панібудьласка тощо*).

Common and equally productive in the contrasted languages is the nomination by means of **word-groups** (*take part, throw light, брати участь, проливати світло*) and **sentences** (usually one-member, nominal): *The rain. The welcome rain* (Longfellow); *Мокрий сніг, дощі й тумани* (М. Стельмах).

The onomasiological characteristics are displayed through morphological structure of the word and its categorial meaning: e.g. *goes* = *go* (root) + *es* (inflexion), the inflexion designates the categories of tense, mood, voice and person in the verb.

To outer means of nomination belong: borrowings and internationalisms.

As to the etymological characteristics, **English** is derived from the Anglo-Saxon, a dialect of West Germanic (as was Old Low German), although its current vocabulary includes words from many languages. The Anglo-Saxon roots can be seen in the similarity of numerals in English and German, particularly *seven/sieben, eight/acht, nine/neun and ten/zehn*. Pronouns are also cognate: *I/ich; thou/Du; we/wir; she/sie*. However, language change has eroded many grammatical elements, such as the noun case system, which is greatly simplified in Modern English; and certain elements of vocabulary, much of which is borrowed from French. In fact, more than half of the words in English either come from the French language or have a French cognate (words that have a common origin). However, the most common root words are still of Germanic origin.

The Anglo-Saxon and French influence on the development of the English lexicon can be illustrated by the parallel existence in the language of such lexical units as *pretty/beautiful, deed/act* etc. There are also words borrowed from Italian (*umbrella*), Spanish (*cigar*), Turkic (*tulip*) etc.

Ukrainian is a language of the East Slavic subgroup of the Slavic languages. Ukrainian uses a Cyrillic alphabet. It shares some vocabulary with the languages of the neighbouring Slavic nations, most notably with Belarusian, Polish, and Slovakian. Ukrainian traces its origins to the Old East Slavic language of the ancient state of Kievan Rus'.

It is easy to derive the meaning of some Bulgarian expressions due to it being Slavic as well as the Ukrainian language.

- Здравей (zdravéy) – Hello;
- Здравсти (zdrásti) – Hi;
- Добро утро (dobró útro) – Good morning;
- Добър ден (dóbær dén) – Good day;
- Добър вечер (dóbær vécher) – Good evening;
- Лека нощ (léka nósht) – Good night;
- Довиждане (dovízhdane) – Good-bye;
- Как се казваш? (kak se kazvash) – What is your name (informal)?;
- Кой си ти? (kóy si ti) [*informal, masculine*] – Who are you?;

The amount of borrowings in the Ukrainian language is not large: *бандура, карета* (from Italian), *казан, торба, лапша, казна* (from Turkic).

The general correlation of borrowed lexical units in the contrasted languages is not equal. It constitutes in English 70 %, while in Ukrainian 10 %.

Internationalisms maintain the complete identity of their semasiological and onomasiological structures in both languages: *basis – базис, opera – опера, tabula rasa – табула раса*.

B. Semasiology studies which ideas are represented in the linguistic unit. That is we study the semantic structure (scope of meaning) of words, expressions and texts.

From the semasiological side words may be monosemantic and polysemantic.

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

Ukrainian words can also have a much more **complicated semantic** structure as well. For example, the noun *подорож* can mean ‘*cruise, journey, travel, trip, tour, voyage*’; or the word *ще* can mean ‘*still, yet, more, again, else, but*’.

Isomorphic if not universal is the existence of **monosemantic words** which are sometimes represented by a whole lexico-grammatical class, as it is in case of all pronouns, numerals, conjunctions and some nouns: *we, she, nobody, ten, thirty, and, or, sugar, today, він, вони, десять, перший, і, та, кисень, цукор, торік*.

The onomasiological form and the semasiological structure may coincide in the contrasted languages: e.g. *to take part – брати участь*.

A considerable number of semasiologically identical in both languages lexemes have different onomasiological expression: *to ski – ходити/ їздити на лижах, to fall in love – закохатися, зрячий – one who can see/one who is not blind*.

The onomasiological and semasiological status of words can be changed in the contrasted languages by means of:

1) **affixation**: *miss – dismiss, elect – reelect, relation – relationship; Київ – киянин – київський, вибори – перевибори – довибори* and

2) **accentuation**: *'conduct (n) – con'duct (v), 'present (n) – pre'sent (v), 'замок – за'мок, 'вівці – вів'ці, 'руки – ру'ки.*

TYPES OF MOTIVATION OF WORDS IN THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

In English as well as in Ukrainian there differentiated three types of motivation:

1) phonetical, 2) morphological and 3) semantic.

1) **Phonetically motivated words**, which in English and Ukrainian constitute correspondingly 1.08% and 0.8%, have their sounding similar to the meaning they signify.

Such English and Ukrainian words sound alike: *bark – гав, cuckoo – ку-ку, hiss - шипіти, mew – няв.*

2) **Morphological motivation** is clearly indicated by the affixal morphemes: *singer* - *співак* (the one who sings), *changeable* 'that can be changed', *overturn* 'to turn smth. over'.

Morphologically motivated compounds have their lexical meaning composed of lexical meanings pertaining to each of their parts: *after-effect* – effect that occurs after, *note-book* – a book for notes; *домовласник* – власник будинку, *марнотратство* – витрата чогось без користі /марно.

Morphologically motivated words constitute the largest part of their motivated lexicons in the contrasted languages: 88.5% in English and 91.8% in Ukrainian.

3) **Semantic motivation** of lexical units is displayed by the connotative meanings of words and phrases (or idiomatic expressions), representing transferred meanings of their denotata:

in English – *foot of a mountain – підніжжя гори, the house of Tudor – династія Тюдорів, bed of a river – русло річки, blue-bottle – волошка, blackbird – дрізд;*

in Ukrainian – *легкий на руку, ходяча енциклопедія, наговорити сім мішків гречаної вовни, язик до Києва доведе, купатися в славі.*

The most frequent ways of semantic derivation with which we deal in such examples are metonymy and metaphor. The latter are considered to be the most important means of semantic development of the lexicon of any language.

Semantically motivated words constitute in English 10%, in Ukrainian – 7.4% of their total motivated lexicons.

Generally, however, a great many words in English, Ukrainian and in other languages **have no clear motivation**, i.e. their etymology remains obscure, far from explicable at present. It has been lost in the course of the semantic development of these words.

As a result, one cannot say why the “sun” is named *the sun* and the “head” has been named this way and not otherwise. Because of the obscure etymology most words and some idiomatic expressions remain non-motivated in the contrasted languages. In other words, their motivation is impossible to be identified nowadays on the basis of their componental meanings.

TYPOLOGY OF WORD-FORMATION IN THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

For the typological contrasting the most remarkable feature is the way of word-formation.

The previous investigation of the Germanic and the Ukrainian languages proved that the basic productive way of forming new lexical units is the **morphological one**, which is realized with the help of such means:

- 1) Affixation,
- 2) Compounding,
- 3) Non-affixation (accentual word formation).

It is remarkable that the majority of notional words in Germanic languages are **monomorphemic**: *house, man, town*.

In Slavonic languages, in Ukrainian in particular, the initial form of a word is in most cases **dimorphemic**, i.e. it consists of a root morpheme and a flexional one.

However, the dimorphemic structure of the Ukrainian does not break the typology of the word-forming process in it, as new words are produced from the root morpheme, having also the function of a stem: *зум-а* → *зум-ов-ий, зум-ів-л-я* etc. A new word may be produced by placing an affixal morpheme before the root (prefix) or after it (suffix); it can also be formed by means of compounding with the bound morpheme in preposition to the root morpheme or in postposition to it.

One more criterion which is noticeable for the Germanic languages is non-affixal type of word-formation.

AFFIXATION

Affixal or derivational word-formation in both languages includes:

- 1) suffixal word-formation,
- 2) prefixal word-formation and
- 3) combined (suffixal and prefixal) word-formation.

1) Suffixal morphemes in the contrasted languages are used to produce parts of speech: nouns, adjectives, verbs, numerals, adverbs. Noun-forming suffixes may be grouped according to the meaning they bring about (Table 16).

Added to the root morpheme, suffixal morphemes may not cause any changes in the place morphemes are joined, the so-called morphemic boundary/juncture: cf. *friend* + *ship* = *friendship*, *трактор* + *ист* = *тракторист*.

This is the very case of agglutination of affixal morpheme to the root one, which is differently presented in the contrasted languages.

In Germanic L., as in Turkic ones in this case, morphemic junctures are quite transparent and the derivatives can be easily decomposed into its constituents.

It is not so in the Ukrainian language in which the boundary between the components of a derivative word may not be so distinct, in most cases because of fusion; *слуга*, but *служба*, and not *слуг* + *ба*; *просити* → *прохання* etc.

Table 16. Noun-forming suffixes in English and Ukrainian

The meaning	English	Examples	Ukrainian	Examples
Agent	-ist	<i>journalist</i>	-ист –іст	<i>тракторист</i>
	-ant -ent	<i>student</i>	-ант -ент	<i>лаборант</i>
	-ar	<i>scholar</i>	-ар -яр	<i>володар</i>
	-er/-or	<i>teacher</i>	-ер/ор	<i>директор</i>
	-ier/-yer	<i>cashier</i>	-ир	<i>командир</i>
	-eer	<i>profiteer</i>	-ер -ір	<i>колекціонер</i>
	-ard/-art	<i>drunkard</i>	----	----
Perception of action	-ee	<i>employee</i>	----	----
Abstract notions	-ing	<i>wedding</i>	-н	<i>вбрання</i>
	-ism	<i>colloquialism</i>	-изм	<i>деспотизм</i>
	-ness	<i>goodness</i>	-т	<i>сліпота</i>
	-tion	<i>generation</i>	-ц	<i>корупція</i>
	-dom	<i>beggardom</i>	-ств/-цтв	<i>жіноцтво</i>
	-hood	<i>brotherhood</i>	-ств	<i>громадянство</i>
Evaluative diminutive Evaluative augmentative	-et/-ette,-let, -y/-ie,-ey, ling, -ing, -ee ----	<i>dolly, eaglet, duckling, lording</i> ----	-ятк -ик -ок -ечк -оньк -ач -ищ -юр	<i>малятко, носик, синок, річечка собацюра, ручище</i>
Gender	F: -ess,-ine M: -er/-or N: ----	<i>actress, heroine</i> <i>actor</i> ---	-к -их -ар -ій -ист -к, -ц	<i>учителька</i> <i>водій</i> <i>вушко, сальце</i>

Allomorphic noun-forming suffixes: specifically Ukrainian are evaluative augmentative and neuter gender forming suffixes while specifically English are suffixes designating perception of action.

The derivative function of suffixes finds its realization in the existence of common word-building models. The major models are as follows:

Table 17. Major word-forming models in English and Ukrainian

N+Suf=N	<i>Hostess</i>	<i>киянин</i>
V+Suf=N	<i>Reader</i>	<i>малюнок</i>
A+Suf=N	<i>Clearness</i>	<i>завзяття</i>
D+Suf=N	<i>Wellness</i>	<i>труднощі</i>
Q+Suf=N	<i>Primacy</i>	<i>першість</i>
A+Suf=V	<i>Darken</i>	<i>зеленіти</i>
N+Suf=A	<i>Golden</i>	<i>славний</i>
A+Suf=A	<i>Lonely</i>	<i>рідненький</i>
N+Suf=D	<i>Daily</i>	<i>зимно</i>
A+Suf=D	<i>Calmly</i>	<i>весело</i>
D+Suf=D	<i>Inwards</i>	<i>щоденно</i>

2) **Prefixal** morphemes have their main features in common in the contrasted languages. But in Turkic languages, for instance, as well as in the Japanese one the root morpheme is devoid of the possibility of joining prefixal morphemes.

In Polynesian languages there exists some predominance of prefixal word-formation in comparison to the suffixal one. That is why the structural model for a Polynesian word composed of four prefixes and the root is quite common: *mam-pi-fan-fa-aka* взяття, захват (примусити триматися один за одного).

The locating of affixal morphemes in postposition as well as in preposition to the root morphemes is a typological feature of the English and the Ukrainian languages.

Prefixes can be international, semantically identical or nationally specific (Table 18):

Table 18. English and Ukrainian prefixes

Nature	Models	English	Ukrainian
International	anti+A=A anti+N=N counter+N=N counter+V=V ex+N=N extra+A=A sub+N=N sub+A=A	<i>antifascist</i> <i>antibody</i> <i>counterplot</i> <i>counter-attack</i> <i>ex-president</i> <i>extraordinary</i> <i>submarine</i> <i>subtropical</i>	<i>антиглобальний</i> <i>антитіло</i> <i>контрзахід</i> <i>контратакувати</i> <i>екс-чемпіон</i> <i>екстравагантний</i> <i>субординація</i> <i>субтропічний</i>
Semantically identical	fore-/перед- non-/без-	<i>foresee</i> <i>non-party</i>	<i>передбачити</i> <i>безпартійний</i>
National	de- up- re- mis- un- по- попо- що	<i>decamp, recurve,</i> <i>upthrow, mis-</i> <i>state</i>	<i>по-українськи,</i> <i>щонайкраще,</i> <i>попоспати</i>

3) **Combined** word-formation is realized in the contrasted languages in four major structural models:

Table 19. Structural models of derivative words in English and Ukrainian

Models	English	Ukrainian
1 pref+root/stem+1 suf	<i>for-cast-er</i>	<i>без-вір-н-ий</i>
2> pref+root/stem+1 suf	<i>re-im-prison-ment</i>	<i>не-ви-мов-н-ий</i>
1 pref+root/stem+2> suf	<i>dis-trust-ful-ly</i>	<i>у-доскоп-ал-ит-и</i>
2> pref+root/stem+2> suf	<i>non-re-activ-at-ion</i>	<i>не-до-виторг-ув-ан-ий</i>

The combined type of word-formation is not equally represented in the contrasted languages.

Model 1 is very productive for both languages,

Models 2 and 3 are not productive,

Model 4 is occasional and stands for some lexical units only.

Summary: the typologically significant type of the combined word-formation is monosuffixal-suffixal model, i.e. **p + R + s**, reflecting the basic typology of the subsystem of word-production.

COMPOUNDING

The means of producing new words are: 1) juxtaposition, 2) wholophrasing compounding, 3) abbreviation, 4) blending, 5) back-formation and 6) reduplication.

I. JUXTAPOSITION

A new word may be produced by compounding two morphemes, basically root ones. In such cases it is relevant to speak of aggluting one dependent root morpheme to the basic root one: *house* + *work* = *housework*. This means of word-formation is the most productive in agglutinative languages, for instance Turkic: *ak*

біла + уивар кулька = акуивар біла кулька; ал червона + уивар кулька = алуивар червона кулька. This way of compounding is called **juxtaposition/agglutination**.

Juxtaposition is also productive in Germanic languages (*blackbird, blackboard, motherland, everybody*), but no so productive in Slavonic ones (*генерал-майор, батько-мати, інженер-технік, думати-гадати, говорити-балакати, хліб-сіль, дехто*).

II. WHOLOPHRASING COMPOUNDING,

presenting the process of reducing/incorporating the sentence structure into the independent compound lexical unit, is a specific one in the English language: *will-o'-the-wisp* вогник, що блукає; *a good-for-nothing* нікчемна людина. This way of compounding represents the lexical unit the components of which are joined by means of function words: *will-o'-the-wisp, a good-for-nothing*.

In present-day English there can be found occasionalisms like *a never-to-be-forgotten event* (from: an event never to be forgotten), *a to-be-or-not-to-be question*, *a don't-beat-me-or-I shall-cry expression on his face*.

Compounds of this type belong to rare exotisms in Ukrainian: *Наталка “теє того як його/її”, “лукавши – теє-то як його – моя галочко”* (І. Котляревський – репліки Возного).

Compounding with linking interfixal elements is far less productive in English than in Ukrainian, generally being restricted to nouns and adjectives. Compounding with the interfixal **и, ъ** are peculiar only of Ukrainian.

III. ABBREVIATION represents a generally common type of word-formation in the contrasted languages though it is not devoid of some national divergencies.

1. INITIAL ABBREVIATION:

- a) **Alphabetisms** are common and equally productive in both languages: USSR, BBC (British broadcasting company); ООН (організація об'єднаних націй), МП (мале підприємство).

b) **Acronyms**, i.e. abbreviations pronounced as one word, are also common for both languages: AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrom), UNESCO (United nations educational, scientific and cultural organisation); ЕПРОП (експедиція підводних робіт особливого призначення), ЖЕК (житлово-експлуатаційна контора), ДАІ (державна автоінспекція).

2. **SHORTENING** (partial abbreviation/clipped words) in English originate mostly from colloquialisms and jargonisms:

cap (captain), doc (doctor), fridge (refrigerator) – with omission of the last sound or syllable of a word – **apocope**;

to phone (to telephone) – by dropping of a letter or a syllable from the beginning of a word – **aphaeresis**.

Omission of the first part (apharaesis) is less common.

College slang is rich in such coinages: *exam, lab, gym, math* etc.

In Ukrainian the number of shortenings is restricted to such vocatives forms of nouns as *ма, ба* тощо.

3. **COMBINED ABBREVIATION** (partial and initial combined) is less productive in English than in Ukrainian.

The abbreviated compound consists of a root/roots or a part/parts of it of one or some words and the initial elements of other word/words,

eg. *CANWOODS (Canadian Woods), CONUS (Continental United States), COSPAR (Committee on Space Research); міськрада, райвно, автомашина, фотомодель, гідростанція, авіабаза, медучилище, райдержадміністрація.*

The distinctive feature of Ukrainian is that “abbreviated compounds” may consist of more than three stems: *райліспромгосп* (4 stems), *міськтекстильтрикотажпромспілка* (5 stems).

IV. BLENDING is a rather productive type of compounding in English. It is a special type of compounding by means of merging truncated parts of words into one new word. The tendency towards blending has become most productive in recent times, in present-day English particularly. Familiar examples of English blends ('telescoped' words) are: *blursday* (blur + day), *brunch* (breakfast + lunch), *drunch* (drinks + lunch), *skort* (skirt + short), *smog* (smoke + fog).

Blending is a rather productive type of compounding in English. It has in recent decades become familiar in Ukrainian as well. Blends or "telescoped" words are formed by confrontation (поєднання) of two (in Ukrainian) or even more truncated (усічених) words or roots of words, for example: *avia(tion) + (electr)onics > avionics*, *fan(tasy) + (maga)zine > fanzine*, *mo(torist) + (ho)tel > motel*, *sm(ock) + (f)og > smog*, *meri(t) + (aristocracy > meritocracy*, *fl(y) + (h)urry > flurry*, etc. In recent years some more blends have appeared in English as, for instance, *baggravation* (from bag + aggravation) a feeling of annoyance and anger of air travellers awaiting their baggage at the baggage carousel; *ginormous* (from gigantic + enormous), *meanderthal* (meander + underthal), an annoying person moving slowly and aimlessly in front of other individuals who are in a hurry; *netizen* (internet + citizen), *popaganda* (popular/pop + propaganda), i.e. propaganda of popular music or songs, *sarcastrophy* (sarcasm + catastrophe), i.e. an attemptor's failure to use humorous sarcasm, *wardrobe* (word + wardrobe), i.e. a person's vocabulary (a web page on the internet), *Modem* (moderate Democrat), *Clinlarry* (Clinton+Hillary), *brunch* (breakfast+lunch), etc.

There exist some ways of making blends or types of blending in English. The main of them are as follows:

1. Blends which are made up from the initial part of the first word or word-group and the complete second word consisting of a root morpheme or a stem only: *cinem(a) + actress = cinematress*, *para(litic gas)+ bomb = parabomb*, *super(sonic) + jet = superjet*, *para (chute) + glider = paraglider*, *bas(ket) + cart = bascart*, etc.

2. By combining the root morpheme/stem of the first word and the stem of the truncated initial part of the second word: *hay + (si)lage - haylage* (силосна яма), *pay + (pa)triotism = paytriotism*, *sea+(heli)copter = seacopter*, *motor + (caval)cade = motorcade*, etc.

3. By combining blends of the initial stem and the final part of the second word: *man + (En)glish = Manglish*, *radio + (elec)trician = rediotrician*, *cinema + (m)agnate = cinemagnate*, *book + (ad)vertising = bookvert-izing*, etc.

All Ukrainian blends are generally restricted to similar contaminations in which truncated are final elements of the initial words/ word-groups and the initial/final elements of the succeeding words as in *пірам(ідон) + (кофе)їн — пірамеїн, ас(пірін) + кофе(ї)н-аскофен (ходити на) витріщатик* (jocular) *ходить по Хрещатику, витріщивши очі*, i.e. loiter aimlessly, etc.

There can be distinguished such groups of blends:

- 1) coining a new word from **the initial elements** of one word and **the final elements** of another: *drunch* (drinks + lunch), *skort* (skirt + short);
- 2) coining a new **word** by combining one notional word and **the final element** of another: *Manglish* (man + English), *slanguage* (slang + language), *jazzercise* (jazz + exercise);
- 3) coining a new word by combining **the initial elements** of one word with a notional **word**: *mobus* (motor + bus), *pullitician* (pull + politician).

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.

V. BACK FORMATION (reversion) is also a rather productive type of word-formation in English. It is a source of short words, inferred from long ones:

verbs←nouns: *to edit* from *editor*, *to beg* from *beggar*, *to televise* from *television*,

verbs←adjectives: *to frivol* from *frivolous*,

nouns←adjectives: *greed* from *greedy*, *nast* from *nasty*.

Back formation in Ukrainian is restricted to nouns formed from verbs: *брод* from *бродити*, *нім* from *німнути*, *говір* from *говорити*.

VI. REDUPLICATION is a way of forming a new word by combining two alike in sounding, the parts of which differ in one sound only or are just the same: *so-so*, *ding-dong*; *тишком-нишком*, *тихо-тихо*, *ось-ось*, *ледве-ледве*. Unlike Ukrainian the English language is especially rich in rhymed reduplications: *boogy-woogy*, *humpty-dumpty*. This means of compounding is more productive in English.

Table 20. Word-formation in English and Ukrainian

Type	Linking element	English	Ukrainian
1. JUXTAPOSITION	----	<i>aircraft, inkpot</i>	<i>вагон-ресторан, медик-хірург</i>
2. WHOLOPHRASING COMPOUNDING	prepositions, conjunctions	<i>out-of-date, mother- in-law, one hundred and ten</i>	<i>пліч-о-пліч, хоч-не- хоч, Ростов-на- Дону</i>
	interfixal s, o, i VS о, е, а, у	<i>Anglo-Saxons, statesman</i>	<i>сновидець, кількасот</i>
	----	<i>forget-me-not, merry-go-round</i>	----
	interfixal и, й	----	<i>мати-й-мачуха</i>
3. ABBREVIATION:			
- initial		<i>USA, TV, bike</i>	<i>ПП, ООН, МА</i>
- partial		<i>Colo (Colorado)</i>	<i>начмед, головбух</i>
- combined		<i>INTERPOL</i>	<i>райвно</i>
4. BLENDING		<i>Slanguage</i>	<i>зусібіч</i>
5. BACK-FORMATION		<i>to beg < beggar</i>	<i>говір < говорити</i>
6. REDUPLICATION		<i>ding-dong</i>	<i>ось-ось</i>

NON-AFFIXATION

This type of compounding is well represented in Germanic languages. But its word-forming ability varies a great deal in languages. Non-affixal word-formation is mostly productive in English, in which due to the loss of word-forming morphemes words of different parts of speech coincide in their phonemic structure. In other words, this type of compounding is called conversion.

Conversion is the derivational process whereby an item changes its word-class without the addition of an affix. Conversion is particularly common in English because the basic form of nouns and verbs is identical in many cases. It is a curious and attractive subject because it has a wide field of action: all grammatical categories can undergo conversion to more than one word-form, it is compatible with other word-formation processes, and it has no demonstrated limitations. All these reasons make the scope of conversion nearly unlimited. Conversion is extremely productive to increase the English lexicon because it provides an easy way to create new words from existing ones.

In linguistics, **conversion**, also called zero derivation, is the word formation process in which a word of one grammatical form becomes a word of another grammatical form without any changes to spelling or pronunciation. For example, the noun *email* appeared in English before the verb *to email*.

The original noun *email* experienced conversion, thus resulting in the new verb *email*. Conversion is also referred to zero derivation or null derivation with the assumption that the formal change between words results in the addition of an invisible morpheme. However, many linguistics argue for a clear distinction between the word formation processes of derivation and conversion.

The main types of conversion in English:

- Verbalization (formation of verbs): a bill: to bill - «bill - invoice», a garage: to garage - «garage - put the car in the garage").
- Substantivation (formation of nouns): newly marrieds, a beloved, a female «bride, beloved wife."
- Adjectivization (formation of adjectives): a walking man, running water «a man who is; water flowing. "
- Adverbialization (formation of adverbs): weekly «weekly» - This magazine comes out weekly. - "The magazine comes out every week."

Conversion can pose difficulties in translation. Due to the fact that this process is very active, and it is difficult to track down all neologisms. Therefore, not all tumors can have lexical equivalents in the target language. In order to understand the meaning of words it is necessary to learn descriptive context and then to translate.

The major cases of conversion in English are from nouns to verbs: *a boss – to boss* and from verbs to nouns: *to ride – a ride*. Conversion from adjectives to nouns (*an intellectual person – an intellectual*) is also common, but it has a lower ratio.

In Ukrainian the most common is the conversion of adjectives into nouns: *кошовий, вартовий, Сагайдачний*. There can also be found cases of converting participles I into adjectives/nouns: *вихована (людина), наречена*; adverbs into prepositions: *довкола (будинку), назустріч (долі)*.

Substantivization, Adjectivisation, Verbalisation and Adverbialisation in English and Ukrainian

This type of word-formation is common and equally productive both in English and Ukrainian. It finds its realisation in a definite word acquiring a part of or all the lexico-grammatical features of some other part of speech. Thus, adjective may become wholly substantivised or partially substantivised.

Wholly substantivised adjectives acquire all properties of regular nouns. Eg: *a criminal, a black, a white, a liberal/ radical, a European/African, a Ukrainian/German, a weekly (тижневик), a monthly (альманах)*, etc.

Partially substantivised adjectives have only some features of nouns (no genitive case, no plural form): *the deaf and dumb, the French, the invited, the useful, in the open, in the affirmative*, etc. It is often difficult, however, to distinguish between Wholly and partially substantivised adjectives in Ukrainian. Cf. *поранений, молодий (з) молодю, старий (зі) старою, милий, чорнобрива, завідуючий, братова*, or substantivised adjectival proper names like *Ніжин, Львів, Сватове, Милове, гаряче/холодне (dishes), прийомна, німецька/англійська (languages), давнє, минуле, старе, особисте*, etc.

Partially substantivised in English may also be other parts of speech, for example,

a) Verbs: *that is a must with me; let's have a go: a quiet read, after supper? the haves and have-nots;*

b) Numerals: *a sign of four, King Charles the First, page ten, to receive a one/a two;*

c) Pronouns: *a little something, a good for nothing, the all of it; those I's_ of his;*

d) Adverbs: *I don't know his whereabouts, he is on leave, etc.*

On the other hand, nouns may be adjectivised. Cf. *the market prices; London docks, average incomes/wages, Kyiv streets, the Dnieper_ banks, the Ukraina hotel, etc.*

Nouns may also be adverbialised. Cf.: *going home, to come by chance, on the outskirts of Kyiv, to come by air/ by train, in English.*

Similarly in Ukrainian where there are partially substantivised different parts of speech as well:

a) pronouns as *мій/твій* іде (коханий, чоловік); *моя* прийшла (кохана, дружина, мати); *він* (чоловік, брат) у хаті? And

b) numerals: *Георг П'ятий, Єлизавета Друга, отримати два / п'ять* (mark).

Nouns in Ukrainian can also be adjectivised, though to a smaller degree than in English, being used as appositives only. For example: *джаз-оркестр, поет-воїн, місто Київ, фабрика-кухня, вагон-ресторан, дівчина-танкіст, жінка-космонавт/космонавтка, etc.*

Ukrainian nouns can be adverbialised as well: *зайти в гості, проситися у відпустку (куди?), бути на канікулах (де?), брати в борг, їхати зайцем (як?), домовитися по телефону (як?), підписати (щось) з переляку (як?), etc.*

SUMMARY:

- 1) Word-formation in the contrasted languages is represented by
 - a) affixation, b) compounding and c) non-affixation;
- 2) Typologically distinct feature of the English language is juxtaposition with quite transparent morphemic boundaries in words;
- 3) Apart from all Germanic languages, in Ukrainian typologically remarkable is the combining of morphemes by means of linking morphemes; in the subsystem of word-formation fusion is observed;

- 4) The maximal number of affixal morphemes, joined to root morphemes, does not exceed two elements in the preposition to root morphemes and two elements in the postposition to them, which constitutes the isomorphic typological feature of the contrasted languages;
- 5) In the subsystem of word-formation in English monomorphemic words are dominant, while in Ukrainian dimorphemic ones;
- 6) In compounds, consisting of two words, the bound morpheme is in most cases in preposition to the main one in the typology of lexicon in both contrasted languages;
- 7) More productive types of compounding in English are: juxtaposition, shortening, blending, back-formation, reduplication; in Ukrainian – wholophrasing compounding with interfixal elements, combined abbreviation.

MEANS OF ENRICHING THE VOCABULARY OF ANY LANGUAGE

Though languages are divergent typologically, they possess the same sources for new means of designation, i.e. four types or means of enriching the vocabulary of any language.

They are the following:

- 1) morphemic derivation,
- 2) semantic derivation,
- 3) formation of idiomatic expressions,
- 4) borrowings.

The correlation of these devices is quite allomorphic in different languages.

Morphemic derivation

It is widely used **in non-isolating** languages and is the main source of new words.

In Slavonic languages, for example, the morphemic derivatives cover 83% of the new lexicon in the 60s of the XXth c., while in Germanic, in English for instance, the index of morphemic derivatives of the same period constitutes 63%. In isolating languages (Chinese, Vietnamese) morphemic derivation can hardly be found.

Together with suffixal-prefixal derivation, morphemic derivation embraces such types of compounding as blendings, abbreviation of different kinds etc. In accordance with the data, given by John Ayto, the author of the Longman Register of New Words, in the lexicon of the present-day English the main source of neologisms appears to be blendings, formed by coining a new word from the initial elements of one word and the final elements of another: *magalog* ‘журнального формату каталог з рекламою товарів, що замовляються поштою’ (*magazine* ‘журнал’ + *catalogue*).

Semantic derivation

Semantic derivatives of a word are its new meanings. As the meaning of the word is **a dynamic structure** (Z.A.Charytonchik), in the course of time a word can gain its new meanings appeared in the same or different contexts.

The phenomenon of semantic derivation is **of universal nature**, it characterizes the lexicon of all existing languages of the world.

It is well known, that **in analytical languages** the majority of words is much more polysemantic, than in synthetic ones.

In Slavonic languages semantic derivatives cover 8-10% of neologisms (N.Z. Kotelova, The dictionary of new words and meanings).

The evaluation of the productivity of semantic derivation **in English** suggested by different authours differs greatly:

- 30.8% of neologisms,
- 10% of neologisms,
- D. Crystal in the Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language does not give any information about the percentage of neologisms in the lexicon of the English language at all.

Conversion is a special case of semantic derivation, being much more productive in English than in Ukrainian. The role of conversion in formation of new words in present-day English, according to John Ayto, becomes larger and larger:

e.g. *to air* 1) ‘повітрявати’; the new meaning: 2) ‘бути переданим по радіо чи телебаченню’.

Forming up non-stable phraseological units

The dictionaries of new lexicon include, apart from words, phraseological units either. To non-stable phraseological units belong: 1) idioms, one of the words of which have unusual meaning; 2) non-idiomatic non-stable combinations of words, which are characterized by the frequent co-occurrence of the word group (укр. *генна інженерія, нейтронна бомба*, рос. *перочинный нож*).

The productivity of creating non-stable expressions in a language is divergent in different languages. O.I.Isachenko points to one of the typological differences between Slavonic languages, consisting in different means of designation: in some of the languages morphemic derivation is basic to produce new words, in others the process of creating non-stable expressions is active.

In Ukrainian in the sphere of stylistically neutral and official lexicon two-member expressions are predominant, while in other Slavonic languages (Polish, Czech, Slovenian) in such cases one-member means of nomination are used. Cf.

Ukr. залізна дорога	Byel. чыгунка	Czech železnice
Ukr. книжковий магазин	Byel. кнігарня	Pol. księgarnia
Ukr. зал очікування	Pol. čakalnica	Czech čekárna
Ukr. записна книжка	Slov. notatnik	Czech zápisník
Ukr. полярна зірка	Slov. severnica	Czech Polárka, Severka

Borrowings (calking, in particular)

They are the markers of the process of languages' intercourse. As a result of modelling words and expressions after foreign patterns new calques (wordforming, semantic, phraseological and syntactic) appear.

Calques penetrate into the lexicon of any language unnoticeably, being used carelessly, and are spreading very quickly afterwards. Cf. some of the innovations, appeared in Ukrainian and borrowed from English lately:

- *артикулювати* in the meaning 'формулювати, виражати думку, настрій' together with its former 'вимовляти звуки мовлення';
- *ящик* in the meaning 'телевізор' (under the influence of the English *a box* 'телевізор'. A well known play of word is a proof to that: *Less box, more books* 'Менше телевізора, більше книг');

- *харизматичний* in the meaning ‘такий, що вміє впливати на людей’ together with the former meaning ‘такий, що наділений релігійним даром впливу на людей’;
- *піратський* ‘незаконний’: піратська копія, піратська студія.

In modern languages the processes of borrowing and semantic calking, in particular, occur at the intercourse of many languages at once.

There are all the grounds for stating a new tendency in the development of modern languages – the tendency to internationalization.

TYOLOGY OF IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

An idiom is a common word or phrase with a culturally understood meaning that differs from what its composite words' denotations would suggest.

An idiom is not to be confused with other figures of speech such as a metaphor, which invokes an image by use of implicit comparisons; a simile, which invokes an image by use of explicit comparisons; and hyperbole, which exaggerates an image beyond truthfulness. Idioms are also not to be confused with proverbs, which are simple sayings that express a truth based on common sense or practical experience.

An idiom is a phrase where the words together have a meaning that is different from the dictionary definitions of the individual words. In another definition, an idiom is a speech form or an expression of a given language that is peculiar to itself grammatically or cannot be understood from the individual meanings of its elements.

<i>Break the ice</i>	Make people feel more comfortable	as part of a sentence
<i>Costs an arm and a leg</i>	Very expensive	as part of a sentence
<i>It's a piece of cake</i>	It's easy	by itself
<i>Burn bridges</i>	Destroy relationships	as part of a sentence
<i>Miss the boat</i>	It's too late	as part of a sentence

English idioms, proverbs and expressions are an important part of everyday English. They come up all the time in both written and spoken English. Because idioms don't always make sense literally, you'll need to familiarize yourself with the meaning and usage of each idiom. Learning to use common idioms and expressions

will make your English sound more native, so it's a good idea to master some of these expressions.

An idiom is a common word or phrase with a culturally understood meaning that differs from what its composite words' denotations would suggest. For example, an English speaker would understand the phrase "*kick the bucket*" to mean "*to die*"- and also to actually kick a bucket. Furthermore, they would understand when each meaning is being used in context. An idiom is not to be confused with other figures of speech such as a metaphor, which invokes an image by use of implicit comparisons (e.g., "*the man of steel*"); a simile, which invokes an image by use of explicit comparisons (e.g., "*faster than a speeding bullet*"); and hyperbole, which exaggerates an image beyond truthfulness (e.g., like "*missed by a mile*").

These English idioms are extremely common in everyday conversation in the United States:

Beat around the bush - meaning - *Avoid saying what you mean, usually because it is uncomfortable* (is used as a part of a sentence)

Break a leg! - meaning - *Good luck!* (is used by itself)

Let someone off the hook - meaning - *To not hold someone responsible for something* (is used as a part of a sentence)

The best of both worlds - meaning - *An ideal situation* (is used as a part of a sentence)

Language is closely related to culture and can be considered a part of the culture. They interact with each other and shape each other. Idioms carry a large amount of cultural information (history, religion, custom, psychology, etc.) They are the heritage of history and product of cultural environment. To get better understanding of idioms you need to learn the cultural background behind them.

English, like all languages, is full of idioms. There are expressions that cannot be understood by looking at their parts; that is, they have their own independent meanings and are no longer taken literally. However, most idioms have their origins in some past literal sense, now long forgotten.

To **'turn a blind eye'** to something means to pretend not to have noticed something. This expression is said to have arisen as a result of the famous English naval hero Admiral Horatio Nelson. During the Battle of Copenhagen in 1801 when the British forces signalled for him to stop attacking a fleet of Danish ships, he held up a telescope to his blind eye and said, 'I do not see the signal'. He attacked, nevertheless, and won the battle.

‘Mad as a hatter’ refers to someone who is completely crazy. The expression has its origins in the effects of the chronic mercury poisoning commonly experienced by 18th and 19th century hat manufacturers owing to the use of mercurous nitrate in felt hats.

‘Knight in shining armour’ is a heroic, idealised male who typically comes to the rescue of a female. The phrase goes back to the days of Old England, when popular imagination conjures up images of chivalry and knights coming to the rescue of damsels in distress.

To **‘extend the olive branch’** means to take steps towards achieving peace with an enemy. This expression has biblical origins, and was seen as an emblem of peace. In Genesis a dove brings an olive branch to Noah to indicate that God’s anger had died down and the flood waters had abated.

‘Bite the bullet’ means to accept something difficult or unpleasant. In the olden days, when doctors were short on anaesthesia or time during a battle, they would ask the patient to bite down on a bullet to distract from the pain.

To **‘butter someone up’** means to impress someone with flattery. This was a customary religious act in ancient India. The devout threw butter balls at the statues of their gods to seek favour and forgiveness.

ENGLISH IDIOMS AND THEIR CULTURAL FOOTING

Of the various aspects of the English language, idioms show perhaps the greatest variety and are hardest to classify. There are a number of different criteria. Idioms are classified by structural criteria into three main groups: phrase idioms – a bed of roses, easy on the eye, in one piece; clause idioms – eat one's words, catch sb. red-handed, deal somebody a bow, and sentence idioms – the proof of the pudding is in the eating, give sb. an inch and he will take a mile. Within these three main groups are several dominant subcategories. All phrase idioms have a noun, verb, adjective, preposition or an adverb as the central word, they correspond to the familiar parts of speech, and are capable of giving syntactic function in sentences. Phrase verbs are usually more lively and expressive than single verbs. The English language is copious in clause in clause idioms containing objects or complements. Most of these idioms are rare, colloquial, and vivid and changed with life. They are just the kind that are sought and welcomed in animated speech.

Modern linguistics has not only placed great emphasis on context but has considerably broadened its scope, and has also probed deeply into its influence on word meanings. Context in its narrowest sense consists of the lexical items that come immediately before and after any word in an act of communication. The range of the term context has been widened in several directions. It is no longer restricted to what immediately precedes and follows, but may cover the whole passage and sometimes the whole book in which a word occurs, and in some cases even the entire social or culture setting. The non-verbal elements of the situation in which a word is uttered (i.e. extra-linguistic context of situation) are also important factors to be taken into consideration, because they have a direct bearing on word meaning.

- ***Bite the bullet***

Meaning: To accept something difficult or unpleasant. **Origin:** In the olden days, when doctors were short on anesthesia or time during a battle, they would ask the patient to bite down on a bullet to distract from the pain. The first recorded use of the phrase was in 1891 in *The Light that Failed*.

- ***Break the ice***

Meaning: To break off a conflict or commence a friendship. **Origin:** Back when road transportation was not developed, ships would be the only transportation and means of trade. At times, the ships would get stuck during the winter because of ice formation. The receiving country would send small ships to “break the ice” to clear a way for the trade ships. This gesture showed affiliation and understanding between two territories.

- ***Butter someone up***

Meaning: To impress someone with flattery. **Origin:** This was a customary religious act in ancient India. The devout would throw butter balls at the statues of their gods to seek favor and forgiveness.

UKRAINIAN IDIOMS

- *Очима стріляти* – дивитися на когось залицяючись (to flirt with someone)
- *Пасту задніх* – відставати (to drop behind)
- *Сидіти на шиї* – бути на утриманні (to be supported financially by somebody)
Literally it means: to sit on someone’s neck
- *Танцювати під (чиюсь) дудку* – незаперечно коритися (to obey someone)
Literally it means: dance after someone’s pipe.

Idiomatic/set expressions are lexically and often structurally stable units of lexicon.

CRITERIA FOR CLASSIFYING IDIOMS:

- 1) **semantic** (according to the nature);
- 2) **structural** (according to the structure);
- 3) **functional** (according to the nuclear element and the function).

Semantically idiomatic expressions may be:

- **Absolute/international equivalents:**

a grass widow – солом'яна вдова,

the alfa and omega – альфа та омега (початок і кінець),

the Trojan horse – Троянський кінь,

the heel of Achilles – Ахіллесова п'ята,

the tree of knowledge – дерево знань,

Ten Commandments – Десять Заповідей;

- **Near equivalents:**

as pale as paper – блідий як стіна,

to kiss the post – поцілувати замок,

all this and heaven too – вагон і маленький возик,

all talk and cider – багато галасу даремно (багато розмов, а діла мало);

- **National idioms:**

Humpty-Dumpty – низенький товстун,

to cutt off with a shilling – позбавити спадщини;

in Ukrainian – замакітрити голову, гонки скакати, впіймати облизня, клеїти дурня, утерти носа.

Structurally idiomatic expressions may be:

- **Word idioms** (metaphorical generalized names):

Dick and Harry – перший-ліпший,

a Romeo, a Don Juan, Mr. Big, Mr. Right etc.

- **Word-group idioms:**

Tom Pepper (a great liar),

Tom Thumb (a small man),

every Tom (the average person),

nosy Parker – людина, котра суне ніс не в свої справи,

to be or not to be,

a skeleton in the cupboard, Ten Commandments;

in Ukrainian: *Язиката Хвеська, як на сповіді, збити з пантелику, накивати п'ятами, утерти носа, море по коліна, хоч до рани прикладай тощо;*

- **Sentence idioms:**

A drowning man catches at a straw;

a Jack of all trades and the master of none;

in Ukrainian: *що буде, те й буде; далеко куцюму до зайця;*

Functionally (according to the nuclear element and the function) idioms

are:

- **Substantival:**

the tree of knowledge,

a swan song 'final appearance',

the Trojan horse;

in Ukrainian: *сім чудес світу, лебедина пісня, ласий шматок;*

- **Adjectival:**

wishy-washy 'having no definite opinion',

hot 'stolen',

jam-packed 'crowded';

in Ukrainian: *нечистий на руку, одним миром мазані;*

- **Verbal:**

to keep one's nose clean 'stay out of trouble',

to cook someone's goose 'to create big problems for someone';

in Ukrainian: *накивати п'ятами, мотати на вус, бити себе в груди, дерти носа, вскочити в халепу, товкти воду в ступі;*

- **Adverbial:**

tit for tat 'зуб за зуб',

by hook or by crook 'by any means';

in Ukrainian: *як на долоні, без керма і без вітрил, ні в зуб ногою;*

- **Interjectional:**

in Ukrainian: *от тобі й на, хай йому грець, цур тобі,*

не доведи Господи.

POINTS FOR REVISION

- 1) What are the constants of the lexical level?
- 2) What are the main factors to classify the lexicon of any language?
- 3) What parameters does extralingual factor cover?
- 4) What are the principles the lexicon is grouped according to the lingual factor?
- 5) What are notionals? Functionals? Give the definitions. Provide them with the examples.
- 6) What is lexico-semantic group? Give examples of LSG.
- 7) What lexicon is differentiated according to the stylistic principle?
- 8) What is the denotative meaning? And connotative?
- 9) What does onomasiology study?
- 10) What does semaseology study?
- 11) What means of nomination do you know?
- 12) What are inner means of nomination? And Outer?
- 13) Can the onomasiological form and semasiological status coincide in the contrasted languages?
- 14) By what means can the onomasiological form and semasiological status be changed in the contrasted languages?
- 15) What types of motivation are there in the contrasted languages?
- 16) What type of motivation is the most frequent in the contrasted languages?
- 17) What are the basic structural types of compound words in English and Ukrainian?
- 18) What means of producing new words are there in the contrasted languages?
- 19) What is juxtaposition? Give examples.
- 20) What is wholophrasing compounding? Provide with the examples.
- 21) What types of abbreviation do you know? Give examples.
- 22) What is blending? Provide with the examples.
- 23) What is back formation? Give examples.
- 24) What is reduplication? Provide with the examples.
- 25) What is accentual word-formation characterized by?
- 26) What means of producing new words are the most productive in English and in Ukrainian?
- 27) What are the means of enriching the vocabulary of any language?
- 28) What are the principles to classify idioms? Provide with the examples.

CHAPTER 6

TYOLOGY OF THE MORPHOLOGICAL SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

CONTENTS

1. The morpheme, its types in the contrasted languages.
2. Ways of reflecting morphological categories.
3. Typology of parts of speech.
4. Typology of the Noun.
5. Typology of the Adjective.
6. Typology of the Numeral.
7. Typology of the Pronoun.
8. Typology of the Verb.

The morphological systems of the English and Ukrainian languages have isomorphic features due to their their common Indo-European origin and allomorphisms acquired by them in the course of their development and functioning as independent languages.

The main typological constants of the morphological level are: 1) the morpheme; 2) morphological categories; 3) parts of speech.

THE MORPHEME, ITS TYPES IN THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

One of the typological constants of the morphological level is **the morpheme** – a meaningful unit which is endowed in both languages by some minimal meaning.

1) As to its structure, the morpheme can be **simple** (**a-**, **-s**, **-t** in *alike, says, burnt*; **-а**, **-у** в словах *весна, беру*) and **compound** (**-ment**, **-hood**, **-ward** in *management, brotherhood, seaward*; **-ство**, **-ський** в словах *суспільство, сільський*).

2) According to the degree of selfdependence morphemes can be free or bound. **Free** morphemes are lexically and functionally not dependent on the other morphemes. They may coincide with words: *boy, day, he, four, день, ніч, річ, він, тпу* or they may constitute the lexical core of the compound or a derivative:

boyhood, daily, fourth, денна, нічний, трічі etc. **Bound** morphemes cannot function independently, they are bound to the root morpheme or to the stem (see the examples above).

3) As to the semantic capacity and the way of reflecting morphological categories the latter are subdivided into **root, affixal, inflectional**. Another equivalents for this classification are lexical, lexico-grammatical and grammatical or root, word-building and word-forming.

Due to its historical development, English has a much larger number of regular **root** morphemes than in Ukrainian. Consequently, the number of inflexions expressing the morphological categories is much smaller in English than in Ukrainian.

Affixal (lexico-grammatical, word-building) morphemes in English and Ukrainian, when added to the root morpheme (or to the stem of the word) change the form of the word, adding some new shade to its lexical meaning; e.g. *duck-duckling, friend-friendship, London-Londoner, хід-походеньки, хутко-хутчіше*.

Inflectional (grammatical, word-forming) morphemes in the contrasted languages express different morphological categories. The number of genuine English inflexions today is only **14 to 16**. They are number forming noun inflexions – **s/es, -en, -ren** (*boys, watches, oxen, children*); adjective inflexions to form the degrees of comparison –**er, -est** (*bigger, biggest*); adverb inflexions –**er/ier, -est** (*slowlier, slowliest*); verbal inflexions –**s/es, -d/ed, -t, -n/en** (*puts, watches, learned, burnt, broken*); the inflexions of absolute possessive of pronouns –**s, -ne** (*ours, mine*).

Apart from the genuine English inflectional morphemes there exist some foreign inflexions borrowed and used with nouns of Latin, Greek and French origin only.

Table 21. Inflexions (grammatical suffixes) in English

Inflexion type		Inflexions	Examples
Genuinely English	N inflexions	-s(es), -en, -ren	<i>boys, oxen</i>
	Adj/D inflexions	-er/-ier, -est-iest	<i>slower-the slowest</i>
	V inflexions	-s/-es, -d/-ed, -t, -n	<i>cuts, cried, burnt</i>
	Pr inflexions	-s, -n	<i>hers, mine</i>
Foreign Inflexions	Latin	-um/-a, -us/-i etc.	<i>datum/a</i>
	Greek	-is/-es, on/a etc.	<i>phenomenon/a</i>
	French	Ø - -es etc.	<i>madam/s</i>

WAYS OF REFLECTING MORPHOLOGICAL CATEGORIES

The differences in the morphological systems of the contrasted languages can be displayed by the ways morphological categories are reflected in them.

Morphological/grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (the category of number can be represented by the opposition singular::plural). The number of grammatical meanings in the world languages is limited.

Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality. It follows that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective **category of time** finds its representation in the grammatical **category of tense**, the **objective category of quantity** finds its representation in the grammatical **category of number**. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called referential grammatical categories. Those grammatical categories that have no references in the objective reality are called significational categories. To this type belong the categories **of mood and degree**. Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has modality as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality – it expresses the speaker's attitude to what he says.

The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called **correlation** (grammatical oppositions) – book::books (unmarked member/marked member). All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions of forms, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular::plural.

The ways of expressing morphological categories are divergent and can be nationally specific. For instance, the category of number is differentiated in the majority of languages, but the means to form plurality in different languages are quite allomorphic.

e.g. in **the Malajan language** the meaning of plurality is displayed by the repetition: *rumah* – “будинок”, *rumah-rumah* – “будинки”;

in **the African language Shilluk** the changes of tones are used: *jit* (high tone) “вухо” - *jit* (low tone) “вуха”;

in Ukrainian plural forms are built with the help of inflexions or suppletively: *стіл-столи, человек-люди*;

in **the Nass language** (Columbia) prefixes indicate the plural form: *an'on* - “рука”, *ka-an'on* - “руки”.

WAYS OF REALIZING GRAMMATICAL MEANINGS

The main means to realize some grammatical meaning in the contrasted languages are the such: **I. - synthetic** and **II. - analytical**.

I. **THE SYNTHETIC WAY** of representing the grammatical meaning presupposes the possibility of combining some morphemes within the word. To synthetic such ways are referred:

1. **Inflexions** (including zero ones): *записник* \emptyset – *записники*;
2. **Affixation**. Grammatical meaning in this case is displayed by different types of affixes. The forms of the past tense in Ukrainian are presented by the suffix – в/л: *читати* – *Тато читав* – *Мама читала* – *Дитя читало*;

3. Inner flexion – is the grammatically significant change of the phonemic structure of the root: e.g. in English – *foot-feet, sing-sang*; in Ukrainian – *нести- ніс – ношу; ніч – ночі, Львів – у Львові*;
4. Suppletivity is observed in words of all Indo-European languages. At lexical level it helps to express sex distinctions (e.g. *man-woman, cock-hen, son-daughter, чоловік-жінка, півень-курка, дядько-тітка*). In both languages suppletivity expresses:
 - Different nature of verbs and actions they denote: *carry-bring, брати-взяти*;
 - The category of tense, person and number of some verbs: *be – is, are, am, was, were; бути – є*.
 - Degrees of comparison of some adjectives: *good-better, гарний-кращий*.
 - Paradigmatic word-forms of some pronouns: *I-me, she-her, він-його, вони-їх, ми-нас*. In English there also exist absolute suppletive forms unknown in Ukrainian: *mine (my), hers (she), ours (we)*.

II. THE ANALYTICAL WAY of representing the grammatical meaning presupposes separate expression of lexical and grammatical meanings of the word. There found such analytical means as:

1. The use of auxiliary words. To auxiliary words belong:
 - Auxiliary verbs shall, will, have, be etc. which produce some complex verbal structures which display tense, aspect, phase and voice: *shall come, will have done, am doing, has been done, книжка читається/буде читатися*.
 - Auxiliary words which present the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective with complicated structures: *interesting – more interesting, красивий – більш красивий/красивіший*.
 - Prepositions with their dominating role in English: *To give the book to Peter, written in pencil*.
 - Articles in English which serve for substantivation: *to play (V) ‘зрати’ – a play (N) – ‘зра, н’еса’* (Compare the German article).
2. Accentuation in both languages can also serve as the indicator of the grammatical meaning, as it can signal the part of speech the word

belongs to: e.g. *impórt* – the verb and *'import* – as a noun; *progréss* and *prógress*; *голова́* (одн.) – *го́лови* (мн.), *тэ́пла* (прикм.) – *теплá* (ім. в Род. Відм.), *пóверх* (ім.) – *повéрх* (прийм).

3. Word order which can be allomorphic in the contrasted languages.

Cf.: *The hunter killed the bear* (SPO – fixed). *Mary loves her daughter. John helps Bill.* *Ведмедя убив мисливець* (free).

Word order makes the parts of the sentence different in the syntactic functions they perform and signals the communicative type of the same syntactic structure (together with intonation).

Cf.: *He has a pen* “*У нього є ручка*” and *Has he a pen?* “*У нього є ручка?*”

The positional variations can demonstrate different grammatical meanings. E.g. in Lithuanian the combinations of words *butelis kefiro* and *kefiro butelis* in the first case is rendered into Ukrainian as “*пляшка кефіру*” and in the second one as “*пляшка з-під кефіру*”.

The position of the element is linked with the theme-rheme organization of the information given in the sentence. In accordance with the above mentioned data, the English language is characterized by the fixed position of members of the sentence. But for the Ukrainian language in which the word order is considered to be free sometimes the very succession of elements also performs the differentiating function:

e.g. *Буття визначає свідомість.*

TYPOLOGY OF PARTS OF SPEECH

The identification of the parts of speech in the contrasted languages is not always an easy matter though the main subdivision of words into notionals and functionals seems to be indisputable. The ambiguity of form and meaning of many English notional words, however, brought some grammarians to the assumption that there exist no proper grounds and justification for singling out some notional parts of speech in present-day English.

Ch. Fries, for example, suggested a purely functional approach to the classification of English words. He singled out class 1 words (those performing the function of the subject), class 2 words (those performing the function of the predicate), class 3. words (adjectivals), i. e. attributives, and class 4 are were in Fries' classification adverbial function words or word-groups. Ch. Fries tried to avoid even

mentioning the usual term of "parts of speech". The term is also avoided by this grammarian in his classification of "function words", which are allotted to 15 different groups and include also some pronouns, adverbs and verbs.

A typologically more relevant classification has been suggested for English notionals by C. T. Hockett who distinguishes in English "parts of speech" and "classes of words". Among the notionals three pure "classes of words" (or regular parts of speech) are distinguished: "class N words", "class V words" and "class A words". These "classes" are mainly singled out with regard to the morphological (or rather paradigmatic) properties of these notionals which, having the structure of mere roots or stems, can "show more than one pattern of usage", as C. T. Hockett puts it. In other words, they may follow either the noun or the verb and an adjective pattern. Hence, the grammarian singled out apart from the N, A, V classes of words some double and triple word stem classes. These are, for example, the NA class, represented by many words, such as American, human, innocent, private, savage, sweet, which may function both as nouns and adjectives (cf. American scientists, an American). The NV class are words which can respectively have the meaning and perform the function of the noun and verb (cf. *a book, to book smth.*). The AV class represents words which can show the adjective and the verb pattern (cf. *clean hands, to clean the room*). The NAV class represents words which can follow the noun, the adjective and the verb pattern respectively (cf. *the fat of meat, fat meat, to fat (up) fowls*). Thus, "classes of words" clearly reflect the amorphous grammatical nature of many English nouns, verbs, adjectives and sometimes adverbs which in the course of their historical development have been reduced, as a rule, to regular roots or stems. As a result, their true lexico-grammatical nature, i. e. their proper lexical meaning, and consequently their formal and functional characteristics can not be discriminated when taken out of a word-group or sentence. The word "*export*", for example, may be noun or verb (when indicated by stress or determined by the particle "to"); "blue" may be noun (*the blue of the sky*), adjective (*the blue sky*), or verb (*to blue smth.*).

In Ukrainian, on the other hand, the lexical meaning and "formal" (morphological) characteristics of such notional words as *експорт, синь, синій, синіти, синіючий, синіючи*, etc. are always explicitly displayed already at language level, i.e. when taken separately, out of context (as in dictionaries). Therefore, many notionals in English, unlike their lexico-grammatical equivalents in Ukrainian, are variable, i. e. they may change their nature depending on the contextual environment and their functional significance which they acquire in a syntaxeme.

The variability of some English notionals, which can often shift from one part of speech to another without any morphological changes in their form/structure is certainly the main typological (allomorphic) difference pertaining to the nature of some notional words as compared to the corresponding classes of words in Ukrainian. It becomes especially evident when dealing with the conglomerates like NV, AN, ND, NVA and the like, which are in reality no regular parts of speech but one-lexeme units able to realise different functional meanings depending on their functionally relevant place occupied in a syntaxeme (word-group or sentence).

Nevertheless, the existence of the kind of morphologically indistinct notionals in present-day English does not deprive the language of the regular system of notional parts of speech in general and those of nouns, verbs, and adjectives in particular.

These same parts of speech, though considered to be "words in their dictionary form", functioning "as constituents of phrases", are also identified in English by R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik. Along with the four notionals, these grammarians also point out "a set of parts of speech", having a "closed system" in English. The "set" includes "article, demonstrative (*that, this*) pronouns, preposition, conjunction and interjection."

There is no doubt whatsoever concerning the status and the set to which, for example, different proper nouns like *Ann, Peter, Sam*, etc. should be allotted. Neither can there be any doubt in the substantival nature of words denoting specific national notions (*Miss, sir, hopak*) or internationalisms (*actress, emperor, computer, phoneme*) and many regular class nouns (*boy, girl, tree*). Neither can there be any denying the fact that words like "*do, hear, listen, read, write*", etc. can be allotted at first sight by every English language speaker to verbs, since they express action, whereas words like "*happy, new, older/younger*" are recognised as qualifiers of nouns, i. e. adjectives, and words like "*slowly, quickly, unanimously*" will be unerringly taken for qualifiers of actions, i. e. adverbs. Easily enough, already at language level, are identified pronouns (*he, she, we, they, who*), numerals (*ten, the first, the tenth*), conjunctions (*and, or, if, because*) and many other words having the same lexico-grammatical nature in English, Ukrainian, and in many other languages.

Consequently, apart from the semantically and morphologically indistinct conglomerates / "word classes"/ like AN, NVA, VN, etc. having no definite differentiation at language level, there also exist in English a bulk of words whose lexico-grammatical nature as a part of speech is quite evident and indisputable. These

words clearly disclose their lexico-grammatical identity already at language level (when taken separately, i.e. when singled out as in dictionary).

There is much common ground for a typological contrasting of the functional parts of speech as well, which in English and Ukrainian have often their lexico-grammatical nature quite explicit already at language level. This is observed, for example, in case of conjunctions (*and, but, or, if, either - or, neither - nor*, etc.), prepositions (*at, in, on, under*), interjections (*ah, oh, alas, humph*), and some particles (*not, to*). Most of these functionals, except for the articles, have absolute semantic and functional equivalents in Ukrainian. For example: *and - і, but - але, протє, or чи, if-якщо/якби, either-or, чи-чи, in - в/у, on - на, under - під, ah/oh-ах/ох, not-ні/не*, etc. As a result, these and a number of other functionals in English and Ukrainian are typologically relevant, i. e. isomorphic, in other words common.

It must be pointed out, however, that some parts of speech both among the notionals and among the semi-notionals/functionals are still disputable in the contrasted languages. Far from unanimously recognised as a separate part of speech by most Western and some Ukrainian linguists (A. Hryshchenko) is, for example, the stative (*alike, asleep*), which is considered by these grammarians to be a "predicative adjective". Still other Western grammarians are not quite sure about the numerals which they are inclined to identify as nouns (cardinals) or as relative adjectives (ordinals). Among these grammarians are also R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik. Up to now there is no unanimity yet among some grammarians concerning the status of the modal words ("perhaps, sure, certainly," etc.), or particles and even articles, which are not always recognised in English as a separate functional part of speech. This idea might have come to life because of the common in both languages phenomenon of "migration" of some parts of speech from one to another. For example: *a just man* (adj.), *he has just come* (adv.), *just a moment, please* (particle). Similarly in Ukrainian: *хто там?* (adv.), *де там?* (particle); *а там ще люди* (conjunctive element); *надворі холодно* (adv.); *мені холодно* (stative), etc.

On the ground of identical or similar semantic, morphological/formal and syntactic/functional properties pertaining to common lexico-grammatical classes of words, the number of notional parts of speech in English and Ukrainian may be considered (from the typological point of view) all in all the same – seven. Namely: noun, adjective, pronoun, numeral, verb, adverb, statives (іменник, прикметник, займенник, числівник, дієслово, прислівник, слова категорії стану).

ENGLISH	UKRAINIAN
Noun: identifies a person, place, thing, or idea. <i>cat, book, happiness</i>	Іменник <i>кіт, книга, радість</i>
Verb: describes an action, occurrence, or state of being. <i>run, eat, think</i>	Дієслово <i>бігти, їсти, думати</i>
Adjective: modifies or describes a noun. <i>red, tall, happy</i>	Прикметник <i>червоний, високий, щасливий</i>
Adverb: modifies or describes a verb, adjective, or another adverb. <i>quickly, very, often</i>	Прислівник <i>швидко, дуже, часто</i>
Pronoun: replaces a noun and functions as a substitute. <i>he, she, it, they</i>	Займенник <i>він, вона, воно, вони</i>
Preposition: shows relationships between nouns and other words in a sentence. <i>in, on, under</i>	Прийменник <i>у, на, під</i>
Conjunction: connects words, phrases, or clauses. <i>and, but, or</i>	Сполучник <i>і, але, або</i>
Interjection: expresses strong emotion or surprise: <i>wow, oh, hooray</i>	Вигук <i>ого, ой, ура</i>

As to the functionals (semi-notional words, as they are still sometimes called) their number in the contrasted languages is not identical, because present-day English has the article which is missing in Ukrainian. The rest of functionals are all common: conjunctions, prepositions, modal words and modal expressions, particles,

exclamations, articles (in English), *сполучники, прийменники, модальні слова та вирази, частки, вигуки*.

The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The approaches and principles to classifying parts of speech varied a good deal at different times. Only in English grammarians have been vacillating between 3 and 13 parts of speech. There are four approaches to the problem:

APPROACHES TO CLASSIFYING OF PARTS OF SPEECH

- Classical (logical-inflectional)
 - Functional
 - Distributional
 - Complex.
1. **The classical** one is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided into declinable and indeclinable ones. Declinable words included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, indeclinable words comprised adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. Being based on the principle of declinability/indeclinability is not relevant for analytical languages.
 2. According to **the functional** approach (Henry Sweet) to nominative parts of speech belonged noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), verb (finite verb, verbals - gerund, infinitive, participles), while adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection belonged to the group of articles.
 3. **A Distributional** approach to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by Charles Fries. He wanted to avoid the traditional terminology and establish a classification of words based on their ability to combine with other words of different types. At the same time, the lexical meaning of words was not taken into account.

4. In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated according to three, criteria: semantic, formal and functional. This approach is defined as **complex**.

The **semantic criterion** presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning).

The **formal criterion** reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features.

Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe:

- a) its semantics;
- b) its morphological features;
- c) its syntactic peculiarities.

In general **parts of speech** are defined as large lexico-grammatical classes of words singled out on the basis of identical or similar semantic, formal and functional properties.

The linguistic evidence drawn from our grammatical study makes it possible to divide all the words of the language into:

- those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc. – words with the corresponding references in the the objective reality – **notional words**;
- those having no references of their own in the objective reality and being mostly used only as grammatical means to form up and frame utterances – **function words**.

The number of notional parts of speech in English and in Ukrainian may be considered all in all the same – seven. Namely: noun, adjective, pronoun, numeral, verb, adverb, statives (7::7).

As to function words and their number in the contrasted languages it is not identical because of the article which is missing in Ukrainian. The rest of function words are all common: conjunctions, prepositions, modal words and expressions, particles and interjections (6::5).

TYPOLGY OF THE NOUN

The noun as a part of speech is characterized in both languages by the common grammatical meaning ‘substantiality’ or ‘**thingness**’.

The noun in English and Ukrainian is defined the part of speech that is used to name a person, place, thing, quality, or action and can function as the subject or object of a verb, the object of a preposition, or an appositive.

The noun possesses the semantic category of *definiteness* and *indefiniteness* in English and Ukrainian. Unlike English where *indefiniteness* is expressed via the corresponding markers, in Ukrainian it may sometimes be expressed also through grammatical shifting of the indefinite noun into the final position of the sentence. For example:

The door opened and the teacher entered the classroom
Двері відчинилися і вчитель увійшов до класу.

The group of collective nouns mentioned in many grammars is grammatically not homogeneous. Some collective nouns are countables (government, family, etc.), others are not in English (foliage, peasantry, etc.). If we consider, for example, Ukrainian collective nouns we shall see that unlike English collective nouns they are rather homogeneous since they denote a certain unity of the same or similar objects which are treated as one whole. Most often these are names of some living beings, plants, etc. They have distinct grammatical meaning in the way that they do not have the plural form since they denote the unity of a number of objects that cannot be counted. Ukrainian collective nouns are also characterized by gender and word-changing abilities. They can be easily recognized by suffixes they are typically used with. Material nouns are a peculiar group of uncountables, for example: air, iron, sugar, silver. Proper nouns are another, even more peculiar, group of uncountables (though sometimes they form number opposeemes, e.g.: Brown – the Browns (in English)).

The nouns in both languages can be contrasted according to the following criteria:

- 1) **Paradigmatic classes of nouns**: common and proper (mainly **isomorphic**).

Table 22. The subclasses of Nouns in English and Ukrainian

	Class	Collective	Materials	Abstract
I. common	<i>desk, flower, book; птаx, стіл,</i>	<i>cattle, crew, family; сім'я, худоба, гроші</i>	<i>salt, snow, air; цукор, нісок, борошно</i>	<i>love, fear, сум, радість</i>
	Names	Family names	Geographical	Titles
II. proper	<i>Ann, Nelly; Ганна, Андрій</i>	<i>Byron, Smith; Довженко</i>	<i>Chicago; Київ, Чорне море</i>	<i>The Daily Telegraph; Світоч</i>

!!! **Allomorphic** is the plural meaning of some collective nouns in English (police, cattle, gentry), while in Ukrainian they are always singular in their meaning.

2) **The system of suffixes and prefixes** (mainly **isomorphic**),

Allomorphic – but for evaluative augmentative (-ач, -ищ, юр: *ручище, собацюра*), diminutive suffixes and neuter gender forming suffixes (-к, -ц: *вушко, сальце*) missing in English (see table 16).

3) **Morphological categories**

a) **NUMBER** (mainly **isomorphic**).

Isomorphic:

1) the realization of the category. The only morphological category which is marked in present-day English is that of number. It is realized, like in Ukrainian, through zero and marked inflexions.

In English the plural may be formed with the help of inflexions; by inner change; and with the help of borrowed inflexions (see table 21).

2) classes of singularia tantum and pluralia tantum nouns expressing quantity.

Table 23. Isomorphic semantic groups of singularia/pluralia tantum nouns

		English	Ukrainian
SINGULARIA TANTUM	<i>parts of the world</i>	<i>the North, the West</i>	<i>захід, південь</i>
	<i>Material</i>	<i>gold, water</i>	<i>молоко, вода</i>
	<i>Collective</i>	<i>foliage, hair</i>	<i>білизна, птаство</i>
	<i>Abstract</i>	<i>peace, kindness</i>	<i>відвага, гамір</i>
PLURALIA TANTUM	<i>Summation</i>	<i>tongs, scissors</i>	<i>окуляри, ворота</i>
	<i>Remnants</i>	<i>scraps, leavings</i>	<i>висівки, недоїдки</i>
	<i>Games</i>	<i>cards, billiards</i>	<i>шахи, келі</i>
	<i>Abstract</i>	<i>outskirts, contents</i>	<i>будні, злидні</i>

Groups of Nouns

Collective nouns

The collection as an indivisible unit

e.g. *The family was large.*

Nouns of multitude

discrete plurality

e.g. *The family were fond of her house.*

(family, crew, team, crowd)

But:

The poor

The rich

The sick

(for sg.: the poor man)

only are

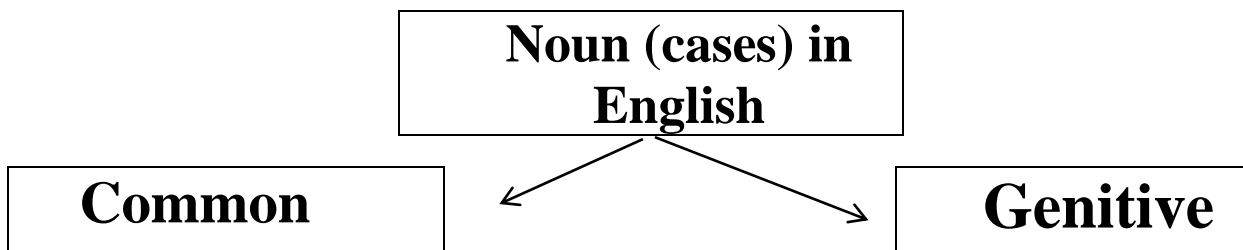
Ways of counting uncountable nouns

- a piece of cake/cheese
- a piece of furniture/luggage/paper
- a loaf of bread
- a piece/bar of chocolate/a box of chocolate
- a can/tin of soup
- a tube of toothpaste
- a bit of information/a piece/an item of information
- a piece/a slice of bread/toast
- a carton of milk/juice
- a glass of juice
- a cup of tea
- a bottle of water
- a liter of milk
- a kilo of sugar
- a meter of cotton
- a piece/sheet of paper
- a piece/lump of sugar/coal
- a piece/block of ice
- a pile/heap of rubbish
- a piece/an article of furniture
- a piece of research

ALLOMORPHIC:

- 1) Ukrainian number forming inflexions are predetermined by the declension group to which the noun is allotted, by the final consonant or vowel and partly by the gender of nouns;
- 2) The major allomorphic feature in the system of noun categories is the existence of the dual number in Ukrainian. The noun express the dual number in connection with the numerals 1, 2, 3 and 4. The number is mostly indicated by the stress which often differs from that of the general plural form (*сло́во-слова́, 4 сло́ва, верба́-ве́рби, 3 верба́и*);
- 3) Many nouns do not coincide in number in English and Ukrainian.
Pl.Engl.:S.Ukr. (*barracks-казарма, goods-товар, customs-митниця, police-поліція*)
S.Engl.:Pl.Ukr. (*cream-вершки, yeast-дріжджі, firewood-дрова, money-гроші*).
- 4) In English a lot of nouns have no clear number distinctions such as *deer, sheep, trout* etc. whereas in Ukrainian only borrowed words have no plural forms: *кенгуру таксі* тощо.

b) CASE (allomorphic).



<p style="text-align: center;">Meaning (semantic)</p>	<p>(general meaning)</p>	<p>Meanings: not only of possession of belonging <i>Jane's car</i> of a part of the whole <i>John's leg</i> of personal/social relations <i>John's wife</i> measure (time, distance) <i>an hour's trip, a mile's distance</i> agentive <i>the doctor's arrival = the doctor arrived</i> recipient <i>Sam's operation = Sam was operated</i> authorship <i>Shakespear's tragedy</i></p>												
<p style="text-align: center;">Form (structure)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No inflexion=unmarked • All the meanings are marked by prepositions: <p><i>the <u>leg</u> of the <u>table</u></i></p>	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="4" style="text-align: center;">Apostrophe s('s) – sg</th> </tr> <tr> <th style="width: 25%;">/z/</th> <th style="width: 25%;">/s/</th> <th style="width: 25%;">/iz/</th> <th style="width: 25%;">Zero endings</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1. <i>dog's</i> 2. <i>children's</i> 3. <i>passer-by's</i> (compound)</td> <td><i>week's</i></td> <td>1. /iz/ <i>judge's</i> 2. after /z/- /iz/ <i>Burns's –</i> <i>Burns'</i> 3. after /s/- /s/ or /iz/ <i>Tess's</i></td> <td>1. <i>a students' book</i> <i>with plural nouns</i> 2. with Greek nouns <i>Socrates' wife</i> <i>/'So:kreti:z/</i> <i>Xerxes' army</i> <i>/'Ze:ksi:z/</i></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Apostrophe s('s) – sg				/z/	/s/	/iz/	Zero endings	1. <i>dog's</i> 2. <i>children's</i> 3. <i>passer-by's</i> (compound)	<i>week's</i>	1. /iz/ <i>judge's</i> 2. after /z/- /iz/ <i>Burns's –</i> <i>Burns'</i> 3. after /s/- /s/ or /iz/ <i>Tess's</i>	1. <i>a students' book</i> <i>with plural nouns</i> 2. with Greek nouns <i>Socrates' wife</i> <i>/'So:kreti:z/</i> <i>Xerxes' army</i> <i>/'Ze:ksi:z/</i>
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<p style="text-align: center;">Functional (usage)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • nouns denoting inanimate objects • nouns denoting abstract notions <p>of +noun (common case)</p>	<p>nouns denoting living beings nouns denoting measure nouns denoting countries/towns nouns naming newspapers/organizations nouns: <i>ship boat</i> <i>nation car</i> <i>country moon</i> <i>city earth</i> <i>town</i></p>												

The expression of case relations in English remains a controversial problem.

Usually we speak of **2: Common and Genitive cases** in English.

Ukrainian nouns can have **7** marked singular and plural oppositions in

Nominative – *хмара*

Genitive – *хмари*

Dative – *хмарі*

Accusative – *хмару*

Instrumental – *хмарою*

Locative – *на хмарі*

Vocative – *хмаро.*

<p align="center"><u>GENITIVE DEPENDENT</u></p> <p>both a premodifier and a noun used (pre) modifier +headword (noun)</p> <p align="center"><i>It is <u>Mary's</u> <u>house</u>.</i> premodifier noun</p>	<p align="center"><u>GENITIVE INDEPENDENT</u> (ABSOLUTE)</p> <p>No noun used (only a premodifier used which stands for the whole phrase:</p> <p align="center"><i>It is <u>Mary's</u>.</i> premodifier (<i>It is our house. And it is Mary's</i>)</p>
<p>A premodifier is used <u>before</u> the noun as the headword <i>My <u>mother's</u> friend.</i></p> <p align="center">Cf.: (<i><u>My</u> old friend</i>)</p> <p>Possessive pronoun: conjoint form</p>	<p>A premodifier is used <u>after</u> the noun as the headword <i>A friend of my <u>mother's</u>.</i></p> <p align="center">Cf.: (<i>an old friend <u>of mine</u></i>)</p> <p>Possessive pronoun: absolute form</p>
	<p>Used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • avoid repetition • name shops <i>the butcher's</i> <i>the baker's</i> • designate institutions <i>St. Paul's (=Cathedral)</i> • denote places of residence <i>at my uncle's (=house)</i>

GROUP GENITIVE

1. with a group of nouns denoting a single unity:

mum and dad's room (=кімнати окремі)

2. with a phrase or a clause:

the man I saw yesterday's son

3. with nouns modified by pronouns: *someone else's benefit*

4. with nouns modified by a group of words denoting measure: *in an hour or two's time*

DOUBLE GENITIVE

The boy's half-hour's run

modifier 1

modifier 2

noun as a headword

Definition: **a phrase with a noun as a headword with two or more modifiers in the Genitive Case**

c) GENDER (allomorphic).

There are no gender distinctions in – Estonian, Finnish, Japanese, Turkic;

2 genders (no neuter) – in Italian, Spanish, French, Danish;

3 genders (feminine, masculine and neuter) – in German, Ukrainian.

In Ukrainian the morphological category of gender is identified through:

1) a marked inflexion in the Nominative Case – *село, мишка, мама*;

2) a zero inflexion – *стіл, ніч*;

3) suffixes or suffixes+endings – *робітник, вчителька*;

4) the inflexions of the adjunct/attribute modifying the noun – *гарний актор, гарна акторка, гарне дитя* and inflexions of the finite forms of the verb – *актор грав, акторка грала, дитя грало*.

We can speak of the category of gender in English only on the background that nouns can be substituted by corresponding personal pronouns (*a man – he, a woman – she, a child – it*)

d) Definiteness/indefiniteness (allomorphic due to the article).

The category of definiteness and indefiniteness may be identified in English and Ukrainian both at language and at speech level. The main means of making the noun definite in English is to use the definite or indefinite (zero) article. For example: *Bristol* (zero article) means the town of Bristol, whereas *the Bristol* is the name of a hotel. Similarly even with such a proper noun as *Україна* which, when used without the definite article, means the country of Ukraine, but when presented in inverted commas it will mean anything: *готель "Україна"*, for example.

The expression of indefiniteness in Ukrainian is likewise realised with the help of the indefinite pronouns *якийсь (якась, якась)*, through the indefinite numeral *один (одна, одне)* or via the indefinite pronouns *якийсь/ якась, якась* plus the adjuncts expressing the characteristic features of the person or object. Eg: *Якийсь*

Петренко там чекає на вас. Був собі *один чоловік* і мав він два сини. Навіть *один страшний* день війни запам'ятався кожному навіки.

Unlike English where indefiniteness is expressed via the corresponding markers, in Ukrainian it may sometimes be expressed also through grammatical shifting of the indefinite noun into the final position of the sentence. For example: *The door opened and **the teacher** entered the classroom.* To express indefiniteness, the noun will be shifted to the final position: *Двері відчинилися і вчитель увійшов до класу. The door opened and **a teacher** entered the classroom. Двері відчинилися і до класу ввійшов учитель.* Therefore, the category of definiteness and indefiniteness is equally pertained to both contrasted languages.

The noun in English and in Ukrainian can be made definite/indefinite semantically by morphological and syntactic means.

Morphological means are: 1) the article (in English);

2) demonstrative or possessive pronouns (in both languages);

3) indefinite pronouns *some, any, хтось*.

Syntactic means are adjuncts: *The Tory government, палац ‘Україна’*

TYPOLGY OF THE ADJECTIVE

The **adjective** as a part of speech is characterized in English and Ukrainian by its common lexico-grammatical nature and common functions in the sentence. It expresses the quality of things or substances (*a **nice** flower, **urgent** measures*) and can serve as a predicative complement after the copula-verb (*the child **was small**, дитя було **маленьке***).

Isomorphic:

I. The **adjective** as a part of speech is characterized in the contrasted languages by:

1) the common **general lexico-grammatical meaning** (qualitativeness) –

a nice flower, цікава книга;

2) common **syntactic functions** in the sentence:

▪ an attribute – *a high tree;*

▪ a predicative complement – *the child is small, she grew nervous,*

дитя було маленьке, вона стала знервованою).

II. **Structurally** the English and the Ukrainian adjectives can be:

1) **simple**, which are regular root words: *big, bold, clean, high, old*. Regular simple adjectives are rather rare and few in Ukrainian like *варт, рад, жив (-здоров)*;

2) **derivative**, which include affixes: *boyish, capable, grammatical, English, товариський, березовий, багатющий*;

3) **compound** consisting of several roots or stems: *four-storied, many-sided, багатопверховий, всемогутній*.

III. **Paradigmatic classes** (mainly isomorphic). The adjectives according to their semantic capacity can be qualitative, relative or possessive relative.

1. **Qualitative adjectives** (see examples in the table 24) undergo grading. Gradability in both languages is achieved by means of special affixes –**er** for the Comparative degree, –**est** for the Superlative degree.

The way of reflecting the morphological category of degree in both languages can be synthetic or analytical. Of isomorphic nature in the contrasted languages is the existence of suppletivity (*good – better – the best, гарний – кращий - найкращий*).

2. **Relative adjectives** express qualities characterizing objects and phenomena through their relations to other objects or phenomena (see the examples in the table).

To relative also belong **possessive-relative** which are formed in English from nouns denoting names (*Aesopian*) or family names (see the examples in the table).

Ukrainian possessive-relative adjectives are formed by adding the suffixes – **ЕВК, ЦЬК, ЗЬК** (*Малишківський, вояцький, козацький*).

Adjectives split into some isomorphic and allomorphic classes presented in the table below:

Table 24. Typological classes of English vs Ukrainian adjectives

ISOMORPHIC CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES			ALLOMORPHIC CLASS
<i>Qualitative</i>	<i>Relative</i>	<i>Possessive-relative</i>	<i>Possessive</i> (only in Ukrainian)
<i>Cold, big, red, малий, жовтий</i>	<i>Golden, wooden, святковий, вечірній</i>	<i>Byronian, Shakespearean, Дніпровський, Шевченківський</i>	<i>Мамин/материн, вовків (хвіст) лисиччина (хатка)</i>

Allomorphic:

1) English and Ukrainian adjectives can sometimes **not correlate structurally and semantically**.

E.g. English compound adjective *upright* corresponds to the Ukrainian derivative *чесний, прямий, вертикальний*.

E.g. English compound adjective *breast-high* can have in Ukrainian only a phrase equivalent *занурений до грудей* etc.

2) Pertaining only to Ukrainian (and to some Slavonic languages) are **possessive adjectives**, which are formed from common and proper nouns denoting living being by adding to their roots/stems the suffixes – **ів, -ин/-ін, -ов, -ач/-яч**: *сестрин, лікарів, равликова, лисячий*.

Their corresponding forms in English are the nouns in the Genitive case: *lion's, Nick's* etc.

Most qualitative adjectives in English and Ukrainian are gradable. Gradability in both compared languages is achieved by means of the positive (звичайний), the comparative (вищий), and the superlative (найвищий) degrees markers. The way of grading in the compared languages may be synthetic or analytical. The employment of the synthetic way of grading is restricted in English mostly to base adjectives, eg: *big*,

bigger, biggest; long, longer, longest; young, younger, youngest, etc. This way of grading have also English adjectives in **-able, -er, -ow, -y** (*narrow, narrower, narrowest; happy, happier, happiest*) and the two-syllable adjectives with the concluding stressed syllable (eg: *concise, conciser, concisest; complete, completer, completest*).

The analytical forms of grading are more often employed in English than in Ukrainian, eg: *important, more/less important, the most/the least important*. But: *більш/менш, найбільш/найменш придатний, більш/менш економний*.

In Ukrainian the synthetic way of grading is more often used. It is formed by means of the suffixes **-іш-/-ш** - and the prefixes **най-, щонай-** or **якнай-**, eg: *добрий, добріший, найдобріший/якнайдобріший; сміливий, сміливіший, найсміливіший*. Ukrainian adjectives that form their comparative and superlative degrees by means of the suffix **-и-** undergo some transformations in their stems which is allomorphic for English adjectives.

These are as follows: a) the suffixes **-к-, -ок-, -ек-** fall out: *глибокий, глибший, найглибший; далекий, дальший, найдальший*); b) the suffix **-ш-** changes **-ш-** into **-жч-** (*дорогий, дорожчий, найдорожчий; близький, ближчий, найближчий; дужий, дужчий, найдужчий*); and c) the final consonant **/с/** before **/т/** changes as the result of dissimilation/assimilation processes into **/щ/**: *високий, вищий, найвищий*.

The comparative or the superlative (or both) degrees of some Ukrainian adjectives, as was already shown above, may be formed by analytical means, most of which are intensifying adverbs: *більш/менш, найбільше, багато/набагато, значно, куди*. Of isomorphic nature in the compared languages is the existence of suppletivity (in actually the same English and Ukrainian adjectives), eg: *good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; добрий, кращий, найкращий; поганий, гірший, найгірший; гарний, кращий, найкращий*.

The functions of adjectives in the sentence are common in the compared languages.

TYOLOGY OF THE NUMERAL

In both contrasted languages numerals are divided into cardinal (*one, один*) and ordinal (*the first, перший*). Ukrainian cardinal numerals have the peculiar group of indefinite numerals (*кілька, декілька, багато*). Besides Ukrainian numerals possess such a peculiar subgroup as collective numerals (*двоє, троє*), denoting a certain quantity of objects as a whole. One more peculiarity of the system of Ukrainian numerals is the diminutive forms of collective numerals (*двійко, трійко*). The English language does not have collective numerals and diminutive forms are met only by nouns. Some meanings of indefinite quantity are expressed here with the help of quantitative adjectives and adverbs (*many, much, few, little, a little*).

As to the stem structure English and Ukrainian numerals fall into: simple or root numerals (*one, twelve, три, сорок*); derivative numerals (*thirteen, twenty, тринадцять, двадцять*); compound numerals (*twenty-one, двадцять один*); composite numerals (*nine hundred and three, одна тисяча вісімсот десять*).

Fractional numerals have as well a similar way of formation. The difference is that in Ukrainian the cardinal numeral for the numerator is in the nominative case and is combined with the ordinal for the denominator, which is in the genitive case plural (*пять шостих*). In English numerals do not have the category of case, but the ordinal numeral for the denominator acquires the plural form (*five sixths*).

English and Ukrainian numerals are similar to their lexico-grammatical meanings, ways of stem-building, combinability and syntactic functions, but they differ greatly regarding their grammatical categories. Unlike their English counterparts, Ukrainian numerals possess the categories of gender (*третій – третя – третє*), case (*три – трьох – трьом*), and number (*перший – перші*). Ordinal numerals resemble adjectives not only in having the categories of number, gender and case, but in the forms of the grammatical morphemes as well (*третій – мужній, третього – мужнього*). Cardinal numerals do not possess the categories of number and gender, with the exception of *один, два*. Therefore, the numeral in English is an indeclinable part of speech, whereas in Ukrainian it is declined according to the same six cases as nouns.

Isomorphic:

- 1) The numeral in both languages has **common general lexico-grammatical meaning** 'quantitativeness'.

- 2) **Structure.** The common classes are:
- simple (*one, ten, три*),
 - derivative (*thirteen, fifty, тринадцять*),
 - compound (*fifty-two, ninety-one, двадцять три*)
 - composite (*one hundred and twenty, одна тисяча триста сорок два*).
- 3) **Syntactic functions:**
- subject (*Four are present – Четверо присутні*),
 - object (*I like the second – Мені подобається другий*),
 - attribute (*It is my first trip – Це моя перша подорож*),
 - predicative (*He is the second – Він – другий*),
 - adverbial modifier (*They marched three and three – Вони йшли по три*).
- 4) **Combinability**
- with nouns (*4 days, перший крок*),
 - with pronouns (*all three, п'ятеро з них*),
 - with numerals (*one of the first, один з перших*),
 - with adverbs (*the two below, четверо позаду*),
 - with infinitives (*the first to come, перша прийти*).
- 5) **Paradigmatic classes:**
- cardinal (denoting the number of objects): *5, 56, 167*;
 - ordinal (denoting the order of objects): *5th, 56th, 122nd* ;
 - fractional (denoting a part of an object): *two-thirds, the fifth, три четвертих*.

Allomorphic:

- All classes of numerals are **declinable** in Ukrainian: *десять, десятьох, десятьом, десятьма; перший, першого, першому* тощо.
- Besides, the Ukrainian language has **two more classes** of numerals unknown in English:
 - indefinite cardinal numerals: *декілька, кілька, кільканадцять, кількасот*;

b) collective numerals: *семеро, тридцятьеро*.

- 3) The expression of number can be different in numeral classes. In Ukrainian: *Розділ перший* (ordinal numeral is used), while in English : *Chapter One* (cardinal numeral is used)

TYPOLOGY OF THE PRONOUN

Isomorphic:

- 1) The pronoun in both languages has common **general lexico-grammatical meaning** ‘deictic substitution’.
- 2) **Structure**. The common classes are:
 - **simple** (*I, he, she, я ти*),
 - **compound** (*myself, someone, nobody, абихто, хто-небудь*) composite (*somebody else, this same, той самий, я сам*).
- 3) **Syntactic functions**:
 - subject (*He is present – Вони присутні*),
 - object (*I like them – Мені вони подобаться*),
 - attribute (*It is my book – Це моя ручка*),
 - predicative (*He is mine – Він твій*).
- 4) **Correlation**
 - a. with nouns (*he/Peter, вона/Ганна*),
 - b. with adjectives (*his, her, your, твоя, моя*),
 - c. with numerals (*some, much, багато, мало*).
- 5) **Paradigmatic classes** (its constituents):
 1. Personal (*I, he, she, вона, вони*);
 2. Possessive (*my-mine, his-his, her-hers, your-yours, мій, твій, ваш*);
 3. Reflexive (*myself, himself, ourselves, себе*);
 4. Demonstrative (*this, that, such, цей, той*);
 5. Interrogative (*who, what, which, whose, який, котрий, чий*);
 6. Relative (perform the function of connectors): *I know what to do, Я знаю, що робити*.
 7. Reciprocal (*each other, one another, один-одного, одні одну, одні одних*);

8. Defining (*each, all, every, everyone, either, other, both, всякий, кожен*)
9. Indefinite (*some, any, something, anything, хто-небудь, казна-що*)
10. Negative (*no, none, neither, nobody, ніхто, нічий*).

Allomorphic:

1) **Number.** Most Ukrainian pronouns have the morphological category of number (but for reflexive *себе*).

In English the category of number is peculiar only of:

- demonstrative pronouns (*this-these*);
- defining (*other-others*).

2) **Gender.** Most Ukrainian pronouns have the morphological category of gender. In English there is no gender distinction of pronouns.

3) **Case.** Most Ukrainian pronouns have the morphological category of case and are declinable.

Pronouns in English have two cases:

a) the Nominative and the Objective:

- personal (*I-me*),
- relative (*who-whom*);
- interrogative (*who-whom*);

b) the Common and the Genitive:

- indefinite (*somebody-somebody's*);
- negative (*nobody-nobody's*);
- reciprocal (*each other-each other's*).

4) **Some classes.**

a) There is no equivalent for the Ukrainian **personal pronoun *ТИ*** in English.

b) in English we differentiate **conjoint and absolute forms of possessive pronouns**: *my–mine, his–his, her–hers, your–yours*.

TYPOLOGY OF THE VERB

ISOMORPHIC:

1. **The lexico-grammatical meaning of ‘verbiality’** (isomorphic for both languages), i.e. to convey:

- different kinds of activity (*jump, run, walk*),
- various processes (*boil, grow*),
- inner states of persons (*feel, hate*),
- possession (*have, possess, own*) etc.

2. **Derivational potential (Verb-building suffixes):**

-ate, -fy, -en, -ize, -esce – *liquidate, simplify, darken, emphasize, acquiesce*;
-ти, -ть, -тися, ться – *ходити, миритися, вчиться*.

3. **Combinability** with:

- nominal parts of speech (*The girl reads books, юнак читав газету*);
- verbs (*to start to write, почати писати*);
- adverbs (*to run quickly, швидко читати*);
- prepositions (*to rely on, покладатися на*);
- conjunctions (*neither sleep nor eat*).

4. **Syntactic function of the predicate**

5. **Suppletive forms of some verbs** (*be-was-were, go-went, бути-є, йти-пішов, брати-взяв*).

6. **Paradigmatic classes:**

- Notional–Semi-notional–Auxiliary (functional significance) *go, ask VS shall VS did*;
- Finite–Non-Finite (nature of predication) *to type – having typed* (PI);
- Transitive–Intransitive/Objective–Subjective (implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity) *read, find VS go, sit*. Some English intransitive verb can become in some contexts transitive: *to walk the dog*;
- of Obligatory–Optional valency (combinability) *see – think*;
- of Directed–Non-directed action (*see, take – arrive, drizzle*);
- Stative–Dynamic (*stay, remain – go, run, read*).

Allomorphic:

Diversified system of tenses in English

	PAST	PRESENT	FUTURE
SIMPLE	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• For finished action or events at a specific point in time• Succession of actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Facts• Habits• States• Repeated actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• For future events or action• In predictions• For on-the-spot decisions• For promises/offers/requests• In expressing wish
CONTINUOUS	For events and actions in progress at a past point in time	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Actions in progress at the present time• Temporary actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• For actions in progress at a stated future point in time• For future actions as a matter of routine
PERFECT	For events or action that took place before a certain point in time.	For finished action that have an effect on the present	For future events or actions that will finish before a certain point in time
PERFECT CONTINUOUS	For events or actions in progress before a certain past point in time.	For actions which began in the past and continue now	For future actions to show how long an action will be in progress up to a certain point in time.

Allomorphic:

**TENSE FORMS, ASPECT AND PERFECT MEANINGS IN THE
UKRAINIAN VERBS**

TENSE	No ASPECT	NON-PERFECT	PERFECT
Present	Common= Continuous	читає	
Past		читав	прочитав
Future		читатиме/ буде читати	прочитає

Thus, in contrast to English tenses Ukrainian forms:

- 1) do not have aspect variation,
- 2) perfect meaning is limited to the prefixes only,
- 3) there is no future-in-the-past tense,
- 4) are expressed synthetically with parallel synthetic and synthetic-analytical future forms,
- 5) do not change in reported speech or in conditionals 1, 2, 3

The category of number of verbs in the contrasted languages

The category of number shows whether the action is associated with one doer or with more than one. Accordingly it denotes something fundamentally different from what is indicated by the number of nouns. We see here not the “oneness” or “more-than-oneness” of actions, but the connection with the singular or plural doer. For example, He eats three times a day does not indicate a single eating but a single eater.

The category is represented in its purity in the opposeme *was – were* in the English language and accordingly in all analytical forms containing *was – were* (*was – writing – were writing, was written – were written*).

In *am – are, is – are* or *am, is – are* it is blended with person. Likewise in *speaks – speak* we actually have the “third person singular” opposed to the “non-third-person singular”.

Accordingly the category of number is represented not fully enough in Modern English. Some verbs do not distinguish number at all because of their peculiar historical development: *I (we) can ..., he (they) must ...*, others are but rarely used in the singular because the meaning of “oneness” is hardly compatible with their lexical meanings, e.g.: *to crowd, to conspire*, etc.

In Ukrainian the category of number is expressed in the forms of three pairs of opposition: 1ST person singular – 1ST person plural (*я читаю – ми читаємо*), 2ND person singular – 2ND person plural (*ти читаєш – Ви читаєте*), 3^D person singular – 3^D person plural (*він читає – вони читають*).

Thus, it can be stated, that in both languages the category of number is tightly connected with the category of person. The system of the Ukrainian verb expresses the category of number very distinctly: the forms of singular and plural are characteristic of the majority of Ukrainian verbs in all three moods – indicative, imperative and conditional (дійсний, наказовий, умовний).

ALLOMORPHIC:

1. **Combinability** of the English verbs with postpositional prepositions (*What are you driving at?*)
2. Classes of **regular-irregular** verbs (way of forming past tenses) *work – worked VS take-took-taken*.
3. **Reflexive verbs** in Ukrainian ending in *-ся*: *вмиватися, дивуватися, зустрічатися* тощо, the equivalents of which are formed in English with the help of reflexive pronouns *oneself, himself* in case the action needed some effort (*to wash oneself, to shave oneself*). This phenomenon is known in English as Semantic voices as far as they have no special forming up though preserve some voice meaning. To Semantic voices in English belong Reflexive voice (*to wash, to dress*), Middle voice (e.g. *The door opened*) and Reciprocal voice (e.g. *They met*).
4. Classes of Ukrainian verbs are organized into 2 **declensions**.
5. The predominance of **analytical paradigm** in English to express tense, aspect and voice.
6. The **expression of the Passive Voice** in Ukrainian with the help of synthetic means (*книга написана*) alongside of analytical (*книга була написана*).
7. Ukrainian verbs, unlike English ones, can be formed with the help of diminutive suffixes: **-ки, -оньки**: *питки, спатки, питоньки, спатоньки*.

The isomorphic and allomorphic categories of the verb are summarized in the following table:

Table 25. Morphological categories of the English and Ukrainian verbs

Category	Means of realization in English (S-synthetic, A - analytical)	Means of realization in Ukrainian (S-synthetic, A - analytical)
<i>ISOMORPHIC</i>		
Person	S <i>I know-he knows</i>	S <i>Я знаю-Вона знає</i>
Number	S <i>He reads-They read</i>	S <i>Я знаю-Вони знають</i>
Tense	S-A <i>I work-I worked- I shall have done that if...</i>	S-A <i>Я читаю-Він читав</i>
Mood	S-A <i>Let us sing. Stand up! He would have been here...</i>	S-A <i>Читай. Нум я вам заспіваю! Читав би швидше!</i>
<i>ALLOMORPHIC</i>		
Aspect	S-A <i>He is working</i>	S <i>Він читає</i>
Phase	S-A <i>He has done/worked</i>	S <i>Вона написала</i>
Voice	S-A <i>The letter is written</i>	S//S-A <i>Лист написаний / був написаний</i>

TYOLOGY OF NON-FINITES

- do not function as predicates, only as a part of it (they do not have number, tense, person or mood distinctions).

The boss is promoting Mr.Smith.

- cannot make sentences, they form only word-combinations (SECOND PREDICATION) known in Grammar as predicative constructions:

I like the idea of the boss promoting Mr.Smith.

- also called VERBALS because they are made from the verb.

These forms possess some

1) verbal and some 2) non-verbal features.

The main **VERBAL FEATURE** of the infinitive and participles I and II is that they denote actions and can be used as part of analytical verbal forms (*is standing, is built, have come, will do, etc.*)

- Lexically non-finites do not differ from finite forms.
- Grammatically the difference between the two types of forms lies in the fact that non-finites may denote a secondary action or a process related to the primary (main) one expressed by the finite verb.

Their **NON-VERBAL CHARACTER** reveals itself in their SYNTACTICAL FUNCTIONS which coincide with the Noun (for Inf, G) or Adjective (for PI,II).

For instance, **the Infinitive in both L-s (as well as the Gerund in E only)** performs the main syntactical **functions** of:

SUBJECT (*To read is interesting*),

OBJECT (*I like to read*) and

PREDICATIVE (*My aim is to read it*).

- **Participle I** functions as attribute, predicative and adverbial modifier;
- **Participle II** as attribute and predicative.

Я ЛЮБЛЮ ЇЇ СПІВ (VN) /

Я ЛЮБЛЮ, ЯК ВОНА СПІВАЄ (V)

INFINITIVES

Infinitives in the contrasted languages

1) are marked differently (*To read: читати*)

- *E Infinitives are marked by the particle to.*

- *U Infinitives are composed with the gram.suffix –ти.*

2) *Simple Inf in E can have different forms as its counterparts in U:*

He can see (Simple Inf) it. -

Він може бачити (Imperfective)/нобачити (Perfective) це.

3) *The past action in E is shown by the Inf. of the main verb while in U it can be indicated by the past form of the modal verb: He can have seen it. - Він міг це бачити.*

Infinitives **IN ENGLISH**

can have 4 aspects

He can read. (Simple)

He can be reading now. (Cont/Prog)

He can have read that book. (Perf)

He can have been reading it for 3 weeks. (Perf.Cont)

Infinitives **IN UKRAINIAN**

can be of 2 aspects (imperfective::perfective):

читати-прочитати

PARTICIPLES

Participles are found both in English and Ukrainian

Allomorphic features:

- *Divergent is Diyepriislivnik in Ukrainian*
- *P I,II in English can serve as attributes to the N (a reading man), or as adverbial modifiers to the verb (While reading he was making notes.)*
- *in Ukrainian the functions of attributes belongs to Diyeprikmetnik active or passive (Cf.: прочитана книга - attr, Книга прочитана -predicative), and the adverbial modifiers to Diyepriislivnik (Читаючи книгу, він робив помітки.)*
- *English PI active corresponds to Diyeprikmetnik active in U ending in -уч, -юч, ач, -яч which is not often used. Instead it is changed for an attributive*

clause: *Читающий – той, що читає.*

VERBALS active forms

There are four Verbals in the English language: the Infinitive, the Gerund, Participle I and Participle II **with** Diyeprislivnik and **no Gerund in Ukrainian:**

	Infinitives (4:2)	Gerund	Participle I	Participle II
E	1. to do= 2. to be doing≠ 3. to have done= 4. to have been doing≠	1. doing 2. having done	1. doing 2. having done	done (always with passive meaning!)
U	1. робити 2. зробити	There is no gerund in U	=Diyeprislivnik in U роблячи/сміючи <u>сь</u> (Imperf) Зробивши/ <u>сь</u> (Perf)	зроблений (only perfective in meaning - Diyeprismetnik passive)
Tr	<i>I am happy ...</i> = <i>Я щасливий, що ...</i>	<i>She denies her <u>being</u> there.</i> = <i>Вона заперечує, що...</i>	<i>Washing my dog I was signing. <u>Having washed</u> my dog I phoned her. (PI in E= Diyeprislivnik in U)</i>	<i>That was the question <u>asked</u> at the meeting.</i> = <i>котре було поставлене</i>

VERBALS passive

Passive forms are common to English Inf, G and PI but for in Ukrainian G (completely missing) :

Infinitive	Gerund	Participle I	Participle II
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> o be done o have been done 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> eing done 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> being doing having been done 	No passive forms as it is always with passive meaning!
бути зробленим (only perfective!)	There is no gerund in U	будучи зробленим ? (only perfective Diyepriislivnik in U and rare in use)	
<p><i>My dog is happy</i> <u>to be washed</u> ≠ / <u>to have been washed</u> =. <i>Inf = Tr≠</i></p>	<p><i>My dog doesn't like</i> <u>being washed.</u> ≠</p>	<p><u>Being washed,</u> my dog saw a sparrow. ≠ <u>Having been washed,</u> my dog fell asleep. <i>P.I = Tr≠</i></p>	—

NON-FINITES VERBAL FEATURES

ALLMORPHIC	ISOMORPHIC
<p>Non-finites possess the verb categories of voice, perfect (phase), and aspect, but <u>they lack</u> the categories of <u>person, number, mood, and tense in E unlike U where person and number still marked (<u>зроблений/-а, -е</u>)</u>.</p> <p>All non-finite verb forms <u>in E unlike U</u> may participate in the so-called predicative constructions, that is, two-component syntactical units where a noun or a pronoun and a non-finite verb form are in predicative relations similar to those of the subject and the predicate: <i>I heard <u>Jane singing</u>; We waited <u>for the train to pass</u>; I saw <u>him run</u>, etc.</i></p>	<p>Syntactically the verbal character of non-finites is manifested mainly in their combinability. Similarly to finite forms they may combine with nouns functioning as direct, indirect, or prepositional objects, with adverbs and prepositional phrases used as adverbial modifiers, and with subordinate clauses.</p>

NON-FINITES in U and E (allomorphisms)

1. **GERUND** is not available in U (instead there is a verbal noun, which also exists in E and is signaled by the article as well as the plural marker: Cf.: *Reading (G) books is interesting. The readings (VN) of books is interesting*).

INFINITIVES:

2. There are 2 Infinitives in U- perfective and imperfective, while 4 in E – indefinite/simple, progressive, perfect and perfect progressive.
3. There is no **progressive and perfect progressive Inf** in U.
4. Passive *Inf* (*бути зробленим*) and *Diyeprislivnik* (*будучи зробленим*) (*rare*) in U can be used only with **perfective** meaning unlike E where both non-perfect and perfect PI can be

found (*being done, having been done*).

5. The Inf as an attribute (*the task to do*) is rendered into U by an attributive clause (*котре слід зробити*) or a prepositional phrase (*на виконання*).

PARTICIPLES

6. Participle in English corresponds to Diyeprikmetnik and Diyepriislivnik in Ukrainian.
7. Participles I in U (Diyepriislivnik) can have the reflexive meaning signalled by the postfix:
роблячи/сь (Imperf), *зробивши/сь* (Perf).

General

8. Synth in U while S-Anal in E:
non-perfect::perfect
(йти::прийти) :: (*to do::to have done*),
aspect (*йти::ходити*) ::
(*to go::to be going:: to have been going*).
being more diversified in E.
9. Verbals can form the predicative constructions in E.

English versus Ukrainian Verbals

Verbal	English	Ukrainian
Infinitive	<i>active</i> : to ask; to understand <i>passive</i> : to be asked; to be understood	<i>активний</i> : запитувати <i>пасивний</i> : бути запитаним
Non-progressive	<i>active</i> : to ask somebody <i>perfect</i> : to have asked somebody <i>passive</i> : to have been asked by smb.	<i>недоконаного виду</i> : лить, цвісти, їсти; <i>доконаного виду</i> : збити, зацвісти, відцвісти, поспати, попоїсти
Progressive infinitive	<i>active</i> : to be asking somebody <i>perfect</i> : to have been asking somebody	not available not available
Gerund	<i>active</i> : asking <i>passive</i> : being asked <i>active perfect</i> : having asked <i>passive perfect</i> : having been asked	Gerund - not available <i>Дієприслівник</i> активний теперішнього часу: йдучи, маючи, знаючи, очікуючи <i>активний минулого часу</i> : йшовши, мавши, знавши, за/почекавши
Participle I	<i>Present active</i> : asking <i>passive</i> : being asked <i>Perfect active</i> : having asked <i>Perfect passive</i> : having been asked	<i>Дієприкметник</i> активний теперішнього часу: читаючий, читаюча, читаюче, мигаючий, мигаюча, мигаюче активний минулого часу: перемігший, здолавший, усміхнений
Participle II	<i>Passive (only past)</i> : asked, made, decided, seen, purchased, etc.	<i>пасивний минулого часу</i> : запрошений, пройдений, здійснений

The tabulated forms of verbals in both languages above testify to the existence of allomorphisms both in their structural forms and in their categorical meanings. Thus, the English infinitive is always distinguished by its identifier "to" (*to come, to be asked, to be doing*), whereas the Ukrainian infinitive is characterised by the suffixes **-ти, -ть, -тись, -тися**. The suffix **-ти** is always added to the stem ending in a consonant (бігти, везти, сісти), and the suffix **-ть**, like the suffix **-тися/ -тись**, may be added to a stem ending either in a vowel or in a consonant (носити/ носить,

носитися/носитись; їхати/їхать, сіяти/сіять).

Specifically Ukrainian, as was pointed out, is the diminutive infinitive formed by combined suffixes: спатки, **спатоньки**, спатусі, спатусеньки, купці, **купоньки**, **сістоньки**, **їстоньки**.

Allomorphy is observed in the categorical meanings of the infinitive and the participle. The infinitive in Ukrainian has no **perfect** (perfective) **passive form**, **no continuous** aspect form, **no perfect active and perfect passive** forms of the Participle that are pertained to present-day English. Cf. to have slept, to be sleeping, to have been seen; having been asked/having asked, etc.

The gerund and the *diyepryslivnyk* present allomorphic verbals in English and Ukrainian respectively. As a result, they can not be contrasted in any way. The gerund has both verbal and noun characteristics, the former being those of tense and voice (*asking – being asked, having asked – having been asked*) and the ability of taking an objective complement: I like *reading books*, as well as the ability of being modified by an adverb: *Going quickly* never tirs him. The noun characteristics of the gerund find their expression in its functions in the sentence as subject, object, the predicative part, the attribute, and as an adverbial modifier of manner. For example, as subject and predicative: *Deciding is acting* (Saying). As object: He won't stand *beating*. As an attribute: She found an opportunity *of taking* him away. As adverbial modifiers: The Mouse shook its head impatiently *without opening its eyes* (L. Carroll). The rain poured down *without ceasing* (Maugham), *On arriving* at the garden entrance, he stopped to look at the view (Galsworthy). The gerund can also be a complex subject, a complex object and other parts of the sentence (Cf. *His being* ill is unknown to me. That was his *being ill* that spoiled everything. I know nothing of *his being ill*) etc.

The Ukrainian *diyepryslivnyk*, whether active or passive or non-perfective present and perfective past, remains an indeclinable verbal form. The *diyepryslivnyk* may be formed, respectively, from the present stem of the verb or from the infinitive of both the transitive and intransitive verbs. The imperfective (present) *diyepryslivnyk* is formed from the present stem of the verb belonging to the first verbal declension by adding the suffix **-учи/-ючи**. Cf. *нес/уть* + **-учи**: *несучи*; *працю/ють* + **-ючи** – *працюючи*. Cf. *Слухаючи* їх жартівливу розмову, уверне слівце й од себе (Нечуй-Левицький).

Perfective (past) *diyepryslivnyk* is formed from the infinitival stems with the help of the suffix **-ши**, added to the stem that ends in a consonant, or the suffix **-вши** that is added to the stem of perfective and non-perfective verbs which end in a consonant: *донес/ти* + **-ши** – *донісиши*; *привез/ти/* + **-ши** – *привізиши* and *similarly* *знавши, тивши, ївши*, etc. When the infinitival stem ends in a vowel, the suffix **-вши** is added: *здола/ти/* + **-вши** – *здолавши*; *побачи/ти/* + **-вши** – *побачивши*. Cf. *Устроливши люльку в рот і закривши очі, він ще потроху пахкав (Панас Мирний)*.

Perfective and imperfective *diyepryslivnyks* may also be formed from verbs having the postfix **-ся/-сь**: **Хвилюючись**, все ще не *опам'ятавшись*, солдат розповідав про себе (Гончар). Similarly in *турбуючись, милуючись, дивуючись*, etc.

The semantic and functional equivalents to the imperfective (present) and perfective (past) *diyepryslivnyks* in English are indefinite or perfect participles (both active and passive) performing the functions of the adverbial modifiers of time: "...while *working* so hard he needed sea air" (Galsworthy); or attending circumstances: Clara sat in the cool parlour *reading*. (Lawrence); the adverbial modifiers of cause: "*Being tired* he thought of sleep" (J. K. Jerome); and that of result: *...having seen* all that was to be seen he came out (Galsworthy) etc.

The functions of the infinitive and the participles in the sentence generally coincide in both languages, though Ukrainian participles have gender, number and case distinctions, which are lost by their English corresponding equivalent verbals. Cf. gender and number categories: *працюючий, працююча, працююче* (колесо); number and case: *працюючого, працюючому, працюючим; працююча, працюючої; працюючі, працюючих, працюючим, працюючими*, etc.

Allomorphic for the Ukrainian language are some syntactic functions pertained to English participles and infinitives which may form with some classes of verbs (for example, those of the physical and mental perceptions) complex parts of the sentence. These parts of the sentence are completely alien to Ukrainian, Cf: He was *seen to go/going* home. We heard *him sing/singing*. He wants me *to be reading*. *The lesson (being) over*, the students went to the reading-hall. Each of these secondary predication complexes, with the only exception of the for-to-infinitive construction, has a subordinate clause for its equivalent in Ukrainian: *Бачили, як він ішов/коли він ішов* додому. Ми чули, *як він співає/ співав*. *Після того/оскільки заняття закінчилося*, студенти пішли до читальної зали.

COMPLEXES WITH NON-FINITES. GERUNDIAL COMPLEXES

1. Primary::secondary predication

I like when she sings carols. – she sings=primary predication (doer and action are S-V, which agree in number, person and tense)

I like her singing carols. – her singing=secondary predication (doer and action do not agree). Secondary predicative complex/Predicative complex is a transform of the primary predication, and the whole construction performs one function in the sentence, thus named CS, CP, CO, CAdv, CAttr

2. Predicative complex is the unity of the 1) nominal and 2) verbal elements which form secondary predication.

3. Complexes can be formed with the G, I, P

G.phrase (has no nominal element denoting the doer of the action expressed by the Gerund)::G.complex (has)

Singing is inspiring. G

Singing carols is inspiring. G phrase=the Gerund with the dependent words

I like her singing carols. G.complex=the doer+action expressed by the G

4. Gerundial complex is the (secondary) predicative construction as the unity of the 1) nominal and 2) verbal elements, the last expressed by the Gerund.

5. The parts of the Gerundial complex

- the verbal part (expressed by the Gerund) is in predicate relations
- to the nominal part expressed:
 - ✓ by the **noun** (in the Common Case – e.g. *clock (being slow)*)– or

in the Genitive Case – e.g. *teacher's (coming)* or
✓ by the **pronoun** (possessive – e.g. *his (reading)* or
personal in the Objective Case – e.g. *him (reading)*)

Functions of Gerundial Complexes:

- 1) **Complex Subject:** *Your coming home early made me happy* (= *me, yo ...*)
- 2) **Complex Predicative:** *My idea is your coming home early* (= *в моей, yoб*)
- 3) **Complex Object:** *I like your coming home early* (**direct**)
- 4) **Complex Attribute:** *The prospect of your coming early made me happy.*
- 5) **Complex Adverbial modifier:** *After his coming early, we went to the park.*

The basic elements of the complex are the doer and the action expressed by the Gerund: e.g. *He likes the idea of my favourite cousin singing carols at the party.* **CAttr**

The whole complex contains also the dependent elements to the nominal and verbal parts: e.g. *He likes the idea of my favourite cousin singing carols at the party.* **CAttr**

In the simple sentence the Gerund can be extended to the Gerundial phrase, Gerundial Complex or even to the subclause within the Complex sentence in accordance with the needs of conversation.

e.g. Singing is inspiring. **G**

Singing carols is inspiring. **G phrase**

Her singing (carols) is inspiring. **G.complex**

That she will sing carols is inspiring. **Subclause in**

Transformations of Complex sentences into Simple

The Complex sentence can be transformed into the simple by changing the clause into the Gerund, the Gerundial phrase or Construction in accordance with the needs of conversation.

e.g.

That fact that someone can sing is inspiring. →

Singing is inspiring. G

That fact that someone can sing carols is inspiring. →

Singing carols is inspiring. G phrase

That fact that she sings carols is inspiring. →

Her singing carols is inspiring. G.complex

!!!There are no gerunds or gerundial complexes in Ukrainian. The equivalents to them are Ukrainian nouns, verbal nouns or Infinitives:

Cf.: *I like singing/reading.* – *Я люблю спів/читання/читати.*

INTREPRETATION OF COMPLEXES IN HOME AND FOREIGN GRAMMARS

I like your reading. – is a predicative complex in Home Grammar Textbooks
or is a non-finite clause in Foreign Grammar Textbooks

1. In Home Grammar Textbooks the sentences containing secondary predicative complexes are considered simple.

I know him to be a student.

He insists on your coming – predicative complexes are underlined and constitute the simple sentences, each having one S-V unit only, in which only S agrees with V in number and person: *I know/He insists*.

2. In Foreign Grammars the sentences containing such units are considered complex, and the units underlined are called non-finite clauses:

I know him to be a student – a non-finite clause underlined used in the complex sentence, the same in meaning to: *I know that he is a student.*

He insists on your coming – a non-finite clause underlined used in the complex sentence, the same in meaning to: *He insists that you should come.*

So, the same units are treated differently in Home and in Foreign Grammars. In Home Grammar the underlined structure is the predicative complex, while in Foreign Grammar it is a non-finite clause, though the sentence pattern is the same.

Why: Sentences with non-finite clauses are considered complex in Foreign Grammars as they imply two ideas each displaying the doer and the action, while in Home Grammar we treat them as simple because the whole sentence contains only one S and V which agree in person and number. Therefore,

- in Foreign Grammars the sentence structure is described through its **meaning**,
- while in Home Grammars revealing English sentence properties the **structure** is the basic one. The last approach is chosen at our classes.

NON-FINITE CLAUSES

is the term used in Foreign Grammars as an equivalent to:

- 1) the so-called predicative complexes (the term used in Home Grammars): *I know him to be a student. He insists on your coming. I saw you crossing the street.*
- 2) even single G, I, P or phrases with the I, G and P:
Studying at our University is challenging. (In Foreign Grammars it is a non-finite clause underlined within a complex sentence which corresponds in meaning to: = *That you can study at our University is challenging*).

TYPOLOGY OF THE ADVERB

The adverb is an indeclinable notional word expressing the quality of an action or a degree of some other quality.

MODIFY:

VERBS speak slowly, говорити швидко

ADJECTIVES very popular, надзвичайно цікавий

ADVERBS quite definitely, досить чітко

FUNCTION =(ADVERBIAL MODIFIER)

SEMANTIC CLASSES =

PLACE here, outside, там

TIME for ages, today, завтра

MANNER carefully, well, чудово

FREQUENCY often, rarely, щодня

DEGREE very, quite, занадто

DEGREES =

POSITIVE wisely, мудро

COMPARATIVE more wisely, мудріше

SUPERLATIVE most wisely, наймудріше

Adverbs in English and Ukrainian perform three main functions in the sentence serving as:

- 1) **Identifying complements** (cf. *very* tall, *rather* better today, *дуже* високий, *значно* краще сьогодні);
- 2) **attributive adjuncts** (*quite* a man, the voice *inside*, *майже* озеро, *внутрішній* голос, голос *ізнадвору*);
- 3) **adverbial complements**: of place (to live *here/there, everywhere* мешкати *тут/там, скрізь*)', of time (to arrive *today/soon* приїжджати *сьогодні/невдовзі*); of cause and purpose (*Why* do you think so? *Чому* ти так гадаєш?).

Note. Pertaining to Ukrainian (allomorphic for English) is the use of adverbials in the function of a simple nominal predicate. Eg: Сонце *вгорі*. Стежка *справа*. Города *скрізь*. І ні душі *ніде*.

Qualitative adverbs in both contrasted languages may be used in the comparative and superlative degrees. They are formed with the help of synthetic or analytical means. Synthetic means are suffixes -er, -est in English and -ше, -іше, -ній in Ukrainian. Allomorphic:

Unlike English, however, in Ukrainian prefixes are also used to form the superlative degree of qualitative adverbs (най-, щонай-, якнай-): *найшвидше, найцікавіше*.

A particular (allomorphic) feature of many Ukrainian qualitative adverbs is their ability to take diminutive suffixes (-еньк-, -есеньк-, -юсіньк-, -очк-, -ечк-) and become diminutive:

гарно — гарненько — гарнесенько — гарнюсінько — гарнюньо;

тоненько — тонюсінько; трохи — трішечки; рядочком, шнурочком, etc.

Completely allomorphic for English is the group of the adverbs derived on the basis of possessive pronouns available only in Ukrainian. They are as follows: *по-моєму, по-твоєму, по-нашому, по-вашому, по-своєму*. Their lexical equivalents in English are adverbial clauses like “as we/you do/did.”

Some adverbs of comparison and likening (означально-уподіблювальні) are also available only in Ukrainian such as produced from

1) nouns by adding suffixes – ом, -ою/єю: *соколом, стрілою, зозулею,*

2) from adjectives by adding prefix *по-* and suffixes – ому, -и: *по-батьківському/и, по-новому, по-осінньому, etc.*

The adverbs of such kind have the English adverbial phrases equivalents like *in a fatherly way (по-батьківськи), like a falcon (соколом), in a new fashion (по-новому)*.

TYPOLOGY OF STATIVES (are partly ALLOMORPHIC)

In English and Ukrainian are invariable notional words whose logico-grammatical function is to denote the physical or psychological states of persons

1. English statives have a characteristic prefix a- formerly added to the roots of nouns, adjectives or verbs (cf. *afire, aflame, alike, awake*, etc.): "He had been *ashamed* and *afraid*".
2. Ukrainian statives, on the contrary, are formed with the help of some suffixes, which are the following: -o: Романові стало і *прикро* і якось *соромно* (Минко); -а: *Треба* хазяїну на хутір... *Шкода* журитись, молодичко! (Вовчок); -е: *Добре* Чіпці у діда підпасичем (Мирний); Так мені зробилось жалко і досадно (Тесленко).
3. The statives can correlate in E and U: They were *ashamed* – їм було *соромно* or they cannot "I lay *awake* a long time". Мені довго не спалось.
4. Stative:Adv.Cf. : *Мені радісно* (stative):*Вони радісно* (adv) співала.
5. Pertaining only to English is the combinability of statives with the gerund (cf. *afraid of answering, ashamed of having said that*).
6. Only in Ukrainian some statives may take a direct prepositionless nominal complement. Cf. *шкода праці, треба часу, сором сліз*.
7. Allomorphic for Ukrainian, however, is the function of the attribute, typical of the English language only. Cf. the child *asleep*, the house *ablaze*, the shore *afar*, etc.

Note. Some morphological and functional indefiniteness of statives gave ground to several Western and Home grammarians not to recognise these words (singled out as a separate part of speech by Academician Shcherba as a part of speech. This opinion was also supported by some Ukrainian grammarians (Hryshenko and others).

ALLOMORPHIC IN THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN MORPHOLOGICAL SYSTEMS

1. Categories

- Gender of n, pr, adj – in ukr only
- Vaph – realized in different ways (S::A).

2. Category realization predominantly synthetic–u, predominantly analytical – e.

3. Articles and the category of definiteness in n.

4. Semantic classes of some parts of speech

- Possessive adjectives: *мамин, лисиччин*
- Collective numerals: *семеро, двоє (двійко)*
- Indefinite cardinal numerals: *кільканадцять*.

5. Neuter gender n forming suffixes in Ukrainian: сало-сальце

6. Augmentative suffixes to produce n, adj, adv in Ukrainian: ручище, презарний, пречудово.

7. Diminutive suffixes productive practically in all notional parts of speech (see earlier) especially in the so-called kid's language:

- 1) adjectives: -ісінък- (*білісінький*), -юсінък- (*гарнюсінький*),
-есеньък (*чепурнесенький*), -еньък- (*тихенький*):

Це була звичайнісінька крадіжка (Г. Косинка);

- 2) common nouns: -к- (*дівчинка*), -ц- (*озерце*), -очок- (*синочок*):

Як заохочення я попросив би удочерити дівчинку (М. та С. Дяченки),

Зачекай секундочку! (М. та С. Дяченки);

- 3) proper nouns: -очк- (*Риточка*), -ечк- (*Юлечка*) та ін.:

Звати як тебе? Марічка? Юлечка? (О. Гончар);

- 4) numerals: -еньък- (*одненький*), -есеньък- (*однесенький*):

У мене однесенький син (Л. Костенко);

- 5) pronouns: -еньък- (*саменький*), -есеньък- (*самесенький*):

Доброго ранку, Пауло... Ти зовсім саменька? (М. та С. Дяченки);

- 6) adverbs: -еньък- (*низенько*), -есеньък- (*близесенько*) та ін.:

Правдісінько так! (М. Старицький);

- 7) verbs: -онък- (*спатоньки*), -усі (*спатусі*).

8. There is no progressive and perfect progressive infinitive in Ukrainian.

9. Gerund is not available in Ukrainian (instead there is a verbal noun, which also exists in e and is signaled by the article as well as the plural marker: cf.: *reading books is interesting. The readings of books is interesting*).

10. Participles in English corresponds to *diyeprikmetnik* and *diyepriislivnik* in Ukrainian.

11. Participles I, II can have the reflexive meaning signalled by the postfix: *роблячись* (imperf), *зробившись* (perf).

12. Infinitive forms – synthetic in Ukrainian while analytical in English:

Non-perfect::perfect (йти::прийти) :: (to do::to have done),
aspect (їти::ходити) :: (to go::to be going:: to have been going) being more diversified in E.

13. Verbals can form the predicative constructions in English.
14. Adverb producing model with augmentative prefix пре-: *прегано, пречудово* in Ukrainian.
15. Ukrainian prefixes are also used to form the superlative degree of qualitative adverbs (най-, щонай-, якнай-): *найшвидше, найцікавіше*.
16. Ukrainian adverbs derived on the basis of possessive pronouns available only in Ukrainian. They are as follows: *по-моєму, по-твоєму, по-нашому, по-вашому, по-своєму* with English as adverbial clauses like “as we/you do/did.”
17. Some adverbs in Ukrainian are produced from:
 - 1) nouns by adding suffixes – ом, -ою/єю: *соколом*,
 - 2) from adj by adding prefix *по-* and suffixes – *ому, -и*: *по-батьківському/и, по-новому*.
18. Prepositions in the final sentence position in English passive sentences as well as in questions: *the house has never been lived in. What are you speaking about?*
19. Prepositions in phrasal verbs in English functioning as semantic shifters: *look – look about – look after - look for*.

ISOMORPHIC FEATURES IN MORPHOLOGY

1. UNITS:

- CATEGORIES
- PARTS OF SPEECH

2. THE MAIN GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

3. PARTS OF SPEECH (NOTIONAL AND FUNCTIONAL THOUGH NOT WITHOUT SOME EXCEPTIONS (CLASS OF ARTICLES))

4. NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB:

INF, PI, PII= **DIYEPRIKMETNIK AND DIYEPRISLIVNIK BUT WITH DIFFERENCES IN FORMS AND USE**

POINTS FOR REVISION

- 1) What are the constants of the morphological level?
- 2) What is the morpheme?
- 3) What is the morphological category?
- 4) What are the two ways of reflecting morphological categories?
- 5) What are the means of representing the synthetic way of reflecting morphological categories?
- 6) What are the means of representing the analytical way of reflecting morphological categories?
- 7) What is the typology of parts of speech in the contrasted languages?
- 8) What is the noun?
- 9) What are the paradigmatic classes of nouns in the contrasted languages?
- 10) What are its morphological categories and the ways they are realized in the contrasted languages?
- 11) What is the adjective?
- 12) What are the paradigmatic classes of adjectives in the contrasted languages?
- 13) What is the numeral?
- 14) What are the paradigmatic classes of numerals in the contrasted languages?
- 15) What is the pronoun?
- 16) What are the paradigmatic classes of pronouns in the contrasted languages?
- 17) What are its morphological categories and the ways they are realized in the contrasted languages?
- 18) What is the verb?
- 19) What are the paradigmatic classes of verbs in the contrasted languages?
- 20) What are its morphological categories and the ways they are realized in the contrasted languages?

CHAPTER 7

TYOLOGY OF THE SYNTACTIC SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

CONTENTS

1. Typological constants of the syntactic level.
2. Syntactic relations, their types and ways of realization.
3. Syntactic processes, their types and ways of realization.
4. The typology of the word-group.
5. The typology of the simple sentence.
6. The typology of the composite sentence.

TYOLOGICAL CONSTANTS OF THE SYNTACTIC LEVEL

The typological constants of the syntactic level are the Word-Group and the Sentence.

The Word-Group in both languages consists of two or more grammatically connected notional parts of speech expressing some content and serving for polynomination.

The Sentence is the main communicative unit. The Sentence differs from the Word-Group, as a lower in the rank language unit, by some peculiar features: an intonation contour, predication, modality, relative completion of sense. The sentence can consist of one notional word only: *The night*.

Isomorphic in both languages are:

- 1) syntactic units – WG, S and T;
- 2) paradigmatic classes and types of syntactic units;
- 3) types of syntactic connection;
- 4) identical syntactic relations;
- 5) syntactic processes (external, internal);
- 6) functions performed by different parts of speech.

Allomorphic features are:

- 1) qualitative and quantitative differences in some paradigmatic classes of WG and S;
- 2) types of predicative WG (WG with secondary predication missing in Ukrainian);
- 3) some syntactic processes (representation, replacement and compression – missing in Ukrainian);
- 4) structural forms of some English members of the sentence (*have done VS зробив* in Ukrainian) etc.

SYNTACTIC RELATIONS, THEIR TYPES AND WAYS OF REALIZATION

One of the main features the syntactic units cannot exist without is the type of the syntactic relations, which combine components into the syntactic entity. Syntactic relations present a phenomenon characteristic of all 5651 languages of the world. Therefore, syntactic relations constitute a universal feature and are realized either at the sentence or at the word-group level.

In both contrasted languages, phrases fall into three types according to the type of syntactic relations between the components: (1) **coordinate**, (2) **subordinate** and (3) **predicative**. In **coordinate phrases** the components are equal in rank and may be connected syndetically (*young but clever, школи та бібліотеки*) or assyndetically (*young, non-chalant, charming; гармати, вози, машини*). Such word-groups in both contrasted languages perform the function of homogeneous parts of the sentence, eg: *He was clean, handsome, well-dressed, and sympathetic. Це було зроблено досконало, гарно й швидко.*

In **subordinate phrases** the syntactic ranks of the constituents are not equal as they refer to one another as the modifier and the modified (the head/nucleus and the adjunct/complement). Subordinate phrases fall into two main groups: **objective** (*ask a question, заспівати пісню*) and **qualifying** (*a flowery dress, настольна гра*). Subordinate phrases are also classified in accordance with the name of the part of speech representing the **head (nucleus)** of the subordinate phrase. Thus, we can

distinguish between noun phrases, verb phrases, adjectival phrases, adverbial phrases etc.

Predicative phrases may be primary and secondary. Primary predicative phrases (those that comprise the subject and the predicate) are of isomorphic nature, therefore translated without any transformations e.g.: *The student works hard.* *Студент багато працює.* *Secondary predicative phrases* are not found in Ukrainian and are represented in English in the following structural types or syntactic constructions which are often referred to as complexes: **Complex object with the infinitive** (*I heard him roll in blankets*), **Complex subject with the infinitive** (*He is reported to have been taken into custody*), **Forcomplex** (*The boy stood aside for me to go by.*), **Complex object with the participle** (*I saw her coming.*), **Complex subject with the participle** (*The rain was heard clattering.*), **Absolute participle construction** (*This being so, I should like to go out.*), **Gerundial complex** (*Excuse my being late.*). Being of allomorphic nature secondary predicative phrases require transformations in translation; in Ukrainian translation they are frequently transformed into primary predicative phrases: *The boy stood aside for me to go by.* – *Хлопчик відійшов, щоб я міг пройти.*

In both languages phrases may be **elemental**, with one type of syntactic relations, e.g.: *happy but sad*, and **complicated** (expanded or extended), having two or several different types of syntactic relations, e.g.: *an event for us to expect* (subordinate – sec. predicative), *search the room carefully and slowly* (subordinate objective-adverbial – coordinate).

The syntactic units can go into three types of relations.

1. Coordination – syntagmatic relations of independence. Coordination may be symmetric and assymetric.

Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements – *pens and pencils*.

Assymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed – *ladies and gentlemen*.

Forms of coordinative connection can be:

copulative (*you **and** me*),

disjunctive (*you **or** me*),

adversative (*strict **but** just*) and

causative-consecutive (***for, so*** – sentence level only) and are mainly isomorphic.

2. Subordination – syntagmatic relations of dependence. Subordinative relations are observed on the word-group and sentence level. Subordination can be of three different kinds –

objective (*to give the book to Peter/ to give Peter the book, дати книжку Петрові*),

attributive (*a beautiful flower, червона квітка*) and

adverbial (*to speak slowly, працювати добре*).

The components of the subordinate word group are fixed and cannot change their positions, otherwise they produce a new structure – a sentence, like the Ukrainian transformed variant *міст новий* from *новий міст*, while in English by changing the positions of elements we form the structure, which doesn't exist at all: *a new bridge* – **the bridge new*.

Summary: the types of subordination in the contrasted languages constitute the isomorphic feature, but means of their realization are completely divergent.

3. Predication – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predicative relations may be in English and in most West European Germanic and Romance languages of two kinds – primary and secondary.

Primary predication is universal. It is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence. Primary predication presents a grammatical/syntactic and logico-semantic relations on the Subject-Predicate axis. Eg: *He laughed. Він засміявся* (simple predicate) *She is a beauty. Вона – красуня* (Compound Nominal Predicate).

Allomorphic:

- 1) English predicates may have analytical forms of the verb (*have + done*) with no analytical equivalents for the same simple predicates in Ukrainian (*зробив*).
- 2) The position of the Ukrainian predicate is free, since inflexional morphemes identify person, number and case irrespective of its position in the sentence

Secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups (predicative complexes).

Secondary predicative relations are considered to be completely missing in present-day Ukrainian.

Table 26. Syntactic (syntagmatic) relations in English and Ukrainian

Type	Kind	English	Ukrainian
Coordination	Symmetric	<i>translate and retell</i>	<i>книги й журнали</i>
	Assymmetric	<i>ladies and gentlemen</i>	<i>пані та панове</i>
Subordination	Objective	<i>to give the book to Peter/ to give Peter the book</i>	<i>дати книжку Петрові</i>
	Attributive	<i>a beautiful flower</i>	<i>червона квітка</i>
	Adverbial	<i>to speak slowly</i>	<i>працювати добре</i>
Predication	Primary	<i>I am writing</i>	<i>Я пишу</i>
	Secondary	<i>I saw her writing I found the windows closed</i>	----- <i>Note: Я <u>застав</u> вікна <u>зачиненими</u> (double predicate)</i>

SYNTACTIC PROCESSES, THEIR TYPES AND WAYS OF REALIZATION

Syntactic processes are various in the contrasted languages and find their realization only in word-groups and sentences. Syntactic processes may be external and internal.

External processes are those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new member of the sentence.

Internal syntactic processes involve no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence. They occur within one and the same part of the sentence (subject etc.).

3.1. External processes:

1. **Extension** is a kind of syntactic process, which is achieved in both languages by adding subordinate components to the head element (*this book-these books, цікаві книги, to behave well, поводитися чемно, to see a house, побачити будинок*).

E.g. *This, цікаві* are adjuncts to the noun *book*; *well, чемно* are the adverbial complements to the verbs *behave, поводитися*; *a house, будинок* are the objective complements to the verbs *see, побачити*.

2. **Apposition** is a kind of incorporation into the structure of a syntactic unit by addition.

E.g. *The city of London, Шевченко-поет*.

3. **Detachment** is a kind of syntactic process, when subordinating elements are placed in an unusual way. Detached in English and Ukrainian may be any secondary part of the sentence.

Eg. Detached attributes *Children just as easy-going; Діти – такі ж добродушні*.

4. **Specification** is a kind of syntactic process, which is achieved by modifying the syntactic part by a complementing element of the same nature and syntactic function.

E.g. *Not tall, just average. Невисока, якраз середня*.

5. **Enclosure** is a kind of modification of the sentence-structure by inserting into it modal words or other discourse markers.

E.g. *Naturally, I'll come; Звичайно, я прийду*.

3.2. Internal processes:

1. **Expansion** is usually achieved by way of addition. The formed by addition strings of components function as homogeneous parts of the sentence.

For example, homogeneous subjects *The police, boys, dozens of people* in the sentence *The police, boys, dozens of people waved to him*, or predicates *встав і нідійшов* in the sentence *Він встав і нідійшов до столу*.

2. Ellipsis is a kind of internal syntactic process, when one or both principal parts of the sentence in a two-member sentence are omitted.

E.g. *Where did you go yesterday? – To the theater. Ти коли приїхав? – Увечері.*

3. Representation (not available in Ukrainian) is a kind of syntactic process, when a part of the syntactic unit represents the content of whole syntactic unit.

E.g. *Will you go to the cinema? – I'd like to.* This kind of reduction is alien to Ukrainian.

4. Replacement (not available in Ukrainian) is a kind of syntactic process, when a word with a generalized meaning *one* is used to substitute another word. E.g. *I'd like to take this one.*

5. Contamination is a kind of internal syntactic process, when two syntaxemes merge into one predicative unit.

E.g. *The moon rose + She was red = The moon rose red* (double predicate).
Наталка прибігла + Наталка була сердита = Наталка прибігла сердита.

6. Compression (not available in Ukrainian) is a kind of reduction of the sentence into the absolute secondary predicative complexes.

This syntactic process is most often observed in English with the Nominative Absolute Constructions.

E.g. *He sat, a candle in his hand.* The Nominative Absolute Construction *a candle in his hand* is a reduced transform from the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction *a candle being or having been in his hand*.

The Ukrainian transformed variants will be: a) a participial construction *тримаючи свічку в руці*; b) a coordinate clause *а свічка була в руці*; c) a phrase *зі свічкою в руці*.

Table 27. Syntactic processes in the contrasted languages

Process	English	Ukrainian
EXTERNAL		
<i>Extension</i>	<i>this book-these books</i>	<i>цікаві книги</i>
<i>Apposition</i>	<i>The city of London</i>	<i>Шевченко-поет</i>
<i>Detachment</i>	<i>Children just as easy-going</i>	<i>Діти – такі ж-добродушні</i>
<i>Specification</i>	<i>Not tall, just average</i>	<i>Невисока, якраз середня</i>
<i>Enclosure</i>	<i>Naturally, I'll come</i>	<i>Звичайно, я прийду</i>
INTERNAL		
<i>Expansion</i>	<i>The police, boys, dozens of people waved to him</i>	<i>Він встав і підійшов до столу</i>
<i>Ellipsis</i>	<i>Where did you go yesterday? – To the theater</i>	<i>Ти коли приїхав? – Увечері</i>
<i>Representation</i>	<i>Will you go to the cinema? – I'd like to</i>	-----
<i>Replacement</i>	<i>I'd like to take this one</i>	-----
<i>Contamination</i>	<i>The moon rose red</i>	<i>Наталка прибігла сердита</i>
<i>Compression</i>	<i>He sat, a candle in his hand</i>	-----

TYOLOGY OF THE WORD-GROUP

I. According to the degree of independence of words in word-groups WG in English and Ukrainian may be:

- 1) **syntactically free**, e.g. *to learn much, to learn hard* etc. or
- 2) **idiomatically bound**, e.g. *to have dinner, to take measures, накивати п'ятами, дерти носа, мотати на вус* etc.

II. According to their structure WG in the contrasted languages may be:

1. **Simple or elemental** which consist of 2 ICs connected either synthetically or analytically, e.g. *this book – these books, гарна дівчина – гарні дівчата*.
2. **Complicated**, e.g. *those pens and pencils, застати двері зачиненими*.

III. According to the means of grammatical connection of WG, English is mostly analytical in structure (*books for individual reading*) and Ukrainian is more synthetic (*запрошувати гостей*) and analytico-synthetic (*добре для мамі*).

In **English** there differentiated such means of grammatical connection as:

1. **Analytical:**
 - 1) Syndetic (prepositional): *books for home reading*;
 - 2) Asyndetic (syntactic placement/adjoinment): *home-reading books*;
2. **Analytico-synthetic:** *all of us, afraid of him, think of me*;
3. **Synthetic:**
 - 1) agreement: *these books*;
 - 2) government: *to see him, to love her*.

In **Ukrainian** there can be found the following means of grammatical connection:

1. **Synthetic:**
 - 1) agreement: *ці книги, яскрава сукня*;
 - 2) government: *читати книгу*.
2. **Analytico-synthetic:** *добре для Петра, двічі на рік, їхати в машині*;
3. **Analytical:**
 - 1) Syndetic (prepositional): *їхати у таксі*;

- 2) Asyndetic: *добре працювати, бажання вчитися, мені шкода, носить кімоно, брати таксі.*

Adjoinment is such a means of grammatical connection when the dependent word (adjunct or a complement) is an undeclinable word or form: eg. *the river Thames, to behave well, добре вчитися, місто Київ.*

Agreement is such a way of grammatical connection when a dependent word takes all the morphological categories of the nuclear one: e.g. *білий сніг, білого снігу, на білому снігові.* This way of connection is mostly pertaining to the Ukrainian language, the latter being the synthetic one. In English agreement can be observed in the structures combining nouns with demonstrative pronouns as its adjuncts.

Government is observed when the head word requires the use of the dependent word in a special form which is preserved with changing the form of the head element of the WG, e.g. *читати книгу, читав книгу.* Synthetic government in English can be observed only in verbal WG of such structural patterns: *to see him/her* etc. The verb in Indo-European languages governs only the object, while in Caucasian languages the verb is characterized by the double government, as it governs not only the object, but the subject of the syntactic structure as well.

Summary: English as well as Ukrainian can be both characterized by the same means of grammatical connection, but the predominance of analytical means of connection in English and synthetic ones in Ukrainian predetermine their typology.

IV. According to **mutual interrelations** between the ICs of WG, the latter are subdivided into coordinate and subordinate.

1. **Coordinate WG** in English and Ukrainian are formed from components equal in ranks connected either syndetically or asyndetically. According to the expression of sense, coordinate WG in the contrasted languages can be **closed** (*rivers and lakes, he and she*) or **unclosed/infinite** (*bags, pens and pencils*).

2. **Subordinate WG** consist of a head, which is a nucleus of a WG, and one or more adjunct/complements. The type of the subordinate word group is determined by the head element.

Table 28. Subordinate word-groups

Type	<u>English</u> Analitical (a/syndatic)	<u>Ukrainian</u> Synthetic connection (agreement/government)
Substantival	<i>boy secrets</i>	<i>чудові дні</i>
Verbal	<i>to love her</i>	<i>щиро любити</i>
Adjectival	<i>so very unusual</i>	<i>аж надто важкий</i>
Pronominal	<i>we all</i>	<i>щось нове</i>
Numerical	<i>the first to answer</i>	<i>перші з грамот</i>
Adverbial	<i>here and there</i>	<i>так і сяк</i>
Statal	<i>horribly afraid</i>	<i>легко на душі</i>

Allomorphic in the contrasted languages are **some patterns of WG:**

in English – **verbal Wg** – **V_{inf}DVNV_{ing}D** – *to go down to see the boy waiting outside;*

in Ukrainian – **adverbial WG** – **D neg.part. D** – *далеко не так*

3. Predicative WG. Primary predication is mainly isomorphic in the contrasted languages, while secondary predication is peculiar only of the English language.

In English secondary predication WG are represented by:

- 1) the Objective with the Infinitive Construction (*I think him to be a good friend*),
- 2) Subjective Infinitive Construction (*The boy is said to resemble his father*),
- 3) the For-to-Infinitive Construction (*For you to catch up with the group is impossible*),

- 4) the Gerundial Construction (*I don't like two small kids being alone*),
- 5) the Objective Participial Construction (*I saw her walking*),
- 6) the Subjective Participial Construction (*The children were seen running to the river*),
- 7) the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction (*The teacher being ill, the pupils went home*),
- 8) the Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction (*He stood at the sofa, with his back turned to the rest*).

THE TYPOLOGY OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

STRUCTURAL TYPES OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

According to the way in which the expressed content correlates with the reality, there are two common structural types of simple sentences: two-member and one-member.

Two-member sentences

Two-member sentences in the contrasted languages may be of two **kinds**:

a) **complete**, eg. *I am going to the theatre. Я маюю сонце,*

b) **incomplete/elliptical**, eg. *Where are you going? – To the theatre.*

Я маюю сонце. А ти що? – А я квіти.

Allomorphic features:

Two-member sentences have a larger representation in English than in Ukrainian. Compare: **in Ukrainian** *Люблю Україну, люблю свою родіну.*

The only two-member sentences, which are **non-existent in Ukrainian**, are the following:

- 1) **Impersonal sentences with *it***: *It snowed.*
- 2) **Indefinite personal sentences** in which the subject is expressed by the indefinite **personal pronouns one, they, you**: *One says. They say.*
- 3) **Sentences with introductory *it***: *It is time to come.*
- 4) **Sentences with the passive predicate verb followed by a preposition**: *He was sent for.*
- 5) **Sentences with secondary predication syntagmemes**: *We saw her crossing the street;*
- 6) **Tag-clauses**, which have the correlate “*чи не так*”: *You have come too late, haven't you? Ви прийшли пізно, чи не так?*

One-member sentences

One-member sentences have a larger number of paradigmatic classes in Ukrainian. This is due to the morphological nature of Ukrainian as a mainly synthetic structure language.

Common sentences in both languages are nominal one-member sentences:
Night. Довгожданний дощ. Тиша.

Imperative, exclamatory and infinitive one-member sentences in English and Ukrainian have both common and divergent features depending on the means of grammatical connection of their components: *Close the window! To be or not to be. Проходьте!*

The types of the one-member sentences, which have a larger representation in Ukrainian, are as follows:

- 1) the definite personal sentences – *Люблю Україну;*
- 2) the indefinite personal – *Дзвонять в усі дзвони;*
- 3) the generalized personal sentences – *Поживемо, побачимо;*
- 4) impersonal sentences – *Світає.*

In Ukrainian only there are such subtypes of impersonal one-member sentence as:

- Impersonal proper – the principal part is expressed by the finite (predicate) verb or by a personal verb form: *Світає. Вік живи, вік учись.*
- Impersonal with the main part/finite verb expressing the state of the agent used in dative case form: *Забажалось королеві завоювати чуже царство.*
- Impersonal with the principal part expressed by verbs in **–но, -то**: *Роботу покинуто.*
- Impersonal with the finite verb referring to a person but expressing impersonal meaning: *Йому колело в боки.*
- Impersonal with statives: *Дітям спочатку було дуже нудно.*
- Impersonal with modal predicative phrases functioning as part of the modal verbal predicate: *Йому не слід було дивитись.*

In English there are represented by two-member impersonal sentences which are introduced by the impersonal pronoun/subject **It**: *It snowed. It is raining.*

One-word / Quasi sentence

These types of metacommunicative sentences are common for both languages. Its kinds are:

- 1) **affirmative** (*Excellent! / Will you come? – Indeed. / Ти прийдеш? – Ага.*),
- 2) **negative** (*No, not at all, not yet, Hi! Не так, ще ні*),
- 3) **interrogative** (*Well?, Добре?*),
- 4) **evaluative** (*O, God! Он як!*),
- 5) **vocative** (*Tom, Tom! Мамо!*).

COMMUNICATIVE TYPES of the Simple Sentence

The sentence is a communicative unit, so the primary classification should be based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the purpose of communication.

In accord with the purpose of communication three major sentence-types are distinguished: declarative, imperative, interrogative. These types stand in strict opposition to one another.

- The declarative sentences express a statement, either affirmative or negative.
- The imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. It urges the listener in the form of request or command to perform or not perform a certain action.
- The interrogative sentence expresses a question, a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener.

The isomorphic role in the performance of communication and the modality/intention expressed in the contrasted languages can be illustrated by the table 29.

Table 29. Communicative types of sentences (according to the intention)

English				Ukrainian			
<i>Com.type</i>	<i>Form</i>	<i>Aff</i>	<i>Neg</i>	<i>Com.type</i>	<i>Form</i>	<i>Ств</i>	<i>Зан</i>
Declarative		+	+	Розповідні		+	+
Interrogative	<i>General</i>	+	+	Питальні	<i>Загальні</i>	+	+
	<i>Disjunctive</i>	+	+		<i>Диз'юнктивні</i>	+	+
	<i>Alternative</i>	+	+		<i>Альтернативні</i>	+	+
	<i>Special</i>	+	+		<i>Спеціальні</i>	+	+
	<i>Rhetorical</i>	+	+		<i>Риторичні</i>	+	+
	<i>Suggestive</i>	+	+		<i>Сугестивні</i>	+	+
Imperative and inductive		+	+	Наказові та спонукальні		+	+

THE TYPOLOGY OF THE MAIN PARTS OF THE SENTENCE IN THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

The subject is the independent member of a two-member predication, containing the person component of predicativity. The subject is usually defined as a word or a group of words denoting the thing we speak about. In Ukrainian the subject is as a rule characterized by a distinct morphological feature – the nominative case, whereas in English it is for the most part indicated by the position it occupies in the sentence. In Ukrainian the subject is much less obligatory as a part of the sentence than in English. One-member sentences are numerous and of various types (*Прийду. Пише*). In English a finite verb (except the ‘imperative mood’ forms) does not make a sentence without a subject. In English the subject may be a syntactical word-morpheme, a gerund or a complex, which is naturally alien to Ukrainian.

The predicate is the member of predication containing the mood and tense components of predicativity. Since the conjugation of the English verb has a lot of analytical forms the characteristic feature of the English simple predicate is the fact that it can be expressed in many cases by analytical verb forms. In Ukrainian it happens rather rarely since the availability of analytical verb forms is not numerous here. In both languages the predicate reveals its syntactic connection with the subject by means of the grammatical agreement with it.

The predicate in the English sentence always has its certain place depending on the type of the sentence. In the affirmative sentence it stands after the subject (*He came here in the morning*). In interrogative sentences the simple predicate is mainly expressed analytically, where the help verb is placed before the subject, whereas its notional part stands after it (*Did he come here in the morning?*). By this fact the English language differs from Ukrainian. The division into structural and notional predicates is not as essential in Ukrainian as it is in English. Moreover, there are many more sentences without finite verbs in Ukrainian than in English (*Він студент. Вона красуня. Кому їхати?*). Besides, Ukrainian predication contains a predicate without a subject much more often than in English.

All parts of the sentence in the contrasted languages have an isomorphic functional meaning and lexico-grammatical nature. The main parts are the **subject** and the **predicate**.

The subject and the predicate in the contrasted languages are considered to be **interdependent** parts of the sentence. They are bearers of predication forming the sentence. E.g. *They laughed* and in Ukrainian *Вони засміялися*. Other parts of the sentence are dependent on the subject, on the predicate or on one another. E.g. *Everyone knows his own business best*. The constituent word-group of this sentence in English and in Ukrainian in syntactic presentation are as follows:

- 1) the **primary** predicative word-group (*Everyone knows / Кожен знає*);
- 2) the **attributive** word-group (*His own business / Свою власну справу*);
- 3) the **adverbial** word-group (*Knows best / Знає найкраще*).

The structure of the part of the sentence in the contrasted languages is characterized by **isomorphic** features in the main. There are distinguished the common structurally common types of them in English and Ukrainian:

1) **simple** – expressed by a single word-form (synthetic or analytical);
2) **extended / expanded** – expressed by a subordinate or by a coordinate word-group;

3) **complex** (when expressed by a secondary predication construction).

Some parts of the sentence in English and Ukrainian may be expressed by a regular clause. E.g. *What you told me is a lie*. Similarly in Ukrainian: *Те, що ти казав мені – брехня*.

SECONDARY PARTS OF THE SENTENCE (detached)

Isomorphic in English and Ukrainian, like in all other Indo-European languages, is also the existence of detached secondary parts of the sentence, which may be unextended or extended. Their position in the sentence is not always fixed and they have a loose connection with their head components. Apart from their relatively free preposed or postposed placement detached parts of the sentence in both contrasted languages have an implicit predicative meaning. Besides, these parts of the sentence can be only object (indirect), attribute and the adverbial parts. The most frequently detached in both contrasted languages are attributes (including appositional attributes).

The Detached Attribute/Відокремлене означення

This part of the sentence may refer in English and Ukrainian to nouns and to pronouns, usually expressing in both contrasted languages some additional adverbial meaning (cause, condition, comparison, concession, time, etc.). Cf.

e.g. Very white, he turned back to the назад balcony (Galsworthy).

Зовсім блідий, він повернувся на балкон.

The subject "he" is not simply "white" (attribute) but "very white", i. e. white to some degree (*how white?*). Similarly in Ukrainian (*наскільки блідий - зовсім блідий*).

Sometimes Ukrainian equivalents of English loose attributes may have no synthetic agreement with their head components. Cf.

There were two figures, middleaged and young (Galsworthy).

Там було дві постаті, середнього віку й молода/ й молодшого віку.

Here exists no agreement between the Ukrainian head noun "*ностами*" and the adjunct component/detached apposition "*середнього віку й молода*".

The detached attribute is a grammatical structure that adds extra information to a sentence, usually in the form of a phrase or clause. This attribute can provide additional details, describe the subject, or emphasize a particular aspect of the sentence. It is often set apart from the main clause using punctuation such as commas, dashes, or parentheses.

For example:

- *John, excited about his upcoming vacation, packed his bags* (the phrase "excited about his upcoming vacation" is the detached attribute and provides additional information about John).
- *The concert, which was held in a beautiful outdoor venue, drew a large crowd* (the clause "which was held in a beautiful outdoor venue" is the detached attribute and provides more details about the concert).
- *The city, known for its vibrant nightlife, attracts many tourists* (the phrase "known for its vibrant nightlife" is the detached attribute and describes the city).

In each of these examples, the detached attribute adds extra information to the sentence, giving it more depth and clarity.

The Detached Apposition/Відокремлена прикладка

The detached apposition is a grammatical construction in which a word or phrase is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, dashes, or parentheses. It adds additional information or clarification to the subject or object of the sentence.

For example:

- *My brother, a talented musician, played the piano at the concert.*
- *The president, known for her strong leadership skills, made an announcement."*
- *John - my neighbor - is a doctor.*

In these examples, the appositions provide additional details about the subjects "my brother," "the president," and "John" respectively.

Detached appositions identify or explain the head component which may be a noun or a pronoun:

Minna found the *house, a pretty little cottage*, set back from the street. (Norris)

Мінна знайшла *будинок, невеличкий гарненький котедж*, захований подалі від вулиці.

In the east mountain *peaks-fingers of snow* - glittered above the mist. (Galsworthy)

А на сході гірські шпилі *..латки снігу/снігові пальці...* виблискували понад туманом.

Detached apposition in **Ukrainian** may often be joined with the subordinating part/noun with the help of the conjunctions *або, чи, тобто, як* and by **specifying words** as *як от, а саме, особливо, навіть, переважно, родом, на ймення, на прізвище*, etc.

The English specifiers are semantically similar: *quite, almost, namely, by name*, etc. Cf. Цей красень на ймення Олексій Розум. This handsome youngster Oleksiy Rozum. Той хлопчина, *родом із кріпаків, став генієм України*. That poor boy, *born a serf*, became a genius of all Ukrainians.

Ukrainian detached appositions can often be in partial agreement (in number only) with the head component, eg: *Ось софора, диковинне південне дерево*. (Гончар) *Інженер-синоптик Марина Гнидерево* (Which weather forecasting engineer? What Maryna?)

The Detached Object / Відокремлений додаток

The detached object is a grammatical structure used to express an action or state that is being done to someone or something, while also separating the object from the subject of the sentence. It typically consists of a verb and object phrase disconnected by a comma.

For example:

- *He looked at his reflection in the mirror, an expression of disappointment crossing his face.*
- *She reached for the book, her fingers brushing against the worn cover.*
- *They listened to the sound of raindrops hitting the rooftop, a comforting lullaby playing outside.*

In each of these sentences, the detached object phrase helps provide additional information about the action or state, allowing the reader to visualize or understand the scene more vividly.

This detached part of the sentence is mostly expressed by prepositional nouns or pronouns, the main prepositions in English being: *except/ except for, with the exception of*, which lexically correspond to the Ukrainian prepositions *крім/окрім, опріч, за винятком, замість*:

Anybody else, *except Ackly*, would've taken the goddam hint (Salinger).

Except for the handwriting, there wasn't the slightest trace of femininity.

Будь-хто, *крім* Екклі, зрозумів би той проклятий натяк.

Ніщо, крім почерку, не виказувало, що автор – жінка (Wilson).

The detached parts of the sentence are structurally optional; they are always marked in Ukrainian like in English by commas or by dashes. Cf. Погляди всіх – *в тому числі й Баржаків* – самі собою зійшлись на Килигейовій постаті... (Гончар); Mont Blanc appears - *still, snowy, and serene* (Shelley); Then met his look, *tired, gloomy, desperate* (D. Parker).

The Detached Adverbial Complements / Відокремлені адвербіальні члени речення

Detached adverbial parts of the sentence are the adverbial complements of place, time, condition, concession, manner, comparison and attendant circumstances. The means of expressing these complements in English and Ukrainian are both isomorphic and allomorphic.

Isomorphic is the expression of adverbial complements by means of an adverb, an adjective, a participle or a prepositional noun/pronoun.

Allomorphic means include the gerund and the nominative absolute participial constructions in English and the *diyepryslivnyk*/the *diyepryslivnyk* construction, as well as the nominals governed by prepositions in Ukrainian. Equally common in both languages is the implicit predicative meaning of all detached secondary parts of the sentence and their distribution (in front position, in midposition and in postposition to the modified component).

Allomorhism is partly observed in the means of expressing some of the detached adverbial parts of the sentence in English and in Ukrainian. These means in English include the so-called secondary predication constructions joined by analytical connection, whereas in Ukrainian the nominal components are joined with the help of synthetic or analytic and synthetic means.

Close to detached parts of the sentence in both languages are specifying parts (уточнюючі відокремлені члени речення). They are used postposed to the ordinary parts of the sentence to specify their meaning. They are joined to their preceding components either *asyndetically*) or *syndetically*, with the help of conjunctions or connective words, the latter being less frequent. Most specifying parts of the sentence are of adverbial meaning.

Cf.

He liked people, *especially children*.
(Maugham)

Він любив людей, (а) *особливо дітей*.
Він любив людей, а *надто* дітей.

It all happened many years ago, *namely*
in 1832. (Aldiss) She said it here –
in the room. (Christie)

She was a tall girl, as *tall*
as himself. (Munro)

HOMOGENEOUS PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

Homogeneous parts of the sentence are of identical functions, structure and nomenclature. In the sentence homogeneous parts may be:

- **Coordinate Subjects** (extended/unextended)

Example: *The captain, George and I slowly turned our heads.*

- **Coordinate homogeneous Predicates** (simple/extended/unextended)

Example: *He lighted his cigarette, said good night, and went away.*

Isomorphic in English and Ukrainian languages are homogeneous compound verbal and compound nominal predicates:

The dead fingers could neither touch nor clutch.

Замерзлі пальці не могли ні відчутти, ні взяти (сірника).

- **Homogeneous coordinate Objects** (extended/unextended/prepositional)

His parents used to present him books, notebooks and small souvenirs.

Його батьки зазвичай дарували йому книжки, записники та невеличкі сувеніри.

Allomorphic feature of English – homogeneous objects expressed by gerunds:

I simply love riding. Я просто обожнюю їздити верхи.

- **Coordinate homogeneous Attributes**

In both languages the functioning of homogeneous attributive adjuncts manifests itself in the distribution (preposed/postposed) and in structural forms (extended/unextended/prepositional).

Allomorphy – in their connection with the head components in Ukrainian – mainly synthetic or analytical and synthetic; in English – analytical.

He seems a very silent, awkward, bashful lad. Він виглядає мовчазним, незграбним, соромливим хлопцем.

- **Homogeneous coordinate Adverbial Modifiers**

Isomorphism – in their functions and are often identical in the grammatical means and ways of their expression. The most frequently occurring are:

- **time and frequency:** *We shall try it tomorrow – Ми спробуємо це завтра.*

- **place and direction:** *Tom had spies everywhere – У Тома скрізь були шпигуни.*

- **Manner or attendant circumstances:** *He so obviously adored his wife* – Він так явно обожнював свою дружину.
- **purpose:** *Ham sometimes walked with us to show us the boats and ships.* – Хем інколи йшов з нами, для того щоб показати нам човни та кораблі.
- **result:** *She is too fond of the child to leave it*– Вона занадто любить дитину, щоб залишити її.

COMPLEX MEMBERS OF THE SENTENCE

Complex members of the sentence are expressed with the help of predicative complexes and are used in simple sentences only in English. They match every part of the sentence existing in English. We can easily compare them in the Table.

Part of sentence	Examples	Complex member	Examples
Subject	<i><u>Helen</u> always arrives on time.</i>	Complex subject	<i><u>Helen is known to arrive on time.</u></i>
Predicative	<i>You <u>need to take measures.</u></i>	Complex predicative	<i><u>It is for you to take measures.</u></i>
Object	<i>I like <u>the atmosphere.</u></i>	Complex object	<i>I like <u>my being in such an atmosphere.</u></i>
Attribute	<i>We look at the boy <u>in a blue T-shirt.</u></i>	Complex attribute	<i>We look further for the idea <u>of your wearing black.</u></i>
Adverbial modifier	<i>He loves to travel <u>around the world.</u></i>	Complex adverbial modifier	<i><u>The match finished,</u> he went home.</i>

REPRESENTATION OF COMPLEX MEMBERS IN ENGLISH

To express complex members in English as a rule we use non-finites typically as part of predicative complexes. Consequently, to understand the phenomenon of complex members in English and find out possible variants of translation into Ukrainian we have to draw an invisible line with non-finite predicative complexes.

To start with, these constructions are made from such verb forms as infinitive, participle, and gerund, the last of which by the way has no representation in Ukrainian. These verb forms can function alone as subject, object, and predicative. That is the point to be discussed as non-finites and non-finite predicative complexes

are different and, while contrasting languages' grammar, it should be taken into account. For, example in the sentence *To be punctual is a needed habit, to be punctual* is just an infinitive which holds the function of subject, while in the sentence *He is known to be punctual, he... to be punctual* is non-finite predicative complex, particularly **Subjective Infinitive Construction**, which also functions as subject, although not a simple one but complex.

NON-FINITE PREDICATIVE COMPLEXES

Predicative complex	Example in English	Possible translation to Ukrainian
The Objective with the Infinitive Construction	I like <u>her to come to the party</u> .	Я хочу, щоб вона прийшла на вечірку.
The Subjective with the Infinitive Construction	<u>Her sister</u> is known <u>to be warm-hearted</u> .	Її сестра відома своєю добротою.
The For-to-Infinitive Construction	<u>For us to be good at grammar</u> is crucial to practice.	Щоб добре знати граматику, нам дуже важливо практикуватись.
The Gerundial Construction	You both <u>being in one room</u> is the worst combination ever.	Ваше спільне перебування в одній кімнаті - це найгірше поєднання.
The Objective Participial Construction	I watch <u>him repairing the car</u> .	Я дивлюся, як він ремонтує машину.
The Subjective Participial Construction	<u>Their parents</u> were heard <u>planning the weekend</u> .	Було чуто, як їхні батьки обговорювали плани на вихідні.
The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction	<u>The humidity being low</u> , plants wilted.	Через низьку вологість, рослини зів'яли.
The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction	<u>With her hair brushed and her nails polished</u> , she came out of the beauty salon.	Вона вийшла з салону краси з розчесаним волоссям та нафарбованими нігтями.

It is to be mentioned that such complexes form the unity which includes nominal and verbal elements. For example, in the sentence *I want her to come for me* the Objective with the Infinitive Construction *her to come for me*, which corresponds to a **complex object**, is composed of a nominal part represented by the pronoun her

(the doer of an action) and verbal part *to come* expressed by infinitive denote the action. Therefore, it is crucial to understand and know how to recognize these constrictions in the sentence for us to define complex members.

RENDERING OF NON-FINITES

As complex members are generally presented by non-finite predicative complexes, formed from non-finites, there are some traditions of translating them into Ukrainian. Worthy to admit that they depend on the functions of such verbals in the sentence. There are several mainly used patterns.

First of all, the most obvious one is infinitive which is isomorphic to Ukrainian and can be easily rendered as in the sentence *To walk is good for your health*, the infinitive *to walk* is translated as гуляти. As you can see the forms in both languages coincide, even being expressed differently. By the way translating the sentence as *Прогулянки корисні для здоров'я*, where the infinitive is changed to the noun, is possible too. Gerund, as mentioned before completely missing in Ukrainian, can also be rendered through a noun, verb, adverbial participle, or subordinate clause, or can be omitted (Chervinska, 2022, с. 273). For example, in the sentence *Going out is a widespread way of time-spending gerund going out* can be translated as *відвідування ресторанів*. Participle I and II can find its reflection in totally allomorphic for the English language *diyeprikmetnik* and *diyepriislivnik* or subordinate clause too. For example, the sentence *The chair situated in the corner is made from leather* can be rendered as *Крісло, що стоїть в кутку, шкіряне*.

CORRESPONDENCES TO COMPLEX MEMBERS

There are no limits in the case of using a particular complex in the function of the complex member, it can be compared to different parts of speech, which can be used for one and the same part of the sentence.

Complex member	Non-finite predicative construction	Example in English	Translation into Ukrainian
	Subjective Infinitive Construction	<i>The doctor is said to be good at operating.</i>	<i>Кажуть, що лікар добре оперує.</i>
	The For-to-Infinitive	<i>For us to work hard is the only way to be</i>	<i>Єдиний спосіб досягти</i>

Complex subject	Construction	<i>perfect.</i>	<i>досконалості для нас — це наполеглива праця.</i>
	The Gerundial Construction	<i>Her taking part in the competition shocked everyone.</i>	<i>Її участь у конкурсі шокувала всіх.</i>
	The Subjective Participial Construction	<i>Boys were seen walking down the street.</i>	<i>Бачили, як хлопці йшли вулицею.</i>
Complex predicative	The For-to-Infinitive Construction	<i>The idea was for David to note the error.</i>	<i>Ідея полягала в тому, щоб Девід помітив помилку.</i>
	The Gerundial Construction	<i>It was her staying here.</i>	<i>Це вона тут стояла.</i>
Complex object	The Objective with the Infinitive Construction	<i>Lora watched them climb the hill.</i>	<i>Лора дивилася, як вони піднімаються на пагорб.</i>
	The Objective Participial Construction	<i>The kid heard his name shouted behind the wall.</i>	<i>Хлопчик почув, як за стіною вигукнули його ім'я.</i>
	The For-to-Infinitive Construction	<i>She was waiting for her nails to be done.</i>	<i>Вона чекала, поки їй зроблять манікюр.</i>
	The Gerundial Construction	<i>She has a dream of his making a proposal.</i>	<i>Вона мріяла, щоб він зробив їй пропозицію.</i>
Complex adverbial modifier	The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction	<i>The problem solved, they had time to relax.</i>	<i>Так як проблема була вирішена, у них був час відпочити.</i>
	The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction	<i>She can't sing with all those people staring at her.</i>	<i>Вона не може співати, коли всі ці люди дивляться на неї.</i>
	The For-to-Infinitive Construction	<i>Physics is too hard for children to understand.</i>	<i>Фізика надто складна для розуміння дітей.</i>
	The Gerundial Construction	<i>She couldn't come without her dress being perfectly ironed.</i>	<i>Вона не могла прийти, не випрасувавши свою сукню.</i>
	The Gerundial Construction	<i>It can be a reason for her leaving.</i>	<i>Це може бути причиною її від'їзду.</i>

Complex attribute	The For-to-Infinitive Construction	The plan <u>for her to meet us</u> was failed.	<i>План її зустрічі з нами провалився.</i>
	The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction	She was carrying documents, <u>some of them wrongly composed</u> , to the main office.	<i>Вона несла документи, деякі з яких неправильно оформлені, до головного офісу.</i>
	The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction	He was standing in the window, <u>with only several millimeters separating him from death</u> .	<i>Він стояв у вікні, лише кілька міліметрів відділяли його від смерті.</i>

Many constructions can be used for one and the same complex member, in addition, the For-to-infinitive construction turned out to be polyfunctional.

WAYS OF EXPRESSING COMPLEX MEMBERS IN UKRAINIAN

Taking into consideration all the above-mentioned facts and examples, we can come up with ideas for translating them into Ukrainian, at least referring to Table 4. Making such a syntactic replacement, which is the only way to transform non-finite predicative complexes, we should deliberately analyse the sentence, and its meaning, define complex members, and only after that start translating.

1) First, that catches the eye is a number of **subordinate clauses** of different types:

The kid heard his name shouted behind the wall (object clause). *Хлопчик почув, як за стіною вигукнули його ім'я* (підрядне з'ясувальне).

The problem solved, they had time to relax (adverbial clause). *Так як проблема була вирішена, у них був час відпочити* (підрядне обставинне).

The idea was for David to note the error (predicative clause). *Ідея полягала в тому, щоб Девід помітив помилку* (підрядне з'ясувальне).

From these examples we can draw three conclusions:

1. Simple English sentences with complex members are often translated into Ukrainian as compound and complex sentences.
2. The type of clause as a rule coincides with a complex member function.
3. The typology of clauses is another source for allomorphic features in both languages and one of the reasons that clauses have difficulties while translating. That is why to render Ukrainian sentences of such kinds as exemplified above we also need to use translation transformations.

2) The next variant of translation is a **noun**, which we can derive from the verbal part of the non-finite complex forming a complex member:

For us to work hard is the only way to be perfect. Єдиний спосіб досягти досконалості для нас — це наполеглива праця.

Her taking part in the competition shocked everyone. Її участь у конкурсі шокувала всіх.

Physics is too hard for children to understand. Фізика надто складна для розуміння дітей.

3) Complex member also can be translated into Ukrainian as a **simple verbal predicate or part of the compound predicate**:

The doctor is said to be good at operating. Кажуть, що лікар добре оперує (simple predicate).

It was her staying here. Це вона тут стояла.

4) **Diyepriislivnik** (perfective and imperfective one) the absent linguistic unit in English, can be used for translating complex members too:

She couldn't come without her dress being perfectly ironed (perfective).

Вона не могла прийти, не випрасувавши свою сукню.

5) The last but not least way of translation is **diyeprikmetnik**, which can be active and passive:

She was carrying documents, some of them wrongly composed, to the main office. Вона несла документи, деякі з яких неправильно оформлені (passive), до головного офісу.

The main reason for complex members of the sentence missing in Ukrainian is the syntactic nature of the Ukrainian language. Difficulty in translating simple non-finite leads to even more concerns in the case of translating the whole complex member. Nevertheless, there are some possible, proved by time, ways of rendering complex members. Transforming English simple sentences into Ukrainian we can render the meaning by subordinate clauses, nouns, simple verbal or part of compound predicates, diyepriislivnik, and diyeprikmetnik, two last being allomorphic in English. One of the crucial factors influencing translations of such linguistic units is the meaning of the utterance, as there is no equivalent, we should care about it in the first instance.

NON-SEGMENTABLE SENTENCES IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

The system of simple sentences in the contrasted languages is formed by two common opposite poles. The first of them is represented by segmentable sentences and the second by simple non-segmentable sentences. The latter, consisting of a particle, a modal word, an interjection, can not be segmented into smaller syntactic units. Non-segmentable sentences in English and Ukrainian may contain some rather vague ties with the antecedent sentence. They include affirmative, negative, declarative, interrogative and incentive non-segmentable sentences.

Affirmative non-segmentable sentences in the contrasted languages serve to express the approval of the content in the antecedent sentence. For example: *“Has she three children then?”* – *“У неї, отже, троє дітей?”* – *“Так”*. Simple affirmative non-segmentable sentences may often be emphasised by interjections or through doubling of a particle. For example: *“That is in the United States?”* *“Yes.”* – *“Тобто в Сполучених Штатах?”* – *“Так.”*

Negative non-segmentable sentences serve to express disagreement with the statement contained in the antecedent sentence. An ordinary /non-emphatic negation is usually expressed in English through the pronominal particle *“no”* and in Ukrainian – through the particle *“ні”*: *“Scared of the dark, too, kid?”* – *“No.”* – *“Теж боїшся темноти, хлопче?”* – *“Ні.”*

Interrogative non-segmentable sentences are formed by the particle *“yes”* (less often *“no”*) and some interjections: *“I got a cable this morning from my wife.”* – *“Yes?”* – *“Мені телефонувала сьогодні вранці дружина”* – *“Так?”*

Non-segmentable sentences are often used to express some *modal meanings* (certainty, one's will, consent, warning, etc.): *“You can have it tonight.”* – *“Right?”* – *“Можеш сьогодні це мати.”* – *“Справді?”*.

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN SENTENCES

The existence of the independent parts is the isomorphic feature. Independent elements in both languages represented by interjections, words/phrases of direct address, parenthetical words and inserted words or sentences that serve to express corresponding attitudes of the speaker to the content of the utterance.

- 1. Elements of direct address** – words/word-groups denoting a person/non-person to whom the rest of the sentence is addressed. They may occupy the initial, the mid, the closing position.

Ex: *Go and eat, Tom. – Пiди i поїж сам, Томе.*

In Ukrainian they are mostly marked by a vocative case inflexion (*Томе, Дейве*), but some nouns in the vocative case do not have a morphological expression (*слово, небо, мiс Фiлiнс*)

In both languages they are often preceded by emphatic particles or motives:

Oh, George, don't be so generous! – О, Джордже, не будь таким щедрим!

- 2. Parenthetical elements**

In both languages have identical structural forms (words/word-groups/sentences) and are used to perform such 2 main functions as:

- the modal function – express the hypothetical or reported indirect modality (using modal words/phrases/sentences – *certainly, maybe, no doubt, it seems* etc. – *мабуть, безсумнівно, як здається* тощо),
- the subjective and evaluative function.

They may refer to the sentence as a whole or to a secondary part of it; may occupy the initial, the mid, the closing position.

They are used to express the general assessment of the action or fact on the part of the speaker (*in fact, truth to tell, really* etc. *певна рiч, правду казати, як відомо тощо*); subjective and evaluative modality (*in my opinion, I should say* etc. *кажуть, на мою думку, смію гадати* тощо);

- 3. Inserted elements** – give additional information about a part of a sentence/its general content. Isomorphic by their linguistic nature and structural forms; are marked by commas, dashes, brackets; are used only in the mid and closing position.

Ex. *Mr. Darsy, once again interrupted, turned his eyes on him. А це вмiння (розмовляти i слухати) дуже важливе для письменника.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN SIMPLE SENTENCES

THE LINGUAL CATEGORY OF MOOD (as the correlate to the conceptual category of MODALITY)

This category is designed at showing the attitude of the speaker towards the content of the sentence, whether the speaker considers the action real, unreal, desirable, necessary, etc. It is expressed in the form of the verb in both languages.

There are three moods:

- 1) **the indicative mood,**
- 2) **the imperative mood and**
- 3) **the subjunctive mood.**

THE INDICATIVE MOOD

The indicative mood form shows the event depicted in the sentence as a fact. It may denote actions with different time-reference and different aspective characteristics. Therefore the indicative mood has a wide variety of tense and aspect forms in the active and passive voice.

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD

The imperative mood expresses a command or a request to perform an action addressed to somebody, but not the action itself. As it does not actually denote an action as a real act, it has no tense category; the unfulfilled action always refers to the future. This form is always addressed to the second person.

Don't worry about the child.

Do come and stay with us (emotional 'do').

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN SIMPLE SENTENCES

The subjunctive mood forms are used in simple sentences to express an unreal action in simple sentences of the following kind:

1. **In exclamatory sentences** beginning with **if only** to express a wish.

If only it were true! If only I knew what to do! If only I had listened to my parents! От якби я знав це раніше!

2. **In exclamatory sentences** to express an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts (surprise and disbelief). Here **should + infinitive** is used.

And this should happen just today! Треба ж, щоб це сталося саме сьогодні!

3. **In questions** expressing astonishment or indignation **should + infinitive** is used:

Why should you talk to me like that? How should I know? Why should you not do it? Чому тобі не ніти з нами?

4. **In conversational formulas such as:**

a) **slogans:** *Long live heroes!;*

b) **oaths:**

Far be it from me to argue with you! - Щоб я став с тобою сперечатись!

c) **wishes forms with may + infinitive:** *May success attend you! May you be happy! May he win! Нехай тобі щастить!*

d) **preference or suggestion with had better, had best, would rather, would sooner +Inf:** *You'd better go at once. You had best take notes!*

English mood auxiliaries correlate with the Ukrainian: 1) 'бу/б', 'нехай/хай' both being analytical, 2) the past verb form in the clause introduced by the conjunction *щоб, якби, ніби* тощо) or 3) the Infinitive.

THE TYPOLOGY OF THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE

A composite sentence in English and in Ukrainian, like in all other languages, contains two or more predicative centres, that's why it can also be called a polypredicative unit.

Apart from the simple sentence reflecting a single event of the objective reality, a composite sentence unites two or more objective situations.

Structurally composite sentences in both languages fall into such types: compound, complex, compound-complex.

COMPOUND SENTENCES IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Clauses in compound sentences of the contrasted languages are mostly joined by means of coordinate conjunctions which provide *parataxal relations* between them.

Parataxal relations refer to a type of syntactic relationship between clauses or phrases in a sentence. In parataxis, the clauses or phrases are placed side by side, with little or no connectives or subordination. This creates a more direct and simple style of writing.

Parataxal relations are often used to convey a sense of immediacy or simplicity, and to create a faster-paced narrative or argument. They can also be used to emphasize the equality or independence of the clauses or phrases involved.

For example, in the sentence "I came, I saw, I conquered," the three clauses are placed next to each other without any connectors. This parataxal relation creates a sense of directness and emphasizes the separate actions of coming, seeing, and conquering.

This type of syntactic structure can be found in various forms of literature, including poetry, speech, and informal writing. However, it is important to note that parataxis is not as common in formal academic or professional writing, where more complex and subordinated sentence structures are preferred.

Conjunctions joining clauses in compound sentences of the contrasted languages are practically of the same semantic nature: copulative, disjunctive, adversative, and causative-consecutive (in English only). Equally common in the contrasted languages are various connectives that join coordinate clauses. These are as follows: *therefore, consequently, accordingly, then, hence, so, while, as well as* and some explanatory connective words (*that is to say, such as, like, let me say* and

others), which have corresponding functional (and semantic) equivalents in Ukrainian (*отже, та, а саме, звідси, тобто, тоді, як-то, так-як, ...так, скажімо, то...то*).

Coordination in both languages comprises the following types of syndetic connection: copulative, disjunctive, adversative and causative-consecutive. These types of coordination are mostly reflected in the structure of the compound sentence by means of corresponding conjunctions or various connectives:

1. **Copulative connection** usually shows that the clauses joined into the compound sentence present details of one whole (situation/appearance etc.). The most common conjunctions are: *and, та, й, і*. Напр. *Він засміявся і я засміялась*.
2. **Disjunctive coordination** is marked in the compound sentence by such conjunctions as *or, either...or, або, або...або, чи...чи*. Eg. *Я плакати мушу, а то в мене серце розірветься*.
3. **Adversative connection** is realized with the help of conjunctions *but, still, yet*, whose equivalents in Ukrainian are *а, але, проте, однак, та*. Eg. *Часом гору ховав туман, та вона знову вирунала в яскравих променях сонця*.
4. **Causative-consecutive coordination** can be observed in compound sentences when coordinate clause are joined by conjunctions *for, since, because, бо, оскільки* etc. Eg. *The scholarship helped them a great deal for they were not rich people*.

Coordinate conjunctions, as well as various connectives, realize their functional and semantic meaning in structurally and semantically identical English and Ukrainian compound sentences. This is to be explained by the existence of common relations that are created between the coordinate clauses of compound sentences and to a large degree by the semantic meanings of conjunctions/connectives that join these clauses. As a result, isomorphism, if not exact likeness, is observed in the nature of some subtypes of English and Ukrainian compound sentences. These isomorphic features find their expressions in the existence of the following subtypes of them:

- Compound sentences with independent clauses connected by copulative conjunctions (*and, both...and, nor, neither...nor, not only...but (also)* etc.) denoting logical operation of addition.

- Compound sentences with independent clauses connected by disjunctive conjunctions (*or, either...or* etc.) denoting logical operation of choice.
- Compound sentences with independent clauses connected by adversative conjunctions (*but, while, whereas* etc.) denoting logical operation of opposition.
- Compound sentences with independent clauses connected by causative-consecutive conjunctions denoting logical operation of cause (*for*) and consequence (*so*) (in English only, the relations of such types are of subordination in Ukrainian).

Note: Causative-consecutive are marginal with the subordinate type. The difference is that coordinate *for-clause* or *so-clause*, *for instance*, cannot precede the clause it is joined to while subordinate clauses can.

CF: e.g. *For the story was funny everybody laughed.*
 e.g. *As the story was funny everybody laughed.*

A compound sentence is of isomorphic nature in the contrasted languages and consists of two or several coordinate clauses joined syndetically or asyndetically.

Clauses are joined asyndetically if there is no formal linking element:

Напр. *Усмішка не зірїла мене, вона викликала в мене відразу.*

CONCLUSION: The system of the compound sentence in the contrasted languages can be characterized as completely identical. Isomorphism is observed in main types of coordination as well as in the means of their realization.

In both English and Ukrainian, compound sentences are formed by combining two or more independent clauses. Independent clauses are clauses that can stand alone as complete sentences. There are different ways to connect independent clauses in both languages, including the use of coordinating conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, and semicolons.

1. Coordinating Conjunctions:

In English, the most common coordinating conjunctions used to form compound sentences are "and," "but," "or," "nor," "for," "so," and "yet." For example:

- English: *I went to the store, **and** I bought some groceries.*

- Ukrainian: *Я пішов у магазин, **і** я купив деякі продукти.*

2. Conjunctive Adverbs:

Both English and Ukrainian also use conjunctive adverbs to connect independent clauses. These adverbs, such as "however," "therefore," "moreover," or "безумовно" in Ukrainian, are placed at the beginning of the second clause and are typically followed by a comma. For example:

- English: *I wanted to go to the party; however, I was too tired.*
- Ukrainian: *Я хотів піти на вечірку; безумовно, я був дуже втомлений.*

3. Semicolons:

In English, semicolons can be used to connect two closely related independent clauses that are not joined by a coordinating conjunction. However, in Ukrainian, the common practice is to use a coordinating conjunction or conjunctive adverb instead. For example:

- English: *She enjoys playing the piano; it helps her relax.*
- Ukrainian: *Вона любить грати на піаніно; це допомагає їй розслабитися.*

TYOLOGY OF SEMI-COMPOUND SENTENCES

Apart from complete compound sentences consisting of clauses having each the principal parts of the sentence, there exist also semi-compound sentences. They are communicative units in which one (usually the first) clause is structurally complete and the succeeding clause is incomplete, i. e. lacks one or both main parts of the sentence, eg. *Melton was not large enough to be a town, nor small enough to be a village. Селище Мельтон було замалим для міста і завеликим як для села, щоб вважатися селом. (Hughes)*

The second part of the sentence both in English and in Ukrainian lacks the subject and the linking verb; it is an elliptical clause whose lacking elements can be easily restored from the first clause. Cf. *...Nor was Melton small enough to be a village – (і був Мелтон) завеликим для села/щоб вважатися селом.* A similar lack of the subject is observed in the sentence "He couldn't believe it and was a little scared" (Saroyan), as well as in the sentence "The guys seemed to notice it and felt strained". (Quin) Their Ukrainian equivalents lack the same parts of the sentence: *Він не міг повірити цьому і був децю наляканий. Хлопці, здавалося, помітили це і почувалися непевно.*

Other parts of the sentence may be lacking in semi-compound sentences of this type as well. For example, the lacking linking verb: *His dreams were so simple; his wants so few. (Dreiser),* i. e. "his wants (were) so few". Lacking may also be the subject and the predicate: *After the second bath in the hot viniger the shell of the egg had been softened a little but not enough for his purpose. (Anderson).* Here the omitted parts in the tag are the subject ("the shell of the egg") and the predicate (has been softened) "not enough for the purpose".

Or in such a sentence: *He used to be as popular as anyone, and made as much noise.* (Quin), i. e. and (he) "made as much noise". These and other sentences of the type have semi-compound transforms in Ukrainian as well... *шкаралупа яйця пом'якшала, проте (вона) пом'якшала недостатньо для цього. Він був такий популярний, як і кожен на його місці, і (він) створював (навколо себе) стільки ж галасу.*

Some English semi-composite sentences have no structural sentence equivalents in Ukrainian. Here belong sentences whose parts are expressed by secondary predication constructions. Thus, the English semi-compound sentence *He looked at her and saw her crying.* (Hemingway) has a complete complex sentence for its equivalent in Ukrainian: *Він глянув на неї і побачив, що вона плаче* (object clause).

English semi-compound sentences with the nominative absolute participle constructions have mostly complete compound sentences for their equivalents in Ukrainian as well: *Nancy's head was already turned toward the barred door, her eyes filled with red lamplights.* (Faulkner) – *Голова Ненсі була повернута до запертих дверей, і в очах її відбилося червоне світло лампочки.*

These are the main allomorphic features distinguishing the English semi-compound sentences which have no direct structural equivalents in present-day Ukrainian.

COMPLEX SENTENCES IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

The complex sentence presents a universal unit in the syntactic systems of all languages of the world.

In English, a complex sentence consists of an independent clause and at least one dependent clause. An independent clause can stand alone as a complete sentence, while a dependent clause cannot.

Example:

I went to the store after I finished my work.

In Ukrainian, complex sentences follow a similar structure. They usually consist of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. The subordinate clause depends on the main clause to form a complete thought.

Example:

Я пішов до магазину після того, як закінчив свою роботу.

The main **isomorphic** features in the contrasted languages are as follows:

- 1) the complex sentence is a **polypredicative unit**;
- 2) it is characterized by **the subordinate way of joining clauses** to the principal/main one;
- 3) it may consist of dependent clauses joined to the main one **syndetically or asyndetically**;
- 4) **the system of syndetic means** of connection includes conjunctions, connective pronouns, connective adverbs and connective words.

The types of subordinate clauses are also identical. There differentiated such types in the contrasted languages:

- 1) **Subject** clauses (підметові). Eg. What you say is true. Те, що ти кажеш, є правда.
- 2) **Predicative** (присудкові). Eg. My only fear was that you would be ... bored. Єдиним моїм побоюванням було, що ти нудитимешся.
- 3) **Object** (додатку): I regret that I can't help you. Я шкодую, що не можу тобі допомогти.
- 4) **Descriptive attributive** (описово-означувальні): I looked at my cousin who began to ask me questions. Я подивився на свого кузена, котрий почав задавати мені запитання.
- 5) **Restrictive attributive** (обмежувально-означувальні): She is the woman I saw yesterday. Це та сама жінка, котру я бачив учора.
- 6) **Adverbial clauses** (адвербіальні) of time, place, purpose, attending circumstances, condition, concession, result etc.: He came home when it was quite dark. Він прийшов додому, коли було вже майже темно.

Allomorphic features:

- 1) In Ukrainian there is no asyndetic way of joining the restrictive attributive clause to the main ones. Compare the English and the Ukrainian sentences given above;
- 2) Complex sentences with object subordinate clauses in Ukrainian can be rendered into English by simple sentences with gerundial, infinitive or participial constructions, which perform the functions of complex objects: Я бачив, як вона йшла – I saw her walking.

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Compound-complex sentences present an isomorphic type in the system of composite sentences of the contrasted languages. These sentences consist of two or more complex sentences preceding and following the coordinate conjunction. Hence, there can be distinguished in English and Ukrainian both unextended and extended compound-complex sentences.

The pattern of an unextended compound-complex sentence in the contrasted languages is as follows: a complex sentence + conj.+ a complex sentence, for example: "I *suppose* I'm clever but that's the way (*I am*). Я *вважаю*, що я розумний, але так уже сталося / що я (*є*) такий.

Extended compound-complex sentences consist respectively of more than two complex sentences to the left and to the right of the co-ordinate conjunctions. Cf. *It was, (1) she knew, the best water colour (2) she had painted in her four years at a high-school as art student and she was glad (3) she had made something (4) Miss Dietrich liked well enough to permit to enter in the contest (5) before she graduated* (Hughes). This sentence fully preserves its structural form in Ukrainian. Cf. Це був, (1) вона знала, її найкращий акварельний малюнок, (2) який вона зробила за свої чотири роки навчання в художньому училищі, і вона була рада, (3) що їй пощастило намалювати щось таке, (4) що дуже сподобалося викладачці міс Дітріх, (5) яка й дозволила їй взяти участь у передвипускному конкурсі.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN COMPLEX SENTENCES IN ENGLISH

SHOULD is a regular mood auxiliary to mark problematic actions in most of subordinate clauses in case the speaker doubts in the action being successful. It correlates with the Ukrainian: 1) ‘би/б’, both being analytical, 2) the past verb form in the subclause introduced by the conjunction *щоб, щоб, якби, ніби* тощо), 3) the future verb form in the subclause of condition introduced by the conjunction *якщо* or 4) the Infinitive.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN SUBJECT CLAUSES

It	is was will be	necessary important desirable advisable obligatory urgent	that	smb should do smth (Br. E.) smb do smth (Am. E.)
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It is important that *every delegate (should) arrive on time*. Важливо, *щоб* кожен делегат *прибув* вчасно. (Subj. M in E :: past verb form in U in the subclause introduced by the conjunction *щоб*).

It is necessary that *they should realize the gravity of the situation*.

It	is was will be	suggested demanded decided proposed agreed arranged determined ordered required requested recommended	that	smb should do smth (Br. E.) smb do smth (Am. E.)
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It is requested that *individual work should be paid according to the worker's contribution in his plant*.

It was ordered that *no ship (should) leave the harbor before daybreak*. Було наказано, *щоб* судно *покинуло* гавань до світанку.

It is/was (high) time	smb did (were) smth
-----------------------	----------------------------

Ten to six. It's time *he were here*. Давно пора йому *бути* тут.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN PREDICATIVE CLAUSES

It	looks/looked/will look seems/seemed/will seem is/was/will be	as if as though	smb <i>did</i> smth smb <i>had done</i> smth
----	--	--------------------	---

It was as if *she were angry with me.*

He looked as if *he knew it to be true.* I felt as if *I had gone blind.*

order demand suggestion wish motion rule arrangement request recommendation	is was will be	that	smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)
---	----------------------	------	---

His aim was that *his enemies should be discredited.*

The condition was that *I should join one of those clubs.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN OBJECT CLAUSES

to suggest to demand to insist to order to arrange to request to propose to require	that	smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)
--	------	---

He suggested *that we should begin at once.*

He will insist *that we should do it ourselves.*

Smb	wishes wished will wish	smb <i>did</i> smth smb <i>had done</i> smth
-----	-------------------------------	---

I wish *he came.* Шкода, що він *не прийшов.*

Now she wished *she had taken the chance.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN ATTRIBUTIVE CLAUSES

order demand suggestion recommendation wish motion rule arrangement request	that	smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)
---	------	---

We remember his request *that all his books should be kept in place.*

They unanimously supported the proposal *that a committee should be appointed to deal with the matter.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Conditional Clauses

Real condition

If you push this button, the TV **comes** on.

If I see her, I'll **be** very glad.

Якщо ти **пну́деш**, я **буду** рада.

Problematic condition

If smb <i>should say</i> smth	smb will do smth
<i>Should</i> smb say smth.	do smth

If you should see her, give her my love. *Should you see her,* give her my love.

Unreal condition

If	<i>smb did</i> smth	smb <i>would do</i> smth (I, we <i>should do</i> smth)
	<i>smb had done</i> smth	smb <i>would have done</i> smth (I, we <i>should have done</i> smth)

If I saw her, I should be very glad.

If I had seen her, I would have been very glad.

Clauses of purpose

to do smth	so that that in order that	smb	<i>may/might</i> <i>can/could</i>	(not) <i>do</i> smth
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She kept her head averted *so that we could (might) not see her smile.*

to do smth	lest	smb <i>should do</i> smth smb <i>do</i> smth
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He drew a plan for me *lest I (should) lose my way.*

Clauses of comparison

to look to feel to seem to be to act	as if as though	smb <i>did</i> smth smb <i>had done</i> smth
--	--------------------	---

She speaks of the man *as if she knew him very well.*

Clauses of Concession

Even if Even though	<i>smb did</i> smth	smb <i>would do</i> smth (I, we <i>should do</i> smth)
	<i>smb had done</i> smth	smb <i>would have done</i> smth (I, we <i>should have done</i> smth)

Even if he knew about it, he wouldn't tell us anything.

Even if he had known about it, he wouldn't have told us anything.

POINTS FOR REVISION

- 1) What are the constants of the syntactic level?
- 2) What is the Word-Group?
- 3) What is the Sentence?
- 4) What types of syntactic relations do you know?
- 5) What is coordination? What are its types in the contrasted languages?
- 6) What is subordination? What are its types in the contrasted languages?
- 7) What is predication? What are its types in the contrasted languages?
- 8) What syntactic processes do you know?
- 9) What are external processes? Give examples.
- 10) What external processes are isomorphic in the contrasted languages?
- 11) What external processes are allomorphic in the contrasted languages?
- 12) What are internal processes? Provide with examples.
- 13) What internal processes are isomorphic in the contrasted languages?
- 14) What internal processes are allomorphic in the contrasted languages?
- 15) What types of Word-Groups are there in English and in Ukrainian?
- 16) What type of the Word-Group is missing in the Ukrainian language?
- 17) What means of grammatical connection are differentiated in the contrasted languages?
- 18) What means of analytical (analytic-synthetic, synthetic) connection do you know? Which of them is predominant in the contrasted languages?
- 19) What is agreement?
- 20) What is government?
- 21) What is adjoinment?
- 22) What are the two kinds of two-member sentences? What is their presentation in the contrasted languages?
- 23) What types of two-member sentences are non-existent in Ukrainian?
- 24) Name the one-member sentences which have a larger representation in Ukrainian?
- 25) What are quasi sentences? Are they common for both languages?
- 26) Are the communicative types of sentences allomorphic in the contrasted languages?
- 27) What is the compound sentence?

- 28) Characterize the typology of the compound sentence in the contrasted languages.
- 29) What is the complex sentence?
- 30) Characterize the typology of the complex sentence in the contrasted languages.
- 31) What types of the subordinate clauses are allomorphic in the contrasted languages?

REVIEW EXERCISES

1) Point out isomorphic and allomorphic features in the following common binary oppositions in the phonetic system of English and Ukrainian:

English	Ukrainian
[l: - u:] mean - moon	[i - y] бік - бук
[i - u] tick - took	[i - o] скік - скок
[e - ə:] ten - turn	[i - a] сім - сам
[æ - a:] lad - lard	[e - a] трель - трап
[a: - ɔ] tar - tot	[и - о] мир - мор
[ʌ - ɔ:] cut - caught	[и - а] мир - мур

2) Identify isomorphic and allomorphic features of the phonemic correlations in English and Ukrainian. State their functions in the contrasted languages:

- A. *Man – men, woman – women, mouse – mice, foot – feet, know – knew, take – took*
- B. *Весна – весни (весни), гора – гірка, ніч – печі, Львів – Львова, ставок – ставка), око – очі. Просо – (у) просі, пастух – пастуше, птах – птаство, хлопець – хлоп'ята.*

3) Find isomorphic and allomorphic features in English and Ukrainian consonant sounds formed as a result of clustering in the initial positions or doubling in the mid or final position in the following words:

- A. *abbreviation, cobble, addition, gladder, wedding, coffee, surfice, aggregate, trigging, collect, illegal, Willie.*
- B. *Оббити, вводити, віддавати, наддніпрянський, безмежжя, збіжжя, ззаду, розброїти, заліззя, пониззя, міськком, Алла.*

4) Characterize the type of assimilation (progressive or regressive) in the words below. State which of these types is more frequent in English and which in Ukrainian:

- A. *handkerchief, grandmother, kindness, sandwich, session, voiced, don't you, called you, gooseberry;*
- B. *бджола, Гандзя, (на) з'їзді, у гаразді (з"ді), м'яч (мна"ч), м'який (мна"кий), вісті (віс"ці), близькість(с"ц"), громадський (мадский), безчестя (с"ц), у діжці.*

5) Point out the difference, if any, in the morphemic and syllabic structures of the given words:

- A. *colony, possibility, agree, together, opened, rhythm, film, ice-cream, fodder, splashed, city.*
- B. *молоко, виніс, мітелочка, одинак, мітла, чаклун, висхідний, заочник, мудрити, опришок, пожмаканий, спізнився, об'ївся.*

6) State, whether the given pairs of words represent word-building or form-building function of accentuation in the contrasted languages:

- A. *conduct (n) – conduct (v)*
import (n) – import (v)
produce (n) – produce (v)
suspect (n) – suspect (v)
absent (a) – absent (v)
frequent (a) – frequent (v)
perfect (a) – perfect (v)
- B. *замок (n) – замок (n)*
мука (n) – мука (n)
заняття (n) – заняття (n)
левади (N pl) – левади (N gen., dual num)
корови (N pl) – корови (N gen., dual num)
голубці (N pl) – голубці (N dat)
кленові (N pl) – кленові (N dat)
говірка (n) – говірка (a)

- 7) Translate the English words into Ukrainian and point out:**
- a) words in which onomasiological form and zemasiological structure of the word coincide;
 - b) words in which these notions do not coincide:
- A. *blue, red, two-thirds, forty, akimbo, fall in love, good—for-nothing, merry-go-round, examinee.*
 - B. *розкохати (когось), свататися, господарювати, спатки, окріп, санітар, миттєво, самотужки, самохіть, вусики, вустонька, кулачище.*
- 8) Point out to the existence or non-existence of isomorphism in the types of motivation in the following words and word-groups:**
- A. *black, blacken, large, enlarge, examinee, forget, unforgettable, good, goodish, hiss;*
 - B. *збір, збірач, вимога, вимогливий, новаторський, кульбаба, кульбабовий, гейкати, мекати, гелготати, сьорбати, дзеленчати.*
- 9) Analyse the given English and Ukrainian words and word-groups. Allot them to the corresponding layers of lexicon: internationalisms (terms), professionalisms, archaisms, neologisms. State their typologically national or universal nature:**
- A. *electron, bacteria, cholera, motor, computer, theorem, triangle, grammar, physics, jurisdiction, lawyer, teacher.*
 - B. *кібернетика, література, музика, поезія, академія, інститут, журнал, пекар, письменник, фінанси, валютний фонд, педагогіка, філософія, хлібороб.*
- 10) Contrast the morphological structure of the English and Ukrainian words below. Identify: a) the national and b) the international affixal morphemes in them:**
- A. *ablaze, bedew, degrading, illegally, interstate, non-smoking, linguisticallly, dictatorship, computerization, employee.*

В. краще, вводити, зім'яти, антитіло, посятися, нереально, диктаторство, недокінченність, комп'ютеризація, по-новому, дитяточко, дрібнесенько

11) Find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the expression of the morphological categories of number, case and gender in the underlined English word groups and in their Ukrainian equivalents in the sentences below:

- A. 1. *I've got to see her home.*
2. *That was a great shock to me.*
3. *Every family has its own cultural rules.*
4. *Off went the proud Kangaroo on his four little legs.*

- B. 1. *Я маю подивитись її дім.*
2. *То було великим ударом для мене.*
3. *Кожна родина має свої правила культурної поведінки.*
4. *І стрибнув Кенгуру на своїх чотирьох ніжках.*

12) Point out the difference in the expressions of the morphological categories of tense, aspect, mood in English and Ukrainian verbs in the following sentences:

- A. 1. *... how diligent I have been, and am being.*
2. *Haven't you ever seen it before?*
3. *I shall be painting all day.*
4. *I thought we'd ride up together.*
5. *What have you been doing to yourself since I've been away?*

- B. 1. *... яким ретельним я завжди був і (зараз) є.*
2. *Невже ви досі її не бачили.*
3. *Я малюватиму цілий день.*
4. *Я думаю, ми проїдемо верхи на конях.*
5. *Що ви тут поробляли самі, відколи мене не було.*

13) Identify the nature of the head words and name the paradigmatic classes of the following English and Ukrainian word groups:

- A. *the House of Commons debate, you British, the wish to win, reading*

quickly, busy doing sums, typical of English literature, red from anger, too simple, rather brightly, simply awful.

В. вибір твору, питання праці й заробітку, ви англійці, бажання знати, рано встати, читавши книжку, гарної вроди, готовий до всього, все для них, перший з нас.

14) Point out and analyse the English predicative word-groups in the sentences below and suggest the corresponding Ukrainian semantic and structural equivalents to them:

- 1. She didn't want him to be laughed at.*
- 2. He waited for her to speak.*
- 3. He saw himself and Ruth reading and discussing poetry.*
- 4. The man stared at her, his face pale with anxiety.*
- 5. It's quite necessary their being encouraged now, at the final stage of their long and tiresome projection work.*

INDIVIDUAL ASSIGNMENTS

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 1

Contrast the morphological structure of the English and Ukrainian words below.

Identify: a) the national and b) the international affixal morphemes in them:

1. Computerization, employee, examinee, princeling, sissy, cloudlet, ablaze, bedew, degrading, illegally, interstate, noil-smoking, linguistically, dictatorship, drunkard, sluggard, commander-in-chief, merry-go-round, fifty-fifty, willy-nilly.
2. По-новому, дитяточко, дрібнесенько, козарлюга, бацище, здоровило, щонайкращий, якнайновіша, якнайбільше, краще, вводити, зім'яти, анітитіло, посіятися, нереально, диктаторство, недокінченість, Гнидуб, комп'ютеризація, попоходити, попобігати, перекотиполе, сяк-так, хоч-не-хоч.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 2

Point out and analyse the English predicative word-groups in the sentences below and suggest their corresponding Ukrainian semantic and structural equivalents:

1. She did not want him to be laughed at (Cronin).
2. He waited for her to speak, but she did not (Ibid.).
3. For about ten days we seemed to have been living on nothing but cold meat, cake, and bread, and jam (Jerome).
4. We saw behind us thousands and thousands of white gulls dipping, wheeling, brushing the water with their wings (Galsworthy).
5. He saw himself and Ruth reading and discussing poetry (London).
6. That being so, then he could rise to Ruth (Ibid.).
7. After the data being obtained, the crystal was taken from the oil-bath (Wilson).
8. He sat up suddenly, his muscular tensity in laughing aloud and the laugh being carried by the wind away from me (Saroyan).
9. Even Mummy couldn't mistake for me being killed (Kipling).

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 3

Contrast the morphological structure of the English and Ukrainian words below. Identify a) the national and b) the international affixal morphemes in them.

English: Bedew, linguistically, dictatorship, cloudlet, commander-in-chief, willy-nilly.

Ukrainian: зім'яти, комп'ютеризація, дитяточко, якнайновіша, попоходити, хоч-не-хоч.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 4

Point to the factors facilitating (or otherwise) the identification of the parts of speech in the following English and Ukrainian words/word forms.

English: Clean, cleaner, cleaning, back, bad, badly.

Ukrainian: Добре, краще, мати, матір, молода/молодий, варене/печене.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 5

Which type of combinability can serve as a criterion for classification of a word as a noun in the English language with its developed homonymy? Find the words which help identify nouns in the sentences below:

One can hardly fail to recognize his works.	He works miracles.
The sweet and the bitter of life.	The pie tastes sweet.
They married for love.	The child came to love his nurse.
She cast a quick glance at him.	I saw him glance over his shoulder.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 6

Which semantic features characterise the noun as a part of speech? Classify the English and Ukrainian nouns below into the following groups: a) things; b) people; c) living beings; d) substances; e) facts, events, occurrences; f) various features: qualities, activities.

English: Table, fox, sugar, help, tree, travel, duty, fellow, kindness, caution, bank, safety, year, report, chair, question, policy, trip.

Ukrainian: Вершки, сани, бесіда, людина, настрій, година, вітер, горобина, радість, біг, щука, світ, глибина, крупа, мова.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 7

Using the model below prove the existence of the objective gender (sex) and the non-existence of the morphological gender in the English animate nouns in contrast to the existence of both genders in their Ukrainian equivalents.

Model: *the actor played - the actress played (well). Артист грав- артистка грала (гарно).*

English: Director - directrix, king - queen, lion - lioness, bull - cow.

Ukrainian: Директор - директриса, король - королева, лев - левиця, бугай - корова.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 8

State the difference (if any) in the expression of the category of number and quantity in the following English and Ukrainian nouns.

English: Advice, oil, tongs, the North-West, finance.

Ukrainian: М'ясо, міліція, освіта, проводи, гнів.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 9

Divide the nouns below into two classes: singularia tantum and pluralia tantum. Add three more nouns into each category:

English: Optics, quicksilver, odour, stairs, butter, the sun.

Ukrainian: Сонце, ножиці, оглядини, скорбота, Гімалаї, фінанси.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 10

Find the isomorphic and allomorphic features in the expression of the morphological categories of number, case and gender in the underlined English nominals and in their Ukrainian equivalents in the sentences below.

The two were quiet unable to do

Ці двоє були зовсім не в змозі

<i>anything,</i>	<i>щось зробити</i>
<i>The first was an old woman.</i>	<i>Перша була вже стара жінка.</i>
<i>I sympathize with you in your husband's death.</i>	<i>Я співчуваю тобі у зв'язку зі смертю твого чоловіка.</i>
<i>Young man, you're very ready with your tongue.</i>	<i>Ви, юначе, ніколи не лізете за словом у кишеню.</i>
<i>I've got to see her home.</i>	<i>Я маю подивитися її дім.</i>

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 11

Divide the adjectives below into two semantic classes (qualitative and relative):

English: Tall, calm, wooden, social, long-legged, slow.

Ukrainian: Гарний, солодкий, грубезний, португальський, скептичний, ясний.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 12

Make the comparative and superlative degrees of the following adjectives. Analyse the isomorphic and allomorphic features of degrees of comparison of adjectives in English and Ukrainian:

English: Clever, healthy, nice, early, strange.

Ukrainian: Дужий, великий, важкий, дорогий, привітний.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 13

Analyse the examples in English and Ukrainian and name the morphological ways of expressing the notion of "comparativeness" in both languages:

<i>I'm <u>the prettiest</u> girl in all Sweden.</i>	<i>Але, коли ти <u>молодша</u> була, то й шовк <u>яскравіший</u> брала.</i>
<i>The <u>farther she went, the bigger and the redder</u> were the strawberries.</i>	<i>Він увійшов у центр <u>найважливіших</u> вражень та думок, викликаних цією музикою.</i>
<i>She is <u>a most efficient</u> publisher.</i>	<i>Пантен заплутався у <u>найнеймовірніших</u> припущеннях.</i>

Isn't she a most beautiful woman?

Дивовижний, найкращий шовк - незрівнянний товар

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 14

Analyse the following examples and state the functional similarity and differences in means of realization of verbal morphological categories:

Where is he? - He is watching TV in the sitting room.

Де він? - Він дивиться телевизор у вітальні.

When I entered the room, John was speaking to Mary.

Коли я увійшов до кімнати, Джон розмовляв з Мері.

I go shopping every day.

Я ходжу в магазин щодня.

I read much.

Я багато читаю.

He has already come.

Він вже прийшов.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 15

Point out the difference in the expression of the morphological categories of tense, aspect and mood in the English and Ukrainian verbs in the following sentences.

How diligent I *have been* and *am being*. Яким ретельним я завжди був і є!

Water was given her. Їй дали води.

Some things *had been lost sight of*. Від деяких речей загубився слід (зникли з очей).

Let me *go in* and *see* him alone. Нум я *зайду й сам*. побалакаю з ним.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 16

Divide the word combinations into three main groups:

1) coordinate; 2) subordinate; 3) predicative:

English: To live and fight, having done it, typically English, red or black, we work, the light of the lamp.

Ukrainian: Мир і дружба, пташка співає, писати чи перекладати, надавати допомогу, зробивши це, типово англійський.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 17

State the part of speech of the words in bold in the following sentences. Find the means of realization of syntactic relations, characteristic of the given parts of the sentences in English and Ukrainian. State the allomorphic and isomorphic features.

I saw a lovely **sight**.

He **helps me** a lot.

These parts are **deserted**.

A vast plane unfolded before us.

Коляска під'їхала до **будинку**.

Криві вулички збігалися до центру міста.

Дзвіночок **дзеленчав** і дзеленчав.

Картина мене вразила.

POINTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

Individual assignments

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 1

Identify the way of producing adverbs: prefixal, suffixal, combined affixal, compounding or conversion (part a) and state the parts of speech underlined (part b) in the following Ukrainian words/word forms. Investigate the English ones:

- A. Двічі, невесело, ліворуч, глибоко, ушосте, мимоволі, ранком, зблизька, завідно, бігóm, щовівторка, здавна, босоніж, щоразу, вранці, добре;
- B. 1. Там добре, де нас немає. 2. Добре слово кожному приємне. 3. Ранком дуже холодно. 4. Мама прийшла привітати з добрим ранком. 5. Надворі швидко стемніло. 6. Дрова лежали на дворі бабусиної хати. 7. Ми спостерігали згори. 8. Альпіністи спускалися з гори. 9. Закінчили роботу вдень. 10. Побачилися в день зустрічі. 11. Вивчив вірш напам'ять. 12. Бабуся скаржиться на пам'ять. 13. Річка тече поволі, стіха. 14. Чи по волі своїй, чи по неволі ти прийшов? 15. Тепер живемо по-новому. 16. Туристи пішли по новому мосту. 17. Вони вдвох швидко прибігли. 18. Вони жили в двох кімнатах. 19. Він приїхав до нас уперше. 20. Ми постукали у перше вікно. 21. Ходив навколо будинку. 22. Навколо панувала тиша. 23. Я йшов попереду батька. 24. Я йшов попереду. 25. Край дороги росли тополі. 26. Люблю свій рідний край.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 2

Contrast the morphological structure of the English and Ukrainian words. Identify: a) the national and b) the international affixal morphemes:

- A. Afire, illegally, underestimate, non-detached, behold, examinee, princeling, cloudlet, ablaze, bedew, linguistically, drunkard, sluggard, mother-in-law, defraud.
- B. По-нашому, малятко, гарнесенько, ножище, здоровило, щонайліпший, якнайновіша, якнайбільше, краще, Піддубний, Тягнибок, антитіло, комп'ютеризація, попоходити, попобігати, перекотиполе.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 3

Point to the factors facilitating (or otherwise) the identification of the parts of speech in the following English and Ukrainian words/word forms.

A. Fast, deep, deeply, near, nearly, free, freely, clean, cleaner, cleaning, back, bad, badly, compete, competitor, competitively, competition.

В. Добре, батьків, краще, мати, написав, матір, лисиччин, молода/молодий, варене/печене/смажене/парене.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 4

Which type of combinability can serve as a criterion for classification of a word as a noun in the English language with its developed homonymy? Find the words which help to identify nouns in the sentences below:

- One can hardly fail to remember all his dreams. He dreams of the trip to France.
- The sweet pie was cooked for my birthday. The pie tastes sweet.
- They married for love. The child came to love his nurse.
- She cast a quick glance at him. I saw him glance over his shoulder.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 5

Identify the conjunctions (part a) and the prepositions (part b) among the words underlined in the following Ukrainian sentences. Investigate the correspondent English words marked by homonymy:

A. 1. Відомо, що ліс лікує. 2. Побачили сонце, що сідало за гору. 3. Усе вийде, коли постаратися. 4. Не знаю, коли прийде весна. 5. Вийду, як сонце сяде. 6. Заспівай так, як соловей у гаю. 7. Не помітив, як почався урок. 8. Не знаєш, як допомогти. 9. Життя своє благословляй, що народився в цьому краї (М. Рильський). 10. На узвишші є місцина, що в народі й досі зветься Золотий Тік (О. Гончар). 11. Чекаю дня, коли собі скажу: Оця строфа, нарешті, досконала (Л. Костенко). 12. Ну як же можна матері вмирати, коли життя у неї не було (Г. Чубач).

В. 1. Забіліли сніги навколо Києва, загуляли хуртовини (О. Довженко). 2. Знову ледве мріють лебеді у полі, а навколо білий холод і зима (Є. Гуцало). 3. Десь зовсім поруч стукнув кулемет (М. Бажан). 4. Захотілося Якову, щоб поруч нього була мати (Ф. Шиян). 5. Коли до тебе прилечу, засяє в сонці все навкруг (Д. Павличко). 6. Хто сидить серед галяви, а навкруги його панує мертва, прикра тиша (М. Коцюбинський).

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 6

Which semantic features characterise the noun as a part of speech? Classify the English and Ukrainian nouns below into the semantic groups:

- A. milk, book, cat, sugar, help, tree, travel, duty, fellow, kindness, beauty, family, year, report, chair, idea, police, tram.
- В. дріжджі, мова, люди, вершки, сани, дискусія, пропозиція, час, калина, радість, лосось, пізнання, квітка, зима.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 7

Using the model below prove the existence of the objective gender (*sex*) and the non-existence of the morphological gender in the English animate nouns in contrast to the existence of both genders in their Ukrainian equivalents:

Model: *the actor played - the actress played (well). Арму́ст грав- артистка грала (гарно).*

- A. nephew – niece, duck – drake, Tom-cat – Toby-cat, director – directrix, king – queen, lion – lioness, bull – cow, he-goat – she-goat, pig – boar, monk – nun.
- В. племінник – племінниця, качка – качур, лев – левиця, кіт – кішка, директор – директриса, король – королева, бугай – корова, козел – коза.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 8

Choose the correct option in italics and name the part of speech the chosen element belongs to. State the difference (if any) in the expression of the English and Ukrainian adjectives/adverbs:

- 1) Mum works *hardly/hard*.
- 2) He spoke to me *angrier/more angrily* than usual.
- 3) This car is *twice more expensive than/twice as expensive as* that one.
- 4) My sister is five years *older/elder* than me.
- 5) Their house is *as modern as/modern as* ours.
- 6) He smiled *friendly/in a friendly way*.
- 7) The little girl looked *like/as* an angel.
- 8) He is *a quite tall/quite a tall* man.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 9

*Allot the nouns below to *singularia tantum* and *pluralia tantum* classes:*

- A. advice, police, fruit, family, money, contents, scissors, clothes, hair, luggage, cattle, furniture, glasses, weather, stairs, sugar, people.
- В. фрукти, шахи, канікули, захоплення, ножиці, худоба, математика, ножиці, проводи, щастя, канікули.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 10

*Divide the adjectives below into two semantic groups (*qualitative* and *relative*):*

- A. square, short, green, shopping, new, Ukrainian, nice, glass, fast, nice, clever, healthy, modern, strange, significant, stone, tall, calm, wooden, leather, slow.
- В. мамин, вухастий, смачний, низький, великий, віщий, важкий, дорогий, привітний, величезний, англійський, впевнений, чудовий.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 11

Find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the expression of the morphological categories of number, case and gender in the English nominal parts of speech and in their Ukrainian equivalents in the sentences below:

1. Betty's sister had been examined for 20 minutes when I entered the room.
2. Jack can write as fast as she can/her.
3. My parents' car is being repaired now. I wonder if it will have been repaired by the end of the day.
4. I have just dictated a letter. It must be sent immediately.
5. They have been taught Spanish for nearly a year.
6. Has Emma decided already where she would go for the holidays?
7. What exams will you take in winter?
8. The house of Peter's has never been/was never lived in.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 12

Make the comparative and the superlative degrees of the following adjectives. Analyse the isomorphic and allomorphic features of degrees of comparison of adjectives in English and Ukrainian:

- A. German, writing, large, leather, white, curly, ugly, young, interesting, stone, fast, nice, clever, healthy, modern, strange, significant, good.
- В. батьків, низький, великий, віщий, важкий, дорогий, привітний, цегляний.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 13

State the difference (if any) in the expression of the category of number and quantity in the following English and Ukrainian nouns:

- A. cream, news, linguistics, advice, police, fruit, family, money, contents, scissors, clothes, hair, gate, information, cattle, trout, salmon, butter, cheese.
- В. гроші, освіта, шахи, канікули, захоплення, ножиці, худоба, математика, дріжджі, пропозиція, ворота, трава, музика, час, чай, хліб, меблі.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 14

Analyse the examples in English and their Ukrainian equivalents and name the morphological ways of expressing "comparativeness" in both languages:

1. My kite is twice as expensive as yours.
2. He's less generous than any of his brothers.
3. She's much more serious than her mother.
4. Helen wasn't as friendly as she usually is.
5. That was the best play I've ever seen.
6. Which is the highest mountain in the world?
7. This car is twice as expensive as that one.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 15

Translate into English and contrast the numerals finding isomorphic and allomorphic features.

- 1) Пятдесят одна книга.
- 2) Сто/двісті чоловік.

- 3) Триста сімдесят одна заява.
- 4) Шістьсот людей.
- 5) Мільйон троянд.
- 6) Сотні людей.
- 7) 427 520.
- 8) 2 000 покупців.
- 9) Двадцять один день.
- 10) 23 000.
- 11) 1 250.
- 12) Тисяча перший турист.
- 13) Пятдесят кілограмів.
- 14) Триста автомобілів.
- 15) Шістьдесят один грам.
- 16) Два мільйона двісті тисяч сто одна тонна.
- 17) Три тисячі одна гривня.
- 18) Троє моїх друзів.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 16

Practise reading numerals. Say what numerals are divergent in Ukrainian and why.

Hello, and good evening.

It is feared that 182 people may have died in a plane crash this morning. The accident happened at 7.20. It was flight 409, going from Singapore to New York. The plane had covered $\frac{3}{4}$ of the 12,000 mile trip, and had stopped to refuel. Eye witnesses said that the plane had reached its take-off speed of 150 mph when a fire broke out in the rear engine. 106 people managed to escape the blaze.

672 car workers walked out on strike today in Coventry. They had asked for a pay rise of 8.7%, but the management said they could only offer 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ %. This would mean an extra £7.50 per week. A union spokesman said 'It's not enough'.

A man armed with a shotgun held up cashiers at the National Bank today and stole £ 5,500. Police have appealed for witnesses. The number to ring is 0106 744391.

Unemployment figures were released today. Last month there were 3,649,712 registered unemployed. That's 14.5% of the work force. Over the past year this number has increased by over 260,000.

And that's the end of tonight's news. Good night.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 17

Analyse the following examples of the English sentences and their Ukrainian equivalents. State the functional similarity and differences in means of realization of verbal morphological categories:

1. Look. The bridge is being repaired.
2. The problem has been studied for three years, but they haven't got any results.
3. This book will have been republished by the end of September.
4. A police car came at that moment when the injured man was being carried off the road.
5. Dad phoned us and asked if our luggage had been packed already.
6. Margaret's lectures were listened to with great interest yesterday.
7. Bob is being examined now. Don't disturb him.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 18

Transform the following sentences with Finite verbs into the structures with Complexes with Non-Finite forms of the verb. Translate them into Ukrainian. Find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the expression of the morphological categories of verbs and verbals in the languages contrasted:

1. She objects to the fact that it was her mistake not to buy a camera before our trip to Egypt.
2. We regret they we went to London by train.
3. John regrets that his wife paid for the hotel in advance.
4. I know that we don't have a guidebook.
5. I like that Jack will present a report at the tomorrow's conference.
6. I don't remember that you offered me a lift to Dublin.
7. I remember that you went to see some Greek ruins.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 19

Choose the correct option in italics and name the part of speech the chosen element belongs to. State the difference (if any) in the expression of the English and Ukrainian adjectives/adverbs:

- 1) Mum works *hardly/hard*.
- 2) He spoke to me *angrier/more angrily* than usual.
- 3) This car is *twice more expensive than/twice as expensive as* that one.
- 4) My sister is five years *older/elder* than me.
- 5) Their house is *as modern as/modern as* ours.
- 6) He smiled *friendly/in a friendly way*.
- 7) The little girl looked *like/as* an angel.
- 8) He is *a quite tall/quite a tall* man.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 20

Find isomorphic and allomorphic features in the expression of the morphological categories of number, case and gender in the English phrases and in their Ukrainian equivalents in the sentences below:

1. Betty's sister had been examined for 20 minutes when I entered the room.
2. Jack can write as fast as she can/her.
3. My parents' car is being repaired now. I wonder if it will have been repaired by the end of the day.
4. I have just dictated a letter. It must be sent immediately.
5. They have been taught Spanish for nearly a year.
6. Has Emma decided already where she would go for the holidays?
7. What exams will you take in winter?
8. The house of Peter's has never been/was never lived in.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 21

Insert the appropriate conjunction, then find and analyse its equivalent in Ukrainian:

- 1) I left very early, ... I was to go to meet a friend at the station. 2) That exercise is not only too long ... too difficult. 3) I don't know ... he had finished the book

yet. 4) Stay here ... I come back. 5) He will get the letter tomorrow ... you send it off now. 6) The sun is shining, ... I am sure it is going to rain. 7) I haven't written to them ... I came to London. 8) You must leave at once, ... you will miss the train. 9) I cannot do it ... you do. 10) This road seems longer ... I thought. 11) He was born in Warsaw, ... he speaks Polish very well. 12) We decided to go further ... the fact that the road was so bad. 13) ... I was sitting, she was reading. 14) They are working quickly ... they may finish early. 15) There are not ... many people here ... I expected. 16) That task is ... long ... difficult (negative statement). 17) He felt not well ... went to bed. 18) ... I wrote to him, I have had no reply. 19) He was ... tired ... thirsty (affirmative).

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 22

Insert the appropriate article:

at ... school, to be at ... hospital (to visit somebody), to go to ... church (as a religious person), ... Ukrainians (the nation), ... Lake Ontario, ... Elbrus, ... Oxford Street, ... Pacific Ocean, ... Carpathians, ... poor (as a class), ... Dutchman, ... easiest issue, ... easier ... better, ... pretty child, ... girls in red dresses standing to the left, ... diploma paper, ... book I bought yesterday, in ... week, in ... detail, by ... accident, on ... purpose.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 23

Translate using the proper preposition and find the differences:

курс з лінгвістики, бути в школі, наполягати на обговоренні, навмисно, випадково, на занятті, виняток з правила, відповідальність за свої вчинки, детально, за обставин, поза небезпекою, без затримки, вдома.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 24

Translate into English using Complex Subject. Contrast the Ukrainian and the English variants:

1. Їх плани, напевне, скоро зміняться.
2. Вони, ймовірно, виконують дипломну роботу вчасно.
3. Навряд чи, він дасть вам цей підручник.

4. Вони обов'язково приєднаються до нас.
5. Як відомо, Оксфордський університет – найстаріший в Англії.
6. Вважають, що комісія все ще розглядає це питання.
7. Сер Уїлфрід вважався одним із найкращих адвокатів у Лондоні.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 25

Translate into Ukrainian the sentences with the Absolute Nominative Constructions. Contrast the Ukrainian and the English variants:

1. This being done, they left for home.
2. The old man tried to get up, the young man helping him.
3. This being difficult to settle the matter, we decided to meet again the following day.
4. He stood aside, with his hands in his pockets, watching her.
5. The main feature of nation's economy is the consolidation of the capital at an unprecedented level with profits going up, wages going down and inflation accelerating.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 26

Translate into English using Complex Object. Contrast the Ukrainian and English variants:

1. Я хочу, щоб ти прийшов до мене сьогодні.
2. Я чула, що ви посіли перше місце на змаганнях.
3. Всу знають, що він старанний студент.
4. Вони хочуть, щоб він не спізнювався на заняття.
5. Вона відчувала, що він щасливий.
6. Якось він бачив, що вона йшла до банку.
7. Він хотів, щоб батьки гордилися ним.
8. Він відчув, як вона доторкнулася до його руки.
9. Я чув, як він декілька разів згадав про це.
10. Всі чекали, що він покаже гарний результат.
11. Ніхто не очікував, що він виявиться нечесною людиною.
12. Ми сподіваємося, що дослід пройде успішно.
13. Я знаю, що професор Хіл працює над цієюпроблемою вже два роки.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 27

Point out and analyze the English predicative word-groups in the sentences below and suggest their corresponding Ukrainian semantic and structural equivalents:

1. She is known to have visited the Louvre.
2. I don't remember you having read the article before.
3. My camera being stolen, I couldn't make any photos.
4. We are likely to get cheated by local taxi drivers.
5. Bob was heard to be whistling gaily in the hall.
6. I agree on you having that language course in Oxford.
7. He is known to have published the results of his last investigations.
8. John regrets about his wife having paid for the hotel in advance.
9. He is known to stay late in the library on Friday.
10. The rain already begun, we decided to stay at home.
11. He seems to be such a bad driver.
12. I don't like you going there.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 28

1) Contrast the ways of syntactic connection (synthetic/analytical and synthetic-analytical) as syndetic or asyndetic in the all word-groups of the English and of their corresponding Ukrainian sentences:

Model: your sister – a substantival word-group with the analytical (asyndetic) way of connection.

1. The man and the woman came safe. (Чоловік з жінкою добралися неушкодженими).
2. I've got to see her home (Я маю провести її додому).
3. My child, I heard nothing. (Моя дитинко, я нічого не чув).
4. The teacher looked at him very attentively. (Вчитель дуже уважно подивився на нього).

2) Find isomorphic and allomorphic features having made the sentence analysis of the structures above according to:

- *Structure and Communicative aim*

- *Principal parts of the sentence and their types*
- *Secondary parts of the sentence and their types*
e.g. **The loudspeakers can have already announced the departure.**
- *Structure and Communicative aim:* Simple, two member, unextended, declarative, affirmative.
- *Principal parts of the sentence and their types*
 - **subject** - **The loudspeakers** – notional, person, expressed by the Common, class noun in the Common Case, pl
 - **predicate** - **can have announced** – compound modal verbal predicate, expressed by the modal verb **can** in the present form and the Perfect Infinitive of the verb **to announce**
- *Secondary parts of the sentence and their types*
 - **direct object** - **the departure** expressed by the Common abstract noun in the Common Case, sg
 - **adverbial modifier of time** – **already** - expressed by the adverb of time

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 29

Translate into English using Complex Subject. Contrast the Ukrainian and the English variants:

1. Очікують, що він повернеться сьогодні ввечері.
2. Кажуть, що вона вже поїхала з університету.
3. Відомо, що він готується до іспитів.
1. Повідомляють, що відпрацювання відбудуться наступного тижня.
2. Вважають, що переклад вже зроблено.
3. Здається, що він знає граматику краще за всіх.
4. Юнак виявився гарним фахівцем.
5. Їх плани, напевне, скоро зміняться.
6. Вони, ймовірно, виконають дипломну роботу вчасно.
7. Навряд чи, він дасть вам цей підручник.
8. Вони обов'язково приєднаються до нас.
9. Як відомо, Оксфордський університет – найстаріший в Англії.
10. Вважають, що комісія все ще розглядає це питання.
11. Сер Уїлфрід вважався одним із найкращих адвокатів у Лондоні.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 30

Translate into Ukrainian the sentences with the Absolute Nominative Constructions. Contrast the Ukrainian and the English variants:

1. All the things having been packed up, we can set off.
2. Weather permitting, we shall go fishing tomorrow.
3. The mission carried out, they were given a three day leave.
4. I have something to be thankful for, all things considered.
5. There being little time left, they had to hurry.
6. This being done, they left for home.
7. The old man tried to get, up the young man helping him.
8. This being difficult to settle the matter, we decided to meet again the following day.
9. He stood aside, with his hands in his pockets, watching her.
10. The main feature of nation's economy is the consolidation of the capital at an unprecedented level with profits going up, wages going down and inflation accelerating.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 31

Insert the missing form of the Participle and contrast its Ukrainian translated variant with the English one:

1. The scientists ... this problem will take part in the conference.
a) discussing b) discussed
2. The problems ... at the conference are of the great importance for the future research.
a) discussing b) discussed
3. The subjects ... during the first year course at the university are: phonetics, grammar, literature and others.
a) studying b) studied
4. Students ... foreign languages should read special literature in the original.
a) studying b) studied
5. The professor ... lectures on pragmatics is a well-known scientist.
a) delivering b) delivered
6. The lecture ... by professor Wilson was very interesting.

- a) *delivering* b) *delivered*
7. Mr. Burton ... our volleyball team is a good sportsman.
a) *training* b) *trained*
8. ... the dictation she made many mistakes.
a) *having written* b) *writing*
9. ... the letter, she posted it.
a) *having written* b) *writing*

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 32

Translate into English using Complex Object. Contrast the Ukrainian and English variants:

1. Я хочу, щоб ти прийшов до мене сьогодні.
2. Я чула, що ви посіли перше місце на змаганнях.
3. Всу знають, що він старанний студент.
4. Вони хочуть, щоб він не спізнювався на заняття.
5. Вона відчувала, що він щасливий.
6. Якимось він бачив, що вона йшла до банку.
7. Він хотів, щоб батьки гордилися ним.
8. Він відчув, як вона доторкнулася до його руки.
9. Я чув, як він декілька разів згадав про це.
10. Всі чекали, що він покаже гарний результат.
11. Ніхто не очікував, що він виявиться нечесною людиною.
12. Ми сподіваємося, що дослід пройде успішно.
13. Я знаю, що професор Хіл працює над цією проблемою вже два роки.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 33

Analyse the structure of the English sentence and its Ukrainian equivalent. State the structural type of the sentences in both languages. Point out the allomorphic features of clauses and of verb forms used in them.:

The silence of the afternoon sleep seemed to have overtaken the village, but, as they listened, they could hear the sound of heavy grain-boxes being dragged over earthen floors and pushed against doors.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 34

Paraphrase the following so as to use the subjunctive mood

1. It is necessary that students (to take interest) in public life.
2. It was suggested that we (to start) at dawn.
3. It was ordered that the project (to submit) for discussion at the preliminary session.
4. It is requested that the ticket (to retain) till the end of the performance.
5. It is desirable that you (to keep) us regularly informed of your whereabouts.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 35

Replace the infinitives in brackets by the correct form of the subjunctive mood.

1. She sat huddled in the armchair as if the last energy (to leave) her.
2. They talked as if they (to know) each other for ever so many years and this (not to be) the first time they met.
3. Her suggestion was that he (to meet) her at the airport.
4. It seemed as though what was going around him (to be) of little interest.
5. Suddenly it began to grow dark as if dusk (to set) in.
6. Their demand was that we (to go) to the police.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 36

Paraphrase the following so as to use the subjunctive mood in object clauses:

1. The chairman proposed that the question be included in the agenda.
2. The commander ordered that companies A and C should attack the enemy that entrenched itself on the left bank of the river.
3. It was recommended by the committee that a new programme should be worked out.
4. The chief engineer suggests that the new method be introduced without delay.
5. The doctor demanded that the patient should be taken to hospital immediately.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 37

Replace the infinitives in brackets by the correct form of the subjunctive mood.

1. She wished she never (to mention) the name.
2. He stared at me as if I (to be) somebody from another world.

3. (Not to be) it for his presence of mind, one can hardly imagine what (to happen) to the ship and her crew.
4. They looked as though they (to see) a ghost and the fright (to linger) in the eyes.
5. There was not one who (to agree) to it.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 38

Paraphrase the following so as to use the subjunctive mood in adverbial clauses of purpose.

1. He will have a car sent down to your place tonight to take you straight to the station.
2. Copy out the examples and study them thoroughly so as not to make mistakes in the construction.
3. They wrote her a letter to remind her of her promise.
4. The enclosure was attached to the essential text of the letter for fear of it getting misplaced.
5. You will have to close either the door or the window otherwise there will be a draught.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT 39

Replace the infinitives in brackets by the correct form of the subjunctive mood in subclauses. State the type of the subclause first.

1. It seemed almost improbable that a man (to go) so far beyond the limit.
2. The situation demanded that urgent and even drastic measures (to take) to prevent the epidemic from spreading all over the district.
3. The man's deep-hidden wish was that all this (to change) one day.
4. We wished that nothing (to change).
5. Her long-cherished dream was that her children (to be) well educated and (to distinguish) themselves in some field of knowledge or activity.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN COMPLEX SENTENCES TASKS

	<p>1. STUDY THE TABLE “SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN SUBCLAUSES”</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>SHOULD</u> IS A REGULAR MOOD AUXILIARY TO MARK PROBLEMATIC ACTIONS in most of subordinate clauses in case the speaker doubts in the action being successful <p>2. Make notes on EXCEPTIONS OF SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN SUBCLAUSES (cases when another form, not <u>should</u> is used in subclauses with the subjunctive mood)</p> <p>1)CLAUSES: e.g.</p> <p>2) ... CLAUSES: e.g.</p> <p>...</p>												
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN SUBJECT CLAUSES	<p>STUDY THE TABLES:</p> <p>SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN SUBJECT CLAUSES</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;">It</td> <td style="width: 15%; text-align: center;">is was will be</td> <td style="width: 25%;">necessary important desirable advisable obligatory urgent</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;">that</td> <td style="width: 40%;">smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)</td> </tr> </table> <p>It is important that <i>every delegate (should) arrive on time</i></p> <p>It is necessary that <i>they should realize the gravity of the situation.</i></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;">It</td> <td style="width: 15%; text-align: center;">is was will be</td> <td style="width: 25%;">suggested demanded decided proposed agreed arranged determined ordered required requested recommended</td> <td style="width: 10%; text-align: center;">that</td> <td style="width: 40%;">smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)</td> </tr> </table> <p>It is requested that <i>individual work should be paid according to the worker's contribution in his plant.</i></p> <p>It was ordered that <i>no ship (should) leave the harbor before daybreak.</i></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">It is/was (high) time</td> <td style="width: 50%;">smb <i>did (were)</i> smth</td> </tr> </table> <p>Ten to six. It's time <i>he were here.</i></p> <p>Paraphrase the following so as to use the subjunctive mood</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is necessary that students (to take interest) in public life. 2. It was suggested that we (to start) at dawn. 3. It was ordered that the project (to submit) for discussion at the preliminary session. 4. It is requested that the ticket (to retain) till the end of the performance. 5. It is desirable that you (to keep) us regularly informed of your whereabouts. 	It	is was will be	necessary important desirable advisable obligatory urgent	that	smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)	It	is was will be	suggested demanded decided proposed agreed arranged determined ordered required requested recommended	that	smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)	It is/was (high) time	smb <i>did (were)</i> smth
It	is was will be	necessary important desirable advisable obligatory urgent	that	smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)									
It	is was will be	suggested demanded decided proposed agreed arranged determined ordered required requested recommended	that	smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)									
It is/was (high) time	smb <i>did (were)</i> smth												
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD IN PREDICATIVE CLAUSES												

PREDICATIVE CLAUSES	It	looks/looked/will look seems/seemed/will seem is/was/will be	as if as though	smb <i>did</i> smth smb <i>had done</i> smth
	<p>It was as if <i>she were angry with me</i>.</p> <p>He looked as if <i>he knew it to be true</i>. I felt as if <i>I had gone blind</i>.</p>			
	order demand suggestion wish motion rule arrangement request recommendation	is was will be	that	smb <i>should do</i> smth (Br. E.) smb <i>do</i> smth (Am. E.)
<p>His aim was that <i>his enemies should be discredited</i>.</p> <p>The condition was that that <i>I should join one of those clubs</i>.</p> <p>Replace the infinitives in brackets by the correct form of the subjunctive mood.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. She sat huddled in the armchair as if the last energy (to leave) her. 2. They talked as if they (to know) each other for ever so many years and this (not to be) the first time they met. 3. Her suggestion was that he (to meet) her at the airport. 4. It seemed as though what was going around him (to be) of little interest. 5. Suddenly it began to grow dark as if dusk (to set) in. 				

SENTENCE ANALYSIS SAMPLES

DRAW THE SCHEMES TO THE SENTENCES AND ANALYSE THEIR GENERAL FEATURES FOLLOWING THE SAMPLES OF SCHEMES SUPPLIED. PROVIDE THE CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN SENTENCE STRUCTURES.

1. I did not know what I came to find out and what you wanted to know.
2. I did not know and he did not know what we came to find out.
3. What I want to know is when you're going to get married.
3. Her fear was lest they should stay for tea.
4. That they were justified in this she could not but admit.
5. What was uncertain and what was unknown was when he was going to come.

SCHEMES OS SENTENCE ANALYSIS

A. Example (for the compound sentence):

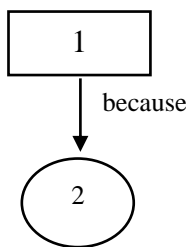
¹The loudspeakers announced the departure / ²but one seat was empty.



Compound, adversative coordination, contrast (logical operation), joined syndetically by the coordinating adversative conjunction **but**.

B. Example (for the complex sentence):

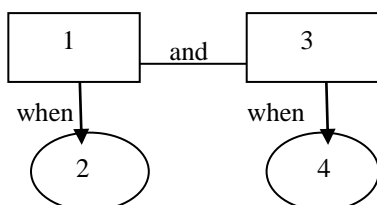
¹They always left | ²because they were afraid of my stepfather.



Complex, with adverbial clause of reason, joined by the subordinating conjunction **because**.

C. Example (for the COMPOUND-COMPLEX sentence):

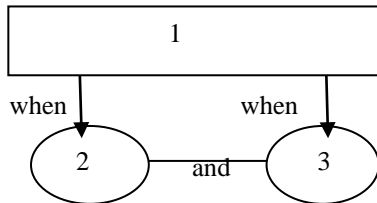
We arrived¹ | when it became cold² | and the rain began³ | only when John returned⁴.



Compound-complex, copulative coordination, addition/agreement, the coordinating conjunction **and**, with adverbial clauses of time, joined by the subordinating conjunction **when**.

D. Example (for the COMPLEX-COMPOUND sentence):

*We arrived¹ | **when** it became cold² | **and when** the rain began³.*



Complex-compound, with adverbial clauses of time, joined by the subordinating conjunction **when**, with coordinate clause, copulative coordination, addition/agreement, the coordinating conjunction **and**.

FINAL SELF-CONTROL ZONE
The aim and objects of contrastive typology.
History of typological investigations

1. The final aim of linguistic typology is
 - a) to establish typical features;
 - b) to identify universal features;
 - c) to investigate language systems;
 - d) to invent language classification.

2. O.Isachenko classified languages into ... structural types.
 - a) five; b) four; c) three; d) two.

3. Heimann Steintall studied ... in the languages .
 - a) the environment of words;
 - b) the function of words;
 - c) the structure of words ;
 - d) syntactic relations between words.

4. Linguistic units merge into the whole word-sentence structure in ... languages.
 - a) passive; b) ergative; c) agglutinative; d) flexional.

5. The main unit of typological investigations of the 2nd half of the 19th c. is considered
 - a) the morpheme; b) the word; c) the sentence; d) the text.

6. The Ukrainian, the Polish and the Serbian-Croat languages are
 - a) consonantal;
 - b) of different phonological nature;
 - c) genealogically related;
 - d) vocalic.

7. The main function of ICs analysis is to study
 - a) internal organization of the word;
 - b) structural elements;
 - c) expressive abilities of words;
 - d) surrounding of elements.

8. The term 'the type of the language' is of employed by
- a) historical and comparative linguistics;
 - b) caractereological typology;
 - c) contrastive typology;
 - d) linguistic typology.
9. The aim of caractereological typology is
- a) to explain divergencies only;
 - b) to study peculiar convergent features;
 - c) to investigate divergent and convergent features;
 - d) to classify languages.
10. The term 'the type in the language' is of employed by
- a) historical and comparative linguistics;
 - b) caractereological typology;
 - c) contrastive typology;
 - d) linguistic typology.
11. The final aim of contrastive typology is
- a) establish typical features;
 - b) to identify universal features;
 - c) to investigate language systems;
 - d) to invent language classification.
12. Franz Bopp studied ... in the languages.
- a) the environment of words;
 - b) the function of words;
 - c) the structure of words;
 - d) syntactic relations between words.
13. The English, the Slovenian and the Serbian-Croat languages are
- a) consonantal;
 - b) of different phonological nature;
 - c) genealogically related;
 - d) vocalic.
14. Language is ... if it is characterized by specific word-sentence structures.

a) complex; b) incorporating; c) agglutinative ; d) isolating.

15. The main function of distributional analysis is to study

- a) internal organization of the word;
- b) structural elements;
- c) expressive abilities of words;
- d) surrounding of elements.

16. The representative of the graded typology is

- a) E.Sapir; b) I.Levy; c) R.Zorivchak; d) F.Mistely.

17. The main unit of typological investigations of the 1st half of the 19th c. is... .

- a) the morpheme; b) the word; c) the sentence; d) the text.

18. Linguistic units can have no morphemic boundary between its components in ... languages.

- a) passive; b) ergative; c) agglutinative; d) flexional.

19. I.I.Meshchaninov classified languages into ... structural types.

- a) five; b) four; c) three; d) two

20. Passive languages are those in which

- a) the predicate is not the leading component;
- b) the subject is in the Nominative case;
- c) subject, object and predicate are not marked;
- d) only secondary predication is possible.

21. Typology is...:

- a) the term of linguistics;
- b) a kind of science;
- c) a scientific notion;
- d) a contrastive study.

Typology of Lexical Systems of the English and Ukrainian languages

1. Which of the linguistic principles of typological classification of lexicon is not appropriate?

- a) on their common lexico-grammatical nature;
- b) on their belonging to a common lexico-semantic group;

- c) on their denotative or connotative meanings;
- d) on their belonging to a group of language.

2. Which type of motivation is clearly indicated by the affixal morphemes?

- a) semantic motivation;
- b) morphological motivation;
- c) phonetic motivation;
- d) stylistic motivation.

3. Which noun-forming suffixes can be pertaining to English only:

- a) agent suffixes;
- b) evaluative suffixes;
- c) suffixes denoting numerous abstract notions;
- d) suffixes denoting recipient of an action.

4. The semantic structure of the English word *coat* is ... its Ukrainian equivalent.

- a) not so complicated;
- b) richer than that of;
- c) nearly isomorphic;
- d) convergent with.

5. The word *nonoïcmu* contains the ... prefix.

- a) universal; b) diminutive; c) international; d) nationally-specific.

6. Which group of suffixes does the suffix *-ee* belong to:

- a) agent suffixes;
- b) suffixes denoting recipient of action;
- c) suffixes denoting numerous abstract notions;
- d) evaluative suffixes.

7. The word *beg* is produced by

- a) blending; b) non-affixation; c) juxtaposition; d) reversion

8. The least productive type of the combined word-formation in both languages is ...

- a) p+R+s; b) 2p+R+s; c) p+R+2s; d) 2p+R+2s.

9. The onomasiological and semasiological statuses of the word '*to fall in love*' are ... in the contrasted languages .

a) identical; b) nationally specific; c) independent; d) divergent.

10. Parts of sentences are usually considered a . . . notion.

a) isomorphic; b) universal; c) allomorphic; d) typological.

11. The so-called 'kids' language belongs . . . lexicon .

a) dialectal; b) universal; c) specifically national; d) international.

12. There are . . . basic linguistic principles of typological classification of lexicon.

a) four; b) three; c) two; d) six.

13. The . . . word is the basic unit of language.

a) denotative; b) nominative; c) simple ; d) connotative.

14. Parts of speech are usually considered a . . . notion.

a) isomorphic; b) universal; c) allomorphic; d) typological.

15. The onomasiological and semasiological statuses of the word 'to ski' are . . . in the contrasted languages.

a) identical; b) nationally specific; c) independent; d) divergent.

16. The equally productive type of the combined word-formation in both languages is

a) p+R+s; b) 2p+R+s; c) p+R+2s; d) 2p+R+2s.

17. The word *housework* is produced by

a) blending; b) non-affixation; c) juxtaposition; d) reversion.

18. The word *по-батьківськи* contains the . . . prefix.

a) universal; b) diminutive; c) international ; d) nationally-specific.

19. The semantic structure of the English word *boat* is . . . its Ukrainian equivalent.

a) not so complicated;

b) richer than that of;

c) nearly isomorphic;

d) convergent with.

20. The most frequent way of semantic motivation is

a) metonymy; b) antonym; c) synonym; d) homonym.

Typology of Morphological Systems of the English and Ukrainian languages

1. Which is allomorphic implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of the Numeral in the contrasted languages?
 - a) expressing quantity;
 - b) part of an object;
 - c) collection of objects;
 - d) order of some objects.

2. Which class of pronouns is not identical for English and Ukrainian:
 - a) personal pronouns;
 - b) reciprocal pronouns;
 - c) common pronouns;
 - d) negative pronouns.

3. Which typological feature of the verb is similar in English and Ukrainian:
 - a) combinability of the verbs with postpositional particles;
 - b) the forming of the verbs by means of the diminutive suffixes;
 - c) some suffixes form aspective meanings of verbs;
 - d) conveying verbiality.

4. Choose the group of verbs found in English as well as in Ukrainian:
 - a) reciprocally reflexive;
 - b) indirectly reflexive;
 - c) reflexive;
 - d) impersonal reflexive.

5. Verbs of incomplete predication presented in English and Ukrainian are:
 - a) isomorphic;
 - b) partly isomorphic;
 - c) allomorphic;
 - d) some of them are allomorphic.

6. Which of the following Ukrainian verb categories is realized only synthetically?
 - a) the categories of voice;
 - b) the category of tense;
 - c) the category of mood;

d) the category of aspect.

7. Name the isomorphic feature of realization of some morphological categories in the languages under study:

- a) the use of analytical paradigms to express tense, aspect and voice forms;
- b) the imperative mood form with no reference to a definite person;
- c) the absence of the continuous aspect;
- d) the expression of the category of person in imperative mood forms.

8. Which verb form is missing in Ukrainian:

- a) simple active infinitive;
- b) perfect active infinitive;
- c) continuous active infinitive;
- d) perfect passive infinitive.

9. The noun in both languages has . . . semantic classes.

- a) identical; b) nearly isomorphic; c) similar; d) divergent.

10. The noun in Ukrainian may express . . . in contrast to English.

- a) animateness; b) countableness; c) dual number; d) relations of things.

11. The grammatical meaning of possession is displayed in Ukrainian by

- a) nouns; b) adjectives; c) implicitly; d) numerals.

12. The class of numerals missing in English is. . . .

- a) definite cardinal;
- b) definite ordinal;
- c) indefinite cardinal;
- d) indefinite ordinal.

13. Conjoint and absolute forms are pertaining to . . . pronouns.

- a) relative; b) possessive; c) defining; d) indefinite.

14. Combinability of the English verbs with the . . . is unique.

- a) postpositional prepositions;
- b) postpositional numerals;
- c) postpositional conjunctions;
- d) postpositional nouns.

15. Classes of . . . verbs are completely alien to Ukrainian.
- finite-non-finite ;
 - stative-dynamic;
 - regular-irregular;
 - objective-subjective.
16. A separate expression of lexical and grammatical meanings characterizes ... language organization.
- synthetic;
 - analytical;
 - agglutinative;
 - isolating.
17. The morphological classification of languages was performed by
- O.Meshchaninov;
 - F.de Saussure;
 - W.Humboldt;
 - E.Sapir.
18. Ukrainian statives are formed with the help of the
- prefixes;
 - suffixes;
 - prefixes and suffixes;
 - flexions.
19. Which of the ways of producing adverbs in English and Ukrainian is allomorphic:
- by means of prefixes;
 - by means of suffixes;
 - by means of reduplication;
 - by means of suffixes and prefixes.
20. Which class of adverbs has a peculiar way of forming in Ukrainian:
- adverbs of time;
 - adverbs of frequency;
 - adverbs of manner;
 - adverbs of place.
21. State the allomorphic part of speech many prepositions are derived from in Ukrainian:
- nouns;
 - verbs;
 - adverbs;
 - participles.
22. Which of the following coordinating conjunctions is odd to English and Ukrainian:
- copulative;
 - disjunctive;
 - homogeneous;
 - causative-consecutive.
23. Which type of structure of the English and Ukrainian particles is not available?
- simple;
 - composite;
 - derivative;
 - compound.

24. Which function form-building particles don't perform in English?

- a) an infinitival identifier;
- b) a representation specifier;
- c) a part of a morphological paradigm;
- d) a specifier of degree.

25. According to their structure interjections may be:

- a) simple; b) compound; c) phrasal; d) structural.

Typology of the Syntactic Systems of the English and Ukrainian Languages

1. Which feature can be considered as allomorphic at the syntactic level:

- a) the existence of various qualitative and quantitative differences in some paradigmatic classes of word-groups and sentences;
- b) the unequal representation of different means of syntactic connection;
- c) some syntactic relations in word-groups and sentences;
- d) structural forms of some parts of the sentence.

2. Which of the following paradigmatic classes of word-groups cannot be singled out in English and Ukrainian:

- a) substantival word-groups;
- b) verbal word-groups;
- c) prepositional word-groups;
- d) adjectival word-groups.

3. Which of the following secondary predication syntagmemes if available is presented in Ukrainian:

- a) there are no such equivalents;
- b) the subjective with the infinitive constructions;
- c) the infinitival prepositional constructions;
- d) the gerundial constructions.

4. Which feature is not characteristic of the sentence:

- a) structural; b) semantic; c) pragmatic; d) general.

5. Choose the odd distinguishing feature of the sentence:

- a) the main language unit;
- b) the main syntactic unit;

- c) the main part of speech;
- d) the principal communicative unit.

6. Which of the word-groups is odd in the contrasted languages?

- a) coordinate; b) conjunctive; c) subordinate; d) predicative.

7. The sentence “*It is thundering*” is:

- a) impersonal sentence;
- b) indefinite personal sentence;
- c) sentence with the introductory “*it*”;
- d) sentence with the secondary predication syntagmemes.

8. The sentence “*I thought him to be a student*” is:

- a) sentence with the implicit agent;
- b) sentence with the secondary predication syntagmemes;
- c) sentence with the gerundial complex used as predicative construction;
- d) sentence with the simple nominal predicate.

9. The infinitival for-phrase functions in the sentence “*We are waiting for the children back from Edinburg*” like:

- a) complex object;
- b) an attribute to a nominal part of speech;
- c) complex predicative;
- d) an adverbial modifier.

10. The underlined word-group in the sentence “*Do you want me to come?*” is rendered into Ukrainian:

- a) by means of a subordinate clause;
- b) by means of an objective infinitival word-group forming part of the compound modal verbal predicate;
- c) by means of a noun derived from the objective infinitive;
- d) by means of a phrasal / simple verbal predicate.

11. The sentence “*The students were asked to write a report*” is an equivalent to the Ukrainian:

- a) indefinite personal sentence;
- b) impersonal sentence having the passive verbal predicate ending in -HO, -TO;

- c) adverbial subordinate clause;
- d) one-member introductory indefinite personal sentence.

12. Which of the one-member sentences types is found only in Ukrainian?

- a) imperative sentences containing a verb;
- b) exclamatory sentences;
- c) the definite personal sentences, which are widely used in literary and in colloquial speech;
- d) infinitival sentences.

13. The sentence “*Забажалось королеві завоювати чуже царство*” in Ukrainian is:

- a) impersonal sentence with the main part expressing the state of the agent which is used in the Accusative case form;
- b) impersonal sentence with the main part expressing the state of the agent which is used in the Dative case form;
- c) impersonal sentence with the finite verb referring to a person but expressing impersonal meaning;
- d) impersonal sentence with modal predicative phrase.

14. The sentence “*Марічку за душу щіпало*” is considered in Ukrainian to be:

- a) impersonal sentence with the principal part expressed by verbs in *-но, -то*;
- b) impersonal sentence with the main part expressing the state of the agent used in dative case form;
- c) impersonal sentence with the finite verb referring to a person but expressing impersonal meaning;
- d) impersonal sentence with modal predicative phrase.

15. The sentence “*Йому не слід було приходити*” is characterised in Ukrainian as:

- a) impersonal sentence with the principal part expressed by verbs in *-но, -то*;
- b) impersonal sentence with the main part expressing the state of the agent used in dative case form;
- c) impersonal sentence with the finite verb referring to a person but expressing impersonal meaning;
- d) impersonal sentence with modal predicative phrase.

16. Which way of expressing the subject is allomorphic to the languages contrasted?

- a) by means of the numeral;
- b) by means of the clause;
- c) by means of the gerund;
- d) by means of the pronoun.

17. Which structural type of the predicate is odd in the contrasted languages:

- a) simple verbal;
- b) simple nominal;
- c) simple phraseological predicate;
- d) simple double predicate.

18. Which types of the predicate is allomorphic:

- a) compound nominal;
- b) compound verbal modal;
- c) simple verbal aspect;
- d) simple verbal.

19. Which of the complements (in its nature) is used in the following English sentence “*Miss Cryot saw her neighbour alive at a quarter to ten*”:

- a) noun; b) statival; c) participial; d) prepositional.

20. Define the way of expressing the adverbial complement in the following sentence

“*The presentation over, we went to the canteen*”:

- a) by the infinitive / infinitival phrase;
- b) by an adverbial phrase / word-group;
- c) by a participial word-group;
- d) by an adjectival or phrasal adjunct.

21. Which means of expressing temporal complements is not found in English:

- a) by an infinitive;
- b) by a gerund with a preposition;
- c) by nouns in the Genitive case;
- d) by participial forms.

22. Which means of expressing temporal complements is not found in Ukrainian:

- a) by nouns in genitive case;
- b) by an infinitive;

- c) by nouns in the Accusative case;
- d) by nouns in the Instrumental case.

23. Which item is the compound sentence with disjunctive interrelations between coordinate clauses:

- a) *In her dream she was at their house in Tokio and it was night before her child's debut;*
- b) *The trucks ground up and away heading out of it all and the peasants plodded in ankle deep dust;*
- c) *I must see her or else my heart will burst;*
- d) *His scholarship would help him a great deal for they were not rich.*

24. Which of the compound sentences contains the adversative connection:

- a) *Павлусь розповідав по-татарськи, а сестра по-українськи;*
- b) *Розмова перервалася, бо саме ввійшов у челядну Ібрагім-потурнак;*
- c) *Татарин вказав Павлусеві на коня і велів сідати без сідла;*
- d) *Або скорюся, або втечу і вернуся сюди с козаками (Андрій Чайковський. За сестрою).*

25. Which is the compound sentence with causative and consecutive relations between the clauses:

- a) *I must weep or else my heart will burst*
- b) *The trucks ground up and away heading out of it all and the peasants plodded in ankle deep dust;*
- c) *In her dream she was at the house on Long Island and it was night before her daughter's debut;*
- d) *But the scholarship would help him a great deal for they were not rich people.*

26. Which of the following subject clauses is not differentiating:

- a) introduced by the conjunctions and joining the clauses to the predicate verb in *-ся*;
- b) introduced by the conjunction “що” and connected with the neuter gender verb in the past tense form;
- c) introduced by the conjunction “що” and connected with the predicate expressed by a stative;
- d) which substitute a subject in a two-member sentence with a compound nominal predicate of being or seeming.

27. Which type of subject clauses is allomorphic in Ukrainian:
- a) introduced by the conjunctions and joining the clauses to the predicate verb in *-ся*;
 - b) introduced by the emphatic pronoun *It*;
 - c) introduced by the conjunction “*що*” and connected with the neuter gender verb in the past tense form;
 - d) introduced by the conjunction “*що*” and connected with the predicate expressed by a stative.
28. What feature of the English and Ukrainian compound and complex sentences is considered to be allomorphic:
- a) structure;
 - b) meaning;
 - c) nomenclature;
 - d) functions.

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тел.: [\(050\) 462-95-48](tel:0504629548); [\(067\) 820-84-77](tel:0678208477)
Сайт: lira-k.com.ua, редакція: zv_lira@ukr.net