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Уманський державний педагогічний університет імені Павла Тичини

ПОРІВНЯЛЬНА ТИПОЛОГІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ ТА УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ МОВ: ТЕОРІЯ ТА ПРАКТИКА

Навчальний посібник

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Основною метою освітнього компонента «Порівняльна типологія акглійської та української мов» є ознайомлення здобувачів вищої освіти з системними особливостями англійської та української мов, з основними принципами порівняння систем мов на лексичному, морфологічному, граматичному, синтаксичному рівнях.

Вивчення курсу сприяє розвитку у здобувачів уміння знаходити й ефективно використовувати при навчанні іноземного мовлення спільні та відмінні риси в системі лексичних, мофологічних, граматичних, синтаксичних явищ англійської та української мов. Предмет порівняльної типології будується на основі знань, одержаних здобувачами вищої освіти з теоретичних курсів англійської мови (фонетики, граматики, лексикології, стилістики, історії англійської мови та ін.), з урахуванням фактичного матеріалу відповідних аспектів української мови.

Навчальний посібник «Порівняльна типологія англійської та української мов: теорія та практика» складається з чотирьох розділів.

Перший розділ містить теоретичний матеріал, структурований за відповідними темами, в якому всі типологічні порівняння проілюстровані влучними прикладами з художніх і публіцистичних творів англомовних авторів та їх українських перекладів чи з української літератури. Для самостійної перевірки засвоєння теоретичного матеріалу запропоновано запитання для самоконтролю.

У другому розділі подано практичні заняття, які містять запитання для обговорення, експрес-тести, усні та письмові вправи, рекомендовану літературу.

Третій розділ пропонує тематику індивідуальних науково-дослідних завдань та вимоги до їх виконання.

У четвертому розділі – «Глосарій» – здобувачі вищої освіти мають можливість ознайомитися з основними термінами, які використовуються в курсі «Порівняльна типологія англійської та української мов».

UNIT 1. THEORY

THEME 1

GENERAL PROBLEMS OF CONTRASTIVE TYPOLOGY

Problems for discussion

1. Practical aims and tasks of Contrastive Typology.
2. Branches of contrastive typological investigation.
3. Main terms and notions of Contrastive Typology.

1. Practical Aims and Tasks of Contrastive Typology

Typology as a branch of linguistics comes from "type" or "typical", hence, it aims at establishing similar general linguistic categories serving as a basis for the classification of languages of different types, irrespective of their genealogical relationship.

Contrastive typology (порівняльна типологія), as the notion itself reveals it, represents a linguistic subject of typology based on the method of comparison or contrasting. Like typology proper contrastive typology also aims at establishing the most general structural types of languages on the basis of their dominant or common phonetical/phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic features. Apart from this contrastive typology 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, agglutinative, etc.) as well as in languages of different structural types (synthetic and analytical, agglutinative and incorporative, etc.).

The number of different languages which may be simultaneously subjected to typological contrasting at a time is not limited and is always predetermined by the aim pursued. The latter may be either theoretical or practical and involve the investigation of common or both common and divergent features/phenomena in the corresponding planes/aspects of the contrasted languages. The typological study of such features/phenomena,

which usually represent certain regularities in the structure of different languages may be facilitated (or made more difficult) by the existence or absence of some results obtained in the languages concerned for some other purpose and by means of other methods of linguistic investigation.

Contrastive typological investigations may be focused on various linguistic phenomena ranging from separate signs of the phonetic/phonological, morphological, lexical or syntactic plane up to several languages. Any of these signs, features/phenomena or separate languages may be contrasted either synchronically or diachronically. But whatever the language features/phenomena or the aspects to which they belong, and irrespective of the number of languages involved, **the final aims of major typological investigations** are the following:

1) to identify and classify accordingly the main isomorphic and allomorphic features characteristic of 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 of the world;

5) to establish on this basis the universal features/phenomena, which pertain to each single language of the world.

2. Branches of contrastive typological investigation

Contrastive typological investigations are both various and manifold, they may involve a separate language feature or phenomenon pertained to some genealogically close or genealogically far/alien languages, and they may involve several features or phenomena pertained to many genealogically close or genealogically different languages. Besides, **the object of Contrastive Typology** may as well be separate features and language units or phenomena pertained to both living and one or more dead languages. Consequently, the object of investigation may involve an

extensive language area/material or it may involve a restricted object/material of investigation. Due to this there are distinguished several **branches of typological (or Contrastive typological) investigation** often referred to as separate typologies. The main of these typologies are as follows:

1. **Universal typology** which investigates all 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 dead languages like Sanskrit, ancient Greek or Latin. Also the hypothetic abstract etalon language created by typologists for the sake of investigation is widely made use of by universal typology. This "language" plays a very important role in foreseeing the quantitative representation of various features/phenomena in different languages. Universal typology on its part provides the etalon language with all necessary data concerning the quantitative representation of various phonetical, lexical and grammatical features or means of expression.

2. **Special or charactereological typology**, in contrast to universal typology, usually investigates concrete languages, one of which is, as a rule, the native tongue. The language in which the description of isomorphic and allomorphic features is performed is usually referred to as **metalanguage**. In our here case the metalanguage is English.

3. **General typology** has for its object of investigation the most general phonetic, morphological, lexical, syntactic or stylistic features. This typological approach to the morphological structure of words in different languages enabled the German scholar W. Humboldt to suggest the first ever typological classification of languages (on the morphological basis).

4. **Partial typology** investigates a restricted number of language features/phenomena; for example, the system of vowels/consonants, the means of word-formation or 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.

5. **Areal typology** (ареальна типологія) investigates common and divergent features in languages of a particular geographical area with respect to their mutual influence of one language upon the other. A scientific generalization of such long-term influences in the phonetic/phonological, lexical or even grammatical aspects of different languages of multinational areas like Dagestan, the Balkans, Transcarpathia/Transcaucasia and others is of considerable theoretical and practical value.

6. **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. Structural typology aims at identifying mainly dominant features, which characterise the structural type of each of the contrasted languages.

7. **Functional typology**, as can be understood from its name, investigates the frequency of language units in speech, the regularities and particularities of their use with the aim of expressing different meanings.

8. **Content typology** investigates the types of possible meanings expressed by various language units and their forms in the contrasted languages.

Worth mentioning are also some other branches of typological/contrastive typological investigations as:

9. **Qualitative typology**, investigating predominant features (phonetic, morphological, syntactic) in the contrasted languages and characterizing them according to the predominance of some of these qualities. Hence, languages are found to be vocalic, consonantal or tender, harsh, etc. Due to the predominance of some morphological features languages may correspondingly be identified (classified) as synthetic, analytical, agglutinative, etc.

In opposition to qualitative typology quite obvious is the existence of:

10. **Quantitative typology** which was singled out and identified by

the American linguist J. Greenberg. The aim of this typology is to investigate the quantitative correlation of some features and phenomena and their identifying (dominant) role in the contrasted languages. Thus, taking into account the small quantity of inflexions and the great role of analytical means as prepositional connection and placement of components in English word-groups and sentences, this language can be identified by its syntactic structure as predominantly analytical.

Apart from these there are distinguished some other equally important for typological or Contrastive typological investigation branches of this linguistic subject, the most well-known among them being the following:

11. **Semasiological typology** which investigates the ways of expressing meaning (the inner content) of language units in the contrasted languages.

12. **Onomasiological typology** is a part of semasiological typology. Its object of investigation is isomorphic and allomorphic ways of giving family names and nicknames to people in different contrasted languages.

For example, in English: *Love, Hope, Lem, Ivy; Mr. Crabtree (Backbite, Gradgrind, Knowall)*. And in Ukrainian: *Люба* (Love), *Надя/Надія* (Hope), *Любомир* (Peace Loving), *Горох* (Pea), *Часник* (Garlic), *Клен* (Maple), *Береза* (Birch), *Неїжмак* (Don't-eat-poppy seeds).

13. **Synchronic and diachronic typologies** investigate language units or phenomena of a definite level with the aim of establishing isomorphisms and allomorphisms in their form and meaning during a definite historical period (or periods) in the contrasted languages.

The results obtained in any branch of typological investigation can be usefully employed both in theoretical linguistics and in teaching practices. Thus, the all-embracing final results of universal and general typologies could help to successfully perform a scientifically substantiated general classification of languages. The results of structural and sublevel/aspect typologies could usefully help in creating scientifically well-grounded theoretical as well as practical phonetics/phonologies, grammars, lexicologies, stylistics and dictionaries of various languages. The study of

characterеological and partial (aspects) typology would acquaint the student with the fundamentals of this modern branch of linguistics in general and with some of its principal methods of analysis in particular. A contrastive typological treatment of the main phonetical/phonological, lexical and grammatical features/phenomena, available or unavailable in the corresponding systems of the foreign language/languages and in the native tongue, will provide the students not only with the linguistic results necessary for their successful methodological work at school, but also with the understanding of a systemic organization of all languages.

3. Main terms and notions of Contrastive Typology

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

1. **Absolute universals** (абсолютні/повні універсалії) i.e. features or phenomena of a language level pertaining to any language of the world (cf. vowels and consonants, word stress and utterance stress, intonation sentences, parts of the sentence, parts of speech, etc.).

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

3. **Metalanguage** (метамова), as has been mentioned already, is the language in which the actual presentation/analysis of different features/phenomena of the contrasted languages is carried out.

4. **Typologically dominant features** (типологічні домінанти) are features or phenomena dominating at a language level or in the structure of one/some of the contrasted languages. Dominant in present-day English are known to be analytical means: rigid word order in word-groups and sentences, the prominent role of prepositions and placement as means of connection and expression of case relations and syntactic functions (cf. *books for my friend, books to my friends, books by my friends; a nice flower-nice flowers, Peter came – Mary came*), etc. The change of placement of the part of the sentence may completely change its sense. Cf.

The hunter killed the hare – The hare killed the hunter. In Ukrainian the change of placement of the main parts of the sentence usually does not change the meaning of the sentence, as in this same sentence: *Мисливець застрілив зайця* or: *Зайця застрілив мисливець*. In Ukrainian everything is just on the contrary: case, gender and number categories are expressed by means of inflexions: *братові книжки, братових книжок; він співав – вона співала, дитя співало; червона квітка – червоні квітки; перший крок – перші кроки, перша зміна*. There is abundance of synthetic and analytical or synthetic and analytical government (*кликати Марію/Петра; кликати до вечері/до столу; зроблено Петром/будь-ким (будь для кого*), etc. Consequently, the dominant (and typical) features of a language predetermine its structural type as analytical, synthetic, agglutinative, etc.

5. **Typologically recessive features/phenomena** (типологічно рецесивні, втрачаючі колишню активну роль) are those losing their former dominant role as, for instance, case forms in English or the dual number forms of some nouns in present-day Ukrainian.

6. **Isomorphic features/phenomena** (ізоморфні риси/явища) as was mentioned already, are common features/phenomena in languages under Contrastive analysis. Isomorphic in English and Ukrainian is, for example, the existence of consonants and vowels, assimilation, and the categories of number, person, tense, as well as parts of speech, the existence of sentences, etc.

7. **Allomorphic features/phenomena** (аломорфні риси/явища) are observed in one language and missing in the other. For example: palatalisation of practically all consonants or the dual number in Ukrainian, the gerund or the diphthongs and analytical verb forms in English, which are missing (allomorphic) in Ukrainian.

An exhaustive list of isomorphic and allomorphic features/phenomena of a foreign language and of the native tongue can constitute a reliable basis for charactereological typology. Its main aim, as in our case, should be to teach students to identify, select and group the isomorphic and allomorphic features/phenomena in English and in Ukrainian and to use the obtained results for methodological purposes in

their future teaching and as well as in their translating practices.

8. **The etalon language** is a hypothetic language created by typologists for the sake of contrasting any languages. This "language" is supposed to contain exhaustive quantitative and qualitative data or characteristics concerning all existing language units and phenomena. For example, the quantity and quality of sounds (vowels, consonants) and syllables, morphemes, parts of speech and their morphological categories, the correlation of the means of grammatical connection, etc.

Questions for self-control

1. What are the final aims of major typological investigations?
2. What is the number of different languages which may be simultaneously subjected to typological contrasting at a time?
3. What branches of contrastive typological investigation are distinguished?
4. What are typologically dominant features and typologically recessive features?
5. What are isomorphic features and allomorphic features?

THEME 2

HISTORICAL OUTLINE AND METHODS OF TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

Problems for discussion

1. A short historical outline of typological investigations.
2. Methods of investigation in Contrastive Typology.

1. A short historical outline of typological investigations

Many European scientists as early as the 17th and 18th centuries had pointed to the existence of some common (mainly lexical) features in

different languages (I. Komensky, W. Leibnitz). This idea came to being especially in the minds of the first Europeans who had visited India in the 16th and 17th centuries. They were often struck by the great similarity in the lingual form (sounding) and meaning of a number of common words like *mother, brother, sister*, etc.

Strange as it might seem at first glance, but there exists an indisputable linguistic testimony to some closest contacts between our prehistoric Ukrainians and Indian Arians (арійці). This was noticed already by *M. Krasuskiy* (1880) and by our Indologists *P. Richter* and *O. Barannykov* (20s – 30s of the 20th century), who pointed to many Sanskrit words being of common, approximately the same or absolutely the same lingual form (sounding). Even a quick glance at a short list of several nouns, verbs, numerals and other parts of speech below leaves no doubt whatsoever of their being once of genealogically common source of origin. This can be easily seen from many Sanskrit words having common root and very similar or identical lingual form expressing one and the same meaning in Ukrainian. For example:

Nouns: *матар – матір/mother, девар – дівер/brother-in-law, бграта – брат/brother, свасар – сестра/sister, свасура – свекор/father-in-law, відгава – вдова/widow, юван – юнак (юний)/young, нас – ніс/nose, мус – миша/mouse, дама – дім/house* and many other nouns.

Adjectives: *нава – новий/new, крішна – красний, гарний/beautiful, рудгіра – червоний (cf. рудий)/red, лаґу – легкий/light, тану – тонкий/thin*, etc.

Pronouns: *Ту – ти/you, свій – свій/one's, тваї – твій/your, мамака – мій/my, катара – котрий/which, татсама – той самий/that same, катама – котрий/which* (out of many), etc.

Numerals: *adi – один/one, двау – два/two, траяс – три/three, даса –десять/ten*, etc.

Verbs: *плаваті – плавати/swim, смаяті – сміятися/laugh, рудаті – ридати/to sob, кагаті – казати/say, tell, ліз'яті – лизати/lick*, etc.

Adverbs and some functionals as: нунам – нині/now, *тада – тоді/then*, гат – геть/away, out, kada – коли/26 when, атаг – отож/thus,

so, прамі – проти/against, ну – ну/well now, на – ні/not, то – то/then, so, etc.

There can be no end to the great admiration at our native tongue being so ancient, taking into account that the works, from which these words have been taken, were written more than 2000 years B.C. No doubt this undeniable lingual testimony of lexical and semantic likeness can find its exhaustive explanation only on the basis of historical typology and its present-day scientific methods of analysis. Not excluded completely could also be other approaches, some of which are already familiar to our students. The likeness of many Ukrainian and Sanskrit lexical units cannot be treated within the framework of the common Indo-European stock of words comprising such words as *cow корова, milk молоко, wolf вовк, sun сонце* and some words denoting kinship (*mother, sister, brother*, etc.). These and several other words were noticed, as has been mentioned above, by the first Europeans who visited India as far back as the 16th century. Those observations, however, did not initiate then a regular typological study of languages.

The first ever attempt to create a grammar on «common in all languages principles» was made by the *Claude Lancelot* and *Antoine Arnaud* in their Universal or Rational Grammar (Pour Royal, 1660). And yet only the beginning of the 19th century with its historical and comparative method brought a dynamic development to European linguistics. This method was originally employed to investigate genealogically related languages, principally Indian, Germanic and Romanic. Though not without exception, some linguists having made general observations in non-related languages as well. These observations helped establish the languages' common and divergent features. Thus, together with the historical and comparative study, the typological investigations were born.

One of the first linguists to have made a scientific approach to the regular Contrastive study of structurally different languages was *F. Schlegel* (1772-1829). On the ground of a thorough study of ancient Indian and modern Chinese, Polynesian, Turkic and the major West-European languages F. Schlegel singled out among them two clearly

distinguishable groups:

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

2. The second large group in F. Schlegel's classification constituted the inflexional languages, which included among others all Semitic languages and also, to his mind, French as well as the Georgian language.

Though somewhat restricted, this classification already stood to the requirements of a regular typological classification of languages. The main principle upon which it was based was therefore the morphological one. F. Schlegel's classification was followed by some others which were more all-embracing, like that of *A. Schlegel* (1767-1845), who in some places perfected his brother's first attempt of typological classification of languages in the history of European linguistics. This German linguist singled out, on the basis of the same morphological criterion, three typologically common groups of languages:

a) those without any grammatical structure, as they were called;

b) the affixal languages;

c) the flexional languages.

A decisive step forward in the typological classification of languages on the basis of the same morphological criterion was made by *W. Humboldt* (1761-1835), who is considered to be the father of typology as a new branch of linguistics. The scientist had studied a great number of languages including those of Polynesia and American Indians. Having taken into account the morphological divergences in a large number of languages, W. Humboldt suggested a much more embracing typological classification of languages. 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 or Semitic languages);

4) the incorporating languages of the American 28 Indians. The last

type of languages is characterised by the possibility of words to combine and form specific wordsentences.

A prominent place among the charactereological typologists of the first half of the 19th century belongs to *F. Bopp* (1791-1867), the German linguist who had elaborated and widely implemented the comparative/contrastive method of investigation. F. Bopp had introduced an unknown approach to the typological investigation of languages on the basis of their syllabic root morphemes structure. On the ground of this criterion he succeeded and singled out three typologically distinguishable language types, namely:

1) the language type with the root morpheme consisting of one syllable only (the so-called monosyllabic languages);

2) the language type in which the root morpheme can combine with other roots and affixal morphemes (like in most Indo-European languages);

3) the language types with disyllabic and even trisyllabic root word-structures (as in Semitic languages).

All through the second half of the 19th century and during the beginning of the 20th century the only object of typological investigation which continued to remain was word/word-form. It was investigated in different languages with the aim of identifying common/divergent features on whose basis a universal morphological classification of languages was planned to be established. An exception to this general trend of classifying typology was the investigation of syntactic connections in different languages. This was a new and until then untouched upon object of typological investigation. It was followed by one more new typologically relevant criterion, namely the placement of syntactically principal parts in the sentence.

The German linguist *F. Finck* suggested two more criteria for the typological classification of different languages. The first of these was based on the correlation between the solid (unbreakable) word structure and the fragmentary (breakable) word structures. The second criterion was based on the type of concord and the manner of its realisation. On the ground of the two criteria Finck had singled out eight main types of

languages:

1) the subordinating word-type languages (like present-day Turkish);

2) the incorporating word-type languages with the most extended word structures (as in the language of Greenland inhabitants);

3) the regulating type languages having a rather weak connection between the auxiliary words and affixes as in the Subia language (Bantu language family);

4) the isolating root languages (like Chinese);

5) the isolating stem languages (represented by the Samoa language);

6) the root inflected language type (represented by Arabic);

7) the stem inflected language type (like Greek) and

8) the group inflected language type (like Georgian).

The 20th century typological investigations have been marked by some new approaches to the Contrastive study of languages and their classification. One of the best-known trends is connected with the name of the prominent American linguist *E. Sapir* (1884-1939) who criticized the 19th century typological classifications of languages and the evolutional approach to the development of different language types. His investigations being based on a profound study of a large number of languages, Sapir came to the conclusion that some languages, distant in location, could in the course of their development acquire common features and thus move to a common model and language type. E. Sapir was also the first to treat a language material as a system.

E. Sapir suggested four basic types of languages:

1) the type of simple purely relational languages in which the syntactic relations are realised without the help of affixal morphemes (as in Chinese);

2) the complicated purely relational type languages in which the syntactic relations can be realised with the help of affixes and without their help (as in Turkish);

3) the simple mixed-type relational languages, realising their syntactic connections both by means of agglutination or by means of fusion (as in French);

4) the complex mixed relational type languages in which the

meanings of root morphemes may be changed with the help of affixes or inner alterations (like in Latin or in present-day English).

E. Sapir singled out twenty-one different language types. Sapir's countryman *J. Greenberg* has also elaborated the principles of quantitative typological contrasting and thus he has laid the foundation of quantitative typology. This linguist together with *R. Jakobson, J. Jenkinson* and *C. Oshood* contributed significantly to the study of language universals.

An important contribution to the 20th century typology was made by the Prague school linguists *V. Skalička, V. Mathesius, I. Levy, N. Trubetskoy* and others, who carried on their major investigations in the domain of charactereological typology. These scholars considered the essential features of a language to have been prearranged. Hence, the type of a language was identified as a unity of its characteristic features and phenomena.

Considerable research work in phonological typology was carried on by *O. Isachenko*, who investigated the Slavonic languages on their quantitative representation of vowels and on the musical accent in words and on the existence or non-existence of palatalised consonants. As a result, two types of languages have been identified:

1) The vocalic type languages, like Serbian, Croatian and Slovenian.

2) The consonantal type languages.

Phonological typology was also investigated by other Western linguists, as *T. Milewski* (American Indian languages), *C. Bazell* (Turkic and Bantu languages), *Ch. Hoc*kett and others.

Prominent before World War II and immediately after it was the Ukrainian typologist *M. Kalynovych*, whose object of contrasting was the word in different European and South Asian languages. The domain of Contrastive investigations of his disciple Yu. Zhluktenka, comprised the English and Ukrainian languages and their interrelations in the North American countries.

During the late 50's and in the 60's and 70's a series of international and national symposia, congresses and scientific conferences were held (Oslo, 1957), Bucharest (1967), etc., at which the elaboration of new principles and more efficient methods of typological investigation were

discussed.

Thus, the "type" of a language is identified today on the basis of its dominants in the systems of phonetic/phonological, morphological or syntactic level units. On this ground there can be distinguished the following types of languages:

a) consonantal, vocalic (after Isachenko);

b) agglutinative (like Turkic);

c) synthetic or more exactly-predominantly/mainly synthetic (like Ukrainian);

d) analytical i.e. predominantly analytical, like English, etc.

Typologically relevant may equally be some dominant prosodic and other features in a language/group of languages. But the structural type of a language can not be identified on the basis of a coincident isomorphic feature within a certain microsystem of a language. For instance, the rigid order of words in Chinese and English affirmative sentences can not testify to these two languages being of one and the same language type.

2. Methods of investigation in Contrastive Typology

Contrastive typological investigations are carried out with the help of several methods.

The main one is **the comparative method**, which is also employed in historical and comparative linguistics. Nevertheless, the final aims of contrastive typological linguistics and of historical and comparative linguistics differ greatly. The latter aims at establishing the parent language and the former at establishing the isomorphic (alongside of allomorphic) features, the dominant features and on their basis the establishment of structural types of languages under contrastive investigation.

Comparing of isomorphic features and phenomena can very often be performed both with the help of **the deductive and the inductive methods**. **The deductive method** is based on logical computation/calculation which suggests all admissive variants of realisation of a certain feature/phenomenon in speech of one or of some

contrasted languages. For example, the existence of the attributive AN and NA structure word-group patterns in English and Ukrainian is indisputable. Cf.: *the green pasture – the pasture green*, зелене пасовисько – пасовисько зелене.

Consequently, the deductive method of analysis can be rather helpful in Contrastive typological investigations, and not only when contrasting syntactic level units or phenomena.

Much more often employed in Contrastive typology is **the inductive method** which needs no verification whatsoever, since the investigated feature/phenomenon was proved already by the preceding generations of researcher linguists. Due to this the reliability of the results or data provided by the inductive method is indisputable.

3. **The transformational method** is helpful when identifying the nature of some language unit in a contrasted language. Its reliability is clearly proved through translation, which is always the best transformation of any language unit. In short, any transformation is a form of expressing some definite meaning. The simplest transformation is transcoding (перекодування іншими буквами). Cf. in English: *Leeds, Liverpool* (in Latin letters) and *Лідс, Ліверпуль* in Cyrillic or any other letters.

Transformation may reveal the difference in the form of expression in the contrasted languages. Cf. Вас запрошують взяти участь у науковій конференції (an indefinite personal sentence, active voice), which has for its equivalent in English *You are invited to take part in the scientific conference* (i.e. a definite personal sentence with a passive voice verbal predicate).

Transformation may often be required by the peculiarity of the syntactic structure of the source language (or the target language) unit. Cf. *The lesson over, all students went to the reading-hall. Після того, як заняття закінчилися (Оскільки заняття закінчилися...)* or into a prepositional noun, expressing time: *Після закінчення занять студенти пішли...* The nominative absolute participial construction *The lesson over* (i.e. being or having been over) has to be substituted i.e. transformed into an adverbial clause of time or cause (*Після того, як заняття закінчилися/ Оскільки заняття закінчилися, всі студенти пішли до*

читальні).

Transformation may also be lexical, as in the following sentences: *He is not unlike his father. Він схожий на свого батька*; or *Dick was running in the yard in his shirt sleeves. Дік бігав на подвір'ї без піджака (в одній верхній сорочці)*.

Apart from these some other methods of analysis are helpful for the establishment of structural or semantic isomorphisms and allomorphisms in the contrasted languages. Among these is also **the Contrastive linguistic method**, which is usually employed to investigate a restricted number of genealogically related or non-related languages. The object of Contrastive linguistics in general is the meaning, form and functioning of certain language units, their features or phenomena. Unlike Contrastive typology, Contrastive linguistics does not treat language features or phenomena with the aim of establishing isomorphic or allomorphic features and universals. Divergent features and phenomena in the languages under Contrastive linguistic investigation are considered to be irregularities or exceptions to some general rules. The aim of Contrastive linguistics has never been to establish systemic relations on a global scale, or to establish universal features. Despite all this, the Contrastive linguistic method, when employed both synchronically and diachronically, provides the establishment of valuable theoretical and practical results providing the reliable data on various aspects of languages under investigation. Contrastive linguistics contributes greatly both to the aspect and characterеological typologies of the investigated languages.

Some purely typological methods of Contrastive investigation have recently been suggested as well. Among the best known is *the indexes method* by the American linguist J. Greenberg. The method helps identify the quantitative co-occurrence or frequency of some feature or phenomenon in the contrasted languages.

Questions for self-control

1. What methods of investigation in Contrastive Typology do you know?

2. What is the Contrastive linguistic method?

3. Give the examples of Sanskrit words having common root and very similar lingual form expressing one and the same meaning in Ukrainian.

4. What is the classification of languages suggested by W. Humboldt?

5. How are languages classified today?

THEME 3

TYPOLOGY OF THE LEXICAL SYSTEMS

Problems for discussion

1. Factors facilitating the typological study of lexicon.
2. The semiotic or global classification of lexicon.
3. The identification of semiotic superclasses of words.
4. Socially, stylistically and functionally distinguished classes of words.
5. Onomasiological and semasiological characteristics of different units of lexicon.

1. Factors facilitating the typological study of lexicon

The systemic organization of lexicon is conditioned in all languages by lingual as well as by extralingual factors which are of universal nature. Among the extralingual factors, predetermining the systemic organization of lexicon, the following should be pointed out as most important: a) the physical and mental factors; b) the environmental factors; c) the social (суспільні) factors.

A. It is only due to the physical needs of human beings and the needs of all living beings in general all languages have a great number of common notions of actions designated by such verbs as *live*, *eat*, *drink*,

think, sleep, wake, walk, run, jump, love, merry, die, etc.

Likewise only due to the unique natural environment of human beings all languages have acquired a large number of common notions designated by words which reflect the multitudes of objects and phenomena surrounding every human being on the globe such as *the sun, the moon, the stars, the wind, the sky, thunder, lightning, rain,* as well as various species of *plants, trees, fruits, colours, and living beings like fish, insects, mice, cats, dogs,* etc.

An equally important role in the formation of a mostly common lexicon in all languages is played by the social factor. The latter involves various social phenomena as well as relationships and activities of man: *mother, father, child, sister, brother, aunt, uncle, grandmother, grandfather,* etc.

All words and combinations of words designating the many notions constitute a large typologically common class of words referred to as *universal lexicon.* Apart from this, all developed languages of the world have some other common layers of lexicon which came to being under the influence of different social, economic, historical and other extralingual factors. These layers form *dialectal, professional, poetic, archaic, slang, international, specifically national, etc. lexicons.*

Quite opposite by their nature are different international elements which split in all languages in two typologically distinct subgroups:

1) internationalisms having a common linguistic form, a common source of origin and identical lexical meaning (cf.: *parliament, poet, theatre, molecule, theoren, forum, history, waltz, sword of Damocles, to pass the Rubicon, Pandora's box,* etc.);

2) lexical loan internationalisms which have the same lexical meaning but exist only in national lingual forms: *specific gravity/weight питома вага, the law of gravitation закон земного тяжіння, agreement (gram.) узгодження, the composite sentence складне речення,* case відмінок, *addition* додавання, *subtraction* віднімання, *division* ділення, etc.

In contrast to internationalisms there exists one more group of lexis comprising the units of *nationally specific lexicon* such as the English

shilling, dollar, Chartist, Yorkshire pudding, to cut off with a shilling etc.); in Ukrainian: *кутя, вареники, думи, бандурист, кобзар, запорожець, ставати на рушник, а козацькому роду нема переводу, герої Крутів, січовики, etc.*

Closely related to the group of specifically national notions are also many words presenting in Ukrainian the so-called "kids" language. The most often used all over Ukraine tender kids' words involve mostly the following parts of speech:

1. Nouns: биць/биця *(male, calf),* киця *(cat or kitten),* бася *(goat),* мина *(cow, calf),* кося *(horse or foal, colt),* куця/паця *(pig or piglet),* гуля/гулі *(pigeon(s)),* гуся *(goose),* тася *(duck or duckling),* татя *(usually hen or cock and some times any other domestic bird), etc.*

2. Members of family: неня/мама *(mummy),* тато *(daddy),* буня/бабуня *(grannie),* дядя *(uncle),* діда *(grandfather),* няня *(nurse),* доця *(daughter), etc.*

3. Parts of human body: вусьо *(ear),* нозя *(leg/oot),* руця *(hand),* оцьо/оці *(eye, eyes).*

4. Other nouns denoting different objects or phenomena: буцьо *(apple),* лозя *(spoon),* кика *(meat),* папа *(bread),* кетя *(sweety),* моня *(milk),* льоля *(shirt, dress),* дюдя *(cold weather),* люля *(cot, cradle, bed), ляля (kid, doll),* квітя *(flower), цяця (any toy),* сося *(soother, baby's dummy),* пуся *(comforter),* коко *(egg),* вува *(wolf or anything to scare the child),* цьомати *(to kiss)* and a few others.

B. The linguistic principles of typological classification of lexicon are based in all languages on the following distinguishing features of words:

a) on their common lexico-grammatical nature;

b) on their belonging to a common lexico-semantic group;

c) on their peculiar stylistic function and meaning;

d) on their denotative or connotative (or both) meanings, etc.

Thus, in accordance with their most general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning all words are grouped into a) **notionals** and b) **functionals**. The **notionals** (повнозначні слова) serve in all languages as principal means of nomination. They constitute the bulk of words in

English and Ukrainian and have different morphological, syntactic and stylistic features of their own. These are not of equal importance in the contrasted languages, however. In English, for example, it is not always possible to say for sure, what part of speech such words as *blue, hand, house* or even *man* belong to. It is mostly not so in Ukrainian, because words clearly display their lexico-grammatical nature (cf. *хліб, синій, синь, праця, небо, ясний, добре, синити, чоловік/людина, рука, будинок, синіти),* etc.

As to **functionals**, they are common in English and Ukrainian with the exception of the articles *the* and *a/an.* Namely: *prepositions* прийменники, *conjunctions* сполучники, *particles* частки, *interjections* вигуки, *modal words and modal phrases* модальні слова та модальні вирази. Common therefore are 12 lexico-grammatical classes of words each of which has mostly the same properties in the contrasted languages.

The second isomorphic class of words distinguished on linguistic principles represents practically common in the contrasted languages lexico-semantic groups of words (the LSGs).

Common lexico-semantic groups can be observed among English and Ukrainian adjectives denoting dimension (cf. *big, large, great, huge, gigantic, enormous, small, tiny,* etc.). Similarly in Ukrainian: *великий, здоровий, гігантський, малий, невеликий, дрібний, манюнький, манесенький, мацюпусінький,* etc.

Common are also verbal LSGs, for example: verbs of saying: *say, tell, converse, talk, speak, report* and in Ukrainian: *говорити, розмовляти, балакати, відмовляти, шептатися, заперечувати*. Verbs denoting mental or physical perceptions: *comprehend, understand, know, like, think; see, hear, taste, feel, touch.* They are mostly the same in Ukrainian: *розуміти, знати, думати, вважати, гадати, бачити, чути, відчувати, смакувати, торкатися.*

There can be singled out several other common LSGs in the contrasted languages. Cf. adjectives denoting age: *young, old, middle-aged, green молодий, старий, підстаркуватий, середнього/старшого віку, молодий та зелений,* etc.; adverbs denoting quickness/manner*: quickly, swiftly, momentally,* etc. *швидко, хутко, вмить, миттєво,* etc.

Separate LSGs are formed by functionals. Thus, among prepositional LSGs there may be local prepositions: *on, in, at, over, above, under, below, behind, на, під, коло, поруч, позад, біля,* etc.; 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.

2. The semiotic or global classification of lexicon

In recent decades one more and really manifold classification of lexicon has been put forward by the American linguist E. Nida. This classification involves global semiotic classes of words belonging to a certain lexico-grammatical class/part of speech. According to the *semiological* classification, all nouns which denote substances fall into several major classes subdivided in their turn into some semiotic subclasses:

Class 1. Concrete, countable life nouns denoting non-persons. They include *animals, birds, beasts of burdon, cattle, livestock, game, wild animals, table birds, flocks and herds, poultry, birds of prey.*

Class 2. Concrete, countable life nouns denoting persons. These include proper names of people, names of nations: *Germans, Ukrainians, Poles, etc., англійці, німці, поляки, українці*; races: *the whites, the yellow, the Negroes, the Afro-Americans, білі, жовті, чорні/негри, афроамериканці*, ancestral and modifying-names: *leader, chairman, robber, керівник/вождь, головуючий, грабіжник, обманщик.*

Class 3. Concrete, countable, non-person, inanimate nouns representing:

- plant names:*cabbage, beetroot, carrot, dill, potato, капуста, буряк, кріп, картопля, лілея*;

- names of celestial bodies and atmospheric masses as: *comet, moon, sun, stars, clouds, комета, місяць, сонце, зорі, хмара*;

- parts of human body:*hand, head, arm, leg, nose, foot рука, нога, голова, ступня, ніс*;

- names of arts: *dancing, painting, singing, танці, співи, малювання*;

- means of communication: *internet/telephon, telegraph, radio, телефон, інтернет, телеграф, радіо*;

- names of unique unreal bodies: *dickens/genius, gnome, nymph, чорт, домовик, гном, злий дух, русалка*;

- metaphorical names, as: *stick (дубина, колода), block (довбешка/довбня), the heart (серденько), the sun (сонце), cf. сонечко/серденько ти моє*, etc.

Class 4. Concrete life nouns, non-person, represented in the contrasted languages by different common collective nouns as: *nation, race, family, crew, staff, gang, company, police, militia, forces, troops*, etc. Some of these nouns have in Ukrainian somewhat different properties being used, for example, in singular only *(поліція).*

Class 5. Collective life nouns representing species of animals: *cattle, sheep or poultry, худоба/товар, вівці, домашня птиця*; fish: *school of fish (косяк риби)* and nouns denoting a mass of some living beings: *swarm of bees (рій бджіл), pack of dogs/wolves (зграя собак/вовків), flock of sheep (отара овець).*

Class 6. Concrete, inanimate, uncountable non-person nouns that include all singular tantrum group denoting mass or material as well as different abstract nouns: *butter, bread, sugar, oil, snow, sand, silver, gas, glue, steam, soot*, etc. They are the same in Ukrainian: *залізо, срібло, повітря, паліччя, молоко, білизна, листя, збіжжя, залізяччя, тремтіння, тиння,* etc.

Class 7. Abstract nouns whose number in the contrasted languages is rather large. Cf. *business, information, news, feudalism, thought, thinking, significance, tolerance,* etc. Similarly in Ukrainian: *гадка, думка, значимість, погляд, вміння, знання, мислення, безробіття, намагання, завзятя, ентузіазм,* etc.

3. The identification of semiotic superclasses of words

There are five large semiotic subclasses of lexemes, each presenting

a separate part of speech. Consequently, the identifying semiotic subclasses split into the following subclasses:

Subclass 1. Verbal words presenting various classes of notional and functional verbs. Notional verbs are presented by different LSGs characterized by their general implicit grammatical meaning as transitivity or intransitivity, perfective or non-perfective (or any other aspect), reflexiveness or non-reflexiveness, etc. Isomorphism is observed in English and Ukrainian in the existence of transitivity and non-transitivity of verbs and consequently in their ability to take the direct and indirect object: cf. *send her a letter (надіслати їй листа)* and consequently to be used in active and passive voice: cf. *to built – be built (будувати – бути збудованим)*.

Subclass 2 is presented by adjectives. These words split in all languages into two subclasses:

1) the qualitative and

2) the relative adjectives.

Qualitative adjectives in all languages have degrees of comparison. Cf. *long – longer – the longest (довгий – довший – найдовший)*. Most of languages have one more isomorphic feature which is called **suppletivity**: cf. *good – better – the best, добрий – кращий – найкращий*; *bad – worse – the worst, поганий – гірший – найгірший*; but only in English: *little – less – the least).* Besides, isomorphic are the syntactic functions of adjectives in most languages. Thus, the Ukrainian language has the class of possessive adjectives (*мамин, татів, сестрин, Петрова книжка*), which are nouns but not adjectives in English. Typological differences are also observed in the formation and expression of the synthetic degrees of comparison of adjectives in English and Ukrainian.

Subclass 3 embraces pronouns that have in most languages both isomorphic and allomorphic features with nouns or numerals and functionally with adjectives: cf. *Peter – he, the four – they, something/nothing – it воно, the first перший, the third третій*. Universal are practically all the main classes of pronouns, though their number may be different in various languages. Thus, in English and Ukrainian there exist personal pronouns: *I, you, he, she, we, they, я, ти/ви, він, вона, ми,*

вони; demonstrative pronouns: *this, that, such, those, цей, той, такий, ті*; possessive pronouns: *his, her, our, their його, її, наш, їхній*. In English, however, there exist possessive absolute pronouns: *mine, hers, ours, yours* and possessive conjoined ones: *those of my, his, her,* etc.

Subclass 4 represents numerical words that substitute corresponding figures. This semiotic subclass is represented by some subclasses of numerals having universal nature. Namely: 1) cardinal numerals: *three, twenty-one, one hundred and ten, три, двадцять один, сто десять*; 2) ordinal numerals: *the first, the tenth, the thirty-first, перше, десяте, тридцять перше*. Like adjectives, the ordinal numerals in many languages may have gender, case and number distinctions (cf. Ukrainian *перший, перша, перші, першої, першим, першими*, etc.). The nomenclature of numerical subclasses, however, may be quite different in some languages. Thus, in Ukrainian there are distinguished indefinite cardinal numerals as *кілька, декілька, кільканадцять, мало/небагато* (of something), and collective numerals like *двійко, трійко, п'ятеро/п'ятірко, обоє, обидва*, etc. Some of these numerals are allotted in English to the subclass of indefinite pronouns: *many, some, both,* etc.

Subclass 5 presents the adverb which constitutes a universal word modifying an action or state: cf. *to read quickly/slowly/very well, читати швидко/гарно/дуже добре*. Adverbial words in all languages split into several semantic classes which are mainly universal. The main of these semantic subclasses are as follows: 1) adverbs denoting/expressing temporal relations: *now, then, when, today, зараз, тоді, коли, сьогодні*; 2) adverbs denoting/expressing local relations: *here, everywhere, nowhere, there, тут, ніде, повсюди, там*; 3) adverbs expressing direction: *eastwards, whence, thence, східніше, туди, звідти, звідусиль*; 4) adverbs expressing manner: *how, so, slowly, як, так, повільно*; 5) adverbs expressing degree: *quite, almost, completely, зовсім, цілком, повністю, майже*.

It is necessary to add that adverbial meanings can be also expressed by prepositional nouns, adverbial word-groups and adverbial clauses. Hence, there are to be distinguished in this subclass adverbials expressing:

A. *temporal relations:* *at night, by day, during the day, in*

September, last month, at that time, in 1999. Similarly in Ukrainian: *протягом/впродовж дня, тоді, зараз, вдень, за тиждень, серед ночі, у вересні, минулого тижня.*

B. *local relations:* *in Kyiv, somewhere, here, there, far away, not far from there, where the road forks*. Similarly in Ukrainian: *десь, там/тут, далеко звідси, де шляхи розходяться.*

C. *adverbials expressing direction:* *into the room, to London, from Rome, towards the capital*. And in Ukrainian: *у поле, на Берлін, із США, (політ) на місяць, звідки сонце сходить.*

D. adverbials expressing manner: *slowly/quickly, enthusiastically, by plane/by train, with great speed, quickly, without enthusiasm; повільно, гарно, повагом, з увагою, з ентузіазмом, без задоволення, поза сумнівом, з великою швидкістю*. It is easy to notice, therefore, that the identifying classes of words, like the "global" ones, are singled out on the ground of their most general lexico-grammatical meaning.

In other words, the semiotic approach to the classification of lexicon is based on the most general grammatical meaning of notionals i.e. on their ability to possess and express substantivity, verbiality, adverbiality or the quality of objects and phenomena and their quantity. The semiotic approach alongside of the most general implicit grammatical meanings also takes into account the semantic variability of words forming separate semantic classes as well as the identifying subclasses of different notionals.

4. Socially, stylistically and functionally distinguished classes of words

Apart from the above-stated, there exist some other approaches and principles that are typologically relevant for the systemic arrangement and classification of lexicon. As has been already mentioned, among them is first and foremost the social principle, according to which **the dialectal layer of lexicon** is distinguished. Thus, one of the most characteristic territorial differences in the lexicon of English dialects is the London Cockney. Clearly distinguished is also the Scottish dialect that once had

claims to functioning for some time as a literary English variety. Besides, the Irish dialect and some others can still be clearly distinguished on the British Isles.

Dialectal differences are also observed in Ukrainian, the most distinguishing of them being Western, Northen and Central regional dialects. In western Hutsul dialects, for instance, *дедя* and *нянько* are used for *father*, *верховина* for *uplands*; in Halych region *когут* is used for *півень*, *вуйко* for *uncle* (дядько), *вуйна* for *дядина*, *файний* for *гарний*, etc. Nevertheless, the difference between the Ukrainian dialects and literary standard Ukrainian is never so striking as it is between Cockney and Standard English.

Of isomorphic nature in the contrasted languages are also some other peculiarities and consequently subclasses of lexicon. Among these are also such stylistically distinguished layers of lexicon which are usually characterized as various types of colloquialisms, jargonisms, slangisms, vulgarisms, professionalisms wad some others.

Thus, the large class of **literary colloquial lexicon** (розмовно-просторічна лексика) consists in English and Ukrainian of some stylistically common subclasses of words to which belong various emotives (емоціональні слова та вирази), slangisms, jargonisms, argotisms, thieves' lingo, etc. Many of these lexical units represent the same substyles of lexicon and have direct equivalents in both contrasted languages. Therefore, this literary colloquial lexis is represented by several layers of words and expressions often or regularly used in expressive emphatic speech with strongly evaluative (positive or negative) aim. Among them are such English and Ukrainian words and phrases of negative evalution as *варнякати, молоти/плескати язиком, кобенити/матюкатися, чортихатися, гавкати (ab. people), обгаджувати bespit (обхаркувати), bee-head, beat-le-head (тупак, тупиця "ступа", "довбня"), to malt захоплюватися хмільним ("причащатися"), layabout/lazy-bones ліньтюх (ледацюга),* etc. A disregarding or contemptuous attitude may express also such words as *bike велосипед ("велик"), toned up замкнений ("заціпа")* and some other words and expressions.

Often equivalent in English and Ukrainian are also low colloquialisms – **vituperative words and phrases** (лайливі слова та вирази) like *goddamn, hell, rat, swine, cad, pig, skunk, stink-pot* and others. In Ukrainian: *чорт, зараза, прокляття, свиня, гадюка, смердюк/смердючка;* obscene/dirty words (непристойні слова) as *shit, piss and corruption* (expression), *shit, лайно*. Functionally similar to them are **vulgarisms** which are practically universal by their nature. Cf. *bum зад, задниця; punch пузо/барило, жлукто; mug рило/морда; stinkard смердюк/смердючка; cad тварюка; kiss off тягни (свої) ноги (звідси); bastard вилупок, байстрюк; hound собака, негідник,* etc. Common by nature are **jargonisms and argotisms** that seem to belong to absolute universals as well. Like all other low colloquialisms, they may sometimes have not only semantic but also stylistic equivalents in different languages: *beaky носатий/носач (шнобель), lemon негарна дівчина, довічно ув'язнений, to beef скиглити ("скавулити"), governor dambxo (cf. the Ukrainian "предок"), beans (brass, dibs, dough, off) гроші ("лимони"),* etc.

There are some other stylistically distinct subclasses of lexicons in the contrasted languages, such as professional words, scientific, poetic, bookish words, etc. Common in English and Ukrainian are the following **professionalisms** and terms: *reaping (or harvesting) косовиця (жнива), threshing молотьба, sowing сівба, electrician електрик, electric train електропоїзд/електричка, school practice педагогічна практика, tutorial(n) консультація (зустріч із науковим керівником), translation practice перекладацька практика; to lecture читати лекції, to have workshops (Amer.) проводити семінарські заняття; to take exams/examinations складати іспит, a sharing experience lesson показовий урок/заняття з обміну досвідом.* Professionalisms and terms are also used in both contrasted languages in the same speech styles. Sometimes they may even acquire the same implied meaning in English and Ukrainian. Cf. *an equalizer, забитий у відповідь гол/розквитання "зрівняти рахунок", a right-hander (boxing) удар правою рукою/підступний вчинок, to keep ones powder dry тримати порох сухим у порохівниці, to heal the wounds/to repair damage*

загоїти/"зализати рани".

Identical by nature though not always of identical lingual form are various **scientific, social and political terms** used in English and Ukrainian in the same speech styles and representing the same spheres of national economy or state affairs. Cf. *politics політика, cybernetics кібернетика, finance фінанси, but proton протон, morpheme морфема, suffix суфікс, bacterial бактеріальний, medical медичний,* etc. The scientific lexicon implies also several loan internationalisms as *equation рівняння, identity тотожність, conductor провідник/громовідвід; summation, підсумування, subtraction, віднімання, outer space міжпланетний простір, living standard/standard of living ожиттєвий рівень,* etc.

Other stylistically distinct layers of lexicon in the contrasted languages include:

a) **bookish words** which do not always correlate stylistically in English and Ukrainian. As a result, there are words/word-groups which are bookish only in English or only in Ukrainian. Cf. in the English language: *contrariety протилежність/несумісність, disenable робити нездатним/скалічити, forthright чесний, brumal зимовий (сплячка), interagent посередник (агент), licit законний/дозволений, lacerate рвати (калічити, нівечити), maladiction прокляття, malefactor лиходій/злочинець,* etc. Bookish only in Ukrainian are *властолюбство/властолюбний, power ambition/power ambitious, возз'єднання reunification, всесилля unrestricted power, консекветний consequent, конфідеціальний confidential, людомор assassin/man-slayer,* etc.

b) **poetic words** and expressions form a stylistically common, though semantically not always coinciding subgroup of lexicon in English and Ukrainian as well. Poetic words split into two clearly distinguished groups: 1) words/word-groups displaying their poetic nature already at language level, i.e. when singled out and 2) words/word-groups acquiring their poetic tinge in a micro- or macrotext only. Thus, the following English words and word-groups are always poetic: *affright (frighten), Albion (England), Caledonia (Scotland), adore (to worship), anarch*

(leader of an uprising/revolt), babe (baby), harken (hear), shrill (shriek), steed (horse), mash (admire), the Bard of Avon (Shakespeare), pass away (die), uncouth (strange), ye (you), the main (ocean), the brow (forehead), the kine (cow), etc. Similarly in Ukrainian whose poetisms are sometimes distinctly marked by their slightly archaic nature or by their Old Slav origin: *вольний, враг, злото, дівчинонька, козаченько, кормиг (ярмо), криця (крицевий), лжа (неправда), ліпа (роки), перса, чоло,* etc.

Poetic words of the second subgroup (which acquire their poetic tinge in a micro/macrocontext) may often be traditional in a national language. Thus, in English stylistically marked poetic word-groups can be found in Shakespeare's works: *simple truth, gilded honour, purest faith, right perfection* (Sonnet 66), *youthful morn* (66), *swept love* (56), *hungry ocean, immortal life* (81), *sacred beauty* (115), *boundless sea* (65) cf. in Ukrainian a considerable number of word-groups have also acquired a similar traditionally poetic flavour due to our folk songs: *гора крем'яна, літа молодії, орел сизокрилий, сива зозуля, світ широкий, синє море, чисте поле, чорнії брови, карії очі, червона калина,* and others.

Apart from these there are some more common minute groups of stylistically marked words and word-groups in English and Ukrainian lexicons among them is **archaisms**, i. e. old forms of words/word-groups, which are mainly used in poetic works or in solemn speech: *algazel (gazelle), avaunt (out), batoon (baton), dicacity (talkativeness, mockery), eke (also), gyves (fetters), mere (pond, lake), a micle (much), parlous (perilous), peradventure (probably, perhaps), well nigh (almost, nearly), thee (you sing.), thou (you plur.), thy (your), ye (you), yonder (there), hereto (to this matter), therefrom (from that), therein (in that place), thereupon (upon that), whereof (of which).*

The most frequently used archaisms in Ukrainian are as follows: *бард (Боян, поет), брань (ьитва), глас (голос), град (місто), гаківниця (гармата), комоні (коні), пахалок (прислужник), спудей (студент), ланіти (щоки), гостиниця (готель), глагол (слово), рать (військо, битва) піім (поет), списник (мечник, лучник) колчан (чохол для стріл),* and also*: ректи зримо, воздвигати, вражий, лжа, много, узріти, очіпок, копа (шістдесят снопів, яєць), півкопи (тридцять),*

вершок, гони, лікоть (міри довжини); медок (напій), кваша (страва) and several others.

Apart from the above-mentioned there exist in both contrasted languages some other typologically isomorphic classes of lexical units. Among these a prominent place belongs to words singled out on the basis of their informational structure/capacity. Accordingly, two types of such words are traditionally distinguished:

1. **Denotative words**, which constitute the bulk of each language's lexicon and include the so-called nomenclature words and word-groups, which are various terms and professionalisms of unique meaning. For example, *electron, motor, miner, tongs, outer space, specific weight, bus, tailor, football,* etc. Similarly in Ukrainian where these notionals are the same: *електрон, мотор, шахтар, общеньки, реактор, вертоліт, твід, швець, футбол, питома вага, космічний простір,* etc.

2. Many words in English and Ukrainian may also have both **denotative and connotative** meanings. Thus, the nouns *bear, fox, pig, goose, parrot, rat* and some others in their stylistically neutral meaning designate definite animals or birds, but when metonymically reinterpreted, they often acquire a vituperative (abusive) connotation. Correspondingly in Ukrainian: *свиня, тхір, собака, папуга, лисиця, корова (коровисько), бицюра, вівця, баран, жаба, ворона/гава*.

3. **Connotative words**/word-groups directly or indirectly correlate with their natural dentate: *Albion (poet, for England), the Bard of Avon (Shakespeare); Кобзар (T. Shevchenko), Каменяр (I. Franko), дочка Прометея (Lesia Ukrainka)* and some other. Connotative may become poetisms and neologisms.

Stylistically marked in both contrasted languages are three more groups of lexical units:

1) **ameliorative** words: *daddy, mummy, sissie, chivalrous, gentleman, мамуся, татуньо, дідунь, козаченько, серденько, голівонька*;

2) **pejorative** (лайливі) words: *bastard, blackguard, clown, knave, байстрюк, нікчема, негідник, покидько, головоріз*;

3) **constantly neutral** words and word-groups/expressions: *smith, geometry, teacher, love, you, he, all, гімнастика/фізкультура, історія, вчитель, коваль, любити, ненавидіти, я, ти, ми, п'ять, десять, тут, там*.

Of isomorphic nature in the contrasted languages and certainly universal is one more distinctive feature of lexicon, which finds its expression in the existence of such semantic classes of words as synonyms and antonyms.

5. Onomasiological and semasiological characteristics of different units of lexicon

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

a) from its **onomasiological side**, i.e. from its structure and nomination capacity and

b) from its **semasiological or content side**.

The onomasiological characteristics of a word are displayed through its morphological structure and its categorial (if any) meaning. Thus, the verb *goes* (the root go + es inflexion) has the categorial meanings of person, tense, aspect and voice, whereas the noun *songs* (song + s inflexion) has only the category of number (singular and plural).

From the semasiological side words may be monosemantic or polysemantic. The semantic structure of the bulk of English nouns, for example, is richer than that of the Ukrainian nouns. Thus, the English noun *boat* can mean *човен, судно/корабель, шлюпка*; the noun *coat* in English can mean *верхній одяг, пальто, піджак, кітель, хутро (тварин), захисний шар фарби на предметі.* Ukrainian words may sometimes have a complicated semantic structure as well. For example, the noun *подорож* may mean *cruise, journey, travel, trip, tour, voyage;* or the word *ще* may mean *still, yet, as yet, more, any more, again, else, but.*

Isomorphic if not universal is also 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 various

nomenclature words (terms). For example: *we, she, nobody, ten, thirty, and, or, atom, oxygen, sugar, today, він, вони, десять, перший, і/та, чи, кисень, цукор, сьогодні, торік,* etc.

Common in the contrasted languages are also other means of nomination, which can be of two types: a) inner means and b) outer (borrowed) means, which can be separate morphemes, words, word-groups and even separate sentences. The inner means of nomination include: 1) morphemes; 2) words; 3) phrases/word-groups and 4) sentences. Words in all languages constitute the main means of nomination. Thus, in English and Ukrainian they constitute about 75 % of all nominations. Structurally they may be:

a) simple words: *book, boy, new, alone, be, this, known, ten, there, soon, книжка, хлопець, новий, сам, знати, п'ять, скоро, там, добре*;

b) compound words: *blackboard, classroom, homework, schoolboy, steamship, railway*. Or in Ukrainian: *добродій, легковажати, літописець, книголюб, мовознавець, першочергово, лиходій, чортзнащо, Білогородка, Незовибатько, Добридень, Панібудьласка*. Very productive in present-day English but rare in present-day Ukrainian is the wholophrasal compounding: cf. *break-through, sit-in, commander-in-chief, merry-go-round* and occasionalisms like a *to-be-or-not-to-be question, a don't-beat-me-or-I-shall-cry expression* (on his face), etc. Compounds of this type belong to rare stylistic exotisms in Ukrainian. Cf. *Наталка "теє того як його" (І. Котляревський), Грицько "чи то я, чи не я" (Г. Тютюнник), "Йосип з гроша здачі" (Б. Харчук).*

Common and equally productive in the contrasted languages is the nomination by means of word-groups and sentences (usually nominative): *fine weather гарна погода, take part брати участь, throw light проливати світло. The rain. The welcome rain. (Longfellow) Вечір. Ніч. (Тичина).* These same sentences are nominative in English: *Twilight. Night.*

The onomasiological and semasiological status and structure of words may be changed in the contrasted languages by affixal morphemes as can be seen from the following words: *miss – dismiss, elect – reeled, man – mankind, relation – relationship; Київ – киянин – київський,*

переможний – переможений – непереможний, вибори – перевибори – довибори – виборний – виборчий, післявиборний, etc. The prosodic means, especially accent, can sometimes greatly influence the onomasiological and semasiological status of words in English and Ukrainian as well. This can be seen from the following words: *'mankind – man'kind; 'замок – за'мок, за'няття – заня'ття, 'вівці – вів'ці, 'руки – ру'ки, 'поперек – попе'рек*, etc.

A considerable number of semasiologically identical English lexemes often have different onomasiological/structural expression in Ukrainian and vice versa: *akimbo – (тримати) руки в боки/взявшись руками в боки; to ski – їздити/ходити на лижах; to skate – їздити на ковзанах; закохатися/покохати – to fall in love, зрячий – one who can see/one who is not blind; награтися – to play to one's heart's content, реготати – to laugh very loudly*, etc.

Questions for self-control

1. What are factors facilitating the typological study of lexicon?
2. What is semiotic classification of lexicon?
3. How many semiotic subclasses of lexemes are there? Name them and give the examples in Ukrainian and English.
4. What stylistically distinct layers of lexicon in the contrasted languages do you know?
5. How can we characterize a word from two sides: onomasiological and semasiological?

THEME 4

WORD-FORMATION IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Problems for discussion

1. Affixal or derivational word-formation

a) suffixal word-formation;

b) prefixal word-formation;
c) combined (suffixal plus prefixal) word-formation.
2. Compounding.
3. Abbreviation.
4. Blending.
5. Back-formation.
6. Reduplication.
7. Accentual word-formation.

The principal ways of word-formation in the contrasted language are isomorphic. They include the following four ways:

1) morphological;
2) morphologico-syntactic;
3) lexico-semantic;
4) lexico-syntactic.

The most productive of them in English and Ukrainian is the morphological way which is realised with the help of the following means:

- affixation;
- compounding;
- non-affixal word-formation.

1. Affixal or derivational word-formation

Affixal or **derivational word-formation** in both languages includes:

a) suffixal word-formation;
b) prefixal word-formation;
c) combined (suffixal plus prefixal) word-formation.

Affixal morphemes in the contrasted languages are used to form the same/common parts of speech.

a) Thus, **suffixal morphemes** help to form: nouns, adjectives, verbs, numerals and adverbs. These word-forming suffixes also belong to the same semantic groups. Among the noun-forming suffixes there are distinguished the following typologically common classes of them in English and Ukrainian:

1) **Agent suffixes** (суфікси, що означають діяча):

-ist/-ість, -ист: *analyst, motorist, journalist, пацифіст, журналіст, артист, тракторист;*

-ant, -ent (-ант/-ент): *irritant, servant, student, solvent, комерсант, лаборант, кореспондент, студент;*

-ar (-ар/-яр): *burglar, scholar, байкар, володар, муляр, дояр, зброяр;*

-er -or (-ер/-ор): *teacher, farmer, coster, singer, milker, actor, director, inspector, інженер, актор, директор, конструктор, вчитель.*

It should be added that nouns formed with the help of the suffix -er often have other meaning than that of denoting "performer of an action". They may denote:

a) process: *blabber, roarer, whisperer*;

b) psychological state: *admirer, boaster, adorer*;

c) physical perception: *heaver, thinker, watcher;*

d) instrument: *fanner, rectifier*;

e) banknotes: *fiver (п'ятірка), tenner (десятка)*;

f) time of activity: *fourter, fifter (чотирикурсник, п'ятикурсник).*

No less different meanings are also expressed by nouns formed with the help of other suffixes of this class, as for example:

-ier/-yer corresponding to the Ukrainian suffix -ир: *cashier, employer, lawyer, бригадир, командир, проводир*;

-eer (-ер/-ір): *auctioneer, profiteer, аукціонер, колекціонер, землемір*;

-ard/-art (corresponding to Ukrainian -ак/-як, -тюх, -ак(а), -як(а)): *drunkard, sluggard, braggart, жебрак, пияк, лінтюх, гуляка, задавака, забіяка, гультіпак*;

2) The English suffix -ee forms nouns denoting **reception of action**: *contestee, dedicatee, devotee, devorcee, employee, examinee* and some others. The meaning of this suffix in Ukrainian can be conveyed via the suffix -ець as in the nouns *вигнанець, бранець, вихованець, висуванець, переселенець* and others.

3) Suffixes denoting **numerous abstract notions**:

-ing (-н/-а/-я): *clothing, meeting, wedding, вбрання, зібрання,*

одруження;

-ism (-ізм): *Americanism, barbarism, despotism, feudalism, colloquialism, американізм, колоквіалізм, феодалізм, варваризм, деспотизм*;

-ness (-т/-а): *darkness, goodness, темнота, доброта, сліпота*;

-tion (-ац/-ія): *corruption, errection, generation, protection, генерація, корупція, протекція, сигналізація*;

-dom (ств/-о/, -цтв/-о/): *beggardom, butlerdom, officialdom, newspaperdom, жіноцтво, сусідство, учительство, газетярство*;

- hood (ств/-о/): *citizenhood, brotherhood, widowhood, громадянство, братство, вдівство*.

Both contrasted languages have also other suffixes. Namely:

4) **Evaluative suffixes** (оцінні суфікси) which are of two types: diminutive (14 in English) and augmentative (збільшувальні), which are not available in English. English diminutive suffixes are:

-et/-ette: *booklet, eaglet, kitchenette*;

-let: *kinglet, ringlet*;

-y/-ie, -ey: *dolly, grannie, sissy*;

-ling: *duckling, princeling*;

-kin: *ladikin, lordkin*;

-el/-le: *corpuscle, morsel*;

-icle, -cule: *monticle, monticule*;

-een: *velveteen*;

-ock: *hillock*;

-ing: *lording, princeling*;

-ee: *bootee*.

The number of diminutive only noun-forming suffixes in Ukrainian is as many as 53, which goes in no comparison with the English 14 suffixes, not all of which are productive. Besides, there exist adjective-, pronoun-, numeral-, adverb-, verb- and even interjections-forming diminutive suffixes in Ukrainian. For example, the noun-forming diminutive suffixes:

-атк/-ятк: *дівчатко, курчатко, телятко, ягнятко*;

-ик: *дубик, носик*;

-ок: *дубок, синок, сучок, коток*;

-ечок: *батіжечок, пиріжечок, стіжечок*;

-ечка: *качечка, свічечка, річечка, тичечка*;

-ичка: *сестричка, теличка, ягничка*;

-оньк/-а/: *дівчинонька, хатинонька, голівонька*.

It should be noted that all Ukrainian diminutive suffixes are productive, whereas in English only -ie/-ey, -y, -ette, -let, -ling and -kin can be considered productive.

The most productive augmentative suffixes in Ukrainian are:

-ань: *бородань, мордань*;

-ач: *бородач, носач*;

-ил: *барило, чудило, здоровило*;

-юр: *бицюра, собацюра*;

-ищ: *вовчище, ручище, собачище*;

-яр: *носяра, мисяра* and some others.

5) **Gender/sex expressing suffixes** of person are clearly distinct in both contrasted languages. They form in Ukrainian 3 groups:

- masculine gender and sex expressing suffixes of nouns like -ар/-яр: *лікар, токар, каменяр*, -ист/-іст: *бандурист, пацифіст*, -їй: *водій, носій*, -ант/-ент: *музикант, студент*, -тель: *вихователь, мучитель*, -ач/-яч: *глядач, діяч*, -янин/-анин: *селянин, киянин, галичанин, мирянин*;

- feminine gender and sex expressing suffixes usually follow the masculine gender/sex expressing suffixes, which are mostly followed by inflexions. Cf. -к-/а/: *артистка, журналістка, вчителька*; -их/-а/, -анк-, -янк-: *ковалиха, кравчиха, громадянин – громадянка, вінничанин – вінничанка, киянин – киянка*; -ник/-ця: *письменник – письменниця, робітник – робітниця*.

- neuter gender/sex expressing suffixes are numerous in Ukrainian. They may form both abstract and concrete (life and lifeless) nouns: -ств-о/-цтв-о: *братерство, козацтво, конярство*; -атк-о, -чк-о/-ятк-о: *дівчатко, курчатко, яблучко, ягняточко*; -к-о: *вушко*; -ячк-, -єчк-, -ечк-о: *відеречко, листячко, яєчко*; -це: *болітце, сальце, сильце*.

English “gender suffixes”, as they are sometimes called by grammarians, are in reality only sex expressing, but not grammatical

gender expressing: *actor – actress, waiter – waitress, widow – widower, lion – lioness.*

The suffixes -er/-or, -ess, -o and -ine clearly identify the objective gender of life nouns, i.e. their natural sex: cf. *the young actor, the young actress*. It is not so in Ukrainian, where genders are expressed by inflexions: *молодий артист – молода артистка*.

6) One more typologically common group constitute **the international suffixes**, which are mostly of common nature (origin) and meaning in English and Ukrainian. For example:

-er: *carter, bulldozer, leader, картер, бульдозер, лідер*;

-or: *conductor, dic tator, rector, диктатор, кондуктор, ректор*;

-ist: *Anarchist, Socialist, анархіст, соціаліст*;

-ism: *alcoholism, Byronism, heroism, feudalism, Hegelianism, байронізм, алкоголізм, гегеліанізм, героїзм, феодалізм*;

-ation/-ці/я: *administration, sensation, organisation, адміністрація, організація, сенсація*;

-able/-абельн: *communicable, readable, читабельний, комунікабельний*.

It must be added that the placement/distribution of suffixes in English and Ukrainian words is identical: they are added either to the root: *teacher, sailor, massive; вчитель, масивний, моряк* or to the stem of the word: *foolish+ly, friendli+ness; розумно, хворобливість*.

7) Many words in both languages are formed by means of **zero affixes** (without any affixes). This way of word-formation is very productive in English as well as in Ukrainian. Cf. *go, come, boy, world*.

b) Prefixal morphemes have also their main features common in the contrasted languages. They may equally be form-building as well as word-forming. English prefixes, however, can form words of more parts of speech than the Ukrainian ones. For example, they can form verbs: *be+dew>bedew*; adjectives: *pre+war>prewar*; adverbs: *in+side>inside*, etc.

The structure of prefixal morphemes in the contrasted languages is generally common, though there are more single-sign (single-letter) prefixes in Ukrainian than in English, which has only one single letter

prefix a- (*asleep, alike, aloof*). Their number in Ukrainian is larger. Cf. *встати, внести, вдвох, зліт, угору, схід, згори, вниз.*

All English and Ukrainian prefixes can be typologically subdivided into some groups. The main of them are as follows:

1) **International prefixes** whose lingual form and meaning are identical in the contrasted languages:

- anti-: *antiglobal, anti-British, антиглобальний, антивоєнний, antimonopolist, антимонополіст*;

- counter-: *countermeasure, countermarch, контрзмова, контрзахід*;

- ex-: *ex-champion, ex-president, ексчемпіон, експрезидент*;

- extra-: *extraordinary, extramural, extraactive, екстраактивний, екстраординарний, екстравагантний*;

- sub-: *submarine, subordination, субмарина, субординація*.

2) A large group of prefixes have in the contrasted languages only semantic identity but they are different in their lingual form since they are **national prefixes**: *foresee – передбачити, extra-natural – надприродний, intraarterial – внутрішньоартеріальний, nonparty – позапартійний, pre-war – до/передвоєнний, post-war – післявоєнний, sub-species – підвиди/підкласи.*

3) The third group present **semantically alien national prefixes** pertaining to one of the contrasted languages and non-existent in the other. The lexical meaning of such divergent prefixes forms part of the semantic structure of the stem, hence it is usually conveyed by other than morphological (usually by lexico-semantic) means. Cf. *decamp – виїжджати з табору/покидати табір, mis-state – робити неправдиву/фальшиву заяву, underhung – той/те, що випирає/виступає вперед.*

There are also some allomorphic Ukrainian prefixes which have no semantic equivalents in English. Their meaning is also conveyed by other affixal means. Cf. *по-українському/по-українськи* – in Ukrainian, *щонайкраще/якнайкраще* – in the best way possible or very well indeed; rather/extremely well, *якнайповільніше* – as slowly as possible/in the most slowly (or in an ever possible slow) way, etc.

A specifically Ukrainian phenomenon which is also alien not only to English but even to other Slavonic languages is the reduplicated use of the prefix по- in verbs to express an intensive and repeated or durative action. Cf. *поповодити, попоблукати, поповозитися (з чимсь, з кимсь), попогребти, попоїсти, попоспати*. The meaning of such duplicated prefixes is conveyed in English and other languages in a descriptive way. Cf. *попоїсти* – to eat substantially or to eat repeatedly/again, or to eat without interruption and amply, uninterruptedly.

c) **Combined prefixal and suffixal formation of words.**

Many words in English and Ukrainian are formed by way of adding both prefixal and suffixal morphemes to the root or stem of the same word. It should be emphasised that the formation of new words with the help of prefixes and suffixes is performed in English and Ukrainian according to some common morphological models. The number of these models is four and they are as follows:

1) one prefix + the root morpheme/stem + one suffix, forming:

- nouns: *en-rich-ment, for-cast-er, un-suspect-ness*;

- forming adjectives: *anti-cyclon-ic, anti-christ-ian, para-phras-tic, pre-script-iv*e;

- forming verbs: *de-colour-ise, dis-satis-fy, over-estim-ate*;

- forming adverbs: dis-creet-ly, un-tru-ly, un-war-like;

2) two or more prefixes + the root morpheme/stem + one suffix as in the nouns: *over-sub-scrip-tion, re-im-prison-ment, re-in-carn-ation*;

3) one prefix + the root morpheme/stem + two or more suffixes, as in adverbs that are formed from adjectives and participles: *dis-stress-ing-ly, dis-trust-ful-ly, pro-portion-ate-ly, under-hand-ed-ly.*

4) Fewer nouns are formed, naturally, according to the fourth and the most complicated structural model, combining two or more prefixes + root morpheme/stem + two or more suffixes as in the words: *in-ac-count-abil-ity, in-dispens-abil-ity, non-re-activ(e)-ation, non-re-presentation-al-ism.*

Words of this combined type are well exemplified in Ukrainian, though their quantitative distribution coincides mainly in their simplest type only. This (latter) type of word-formation model has the largest

representation in both contrasted languages. Thus, the following prefixes and suffixes are both productive and non-productive in forming some types of nouns in Ukrainian:

- без-/-к-: *безтарка, безштанько, безбатченко*;
- від-/-ок: *відрізок, відбиток, відтинок*;
- на-/-ник: *навушник, навчальник*;
- за-/-ок: *затінок, загривок, задвірок, затишок*.

A large number of productive noun stems in Ukrainian originate from prepositional noun phrases which in the course of historical development have become prefixes and now together with the phonetically identified suffix form a large number of -я/-а root nouns:

- без-: *безладдя, безділля*;
- за-: *загір'я, заріччя*;
- між-: *міжгір'я, міжріччя*;
- над-: *надбрів'я, надпліччя*;
- перед-: *переджнив'я, передсердя*;
- по-: *подвір'я, пониззя, Побужжя, Покуття, Полісся*.

Relative adjectives in Ukrainian are more often formed according to the first combined morphological model than nouns. The most often used prepositional prefixes are без-, від-, до-, за-, на-, and others. The suffixes used with these prefixes are: -н-, -ов-/-ев-, -єв, -ськ-/-зьк-, -цьк-/-овськ- and others. Cf. без-/-н-: *безвірний, безпарний*; без/-ов-: *бездоказовий, безготівковий*; -від-/-н-: *віддієслівний*; між-/-ов-: *міжвидовий*; на-/-ян- *навітряний*; над-/-янськ-: *наддніпрянський*; без-/-ев-/-єв-: *безстатевий, безчуттєвий* and others.

Adjectives with verbal stems have in Ukrainian the characteristic prefix не-, originating from the negative particle не. The suffixes that are used with this prefix in combined adjectives are of two kinds:

1) -н-, -анн-/-янн-/-енн-: *невтомний, незбагненний, невпізнанний, невгамовний, несказанний, незрівнянний, нескінченний*;

2) -м-, -уч-/-юч-, -уш-/-ющ-/, -лив-: *невловимий, невгасимий, невимовний, непосидючий, непитущий, невидющий, неквапливий*.

Unlike nouns and adjectives, combined verbs are formed in Ukrainian according to the third structural model. They are formed from

over 400 nominal stems, the most occurent of which are adjectival and substantival. The prefixes may be different, whereas the suffixes are for both parts of speech usually common. They are -и-/-і- and -ти-/-а-/, в-/-у-: Cf. *вдосконалити, унепокоювати, уможливити*; з-/с-/: *збільшити, зменшити, спростити*; о-: *обіднити, оминати, очуміти*; об-: *облегшити, обникати, обшукати*; пере-: *перебільшити, перевищити*; ви-: *вилюдніти, видужати*, з-: *звузити, здужати, зсунути*, etc.

In combined derivative verbs formed from verbal stems, the main suffixes are -ува- and -ти-: *вицьвохкувати, перечитувати, підкахикувати, пришкандибувати, погейкувати, покліпувати, розбалакувати, переважувати, пересилювати*, etc.

English prefixal and post-fixal verbs have no parallel to the complicated structure of the Ukrainian verbs with the postfix -ся/-сь: *не-до-роз-вин-ут-и-ся, не-до-ви-плач-ват-и-ся, пере-роз-по-діл-ит-и-ся*.

There are fewer adverbs, adjectives and nouns in Ukrainian that are formed according to the third and fourth combined structural models. Cf. adverbs: *до-не-с-хоч-у, с-про-квол-а, що-най-кращ-е*; adjectives and participles: *за-в-час-н-ий, не-в-благ-анн-ий, не-су-під-ряд-н-ий, не-пере-о-снащ-ен-ий, не-до-виторг-ув-ан-ий*; nouns: *не-в-благ-анн-ість, пере-роз-по-діленн-я, не-до-ви-до-бут-ок*.

Consequently, combined prefixal plus suffixal, i.e. predominantly derivational word-formation belongs in both languages to productive means of building new words of new meanings. Especially active, as was testified by the examples above, is this kind of word-formation in Ukrainian.

2. Compounding

The formation of compound words in English and Ukrainian is characterised both by isomorphic and allomorphic features as well. Common are, first at all, two main ways of forming compounds in English and Ukrainian:

1) by the juxtaposition (placement) of the determining and the determined parts and

2) with the help of the linking/interfixal o, e, s in English and o, e/є, y in Ukrainian.

The largest group of compounds formed through the juxtaposition of free root/stem words in English constitute nouns: *aircraft, bath-house, fountain-pen, godmother, inkpot, lockout, mankind, motherland, note-book;* adjectives: *sky-blue, pitch-dark, social-economic, far-reaching, peace-loving* and verbs: *blackwash, ill-treat, take-off*. Less numerous are adverbs: Cf. *anywhere, nowadays, outside, somehow, sideways*; pronouns: *everybody, everything, herself, none*, and numerals: *one-fifths, twenty-one, two-thirds* and others.

Pertaining mostly to English are compounds (nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and some numerals) with prepositions and conjunctions used as connectors of different roots/stems often referred to as wholophrases. For example, nouns: *commander-in-chief, cat-o'-nine-tails, bread-and-butter breakfast*; adjectives: *out-of-date, rough-and-ready*; adverbs: *rough-and-tumble*; numerals: *two and twenty, one hundred and ten*. Ukrainian has only a few compound adverbs of its own and some nouns of foreign origin of this type: *де-не-де, пліч-о-пліч, хоч-не-хоч, як-не-як, Франкфурт-на-Майні, Франкфурт-на-Одері*, etc.

Compounding by juxtaposition of free words (root words or stems) is considerably less productive in Ukrainian. And yet, there are several nouns, adverbs, pronouns, a few verbs and conjunctions, as well as particles formed in this way. For example, nouns: *бурят-монгол, генерал-майор, вагон-ресторан, зернотрест, медик-хірург*; pronouns: *дещо, дехто, хтозна-що, казна-що, казнахто, хто-небудь, що-небудь*; adverbs: *казна-де, казна-звідки, казна-як*.

Close to the above-mentioned compounds in Ukrainian are also some compound nouns and compound verbs of coordinate nature: *батько-мати* (i.e. батько і мати), *інженер-технік* (інженер і технік), *хліб-сіль* (хліб і сіль); verbs: *думати-гадати, говорити-балакати*; conjunctions and particles: *немов, немовбито, нібито* and others.

Compounding with the help of the linking interfixal elements is far less productive in English than in Ukrainian, and it is generally restricted to nouns and adjectives as a rule. Cf. the nouns: *Anglo-Saxondom, Anglo-*

Saxons, electrokinetics, electro-therapy, gasometer, tradesfolk, tradespeople, violoncellist and the abjectives like *Sino-American, Afro-Asian, Israeli-American, Iraqi-Iranian* (Cf. the Ukrainian compounds respectively *китайсько-американський, афро-азійський, ізраїльсько-американський, електротерапевтичний,* etc).

Hence, the principal way of forming composites in Ukrainian is that by means of linking interfixes, which connect abbreviated and full words. The latter usually follow the initial abbreviated forms, as in the following nouns: *боєздатність, землечерпалка, броненосець, кулеливарник, сновидець, театрознавець, білоголівка, самозбереження, полумисок*; in numerals and in adjectives: *кількасот, півтораста, вогнегасний, доморощений, нафтоносний, електрозварювальний*; and in adverbs: *карколомно, передовсім, позавуш, самочинно*, etc.

Consequently, the typological difference between the composite words of the two languages lies in their much larger variety of types in Ukrainian than in English. Though there is a way of compounding in English that is practically alien to Ukrainian. This is the already mentioned way which is usually termed as wholophrasing. It represents an occasional incorporation of word-groups or sentences into non-constant compounds, such as a *never-to-beforgotten event* (from: an event never to be forgotten) or *a to-be-or-not-to-be question, (his) come-what-will attitude, a'do-come-please-tomorrow expression on his face, beat-me-or-pardon-me reaction*.

Of this same wholophrasal nature are also many English and Ukrainian composite words (mostly nouns, adjectives and some adverbs) formed from word-combinations or sentences: *forget-me-not, merry-go-round, East-end, kiss-in-the-ring* (game), *kiss-me-quick* (beret), *love-lies-bleeding* (plant), *loopchange-loop* (in figure skating), *pen-and-ink* (adj.), as well as many family names and nicknames of people, geographical names: *Mr. Backbite* (false person), *Youngman, Copperfield* (talented person), *Salt-Lake City, Iceland, Georgetown, Greenfield, Londesborough, Newfoundland, West brook*.

Ukrainian has many composite words of this kind too, though sometimes they are formed with the help of the linking elements (usually -и-, -й-): *горихвістка, варивода, держидерево, крутиголовка (bird),*

негнійдерево, люби-мене, мати-й-мачуха, крутивус, перекотиполе. Several Ukrainian family names and geographical names have been formed from word-groups or sentences as well. Cf. *Вернигора, Гниверба, Добривечір, Затуливітер, Небаба, Незовибатько, Неїжмак, Непийпиво, Нетудихата, Панібудьласка, Печиборщ, Підкушіуха, Вшигород*.

Apart from nouns there are some other parts of speech that are formed in Ukrainian from prepositional phrases and word-groups or sentences, as for example, adverbs: *абияк, анітрохи, віднині, відтепер, досхочу, задовго, запанібрата, віч-на-віч, дотепер, відразу, пліч-о-пліч; adjectives: бавовнопрядильний, водомірний, водоплавний, переробний*; and verbs: *благодіяти, боготворити, зубоскалити, хліборобствувати*.

Similar compounds can be observed in English as well. Cf. the nouns *whole-heartedness, schoolboyishiness, warming-pan,* and also adjectives/participles: *absent-minded, heart-shaped, three-coloured,* and several others.

3. Abbreviation

As a word-forming means it represents a generally common type of word-formation in the contrasted languages, though it is not devoid of some national divergences either. Common and equally productive in both contrasted languages are the following types:

1. The so-called initial abbreviation, wich presents cases like *USA, UNO, BBC, TGWU, AFL-CIO, CNN, TV, SOS, IMF, EC, EEC, UK, UNESCO, OPEC* (oil producing and exporting countries), *MP* (member of parliament or military police), *AIDS, SALT* (Strategic Anns Limitation Talks), *VAT* and other acronyms. Similarly in Ukrainian: *США, ООН, ЮНЕСКО, АФП-КПП, СОЇ, СНІД, МВФ*.

Specifically English is the combined abbreviation of acronyms and complete words as *A-life* (artificial life in computers), *H-bag* (handbag), *N-bomb, U-language* (upper class English), *V-Day* (victory Day), *VE-Day* (victory in Europe Day), *VJ-Day* (victory over Japan Day), etc. Rather

productive in English and Ukrainian is also shortening like *govt*. for government, *dz.* for dozen, *ft.* for foot, *gal.* for gallon, *m.* for mile, etc. Respectively in Ukrainian: с. (сторінка), т (тонна), etc.

Many English shortenings originate from colloquialisms and jargonisms, as it is the case with such nouns as *bike* (bicycle), *dub* (double), *bod* (body, fellow), *demo* (demonstration), *doc* (doctor), *info* (information data), *op* (opportunity), *mike* (microphone), *pop* (popular as in pop-music), *profi*e (a professional), *prof* (professor) and others.

The number of thus shortened words of this kind in Ukrainian is restricted to some nursery shortenings as *ма* (мамо), *та* (тату), *ба* (бабо) and to colloquialisms like *тра* (треба), *хо* (хочу), *зав, зам, спец*.

2. Partial abbreviation of words is generally rare in English. It is observed in English in such examples as *Colo* (Colorado), *Indi* (Indiana), *Okla* (Oklahoma), *Canwood* (Canadian Woods) and some other geographical names like these.

Partial abbreviation in Ukrainian, however, is rather productive, being used to designate a variety of notions like *держстрах, Донбас, Кривбас, головбух, завгосп, ботсад.*

3. Combined abbreviation is also less productive and less wide-spread in English than in Ukrainian. Cf. *CONUS* (Continental US), *COSPAR* (Committee on Space Research), *INTERPOL* (International Criminal Police Organisation), *COMECON* (Council of Mutual Economic Assitance/Aid). This way of partial initial abbreviation is very productive in Ukrainian: *міськвно (міський відділ народної освіти), облвно, райвно*, etc.

Apart from the aforementioned, there exist some other ways (both productive and non-productive) of word-formation in English and Ukrainian. They are as follows.

4. Blending

Blending, which 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*, 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; *popaganda* (popular/pop + propaganda), i.e. propaganda of popular music or songs.

There exist some ways of making blends or types of blanding 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*, etc.

2. By combining the root morpheme/stem of the first word and the stem of the trancated initial part of the second word: 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*, 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*, etc.

5. Back-formation

Back-formation (reversion) is a rather productive type of word-formation in English, where many short words are inferred from longer words. It is in this way that verbs are derived from nouns: *own* < owning,

beg < beggar, *brag* < bragging, *broke* < broker, *edi*t < editor etc. English compound verbs are often formed by back-formation from compound nouns: *to aircondition* < air conditioning, *to baby-sit* < baby sitter, *to house-clean* < house-cleaner, *to house-keep* < housekeeping, etc. Similarly formed are also English verbs from adjectives: *luminisce* < luminiscent, *reminisce* < reminiscent, *frivol* < frivolous, etc. Also nouns are formed quite in the same way from adjectives: *greed* < greedy, *nast* < nasty, etc.

Back-formation in Ukrainian is restricted only to nouns which are formed from verbal (or rather from their infinitival) stems. For example: *біг* < бігати, *брід* < бродити, *гнів* < гнівити, *крик* < кричати, *галас* < галасувати, *шамкіт* < шамкотіти, *говір* < говорити, etc.

6. Reduplication

Reduplication is a common means of compounding in the contrasted languages, but it is more productive in English than in Ukrainian. Cf. *fifty-fifty, goody-goody, hush-hush* (secret), *pooh-pooh, so-so*. Similarly in Ukrainian: *де-де, ні-ні, ледве-ледве, так-так, ось-ось, от-от, тільки-тільки, тихо-тихо*. It is interesting to note, that English reduplications are often only somewhat different ablaut combinations. Cf.: *bibble-babble, chit-chat, clitter-clatter* (all denoting idle talk), *dilly-dally* (loiter), *knick-knacks* (small article of ornament), *riff-raff* (the mob), *shilly-shally* (hesitate), *ding-dong* (equivalent to the Ukrainian дзінь-дзелень), *tip-top* (firstrate), *zigzag* (зигзаг), etc.

Unlike Ukrainian the English language is especially rich in rhymed reduplications which are rare in our colloquial speech. Cf. *boogy-woogie, fliggerty-glibberty* (frivolous), *helter-skelter* (in disordered haste), *higgledy-piggledy* (disorder), *hurry-scurry* (great hurry), *lovey-dovey* (darling), *willy-nilly* (compulsory).

7. Accentual word-formation

This way of word-formation is isomorphic in the morphological systems of both languages. Nevertheless, words thus formed in English

generally change both their lexico-grammatical (morphological) nature and meaning. Cf. *'accent* (n) – *ac'cent* (v), *'conduct* (n) – *con'duct* (v), *'export* (n) – *ex'port* (v), *'permit* (n) – *per'mit* (v), etc.

The change of accent in Ukrainian, however, usually does not effect the lexico-grammatical nature of the word but only its semantics. Cf. *'замок – за'мок, 'жила – жил'а, 'мука – му'ка, 'приклад – прик'лад*. Though not without exceptions. Cf.: *'бігом* (n) – *бігом* (adv), *вго'рі* (adv) – *в'горі* (n), *'слідом* (n) – *слід'ом* (adv). Sometimes, however, there may be no differentiation of the lexico-grammatical nature of homonymous sense units through accent in Ukrainian. This can be seen from the following examples: *до'низу* (adv) – *до'низу* (prepos, noun), *до'віку* (adv) – *до (такого-то) 'віку* (n), *тим 'часом* (adv) – *він скористався тим 'часом* (n), etc.

Questions for self-control

1. Give the examples of forming English and Ukrainian nouns with the help of agent suffixes.
2. What is the number of diminutive noun-forming suffixes in English and Ukrainian?
3. What are common morphological models of the formation of new words with the help of prefixes and suffixes in English and Ukrainian? Give the examples to each of them.
4. What are common main ways of forming compounds in English and Ukrainian?
5. What are ways of making blends or types of blanding in English? Give the examples.

THEME 5

WORD COMBINATIONS AND PHRASEOLOGY IN MODERN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LANGUAGES

Problems for discussion

1. Free and non-free word combinations.
2. Classifications of phraseological units.
3. Synonyms in phraseology.
4. Antonyms in phraseology.
5. Proverbs, sayings.
6. Typology of idiomatic and set expressions.

1. Free and non-free word combinations

The vocabulary of a language includes not only words but also stable word combinations which also serve as a means of expressing concepts. They are **phraseological word** equivalents.

An ordinary word combination is created according to the grammatical rules of the language in accordance with a certain idea. The general meaning of an ordinary free word combination is derived from the conjoined meanings of its elements. An ordinary word combination is a syntactical pattern. A **free word combination** is a combination in which any element can be substituted by another: *I like this idea. I dislike this idea. He likes the idea. I like that idea. I like this thought.*

The freedom of a word in combination with others can be relative as it is not only the syntactical pattern that matters. There are logical limitations too. The second group of word combinations is **semi-free word combinations**. They are the combinations in which the substitution is possible but limited: *to cut a poor/funny/strange figure.*

Non-free word combinations are those in which the substitution is impossible: *to come clean, to be in low water*.

2. Classifications of phraseological units

The classification of phraseological units includes:

- **standardised word combinations**, i.e. phrases characterised by the limited combinative power of their components, which retain their semantic independence: *to meet the request/requirement, подавати надію, страх бере, зачепити гордість, покласти край;*

- **phraseological unities**, i.e. phrases in which the meaning of the whole is not the sum of meanings of the components but it is based on them and the motivation is apparent: *to stand to one's guns, передати куті меду, прикусити язика, вивести на чисту воду, тримати камінь за пазухою;*

- **fusions**, i.e. phrases in which the meaning cannot be derived as a whole from the conjoined meanings of its components: *tit for tat, теревені правити, піймати облизня, викинути коника, у Сірка очі позичити.*

It is necessary to divide English phraseological unities into figurative and non-figurative. **Figurative unities** are often related to analogous expressions with direct meaning in the very same way in which a word used in its transferred sense is related to the same word used in its direct meaning. Scientific English, technical vocabulary, the vocabulary of arts and sports have given many expressions of this kind: *in full blast; to hit below the belt; to spike smb's guns.* Among phraseological unities we find many verb-adverb combinations: *to look for; to look after; to put down; to give in.*

Phraseological fusions are the most synthetical of all the phraseological groups. They seem to be completely unmotivated though their motivation can be unearthed by means of historic analysis.

Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units

1. Phraseological units referring to the same notion: *Hard work – to burn the midnight oil; to do back-breaking work; to hit the books; to keep one's nose to the grindstone; to work like a dog; to work one's fingers to the bone. Ледарювати – байдики бити, ханьки м'яти,*

ганяти вітер по вулицях, тинятися з кутка в куток, і за холодну воду не братися.

2. Professionalisms: *on the rocks; to stick to one's guns; breakers ahead.*

3. Phraseological units having similar components: *a dog in the manger; dog days; to agree like cat and dog; to rain cats and dogs; з перших рук; як без рук; горить у руках; не давати волі рукам.*

4. Phraseological units referring to the same lexico-semantic field: Body parts: *to cost an arm and leg; to pick somebody's brain; to get one's feet wet; to get off the chest; to rub elbows with; not to have a leg to stand on; to stick one's neck out; to be nosey; to make a headway; to knuckle down; to shake a leg; to pay through the noser; to tip toe around; to mouth off; без клепки в голові; серце з перцем; легка рука.* Fruits and vegetables: *red as a beet; a couch potato; a hot potato; a real peach; as cool as a cucumber; a top banana; гриби після дощу; як горох при дорозі; як виросте гарбуз на вербі.* Animals: *sly as a fox; to be a bull in a china shop; to go ape; to be a lucky dog; to play cat and mouse; як з гуски вода, як баран на нові ворота; у свинячий голос; гнатися за двома зайцями.*

Structural Classification of Phraseological Units

English phraseological units can function like:

- verbs: *to drop a brick; to drop a line; to go shares; мотати на вус, товкти воду в ступі, ускочити в халепу;*

- nouns: *brains trust, ladies' man; наріжний камінь, біла ворона, лебедина пісня;*

- adjectives: *high and dry, high and low, ill at ease*; *не з полохливого десятка, не остання спиця в колесі, білими нитками шитий;*

- adverbs: *tooth and nail, on guard; by heart*; *не чуючи землі під ногами, кров холоне в жилах, ні в зуб ногою;*

- prepositions: *in order to; by virtue of.* Ukrainian phraseological units can not function like prepositions;

- interjections: *Good heavens! Gracious me! Great Scot!; цур тобі,*

ні пуху ні пера, хай йому грець.

Another **structural classification** includes the following phraseological units:

- nominative;
- nominative and nominative-communicative;
- interjective;
- communicative.

Nominative phraseological units are of several types. It depends on the type of dependence:

1) phraseological units with constant dependence of the elements: *the Black Maria; the ace of trumps; a spark in the powder magazine*;

2) phraseological units with the constant variant dependence of the elements: *a blind pig/tiger; a good/great deal*;

3) phraseological units with quantitative variants. They are formed with the help of the reduction or adding the elements: *the voice of one crying in the wilderness = a voice crying out in the wilderness = a voice crying in the wilderness = a voice in the wilderness*;

4) adjectival phraseological units: *as like as two peas; fit as a fiddle; as cool as a cucumber.*

Nominative and Nominative-Communicative phraseological units are of several types as well. The first type is verbal phraseological units. Verbal phraseological units refer to this type in such cases: a) when the verb is not used in the Passive voice: *to drink like a fish; to buy a pig in a poke; to close one's eyes on something*; b) if the verb is not used in the Active voice: *to be reduced to a shadow; to be gathered to one's fathers.*

Nominative and Nominative-Communicative phraseological units can have lexical variants: *to close/shut books; to come to a fine/handsome/nice/pretty pass.*

Grammar variants are also possible: *to get into deep water = to get into deep waters; to pay nature's debt = to pay the debt of nature.*

Quantitative variants can also be found: *to lead somebody a dance = to lead somebody a pretty dance.*

Lexico-grammar variants are also possible: *to close/shut a/the door/doors on/upon/to somebody.*

Interjective phraseological units are represented by: *by George! By Jove! Good heavens! Gracious me!*

Communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings. e.g.: *Rome was not built in a day. An apple a day keeps a doctor away. That's another pair of shoes. More power to your elbow. Carry me out.*

3. Synonyms in Phraseology

Synonymy in phraseology has been greatly enriched by various processes of the meaning shift, by the influx of foreign words and phrases. **Absolute synonyms** which have the same meaning and connotation are comparatively rare: *a pretty kettle of fish = a nice pair of shoes; байдики бити – давати горобцям дулі.*

Relative synonyms denote different shades of different degrees of common meaning: *to come to a conclusion; to jump at a conclusion; to leap at a conclusion.*

There is every reason to establish a stylistic differentiation of synonyms. Some of phraseological units are stylistically neutral, others have an emotional connotation. In stylistic synonyms the difference is not so much in the meaning as in the emotional colouring: *word of honour (neutral) – as I live by bread (colloquial); to be in high spirits (neutral) – to be on high ropes (colloquial); заснути вічним сном (neutral) – простягти ноги (colloquial).*

4. Antonyms in Phraseology

Antonyms can be opposed to each other in their concrete meanings: *an old sea wolf – a young calf of a mate; вбити собі в голову – викинути з голови, набитий гаманець – вітер у кишенях свистить.* The elements of the phraseological units-antonyms are expressed by the same part of speech: *safe and sound – dead and gone; макітра розуму – пустий лоб.*

It is not investigated yet whether it is possible to use the negative particle not to form an antonym. In the Ukrainian language it is possible

to use a negation in the following examples: *велике цабе – невелике цабе, з легким серцем – з нелегким серцем.*

5. Proverbs, sayings

A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, the truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with phraseological units because their lexical components are also constant, their meanings are traditional and mostly figurative and they are introduced into speech ready-made. Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with phraseological units is that they often form the basis of phraseological units.

A proverb is always a sentence. Very often they are realised in superphrasal units. Proverbs may have different contents:

- War is condemned: *War is sweet to them who know it not. War is the sport of kings.*

- Fools are laughed at: *Fools grow without watering. He who is borne a fool is never cured.*

- Lazy-bones are criticised: *Idleness is the root of all evil.*

- Proverbs teach to be economical: *A penny saved is a penny gained. Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves.*

- Proverbs teach to work hard: *He that will eat the kernel must crack the nut. He that would eat the fruit must climb the tree. He that would catch fish must not mind getting wet. He would search for pearls must dive below.*

Grammatical structure of proverbs:

1. Simple affirmative sentences: *Appetite comes with eating. A cat may look at a king. A little pot is soon hot. Друзі пізнаються в біді.*

2. Simple negative sentences: *You cannot judge a tree by its bark Hungry bellies have no ears. Нема науки без муки.*

3. Compound sentences: *God sends meat and the devil sends cooks. Hope is a good breakfast but a bad supper. За морем тепліше, та вдома миліше. Від меча рана загоїться, а від лихого слова – ніколи.*

4. Complex sentences: *If the things were to be done twice all would be wise. As the fool thinks, so the bell clinks. Хто мусить, той і каменя вкусить. Шануй свою голову, бо друга не виросте.*

5. Imperative sentences: *Don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs. Don't cross the bridges before you come to them. Не брудни криниці, бо схочеш водиці. Вмієш казати, вмій і мовчати.*

6. Interrogative sentences: *Can the leopard change his spots?*

Sayings are communicative phrasal units of a non-proverbial character. They can be represented by:

- affirmative sentences: *The answer is a lemon. The world is a small place. That is a horse of another colour. Часом густо, а часом і пусто. Сорока на хвості принесла;*

- interrogative sentences: *Do you see any green in my eye? What's the good word? Where do you hail from?*

- negative sentences: *Не нашого поля ягода. Не святі горшки ліплять.*

- imperative sentences: *Carry me out! Put that in your pipe and smoke it!*

6. Typology of idiomatic and set expressions

The idiomatic and set expressions are lexically and often structurally stable units of lexicon which present a universal phenomenon. Structurally they may be in all languages:

1) sentence idioms: *time and tide wait for no man, на козаку нема знаку;*

2) word-group idioms: *to be or not to be, десять заповідей, бути чи не бути;*

3) metaphorically generalized proper names: *Tom, Dick, and Harry* (перший-ліпший), *Nosy Parker* (людина, що втручається/суне ніс не в свої справи); *Макар Касян* (ненажера), *Чалий* (підступна, зрадлива людина); *язиката Хвеська, сердешна Оксана*.

Common in all languages are also the paradigmatic classes of idioms which may be:

- **substantival:** *the Trojan horse, the sword of Damocles; троянський кінь, дамоклів меч);*

- **verbal:** *to have one's heart in one's mouth, to take the bull by the horns; брати бика за роги, пекти раків;*

- **adverbial:** *by and again, tit for tat; по всіх усюдах, тут і там, скрізь і всюди*.

Idiomatic expressions in English and Ukrainian and in all other languages may perform common functions in the sentence:

a) the subject: *Hobson's choice* is an idiom; *Домоклів меч* – ідіома;

b) the predicate/predicative: That was a *Hobson s choice* for him; Він *утре їм носа;*

c) the object: He translated correctly the idiom *"Hob-son's choice"* into Ukrainian; Вона не хоче *пекти раків;*

d) the adverbial modifier: He will do it *by hook or by crook; Кров з носа*, а зроблю це.

Besides, idiomatic expressions exist in all languages either as:

1) absolute equivalents having all components the same and absolutely identical or slightly different meaning in some languages of a historically, culturally and mostly geographically close region, as is the case with the idiomatic expressions of the European area: *the heel of Achilles – ахіллесова п'ята, the Trojan horse – троянський кінь, the tree of knowledge – дерево/древо пізнання;*

2) near equivalents, i.e. when having in some languages one or more components missing or different as in other (contrasted) languages: *to kiss the post – поцілувати замок, as pale as paper – блідий як стіна; grass widow – солом'яна вдова;*

3) genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies. They have in English and Ukrainian similar meaning but different componential structures: *a fly in the ointment, make haste slowly; ложка дьогтю в бочці меду, тихіше* їдеш – *далі* будеш.

National idioms present a separate universal feature pertained to all languages. These idioms are formed on the basis of the component parts/ images characteristic of a definite national community and its language. Thus, only in English exist such idioms as *to cut off with a shilling*, and

only in Ukrainian such idioms as *передати куті меду, вбиймати облизня, ставити на карб, пекти раків*.

Typologically relevant is also the identification of the group of regular **international idioms,** which are common, however, only in some groups of geographically closer languages. Nevertheless there scarcely exist universal idioms of the same lexical meaning and the same component structure. As a result, there are many not only words but also idioms borrowed from Greek, Hebrew and Latin (cf. *Pandora's box, to cross the Rubicon; I came, I saw, I conquered*). These and the like idiomatic expressions have usually absolute or near equivalents in languages of one culturally and geographically common area.

The environmental and social conditions of life and regular vital needs may define and even predetermine not only the behavior of people, but also their ways of thinking in different parts of the world. Consequently, it may be assumed that some near idiomatic equivalents and analogies may still come to being (and exist) in absolutely different languages.

Typologically relevant universal idiomatic expressions may presumably be found only among the group/class of idiomatic near equivalents and among the so-called genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies, which are stable expressions having different componential parts/ images but a similar/analogous lexical meaning.

Questions for self-control

1. What is the difference between free and non-free word combinations? Give the examples of them.
2. What is structural classification of phraseological units?
3. Give the examples of synonymic and antonymic phraseological units in English and Ukrainian.
4. What is grammatical structure of proverbs?
5. What are national idioms? Give their examples in contrasted languages.

THEME 6

TYPOLOGY OF THE MORPHOLOGICAL SYSTEMS OF THE CONTRASTED LANGUAGES

Problems for discussion

1. Typological features of the Noun as a part of speech.
2. Typology of the Adjective.
3. The Numeral as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian.
4. Typological characteristics of the Pronoun.
5. Typological characteristics of the English and Ukrainian Verb.
6. Typological characteristics of the Adverb.

1. Typological features of the Noun as a part of speech

The noun as a part of speech is characterised in English and Ukrainian by a common lexico-grammatical nature of substantivity or "thingness". This meaning (thingness) finds its realization not only in concrete nouns: *book, boy, house, tree, fish, meat* but also in abstract nouns: *love, hatefulness, business, information*. Hence, typologically isomorphic are also the main **paradigmatic classes** of nouns, which are two:

1) common nouns;
2) proper names.

Each of these two main classes of nouns is sub-categorised in English and Ukrainian into several minor groups.

Common nouns split in the contrasted languages into the following subclasses:

- concrete nouns: *arrow, cap, carp, doll, tree, house, book, стріла, дерево, кашкет;*
- abstract nouns: *fear, hatred, knowledge, news, страх, ненависть;*
- collective nouns: *cattle, crew, family, government, худоба;*

- names of materials: *air, flour, iron, salt, snow повітря, цукор, борошно;*

- class nouns: *bird, desk, book, cat, flower, glove, kite, птах, стіл, короп; лялька, знання, вість, екіпаж.*

Proper names in their turn split in English and Ukrainian into some common subclasses as well. The main of them are as follows:

- Names/Nicknames of people(s), nationals: *Ann, Yankeys, English, Michael, the Dutch, Nelly, Ukrainians, Oscar англійці, Ганна, Данило, Михайло, Леся*;

- Family names: *Adams, Byron, McDonald, Newton, Smith, Shakespeare; Аврамчук, Лукаш, Сміт, Довженко, Винник, Кизима, Шумило*;

- Geographical names: *Alaska, Chicago, Leeds, Ottawa, the Black Sea, the North Sea, the Buh; Аляска, Вінниця, Київ, Моринці, Чорне море, Північне море, Буг*;

- Names of companies, newspapers, journals, etc.: *Ford, Standard Oil, Rolls-Royce, Volkswagen, The Daily Telegraph; "Світоч", фірма "Світанок", "Форд", "Прогрес", "Всесвіт".*

There is some allomorphism, however, in the realization of the meaning (and category) of number and quantity in some groups of nouns in the contrasted languages. Among these are some collective nouns, which may be used in English both in singular and in plural. Cf: *The crew has prepared the aircraft for the take off. – The crew are all young.* Hence, in plural these collective nouns become nouns of multitude, as *police, cattle*, having always, however, a singular meaning in Ukrainian (cf. *вся родина зійшлася, поліція слідкує за порядком*, etc.).

The most characteristic divergent feature of English nouns as compared with the Ukrainian ones is their usually indistinct lexico-grammatical nature at language level. As a result, determiners (usually the definite or the indefinite article or demonstrative pronouns) are used to identify these nouns: *the bear, the round of talks, that round of talks*. Besides, English nouns are often determined by the -'s/-s- element (cf. today's weather, London's population, etc.).

Morphological categories of the Noun

The only morphological category of the noun which is almost always marked in present-day English is that of **number**. Like in Ukrainian, it is mostly realised synthetically, i.e. through zero and marked inflexions respectively: *child – children, ox – oxen*, and correspondingly *baths, cargos, bushes, watches, countries, heroes*, etc.

Completely allomorphic, i.e. pertained only to the English language is the formation of plural number by way of sound interchange (ablaut) as in the following seven English nouns: *foot – feet, tooth – teeth, goose – geese; man – men, woman – women; louse – lice, mouse – mice*. A few simple life nouns have in English one and the same form for singular and plural (cf. *grouse, sheep, deer, swine, plaice*). Usually, these nouns also have the zero marked plural form: *carp, pike, trout, deer, salmon*. Apart from the genuinely English there are some borrowed noun inflexions. These are Latin: *stimulus – stimuli, curriculum – curricula*. Several Greek borrowings preserve their singular and plural inflexions as well: *analysis – analyses, basis – bases, ellipsis – ellipses, criterion – criteria, phenomenon – phenomena*, though some nouns often take regular English plural forms (cf. *memorandums, ganglions, solos, tempos, metropolises*, etc.).

Unlike English, Ukrainian number inflexions are partly predetermined by the declension groups to which the nouns are allotted, and partly by the gender of nouns and final consonant or vowel, which can respectively be hard, soft or mixed (sibilant). Moreover, many Ukrainian nouns have both number oppositions marked.

Present-day Ukrainian has no such variety of inflexions which are all of consonantal nature as the English language has (cf. –s/-es, -ren/-en). The major allomorphic feature in the system of noun categories is the existence in Ukrainian of dual number (двоїна), which is often mixed up with the plural or replaced by it by many Ukrainians. The nouns express dual number only in connection with the numeral adjuncts two, three and four. This number is mostly indicated by stress which differs, as a rule,

from that of the plural form: Singular – Plural – Dual: *дуб – дуби* but *два (три, чотири) 'дуби*; *слово – слова* but *два (три, чотири) слова*.

Typologically isomorphic, on the other hand, is the existence in English and Ukrainian of the classes of singularia and pluralia tantum nouns mostly expressing quantity. The singularia tantum include some semantic groups of mainly common nouns which rarely denote singular notions like:

1) parts of the world: *the North, the South, the East, the West, the North-West the North-East, північ, південь, захід, схід, північний захід*;

2) names of materials: *iron, copper, snow, milk, bread, срібло, золото, сніг, хліб, сіль, молоко*;

3) collective nouns: *brushwood, furniture, shrubbery, rubbish, hair, womankind, білизна, збрід, крам, віниччя, гарбузиння, капустиння, палiччя*;

4) abstract notions as: *courage, knowledge, advice, recognition, friendship, kindness, news, information, business, love, peace, patriotism, weathe, відвага, знання, буття, кохання, любов, мир, патріотизм, погода, прогрес, визнання.*

Therefore the main classes of singularia tantum nouns are of isomorphic nature, though their representation is not always equal in the contrasted languages. Thus, there exists no identity between the Ukrainian collective nouns *ярина* (spring crops), *озимина* (winter crops), *зілля* (herbs), *бадилля* (potato leaves) which are pluralia tantum in English. Neither are there corresponding singularia tantum equivalents in English to the Ukrainian nouns formed with the help of the suffixes -н-я (*офіцерня, комарня*), -ник, -няк (*сливник, вишняк*) and -в-а (*братва, дітва*) whose corresponding equivalents in English are nouns in plural (*officers, mice, kids/ children*) or in singular – *cherry/plum trees orchard, lime-trees grove*, etc.

No complete coincidence can be observed in the semantic classes of the pluralia tantum nouns in English and Ukrainian where common lexico-semantic classes are not completely the same either. Completely coincide only nouns belonging to the so-called summation plurals: *scissors, tongs, skates, shorts, trousers, ножиці, обценьки, терези, шорти, штани*,

окуляри, etc. Besides, common are also the pluralia tantum nouns belonging to the semantic group of geographic names: *Athens, the Netherlands, the Bahamas, the Andes, Афіни/Атени, Нідерланди, Карпати, Анди, Бровари, Лубни, Суми*, etc.

Nouns denoting remnants are only partly common too. They are: *scraps, leavings, remains (of food), siftings, sweepings, висівки, недопитки, перебірки, одвійки, помиї, вишкрібки, недоїдки*, etc.

Some semantic classes of pluralia tantum nouns are more numerous in Ukrainian, than in English. Among them are, for example, nouns denoting such actions as *проводи* (seeing-off), *вхідчини* (house-warming) or monetary notions as *фінанси* (finance), *ресурси, кошти* (means); no pluralia tantum equivalents have such Ukrainian notions as *дрова* (firewood), *вершки* (cream), *одвійки*, *дріжджі* (yeast). Neither has present-day English pluralia tantum equivalents to such notions as *посиденьки, походеньки, вечірниці, витребеньки, побігеньки, (ні)жмурки, пересміхи, хвастощі, пустощі, гульбощі, ласощі, прикрощі* and others. Consequently, presentday Ukrainian seems to have a larger number of both the singularia and pluralia tantum nouns in some semantic classes of this part of speech, than the English language has.

The category of case and its realisation in English and Ukrainian

Unlike the category of number, the category of case in present-day English has always been disputable. So was for some time the question of expressing case relations which has also remained for a longer time disputable. Some grammarians found in present-day English two cases (O. Jespersen, V. Yartseva, B. Rohovska, B. Khaimovych), others found in English four cases (G. Curme, M. Deutschbein), and still other grammarians were inclined to see in English five, six and more cases (J. Nesfield, F. Sonnenschein). The grammarian G. Vorontsova recognised no cases in English at all, since the -’s sign she treated as a postpositive particle expressing possession. R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum and co-authors speak of common and genitive cases (-’s genitive and of-genitive).

As to Ukrainian nouns they may have 6 or 7 marked singular and

plural oppositions in the nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental, locative and vocative case: *хмара, хмари, хмарі, хмару, хмарою, (на) хмарі, хмаро* (first decl., vocative case); or in plural: *степи, степів, степам, степи, степам, степами, (у) степах, степи* (second decl., vocative case).

No identity exists in the contrasted languages in the expression of the **category of gender** either and many languages make these distinctions different and unequal. Thus, in Ukrainian there are three grammatical genders – masculine, feminine, and neuter. The morphological category of gender in Ukrainian is identified either through separate inflexions of the adjunct/attribute or through the inflexion of the finite form of the verb that conjugates with a noun. For example: masculine gender: *каштан цвів/ріс, ведмідь ходив/спав обід захолов/замерз*; feminine gender: *яблуня цвіла/росла, лисиця ходила/бігла, дівчина сміялася/була*; neuter gender: *жито цвіло/росло, лоша ходило/бігало.*

In present-day English no gender distinctions of the kind are possible, as can be seen from the following sentences: *the actor plays, the actor played, the actress plays, the actress played, child plays/smiles the child played/smiled*, etc. This is not so in Ukrainian. Cf. *актор грав, актриса грала, дитя грало*.

The possessive conjoint or possessive absolute pronouns, however, may sometime be used in English to indicate the extralingual category of sex: t*he bear and his life, that actress and her voice, his child and its toys*. A testimony to there being no grammatical gender in English nouns is the use of appositional pronouns and nouns to indicate the sex of living beings as in *boy-friend – girl-friend, man-servant – maid-servant, woman / female novelist – man/male novelist*. Neither can the English suffixes -ist, -er/-or, -ess, -o, -ine express the morphological gender (but only sex) as in *emperor, widower, actress, goddess, heroine, hobo*, and many other living beings.

All lifeless things in English, unlike Ukrainian and some other languages, are generally associated with the pronoun it (the neuter gender). Cf. *The tree and its leaves; the desire and its realisation; the stone and its age*.

In Ukrainian, on the contrary, each noun irrespective of its being a life or lifeless thing, belongs to a concrete gender. Thus, the *stone* (камінь) like the *wolf or bull* is masculine (he він), *the star, the river, the cow* have feminine gender (*річка, зірка, думка, корова*).

The category of definiteness and indefiniteness

The noun in English and Ukrainian possesses the semantic category of definiteness and indefiniteness. In other words, when a noun (even a proper name) or family/geographical name is taken out of its context to which it belonged, its meaning may not be definitely understood, i.e. identified. Thus, when one uses the geographical name like *Beskyd* the real meaning of this proper noun may not be clear to the listener who has not enough preliminary information about the used name. This is because *Besky*d may be the name of a mountain in the Carpathians as well as a tourist camp or a hotel there. Similarly when one hears the English king's name *Charles*, one would naturally inquire which king Charles? The first, the third or the fifth? Only when the substantivised numeral is added (*Charles the First* or *Charles the Third*, etc.), will the King's name become definite (clearly and finally identified).

The category of definiteness and indenfiniteness may be identified in English and Ukrainian both at language level (when the noun is out of a concrete context) and at speech level, i.e. in oral presentation or in a written microtext. The main means of making the noun definite in English is to use the definite or indefinite (zero) article or any other determining or identifying adjunct. For example: *Bristol* (zero article) means the town of Bristol, whereas *the Bristol* is the name of a hotel or an inn, ship, etc.

The category of definiteness may be also indicated by syntactic, i.e. lexico-syntactic means. Namely, by an appositive noun or a substantivised numeral, an adjective or any other adjunct: Cf.: *the Tory government, King Henry V, the first Summit meeting, уряд торі, король Генріх П'ятий, дівчина-парашутистка, перша зустріч у верхах, четвертий універсал уряду УНР*, etc.

2. Typology of the Adjective

The adjective as a part of speech is characterized in English and Ukrainian by its common implicit 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, she grew nervous, дитя було маленьке, вона стала нервовою*.

According to their typological characteristics, adjectives split into some **isomorphic and allomorphic classes**.

Isomorphic classes:

- qualitative/якісні: *cold, big, green, high, холодний, червоний, святковий*;

- relative/відносні: *golden, wooden, English, золотий, дерев'яний, англійський*;

- possessive and relative/присвійно-відносні: *Byronian, Shevchenkinian, Shakespearian, Байронівський, Шекспірівський, Тичинівський*;

- suppletive/суплетивні: *good, better, best, bad, worse, worst, гарний, кращий, найкращий*.

Allomorphic class:

- possessive/присвійні (only in Ukrainian): *мамин, батьків, сестрин, братові (книги), лисиччина (хатка)*.

Qualitative adjectives in both contrasted languages undergo grading, whereas relative adjectives express qualities characterizing objects and phenomena through their relation to other objects and phenomena (Cf. *economic progress, private property, urban population; економічний розвиток, приватна власність, міське населення*).

Ukrainian possessive and relative adjectives are formed by adding the suffixes -евк/-івськ-/-цьк-, -зьк- to the noun stem: *батьківський, учнівський, Шевченківський,* or only by adding the suffixes -ин/-ін, -ач/-яч- to the root: *журавлиний, качиний, зміїний*. Pertaining only to Ukrainian, however, are possessive adjectives, which are formed from common and proper nouns denoting living beings by adding to their

roots/stems the suffixes -ів/-їв, - ин/-їн, -ов-а, -ов-е, -ев-а, -ач/-яч: *батьків, Сергіїв, Миколин, сестрин, Маріїн, лікарів, водіїв.* Their corresponding forms in English are genitive case forms of nouns: *father's, Nick's, lion's (hunger), her brother-in-laws (book), frog's (leg), (my) sister's dress*, etc.

As to **the structure of adjectives** they fall in English and Ukrainian into three far from equal by their number groups:

1. Base (simple) adjectives, which are regular root words: cf. *big, bold, clean, high, old, red, thin, wet, young, small, tall*, etc. Such base adjectives are few though structurally regular stems in Ukrainian. Cf. *винен, годен, давен, дивен, зелен, певен, ладен*. Regular base adjectives, like those in English, are rather rare a few in Ukrainian. They are: *варт, рад, жив (і здоров).*

2. Derivative adjectives which are in English regular stems: *boyish, capable, despotic, grammatical, tedious, rural, urban, English, Germanic, beautiful*. The Ukrainian language has many derivative adjectives though almost all of them are structurally non-stem adjectives. They are formed with the help of different suffixes, the main of which are as follows: -н-, -езн-, -ськ-/-зьк, -цьк-: *товариський, паризький, бузький, козацький*; -ан-/-ян-, -ов-/-ев, -ев: *гречаний, березовий, грушевий, баєвий*; -льн-: *доїльний, поїльник*; -ч-: *виборчий, вірчий*; -езн-, -ач-,- яч-, -ущ-, -ющ-, -уват-, - еньк-, -есеньк-: *величезний, добрячий, багатющий, синюватий*.

Derivative adjectives are formed in English with the help of the following suffixes: -al/-ial: *annual, bacterial*; -able/-ible: *capable, sensible*; -ary/-ory: *contrary, advisory*; -an/-ian: *urban, Ukrainian*; -ant/-ent: *defiant, divergent*; -ern: *eastern, western*; -ful: *tactful, useful*; -ic/-ical: *basic, political*; -ish: *bookish, womanish*; - ive: *active, conclusive*; -less: *careless, hopeless*; -ous: *tedious, poisonous*; -ow: *narrow, yellow*; -ward: *westward, backward*; -y: *milky, tidy* and some others.

3. Compound adjectives unlike basic and derivative ones are characterised in the contrasted languages by some structural or lexical allomorphisms. Thus, they may sometimes not correlate in English and Ukranian semantically. For example, the English compound adjective

breast-high can have in Ukrainian only a phrase equivalent *занурений до грудей/що дістає до грудей*; *ice-cold* is *холодний як лід/ крига*. Of course, there exist also many equivalent compound adjectives like *four-storied, all-national, all-steel, all-powerful, many-sided*, and others which have corresponding semantic and structural equivalents in Ukrainian: *чотириповерховий, загальнонародний, суцільносталевий, всемогутній, багатосторонній* and others.

Absolutely allomorphic (for English) is the formation of Ukrainian adjectives with the help of diminutive and augmentative suffixes, the most often used being -еньк-, -есеньк-, -ісіньк-, -юсіньк-: *гарненький, малесенький, чистісінький, тонюсінький*, and -езн-, -енн-, -ач-/-яч-, -ущ-/-ющ- for augmentatives: *величезний, здоровенний, добрячий, багатющий, клятющий*. Of allomorphic nature in both contrasted languages are also compound adjectives consisting of the initial adjectival, substantival, numerical, pronominal, or adverbial component and a concluding substantival, verbal or some other root/stem. These adjectives in Ukrainian have always, naturally, their endings for gender, case and number, whereas in English they are mostly marked by the participial -ing or -ed endings (sometimes by the -ty suffix or without any markers at all): *black-maned – чорногривий* (чорногрива, чорногриве/-і), *easy-going – добродушний* (-а: добродушна, -е: добродушне, -і: добродушні), *silk-like – шовковидний* (-а: шовковидна, -е: шовковидне, -і: шовковидні), etc.

Grading of Adjectives in English and Ukrainian

Most qualitative adjectives in English and Ukrainian are gradable. Gradibility in both contrasted languages is achieved by means of the positive (звичайний), the comparative (вищий), and the superlative (найвищий) degrees markers. The way of grading in the contrasted languages may be synthetic or analytical. The employment of the synthetic way of grading is restricted in English mostly to base adjectives: *big, bigger, biggest; long, longer, longest; young, younger, youngest*, etc.

The analytical forms of grading are more often employed in English than in Ukrainian*: important, more/less important, the most/the least*

important; interesting, more/less interesting, the most/the least interesting, etc. But: *більш/менш, найбільш/найменш придатний, більш/менш економний*; *більш/менш дозрілий*. 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-: *добрий, добріший, найдобріший/якнайдобріший; сміливий, сміливіший, найсміливіший; молодий, молодший, щонаймолодший; добрий, добріший, щонайдобріший*, etc.

Of isomorphic nature in the contrasted languages is the existence of suppletivity (in actually the same English and Ukrainian adjectives): *good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; добрий, кращий, найкращий; поганий, гірший, найгірший; гарний, кращий, найкращий*.

3. The Numeral as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian

The Numeral in the contrasted languages has a common implicit lexico-grammatical meaning expressing quantity: *two, ten, twenty-one, два, десять, двадцять один*. It may denote a part of an object: *one-third, two-fifths, одна третя, дві п'ятих* or order of some objects: *the first, the tenth, перший, десятий*.

The syntagmatic properties of numerals are characterized in the contrasted languages by **the identical combinability of numerals:** a) with nouns: *four days, the first step, чотири дні, перший крок*; b) with pronouns: *all three, some five or so, всі три, якихось п'ятеро з них*; c) with numerals: *two from ten, one of the first, the second of the ten, два від п'яти, один із перших, другий з-поміж п'яти*; d) with adverbs: *the two below/ahead, двоє спереду*; e) with the infinitive: *the first to come/to read, перша співати, другий відповідати*.

In the sentence the numeral performs **the same function** as the noun (cardinal numerals) and adjective (the ordinal numerals), i.e. it can be subject (*Four are present*), object (*I like the second*), attribute (*It is my second trip*), a simple nominal predicate (cf. *The two there; Їх десять там*) and the adverbial modifier (*They marched three and three; Вони йшли по три*).

All numerals in the contrasted languages fall into some common and divergent **subclasses**. Common are:

1) cardinal: *three, five, ten, twenty-one, etc. три, п'ять, десять, двадцять один*;

2) ordinal. Ordinal numerals are used in English speech with the definite article: *the third, the fifth, the tenth, the twentyfirst, the one hundred and twenty-third, перший, третій, п'ятий, двадцять п'ятий*;

3) fractionals (common fractions and decimal fractions).

The main allomorphic feature of numerals find their expression in the existence of morphological/categorial endings pertained to most numerals that are declinable in Ukrainian. They have number, case and partly gender distinctions. For example, the category of case: *десять, десяти, десятьом, десятьма*. An exception makes the category of gender of the cardinal numerals один and два which have three gender distinctions: *один, одна, одне; два, дві, двоє*. The category of number have only ordinal numerals in Ukrainian. Cf. *перші (вони були першими), другі (прийшли другими); Ніхто не хотів бути тринадцятим*.

Apart from the above-given subclasses, the Ukrainian language has two more subclasses of numerals unknown in English. Namely:

1) the indefinite cardinal numerals which express: a) common homogeneous objects: *декілька/кілька голубів/риб, квіток, кільканадцять книжок (гривень/риб), кількадесят/кількасот чоловіків, жінок* or b) an indefinite quantity of objects: *багато/небагато книжок (цукру, добра, користі)*.

2) collective numerals which denote a quantity of objects in their totality (сукупність) or indivisible unity: *двоє, троє, семеро, п'ятнадцятеро, тридцятеро (дітей, вікон, чоловіків)*.

Consequently, the classes of numerals in the contrasted languages are partly different.

Numerals in English and Ukrainian may be of isomorphic and allomorphic structure. Namely:

1) Simple: *one, two, ten, eleven; один, п'ять, десять, десятеро, двійко, мало, багато*.

2) Derivative numerals, pertaining to English only: cf. t*hirteen, fourteen... nineteen, twenty, thirty, fifty... ninety*.

3) Compound numerals in English are all from *twenty-one* (twenty-two, etc.) to *ninety-nine*. In Ukrainian compound are numerals in -надцять (from *одинадцять* to *дев'ятнадцять*), and in tens (from *двадцять* to *дев'яносто*), except *сто*.

4) Composite in the contrasted languages are numerals consisting of compound/composite + simple numerals or vice versa: *one hundred and twenty, twenty-two thousand, five hundred and thirty-one; сто два, триста один, дві тисячі п'ятсот тридцять два*. Composite are also fractional numerals, such as *one-fifth, three-ninths, one and two-fourths; одна третя, п'ять шостих, три цілих і одна четверта*, etc. All classes of numerals are declinable in Ukrainian, which makes this morphological feature allomorphic for the English language. Cf. *десять, десятьох, десятьма; перший (перша, перше, перші); першого, першому, першим, першими*.

4. Typological characteristics of the Pronoun

The Pronoun as a part of speech correlates in English and Ukrainian with the following parts of speech as their deictic substitutes:

a) with nouns: *he/Pete, she/Ann*;

b) Some classes of pronouns may also correlate (attributive function) with adjectives: *his, her, your book, the first/second look*;

c) Several pronouns also correlate in English and Ukrainian with numerals when they denote generalising quantity: *кілька, декілька, some, much, few/a few*. Their Ukrainian equivalents *кілька, декілька, кількадцять*, however, belong to indefinite cardinal numerals.

Most Ukrainian pronouns have the following morphological categories:

1) that of number: *мій – мої, наш – наші*;

2) case: *мого, моєму, моїм*;

3) gender: *мій брат, моя сестра, моє завдання*.

English pronouns have nominative case: *somebody*, genitive case:

somebody's, my, his, her, your, their, and objective case: *me, him, her, us, them, whom.*

The matrix of English and Ukrainian pronouns can be presented in the following classes of them:

1. **Personal pronouns** (seven in English: *I, he, she, it, we, you, they*) and eight in Ukrainian (because of the existence of *ти* – thou which was substituted in English by *you*). All personal pronouns in Ukrainian are declinable: *я, мене, мені, мною, на мені*. They have person and gender distinctions (*мій олівець, моя ручка, моє завдання*). All English personal pronouns, except *it* and *you* take their explicit objective case forms : *me, him, her, us, them*. Of peculiar nature and meaning is the *it* pronoun in English.

2. **English possessive pronouns**, unlike their counterparts in Ukrainian, may be of two types: a) possessive conjoint: *my, his, her* and b) possessive absolute: *mine, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*.

Allomorphism is observed in Ukrainian possessive pronouns which have gender: *мій, моя, моє*, case: *мого, моєму, моїм* and number categories *мої, твої, наш – наші* lacking in English.

3. **Reflexive pronouns** (self-pronouns) **in English** have singular and plural forms: *myself, himself, ourselves, themselves*. They correspond to the Ukrainian *себе* pronoun which has no nominative case form but only genitive and other case-forms: *себе, собі, себе, собою на собі* and no number distinctions: *я питаю себе, ти вигороджуєш себе, вони знають себе*.

4. **English demonstrative pronouns** have virtually the same equivalents in Ukrainian with their common (attributive) function in speech. These pronouns are *this/that, these/those, this same/that same, such a, such; цей/той, ці/ті, такий/такі, цей самий/той самий, стільки*. These English demonstrative pronouns agree in number with the head noun: *this day – these days, such a book – such books, this same book – these same books/those same books*. Apart from the category of number Ukrainian demonstrative pronouns, which are more numerous than in English, have also case and gender distinctions: *цей самий студент – ця сама студентка – це саме число*. Declinable are also other

demonstrative pronouns: *цього/цієї, цьому/цій, цим/цією*.

5**. Interrogative pronouns** in the contrasted languages are used as noun-pronouns: *who, what, how many/how much, хто, що, скільки* and as adjective pronouns: *which, whose; який, котрий, чий*. They may correlate with numerals: *how much/how many? – скільки?*. In contrast to Ukrainian, English interrogative pronouns have no number, case or gender distinctions (except *whom* and *whose*) expressing respectively the objective and genitive case form as most of their Ukrainian equivalents do: *чий, чия, чиє, чиї/чийому, чиїй, чиїх*.

6. **Relative pronouns** in English and Ukrainian coincide in their form (structure) with the interrogative pronouns. They perform the function of connectors (cf. *I know what to do. He asked who did it. Я знаю, що робити. Він запитував, хто це зробив*). Ukrainian relative pronouns, however, are declinable (cf. *Він знав, кому завдячувати це. Він запитував, кого запросити на збори*). The only exception makes, of course, the pronoun *скільки* (referring to uncountables).

7. **Reciprocal pronouns** (взаємні займенники) are two in English: *each other* and *one another* and one in Ukrainian, where it exists in three gender forms used in singular and plural as noun pronouns: *один одного, одна одну, одне одного, одні одних*.

8. **Indefinite pronouns** (неозначені займенники) constitute a rather controversial class. As indefinite in both languages can be identified such pronouns as *some, any, somebody, anybody/anybody's, someone/someone's, something, anything*. They have for their Ukrainian equivalents *дехто, дещо, хтось, щось, хтонебудь, що-небудь, який-небудь, будь-хто, будь-що, казна-хто, казна-що*.

B. Khaimovich and B. Rohovska subdivided the English indefinite pronouns into three subclasses:

1) genuine indefinite pronouns: *some, any* and their compounds;

2) generalising pronouns: *all, both, each* and their compounds;

3) quantitative pronouns: *many, much, few, little*;

4) contrasting pronouns:; *another, other, one*.

Ukrainian grammarians single out one more subclass within the class of indefinite pronouns – this is the socalled identifying (означальні)

pronouns. They are: *весь, всякий, жодний, кожний, інший, сам* (the last one is a reflexive pronoun in English).

9. Many grammarians treat **negative pronouns** (заперечні займенники) as a separate class of pronouns. The latter are generally common in English and Ukrainian, cf.: *no, nobody, none, nothing, neither – ніхто, ніщо, ніякий/нікотрий, нічий, нискільки*. Ukrainian negative pronouns are naturally declinable and are used as noun pronouns. Isomorphic in the contrasted languages are the structural forms of negative pronouns, which may be simple (*no*), compound, or composite: *none (no one), nobody, nothing, nothing else, nothing more – ніхто, ніщо, ніякий, нікотрий, ніхто інший, жоден інший, ні один (із них), більш нічого*. Allomorphism is observed in the wide use of English negative pronouns to form negative word-groups and sentences: *no pains, no gains* – під лежачий камінь вода не тече; *nobody home* – клепки не вистачає. Some Ukrainian negative pronouns have diminutive forms which are completely unknown in English pronouns (cf. *нічогісінько, аніскілечки, ніякісінький*).

As to their structure, both English and Ukrainian pronouns are characterised by isomorphism. They may be:

1) simple: *I, he, she, you, some, which, what; я, ти, він, хто, що, ваш, той, цей, наш*;

2) compound: *myself, ourselves, someone, somebody, nobody, nothing; абихто, абищо, будь-що, хто-небудь, що-небудь*;

3) composite: *I myself, this same, somebody else, neither he nor she; що таке, той самий, хто інший, я сам, кожен і всякий, ніхто й ніщо*.

5. Typological characteristics of the English and Ukrainian Verb

This part of speech in English and Ukrainian has the largest number of features in common. They include first of all the general implicit meaning (the lexico-grammatical nature) of the verb which serves to convey verbiality, i. e. different kinds of activity: *go, read, skate*, various processes: *boil, grow, obtain*, the inner state of a person: *feel, bother, worry*, possession *have, possess*.

Due to these lexico-grammatical properties the verb generally functions in the sentence as predicate going into some combinations:

a) with the nominal parts of speech performing the functions of the subject (or the object) of the sentence: *The sun shines. The trees grow. The student passed his examinations. Сонце світить. Дерева ростуть. Студент склав іспити*;

b) The verb goes into combination with verbs: *to want to know, to want to read; хотіти вчитися/знати* or with adverbs: *to read well гарно читати*;

c) with prepositions: *to depend on smb/smth., залежати від когось* and also with conjunctions: *neither read nor write, to work and rest ні читали, ні писати, працювати і відпочивати*.

Allomorphic is the combinability of English verbs with postpositional particles (cf. *sit down, stand up, put off, read through*) which need not be confused or in any way compared to their ability of being identified with the Ukrainian subjunctive mood particles *б* or *би* (as in *піти б, хотів би, знав би*).

As was already mentioned in the foregoing lecture, the verb in the contrasted languages has its characteristic stem building suffixes or postfixes. We are not going to discuss them once again. But you should know, that the number of Ukrainian verbs formed by means of suffixes and prefixes is less numerous than their number in English.

Classes of Verbs in English vs. Ukrainian

The main classes of verbs as to their functional significance are common in the contrasted languages. These are:

a) notional verbs: *go, ask, write, іти, запитувати, писати*;

b) auxiliary verbs. The latter split into primary: *be, do, have, бути, мати*, modal: *can, may, must, could, should, need, могти, мусити, сміти, мати* and linking verbs: *appear, look, become turn grow, ставати, здаватися*.

English lexical/nominal verbs split into two subclasses which are not available in Ukrainian. These are:

1) regular verbs forming their past stem and the past participle with the help of the ending, -ed, -d or -t: *dressed/worked, paid/said, learnt/sent*;

2) irregular verbs having their past stems and the past participle formed by way of alteration of their base vowel: *bind – bound – bound, take – took – taken, begin – began – begun*.

A separate subclass of irregular verbs form the so-called invariables, which have the same form for the present and past stem/past participle: *cast – cast – cast, cost – cost – cost, let – let – let, put – put – put*, etc. They are not available in Ukrainian, thought suppletive verbs are common, however, (cf. *be – was – were, go – went; бути – є, іти – пішов, пішла, брати – взяв, узяли*).

The subdivision of verbs into classes is based in Ukrainian on the correlation between the infinitival stem of the verb on the one hand and its present or simple future stem on the other. On this morphological basis thirteen classes of verbs are distinguished in Ukrainian.

As regards their role in expressing predicativity, verbs in the contrasted languages may be a) of complete predication or b) of incomplete predication. Verbs of complete predication split into some common groups singled out on the basis of their implicit dependent grammatical meanings. These groups are:

1. Subjective verbs (always intransitive): *to act, to go, to sleep, to glisten, діяти, йти, спати, блищати*.

2. Objective verbs (only transitive): *to give, to take, to envy, брати, давати, заздрити*.

3. Terminative verbs, expressing action having final aims: *to close, to open, to come, to find, зачинати, приходити, заходити*.

4. Durative verbs, expressing action with no final aim: *to like, to love, to hate, to hope, to work, подобатись, любити, ненавидіти*.

5. Mixed-type verbs, which can have both terminative and durative meaning: *to sit, to stand, to know, to remember, сидіти, стояти, знати, пам'ятати.*

6. Reflexive verbs, which are formed in English with the help of reflexive pronouns oneself, myself, himself, ourselves: *to wash oneself, to shave himself, to see herself in the mirror*. Reflexive verbs in Ukrainian

have some peculiar allomorphic features. Regular equivalents to English verbs can be observed only in the group of the so-called reflexive verbs proper: *to wash oneself, to dress oneself, to shave oneself, to powder oneself*, which have also corresponding forms in Ukrainian: *вмиватися, голитися, одягатися, пудритися, купатися*.

Other groups of Ukrainian reflexive verbs have no equivalents in English and form an allomorphic feature in the contrasted languages. These verbs are identified as follows:

1. Reciprocally reflexive (взаємно-зворотні): *зустрічатися, змагатися, вітатися, листуватись, цілуватись*.

2. Indirectly reflexive (непрямо-зворотні): *радитися, збиратися (в похід), лаштуватися (в дорогу)*.

3. Generally reflexive (загально-зворотні): *милуватися, дивуватися, злитися, журитися, мучитися* and others.

4. Active-objectless/reflexive verbs (активно-безоб'єктні): *кусатися (собака кусається), хвицатися (корова хвицається), дряпатися (кішка дряпається), жалитися (кропива жалиться), колотися (стерня колеться)*.

5. Passively qualitative/reflexive (пасивно-якісні): *гнутися, битися, ламатися, м'ятися, колотися (дерево гарно колеться), кривитися (залізо гнеться, скло б'ється, дитина кривиться)*.

6. Impersonal-reflexive verbs (безособово-зворотні): *не спиться, не їсться, погано/гарно живеться, не лежиться*.

Verbs of incomplete predication are of isomorphic nature. They are presented in English and Ukrainian in four common groups, which are as follows: 1. Auxiliary verbs (*to be, to do, to have, shall/will*), which are used in English in the corresponding person and tense form to express the categorial meanings of the verb. Auxiliary verbs in Ukrainian are restricted only to one verb *бути*, which is polyfunctional and is used to form some categorial meanings.

2. Close to the auxiliary by their function (and often by their lexical meaning, too) are English and Ukrainian modal verbs. Their number and nomenclature is larger in English (allomorphism) than in Ukrainian. Cf.: English: *can, may, must, should, would, ought (to), have/be, shall, will,*

dare, need. Ukrainian: *вміти, могти, мусити, слід/треба, мати, сміти, потребувати*.

Linking verbs (дієслова-зв'язки) in both contrasted languages form a verbal, nominal or mixed-type compound predicate. They fall into three main groups:

1. Linking verbs of being, which do not always have direct equivalents in English and Ukrainian. Cf. *to be, to feel, to look, to seem, to taste, to smell – бути, виявлятися, зватися, вважатися, доводитися* (*He looks young/tired)* or in Ukrainian: *Це зветься роботою. Це здається правдою*).

2. Linking verbs of becoming (not all of which have equivalents in Ukrainian): *to become, to get, to grow, to turn – ставати, робитися* (*They grew stronger. / Вони стали міцнішими. Ліс зробився рудим.*).

3. Linking verbs of remaining (*to remain, to keep, to stay, to continue*): *He remained silent/satisfied. Він зостався задоволений.*

Expressing morphological categories of the Ukrainian and English Verb

The finite verb in the contrasted languages has six common morphological categories which are realised partly with the help of synthetic means (inflexions) and partly through different analytical means. Thus, the categories of person and number are realised in both contrasted languages synthetically, whereas the category of tense is realised both synthetically and analytically; the category of aspect is realised in English synthetically or analytically (continuous) but only synthetically in Ukrainian; the category of voice is realised only analytically in English but it may be realised synthetically and analytically in Ukrainian. Similarly with the category of mood, which is realised in both languages synthetically and analytically.

Absolute isomorphism is observed in the means of realisation of the following morphological categories in the contrasted languages:

1. Person and number (with the help of synthetic means, i. e. forms of words and their inflexions. Cf. *He is – they are, I was – they were. She*

works – the works. Я пишу – ви пишете. Я писав – ми писали.

2. The imperative mood forms with no reference to a definite person, as in the following sentences: *Stop talking! Sit still! Let us sing. Не розмовляти! Сидіти тихо! Нумо заспіваємо.*

3. The affirmative and some interrogative forms of the Indefinite group of tenses and of the pluperfect (давноминулий) tense: *I work. I worked. I shall work. He had left before I arrived. Я працюю. Я працював. Я буду працювати. Він якось заходив був, але мене тоді не застав на роботі*.

4. Isomorphism also exists:

a) in the correlation of the time of action in the matrix close with the time of the expressed action in the subordi nate clause: *He says she lives in Kyiv. He said she lived in Kyiv. He will say she will live in Kyiv. Or: she will say that she lived in Kyiv or she thought that she came/would come.* Similarly in Ukrainian: *Він каже, що вона прийшла; він скаже, що вона прийде/що вона вже приходила; він казав, що вона приходила/приходила була;*

b) Isomorphism is also observed in the existence of tenses not correlating with the time of actions expressed in the matrix/main clause: *He will say that he knows/knew, had known it. Він скаже, що вона пришила (приходила) приходила була;*

c) Isomorphism is likewise observed in the existence of some identical forms expressing those same subjunctive mood meanings referring to present or future or to some past action/event. In English *If I knew that before, I would come. If I had known that before, I would have come.* In Ukrainian *Якби я знав це раніше, я б прийшов. Якби я був знав це раніше, я був би прийшов. Була б вона в той час удома, вона прийшла б;*

d) Isomorphism is also observed in both languages in the existence of analytical passive voice forms in the past and Future Indefinite tense: *He was invited. She will/will not be invited. Він був запрошений. Вона буде/не буде запрошена.*

Isomorphism and allomorphism are observed in the expression of the passive voice in English and Ukrainian.

1) Isomorphic is the analytical way of expression of this morphological category, i.e. with the help of the auxiliary verb to be + past participle: *Лист був написаний. Лист буде написаний.* Alongside of this participial predicative forms in -но, -то are used: *Лист буде написано. Все, зрештою, було забуто*.

2) Allomorphic are forms of expressing the passive voice synthetically that are observed in Ukrainian. These forms are realised a) by means of inflexions of the past participle: *Стаття написана. Текст перекладений. Жито 242 скошене. Фрески відновлені*. b) with the help of the postfixes -сь, -ся added to the non-perfective verbs in the indicative mood: *Хата будується/будувалась. Місток зводиться. Проект тільки готувавсь*. c) With the help of the mentioned predicative participles in -но, -то: *Музей зачинено. Питання розв'язано. Ворога розбито. Нічого не забуто.*

A peculiar feature of passive constructions in English is their much more frequent use than in Ukrainian.

Both English and Ukrainian have also transitive and intransitive verbs which are of the same semantic class, as the following transitive or objective verbs: *take – брати, think – думати, read – читати*, etc. Intransitive or subjective verbs: *to sleep – спати, to come – приходити, to sit – сидіти, to lie – лежати,* etc. The English language, however, has more transitive verbs as several intransitive verbs may become in some contexts transitive. Cf. *to run the office, to walk the dog, to fell (trees)*, etc.

6. Typological characteristics of the Adverb

The adverb in English and Ukrainian is an indeclinable notional word expressing the quality or state of an action, the circumstances in which the action proceeds, or a degree of some other quality. Adverbs in English and Ukrainian have some common, as well as some divergent features in their morphological structure and partly in their syntactic functions.

Thus, English adverbs are mostly formed with the help of the suffixes -ly: *greatly, slowly*; -ward/-wards: *seaward, eastwards*; -ways:

sideways; -fold: *twofold* and partly with the help of the prefixes a-: *aback, aside, astride* and be-: *before, besides*.

Adverbs in Ukrainian may be formed by means of suffixes: -о: *гарно, надійно*; -е: *добре, зле*; -а: *дарма, лежма*; -и: *по-людськи, по-французьки*; -ому: *по-їхньому*; -ему: *по-моєму, по-своєму* and by means of prefixes and suffixes (combined): по-: *по-людськи, по-свинськи*; най-: *найкраще, найзручніше*; щонай-: *щонайбільше*; якнай-:*якнайшвидше*.

A characteristic feature of Ukrainian adverbs is their correlation with indirect case forms of prepositional nouns, for example: 1) adverbs correlating with the genitive case forms of nouns and the prepositions без, від/од, до, з/с, за: *безвісти, безперестанку, відразу/одразу, догори, додому, зранку, зрання, скраю, спочатку*; 2) adverbs correlating with the accusative case forms of nouns and the prepositions в/у, на, за, над, під, по, через: *вдень/удень, вмить/умить, надвечір, навіки, заміж, надвір, підряд, повік, через сил*у; 3) adverbs correlating in Ukrainian with nouns in the instrumental case and the lexicalisation of different phrases: *водночас, насамперед, напівдорозі, віч-на-віч, всього-на-всього, пліч-о-пліч, день у день, нога в ногу, рік у рік*, etc. Consequently, they correspond to the following English compound adverbs and adverbial phrases: *day-long, henceforward, upside-down, moreover, therefore, within, by chance, by heart, by turns, one by one, day in day out,* etc.

Equally common in both languages is the formation of adverbs by way of reduplication: *so-so, willy-nilly, fiftyfifty; ось-ось, ледве-ледве, скоро-скоро, тихо-тихо*, etc.

A morphologically common group present pronominal adverbs (simple and compound) which are of the same roots as their corresponding pronouns. These adverbs indicate in a relative way time, place, direction or manner in which the action/state proceeds. Some of these English adverbs do not always have their Ukrainian equivalents.

In accordance with their lexico-syntactic meaning, adverbs in the contrasted languages fall under the following three main divisions:

1) qualifying adverbs denoting the quality or state of an action;

2) adverbs expressing the manner in which the action is performed;

3) adverbs giving a quantitative characteristic of an action/quality. These adverbs modify the verb, the adjective, or the adverb (cf. *to pronounce sounds distinctly вимовляти звуки виразно*).

Qualifying adverbs in both languages may be qualitative: *badly, fast, slowly, well – погано, добре, швидко, повільно* or those denoting manner of action: *unawares, upside-down, topsy-turvy, by chance – нехотячи, догори дном, випадково, несвідомо, спроквола*. Qualitative adverbs also include adverbs of degree (denoting the degree of a quantity: *almost, entirely, too, rather, enough, almost – майже, цілком, дуже, досить, досить-таки*). These adverbs in English and Ukrainian express the intensity of an action: *She scarcely knew her neighbours yet. Вона майже не знала ще своїх сусідів.*

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. Unlike English, however, in Ukrainian prefixes are also used to form the superlative degree of qualitative adverbs (най-, щонай-, якнай-): *найшвидше, найцікавіше, якнайшвидше, щонайменше, щонайбільше*. The analytical means include auxiliary words (adverbs, particles): *more, most, still more, less, least, still less* in English and their equivalent adverbs and particles in Ukrainian: *ще ясніше/трохи ясніше, набагато ясніше.*

A particular (allomorphic for English) 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*, etc.

Qualitative adverbs in both languages include large groups of adverbs of manner, quantity or degree, which have corresponding equivalents in Ukrainian: *aloud, how, aloof, upside down, by heart, вголос, скоса, спросоння, догори дном, дуже, також, багато*, etc. The second large common group present adverbs denoting circumstances. They are:

1) adverbs of time: *now, always, then, today, tomorrow, just, so far, sooner or later, зараз, тоді, завжди, сьогодні, взавтра, щойно, рано чи пізно*;

2) adverbs of frequency/repetition of an action: *always, daily, frequently, twice, usually, завжди, щоденно, часто, двічі, звичайно*;

3) adverbs and adverbial phrases of place or direction of an action: *here, there, inside, inwards, outside, somewhere, nowhere, to and fro, тут, там, надворі, десь, ніде, туди й сюди*;

4) a small group of adverbs in both contrasted languages is presented by those expressing cause and purpose: *rashly згарячу, headlong спрожогу/прожогом*.

An isomorphic feature is the existence in both languages of a large group of pronominal adverbs some of which are not available in English. Among these are:

1) interrogative and relative adverbs: *where, when, why, how – де, куди, коли, звідки, чому, як, поки, доки*;

2) demonstrative adverbs: *there, here, then, so – там, тут, сюди, туди, тоді, так*;

3) complementing adverbs: *always, everywhere, sometimes, otherwise – завжди, всюди, інколи, по-всякому, по-іншому*;

4) negative adverbs (more numerous in Ukrainian): *nowhere, never – ніде, нізвідки, нікуди, ніяк, нізащо*;

5) indefinite adverbs which are more numerous in Ukrainian as well: *ever, somehow, somewhere, erewhile – десь, денебудь, колись, коли-небудь, кудись, чомусь, казна-звідки, казна-коли, хтозна-де, казна-куди*.

Completely allomorphic for English is the group of the so-called personal pronouns adverbs available only in Ukrainian. They are as follows: *по-моєму, по-твоєму, по-нашому, по-вашому*. Their lexical equivalents in English are adverbial phrases like *in my opinion/ in my judgement, in your opinion*, etc.

Also not available in English are some adverbs of comparison and likening (означально-уподіблювальні) as *соколом, стрілою, зозулею, по-батьківському, по-новому, по-осінньому*, etc. These and other

adverbs of the kind have in English for their equivalents adverbial phrases like *in a fatherly way* (по-батьковськи), *like a falcon* (соколом), *in a new fashion* (по-новому), etc.

Questions for self-control

1. Name typologically isomorphic the main paradigmatic classes of nouns in English and Ukrainian.
2. What is the only morphological category of the noun which is almost always marked in present-day English?
3. What are isomorphic and allomorphic classes of adjectives in contrastive languages?
4. What are subclasses of numerals in Ukrainian unknown in English?
5. Give the examples of Ukrainian reflexive verbs which have no equivalents in English.

THEME 7

TYPOLOGY OF THE SYNTACTIC SYSTEMS

Problems for discussion

1. Syntactic relations in English and Ukrainian.
2. Typology of the word-group/phrase.
3. Structural types of sentences in English and Ukrainian.
4. Typology of the parts of the sentences.
5. Typology of the composite sentence.
6. Typology of the compound sentence.

A successful typological contrasting of syntactic systems of the English and Ukrainian languages becomes possible due to the existence in them of several isomorphic and allomorphic features and phenomena. The

principal of these are predetermined by several factors, the main of which are the following:

1) by common in both languages classes of syntactic units which are word-groups, sentences and various types of supersyntactic units;

2) by generally common paradigmatic classes and types of these syntactic units;

3) by isomorphic and allomorphic types and means of syntactic connection in them;

4) by mostly isomorphic syntactic processes taking place in their word-groups and sentences;

5) by identical syntactic relations in word-groups and sentences of both contrasted languages;

6) by common functions performed by different parts of speech in word-groups and sentences.

The allomorphic features and phenomena at the syntactic level find their expression in the following:

1) in the existence of various qualitative and quantitative differences in some paradigmatic classes of word-groups and sentences;

2) in some types of word-groups;

3) in the unequal representation of different means of syntactic connection;

4) in the existence of different ways of expressing predication;

5) in the difference in the structural forms of some English parts of the sentence;

6) in the means of joining some subordinate clauses to the main/principal clause, etc.

All these features characterise respectively the syntactic constants of the syntactic level, i. e. the syntactic processes, the syntactic relations, the syntactic connections in word-groups and sentences being sem-selves constants of this language level.

1. Syntactic relations in English and Ukrainian

As could be already noticed, various syntactic relations in the

contrasted languages can be realised both by isomorphic and by allomorphic means. The latter pertain to both languages, though analytical means are naturally predominant in English, whereas synthetic or combined analytical and synthetic means are predominant in Ukrainian. An exception constitutes, however, only one relation (that of the primary predication) whose expression finds its realisation between the main parts of the sentence, i.e. between the subject and the predicate. This type of connection is often qualified as interdependence, that is dependence of the subject on the predicate on the one hand, and dependence of the predicate upon the subject on the other. This means that primary predication is realised, at least in English, only on the S-P axis, though in Ukrainian it may be realised even without one (S or P) of these components.

The other three relations, which also pertain to all languages, i.e. **the objective, the attributive and the adverbial** ones can be realised with the help of different means that are grammatically relevant. Namely by a) syntactic placement and prepositions (analytical means); b) by morphological, i.e. synthetic means (inflexions), as well as with the help of combined means, i.e. synthetic plus analytical means simultaneously. Thus, the predicate in English statements always follows, as a rule, the subject, whereas in Ukrainian the simple verbal predicate even in unemphatic speech may precede the subject without ruining the grammaticality of the sentence:

Mary was listening; but she still said nothing. – Слухала Мері (or Мері слухала), проте вона нічого не відповідала/мовчала.

In English interrogative or (emphatic) sentences a part of the predicate may be placed in front of the subject/subject group, which is not necessarily followed in their Ukrainian counterpart sentence:

Were you ever compelled to mutilate the animals? – Тебе примушували будь-коли калічити тварин?

Would you like us to send somebody now? – Хотіли б ви, щоб ми когось зараз послали?

Therefore, English predicates, whether simple or compound, rarely occupy, unlike predicates in Ukrainian, the initial position in the interrogative sentence. English simple verbal and compound nominal

predicates, however, are in syntactic agreement (expressed through morphological means) with the subject.

Cf. *I'm off, Dad, it's good bye till Christmas. Who is that in your flat? Who are they?*

All four predicates in these sentences (*am, is, are*) agree with their subjects in singular (first person) and correspondingly with *It* and *Who* which are in the third person singular or plural.

It is only partly so with the expression of the objective relation which may be realised in English and Ukrainian both synthetically and analytically as well:

We passed him through the narrow way; others relieved us. – Ми передали його по вузькому проходу; інші допомагали нам.

The first object (*him*) is direct and it is expressed through its morphological (synthetic) form *him* (objective case); the second object is prepositional (*through the narrow way*) and the third (*us*) has also a morphological (synthetic) form that expresses its objective function. In the Ukrainian variant of this sentence the objective relation has a synthetic expression in the first direct object *його* (as in English) and in the indirect object *нам* (synthetic expression, like in English). As to the prepositional object, its connection in Ukrainian differs from that in English in that it is prepositional and morphologically marked (*по проходу*). In other words it is combined (analytical, i.e. prepositional) and synthetic (objective case form *по проходу*).

Hence, Ukrainian nouns express their dependence by means of their case forms (cf. *дав книжку Петренко**ві** товариш**ці**, товариш**ам**/товариш**кам***). Exceptions are made for indeclinable nouns as in *Вона зайшла в фойє/сіла в таксі, Вона у новому кімоно, сперечатися про галіфе, цікавитися працями Монтеск'є.*

The same synthetic expression of objective relation in Ukrainian, unlike English, have also substantivised adjectives, present and past participles, and also numerals.

Cf. *задоволений нов**им** (побачен**им** і почут**им**), зелен**им** та жовт**им**; зустрітися зі знайом**им**.*

Objective relations in English are expressed predominantly in the

analytical way, i.e. by means of syntactic placement or with the help of syntactic placement and/plus the prepositional connection of objective complements (cf. *satisfied with **them/us***).

The **attributive relation** and its realisation in English does not differ much from the realisation of the objective relations, there being both synthetic and analytical means employed. The former, as has been pointed out above, are reduced in present-day English to a few standard cases involving only the four pairs of demonstrative pronouns *this – these, that – those, such a – such, many a – many*. These pronouns express their attributive function with the help of their form in singular and plural, i.e. they agree in number with their head nouns (cf. *This day – these days, that book – those books, such an event – such events, many a boy – many boys*). Other ways and means of expressing the attributive relation in English are analytical. Namely, the preposed or postpositional placement of attributive components (adjectives, participles, numerals, pronouns) which do not agree either in number, case or gender with their head components (nuclei).

Cf. *jaunty fair hair, alert eyes, shining face, the only child, sweated bloody sweets, the drizzling darkness, the atmosphere of trade union meetings*.

Neither of the above-given attributive adjectives, present or past participles and adverbs agrees with the head noun. Nor does the postpositive prepositional word-group functioning as an attribute agree synthetically with the head noun in the last example above (e.g. *the atmosphere of trade union meetings*). Neither do gerundial and infinitival adjuncts agree with their head nouns or subordinating word-groups performing their function.

Cf. *books to read, articles to be translated or: books for reading (what books?).*

One more way of expressing attributive relation is that by means of the so-called synthetic formant (’s) as in the word-group *her widowed mother’s child*. This synthetic element (’s) does nor express any categorical (morphological) meaning, it performs only a connective function. Consequently, the realisation of the attributive relation in English

as compared with Ukrainian, so far as the means of expression are concerned, can be qualified as mainly **allomorphic**.

Adverbial relations in each of the contrasted languages are mostly realised with the help of the same means as the objective and partly the attributive relations. These means of connection are analytical (placement or placement plus prepositions in English) and synthetic or combined (analytical plus synthetic) in Ukrainian.

Cf. in English: *(to) work hard* (how? the adverbial relations of attendant circumstances); *hard work* (what work? the attributive relation). Therefore, syntactic placement is the only means in English (here). In Ukrainian word-groups like *працювати важко* and *важко працювати* the change of place of the adverb *важко* does not change in any way the syntactic relation in the word-group, which remains in both variants adverbial (as in the English word-groups *to work hard*).

Other paradigmatic classes of word-groups in English and Ukrainian may have both isomorphic and allomorphic realisation of adverbial relations. Isomorphism is observed in adverbial word-groups as: *very well – дуже добре, early enough – досить рано, quite seriously – зовсім серйозно, rather slowly – досить повільно*, etc.

Since in English there is no genuine government of nouns, as the noun is practically indeclinable, it can not express any attendant circumstance through its morphological (case) form as it is the case in Ukrainian. Neither can the causal meaning be expressed in this way in English (cf. *to live from hand to mouth – жити в злиднях, to be absent because of illness – бути відсутнім через хворобу*).

Consequently, the same syntactic relations in English and Ukrainian word-groups are mostly realised with the help of different means. The latter also display, as will be shown further, their cardinally different quantitative correlation in English and Ukrainian subordinate word-groups.

2. Typology of the word-group/phrase

The word-group in both contrasted languages consists of two or more grammatically connected notional parts of speech expressing some

content. Word-groups in English and Ukrainian may be:

1) syntactically free combinations of words like *to learn much, to learn hard, to learn quickly, to learn well, to learn there/here* or

2) idiomatically bound (constant) collocations, i.e. unchanged for the given sense word-combinations as *to have dinner/supper, to take measures, to throw light*.

Free word-groups or word-combinations exist alongside of prepositional phrases which are often considered even to be of the same nature as the idiomatic word-groups. Genuine syntactically free word-groups, unlike prepositional phrases, are used to name actions (*quick reading*), objects (*a new hat*), state of objects (*the house ablaze*), number or quantity (*two thirds, the first three*); also they may give characteristics of an action (*singing well, going quickly, arriving first – новий капелюх, йому/Миколі страшно, дві третіх, перші три, швидко йти, гарно читати*).

Common features are also observed in the structural forms of word-groups in the contrasted languages. They are:

1. **Simple or elemental word-groups** which consist of two immediate components connected with the help of one grammatical means (synthetic or analytical): *to see her; to read well; nice flowers; cotton yarn, people of rank; ця книжка – ці книжки, бачити її; гарно читати, дуже добре, зайти у фойє, вийти з метро*.

2. **Equally common** in English and Ukrainian are **word-groups of complicated structure** and grammatical form, i.e. with two ways of gram matical connection of their immediate components or expressing different grammatical relations: *writing and reading letters* (co-ordinate and analytical forms of connection), *these books and magazines* (synthetic and co-ordinate connection), *to see Mike driving a car* (analytical and predicative) – *ці книжки та журнали, застати двері зачиненими, бачити когось у метро, носити кімоно останньої моди*.

There are also structurally more complicated free word-groups in both languages: *those long sentences for you to analyze and translate – ті довгі речення тобі для аналізу й перекладу*.

Since present-day English is mainly analytical by its structure, the

predominant means of its grammatical connection in word-groups are naturally analytical. They are syndetic (prepositional) and asyndetic (syntactic placement). These two forms of analytical connection are very often of equal semantic relevance, as a result of which they are often interchangeable.

Hence, the word-groups, traditionally objective by their syntactic relation like *to ask Pete/somebody, reading books, to receive four/five, to invite all, good for all* have in English an analytical form of connection, whereas these same word-groups in Ukrainian have a synthetic or analytico-synthetic connection: *запитувати Петра/когось, читання книжок, одержати четвірку, добре для Петра/для мене, зайти першим, думати про старих і малих, просити до столу*.

Synthetic government in English can be observed only in verbal word-groups having the following structural patterns: 1) the Vinf + Iobj or 2) Ving+ Iobj with the pronoun in the objective case form: *to see him* (*her, them, whom*), *seeing him* (*her, them*, etc.). The analytical and synthetic connection is observed in all other kinds of English word-groups with these same objective case pronouns: *reference to him them, four of them, none of whom, much for me, depend on her, afraid of them/us*.

As to synthetic agreement/concord, its use is restricted in present-day English to six patterns of substantival word-groups, in which adjuncts are the demonstrative pronouns: *this/that book – these/those books, such a case/such cases; many a girl – many girls (of this age)*.

Since in English the analytical way of connection prevails in all kinds of word-groups and in Ukrainian – the synthetic means of connection is predominant, their role and correlation can not be the same/

Types of word-groups in English and Ukrainian

According to the existing interrelations between their immediate components all word-groups in the contrasted languages split into the following three types:

1) co-ordinate word-groups;

2) subordinate word-groups;

3) predicative word-groups.

I. **Co-ordinate word-groups** in Ukrainian and English are formed from components equal in rank which are connected either syndetically (with the help of conjunctions) or asyndetically (by placement). For example: *books and magazines; to read, translate and retell; neither this nor that, книжки й журнали; читати, пере-кладати й переказувати, ні те й ні се.*

II. **Subordinate word-groups** in all languages are binary by their nature. It means that they consist of a head component, which is the nucleus of the word-group, and of one or more adjuncts/complements. For example: *my pen, her father and mother, take part in the games, bad for you* etc.

Among the existing classifications of word-groups the morphological (paradigmatic) classification remains one of the most embracing. It is based on the lexico-grammatical nature of the head component or on its functional substitute. As a result, the following seven (according to the number of national parts of speech) common paradigmatic classes of substantival word-groups are to be singled out in English and Ukrainian:

1. **Substantival Word-Groups**, in which the mainly attributive adjuncts may be in pre-position or in postposition to the noun head. Their way of connection is analytical in English and synthetic in Ukrainian: *street traffic rules, last week football matches, boy and girl secrets, small children, lovely flowers, будова станції метро, хлопця й дівчини секрети, малі діти, гарний день.*

2. **Verbal Word-Groups** are also characterised in Ukrainian and English by some isomorphic and allomorphic features. Generally common in both languages are the structural types of verbal word-groups that may be: 1) with simple objective or adverbial complements; 2) with extended or expanded complements; 3) with simple or extended/expanded objective and adverbial complements. Of common pattern in both languages are verbal word-groups with pre-posed and postposed complements: *to like books, to receive four, to love her, to prefer blue (to red), to love it to be asleep; любити книжки, отримати четвірку, кохати її, любити синє, щиро любити, почуватися краще* etc.

3. **Adjectival Word-Groups.** Due to the restricted combinability of different notionals with the adjectival head, this paradigmatic class of word-groups has a much smaller number of structural models: *worth reading, a proud of Pete, proud of his having been invited, дуже добра – добра дуже; радий чути – чути радий*.

4. **Pronominal Word-Groups** in the contrasted languages have some general features in common. Thus, most often the heads are indefinite, negative and mostly demonstrative pronouns, and much rarer personal and reflexive pronouns. The usually common adjuncts in both languages are pronouns, prepositional nouns, adjectives or adjectival word-groups, infinitives, verbal word-groups and subordinate clauses: *he himself, we all, something new, nothing to say, він сам, всі ми, щось нове, нічого сказати*.

5. **Numerical word-groups** form a separate group in the Ukrainian and English languages as well. They can not and should not be neglected or avoided, since they have in Ukrainian and English some isomorphic and allomorphic features of their own. Despite all this some grammarians often avoid even mentioning the numerical word-group, whose existence in Ukrainian and English can not be overlooked: *two of such birds, one of the best, the first to come, the first film to be seen, троє з групи, один із кращих, перше бажання виграти*.

6. **Adverbial Word-Groups** in both contrasted languages can be headed by adverbs or by adverbial phrases. The adjuncts/complements may be expressed by adverbs or by adverbial (usually prepositional) phrases used in preposition as well as in postposition to the head adverb: *terribly well, simply awfully, well enough, far away, so and so, here or there, надто швидко, близько до цього, скрізь і всюди, там і сям.*

7. **Stival Word-Groups** rarely correlate in the contrasted languages semantically and structurally. This is because English statives have few direct lexical equivalents in Ukrainian and vice versa. Moreover, Ukrainian statives are often identified only at the syntactic level, since the same word may be in one word-group or sentence an adverb and in another – a stative. Or: *Він живе добре* (adverb); *Кому там добре* (stative); *Надворі вже краще* (adverb). *Йому вже краще* (stative). The

English equivalent of “добре”, however, is either an adverb (well) or an adjective (good). Eg. *He speaks good French.*

III. **Predicative Word-Groups**. Unlike the previous two types of word-groups, i.e. the co-ordinate and subordinate word-groups, the extensively used in English predicative word-groups are only partly found in present-day Ukrainian. Completely isomorphic, naturally, are primary predication word-groups, which are singled out in the sentence and comprise the subject and the predicate. For example: *The student works hard. The book was published last year. Студент багато працює. Книжка була опублікована торік*.

3. Structural types of sentences in English and Ukrainian

According to the way in which the expressed content correlates with reality, there are distinguished in the contrasted languages the following common structural types of sentences:

1) two-member sentences;

2) one-member sentences.

Binary sentence structures are more characteristic of English, i.e. they are represented by a larger variety of paradigmatic subtypes than in Ukrainian. This quantitative correlation of two-member sentences in Ukrainian and English constitutes *the main typological difference* in the system of simple sentences of the two languages.

As a result, English two-member sentences are represented by a larger variety of extended and expanded models, than Ukrainian two-member sentences. Consequently, English two-member sentences are represented by a larger variety of paradigmatic subtypes than in Ukrainian. The basic kernel structure of two-member sentences constitutes the binary S — P (Subject — Predicate) model which can be extended through complementation to S — P — O, S — P — O — M, S — P — O — M — M, etc.

Two-member sentences in the contrasted languages may be of two subtypes:

1) conventionally complete;

2) properly complete.

The former are elliptical sentences in which any part/some parts of the sentence is/are deleted: *"And when are you going?" "On Monday"*. The same in Ukrainian: "*І коли ви від'їжджаєте?" – "В понеділок"*.

But whatever the nature of these sentences, they can be easily replenished completed which is a convincing testimony to the existence of typologically common sentence structures in the system of simple utterances of the contrasted languages. At the same time two-member sentences have a larger representation in English than in Ukrainian, which constitutes a typologically allomorphic feature of the two languages. The only two-member sentences, which are non-existent in Ukrainian, are the following:

1. **Impersonal sentences** which are introduced by the impersonal pro noun/subject *it*: *It is thundering. It drizzles. It snowed. It has rained/ snowed*.

2. **Indefinite personal sentences** in which the subject is expressed by the indefinite personal pronouns *one, they, you*: *One says. They say. You don't say so.*

3. ***Sentences with*** the above-mentioned **introductory "it" or "there"**: *It is time to start. There is nothing/much to say.*

4. **Sentences with the implicit agent** and passive predicate verb followed by a preposition: *He was sent for. The project is objected to everywhere*.

5. **Sentences with** the above-mentioned **secondary predication constructions**: *I thought him to be a teacher. We saw her cross the street*.

Such English two-member sentences have in Ukrainian either simple or complex definite personal sentences for their semantic equivalents: *Я думав, що він учитель. Ми бачили, як він переходив вулицю.*

6. **Sentences with the gerundial complexes** used as predicative constructions. These sentences have in Ukrainian complex or simple sentences for their semantic equivalents: *We learnt of his being decorated. Ми дізналися про його нагородження (про те, що його нагороджено).*

The bulk of two-member sentences are of common structural form in the contrasted languages. These are sentences with the subject expressed

by a notional word or its equivalent and the predicate expressed by a finite verb: *Breakfast was not yet over... She looks entirely different off the stage*.

Such sentences have their structural and semantic equivalents in Ukrainian as well: *Ідуть дощі. Любив дід гарну бесіду й добре слово.*

Common in the contrasted languages are also two-member sentences with the simple nominal predicate expressed by a noun, an adjective, a numeral, an infinitive, a participle or a phrase. Such a predicate may follow the subject or precede it. Hence, there may be:

a) the S — P model sentences;

b) the P — S model sentences.

For example, the S — P model sentences: *Anything the matter, Michael?* The P — S model sentences: *Poor little thing. Моя пропозиція непотрібна??? Бідна вона.*

Unlike two-member sentences, which have a larger quantitative representation of paradigmatic/structural types in English, **one-member sentences**, on the contrary, have a larger number of paradigmatic classes in Ukrainian. Nevertheless, there exist common types of one-member sentences in both contrasted languages. The latter, naturally, are not devoid of some divergent features in Ukrainian and English either. Common in Ukrainian and English are the following paradigmatic types of one-member sentences:

Nominal sentences. They have the following models:

1) The **N model** sentences which may consist in English of a single noun, a noun with a preceding determining article, a proper name with or without the family name, a pronoun or a numeral: *Sensation. Сенсація. Seventeen. Сімнадцять.*

2) The **NN/NNN model** sentences: *Mr. Surface. Sir Ralph Bloomfield Bonington. Містер Серфіс. Сер Ральф Блумфілд Бонінгтон.*

3) Nominal sentences of the **AN model** (like of the N/dN model) may often convey injunctive, requestive and other pragmatic meanings. Cf. *Silence! The handcuffs! Тиша!* (Замовкніть!).

4) The **N/AN co-cjN/AN model** sentences: *Freedom and power! Nice manners and everything. Свобода і влада! Гарні манери і взагалі.*

5) **Nominal sentences with the prepositional connection** of

componential parts are presented in English and Ukrainian by both the isomorphic and allomorphic structural models. The deep structures of allomorphic nominal sentences reflect the non-existence of the equivalent grammaticalized prepositions *of, to, by* and *with* in Ukrainian and lack of inflexions in English nouns. *Half past eleven. Confidence for confidence. Пів на дванадцяту. Довір'я за довір'я.*

Since English and Ukrainian are structurally different language types, there is generally no identity in the grammatical means of connection of the same component parts in the same nominal sentences.

Other types of one-member sentences in Ukrainian and English may have both common and divergent features. The latter usually pertain to the structural form of sentences as well as to the means of grammatical connection of their component parts. These one-member sentences are as follows:

1) **Imperative (or inducive) sentences** containing a verb and having a V or VP pattern structures: *Keep aside! Pass on, pass on! Open the door! Не підходь, не підходь! Проходьте, проходьте! Відчиніть двері!*

2) **Exclamatory sentences** may structurally often coincide in English and Ukrainian with nominal and infinitival sentences: *Thieves! Fire! How funny! To think of it! Damn your money! Злодії! Вогонь! Як гарно! Подумати тільки! К бісу твої гроші!*

3) **Infinitival sentences** in both contrasted languages have practically identical structural forms. They may be unextended or extended: *To be or not to be? To be alive! To have youth and the world before one! Бути чи не бути? Бути живим! Бути молодим і мати все життя попереду. Матір ні купити, ні заслужити.*

Other allomorphic features observed in the types of one-member sentences have a larger representation in Ukrainian than in English. Thus, among these Ukrainian types are the following not pertained to the English syntactic system:

1) **The definite personal sentences,** which are widely used in literary and colloquial Ukrainian speech: *Люблю (я) пісні мойого краю. Пам'ятаєш (ти) перший клас? Любіть (ви/всі) Україну всім серцем своїм…*

2) **The indefinite personal sentences** may also be structurally identical to the above-given Ukrainian definite personal one-member sentences: *Сіяли всю ніч. Дзвонять в усі дзвони. Давніх друзів не забувають. Нам дають чаю, гарячого, міцного.*

3) Similar to the definite personal sentences are **Ukrainian generalized personal sentences:** *За правду й за народ ставай життям! Дивиться лисицею, а думає вовком! Поживемо – побачимо!*

4) One more group of one-member sentences in Ukrainian is exemplified by impersonal sentences which are represented in some subtypes, the most common of which are the following:

a) **impersonal proper (власне безособові) one-member sentences** with the principal part expressed by the finite (predicate) verb: *Світає. Край неба палає. Весніє вже;*

b) **impersonal sentences** with the main part/finite verb expressing the state of the agent used in the dative case form: *Раз якось Остапові не спалось. Забажалось королеві завоювати чуже царство;*

c) **Impersonal sentences** with the principal part expressed by verbs in *-но, -то*: *Роботу покинуто. Зал залито яскравим, сліпучим світлом;*

d) **Impersonal sentences** with the finite verb reffering to a person but expressing impersonal meaning: *Венеру за душу щипало. Йому кололо в боки;*

e) **Impersonal sentences with modal predicative** phrases functioning as part of the modal verbal predicate: *Йому не слід було дивитись. Неможливо знищити того, кому симпатизує народ.*

4. Typology of the parts of the sentences

All parts of the sentence in the contrasted languages have both an isomorphic functional meaning and lexico-grammatical nature. Common/isomorphic is also the traditional subdivision of them into:

a) the main parts;

b) the secondary parts of the sentence.

The main parts are:

- the subject;
- the predicate.

The secondary parts are:

- the object;
- the attribute;
- different adverbial modifie.

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: *They laughed. Вони засміялися*. Other parts of the sentence are usually dependent on the subject, on the predicate or on one another: *Everyone knows his own business best.* The constituent word-groups of this sentence in English and in its Ukrainian variant in syntactic presentation (patterning) are as follows:

1) **the primary predication (S-P) word-group** *Everyone knows Кожен знає;*

2) **the predicate-object word-group** *knows<his own business знає свою власну справу;*

3) **the attributive word-group** *his own business свою власну справу;*

4) **the predicate-adverbial** modifier word-group *knowns best знає краще.*

The structure of the parts of the sentence in the contrasted languages is characterized by isomorphic features in the main. There are distinguished the following structurally common types of them in Ukrainian and English:

1) **simple**, i.e. expressed by a single word-form (synthetic or analytical);

2) **extended or expanded,** i.e. expressed by a subordinate or by a co-ordinate word-group;

3) **complex** (when expressed by a secondary predication construction/word-group).

Some parts of the sentence in English and Ukrainian may be expressed by **a regular clause:** *What you told me is a lie.* This subject can

be substituted for a single word performing the same function: That/it is a lie. Similary in Ukrainian: *Те, що ти казав мені, – брехня; Те (це) є брехня.*

5. Typology of the composite sentence

A composite sentence in Ukrainian and English, like in all other languages, contains two or more primary predication centres mostly represented by as many corresponding clauses. The structural types of the composite sentence are identified on the ground of the syntactic reflection (and connection) of its predicate parts which are not always distinctly identified. Thus, common in the syntactic systems of Ukrainian and English are sentences that are semantically intermediate between simple extended on the one hand, and composite sentences on the other. These are the so-called semi-compound and semi-complex sentences. For example, the sentence *One does not give up a god easily and so with White fang* can't be treated as a simple extended one. Neither can it be identified as a composite sentence since the second part in it (*and so with White Fang*) contains no subject and no predicate and wholly depends on the predicative center of the first clause. Though the implicitly perceivable subject is the demonstrative pronoun *it* which logically requires the predicate verb *be*. Cf. *One does not give up a god easily, and so (it is/ or was) with White Fang* in Ukrainian equivalents areas follows: 1) *Не так легко відмовитися від свого власника – бога, саме так і в Білозубця*. 2) *Не так легко відмовитися від свого власника – бога, саме так (було це) і Білозубцеві.*

Similarly with English extended sentences containing the secondary predication constructions or complexes, as they are traditionally called, that represent semi-complex sentences as well. They mostly correspond to Ukrainian complex sentences. Cf. *White Fang felt fear mounting in him again*. *Білозубець відчув, що ним опановує страх* (the construction *fear mounting in him* becomes an object clause: *White Fang felt* (how?) *that fear was mounting in him*).

Present-day Ukrainian, as has been pointed out on the foregoing pages, has only some similar constructions of this nature. Cf. 1) *Він застав двері зачиненими. = Він застав двері (вони були) зачиненими.* 2) *Санітари знайшли вояка пораненим. = … (він був) пораненим.*

The absence of almost all the secondary predication constructions in Ukrainian makes it impossible to obtain direct correlative transforms of some simple and composite sentences. Hence, English compound sentences may have complex sentences for their equivalents in Ukrainian. Cf. 1) He leaned far out of the window and he saw *the first light spread*. 2) *Він висунувся далеко з вікна і помітив, що починають пробиватися перші промені.*

Because of the objective with the infinitive construction in the second/succeeding English clause of the compound sentence above the Ukrainian equivalent of it can be only an object subordinate clause.

There are, however, many common features in the system of the composite sentence of English and Ukrainian. One of them is the semantic ambiguity of some compound sentences that have the implicit meaning of complex sentences. For example, the compound sentence *It (the play) stinks, but I'm Benedict Arnold* has an implicit concessive meaning of "Though the play stinks, I'm Benedict Arnold" (i.e., I'll act the part of Benedict Arnold in it). Similarly in Ukrainian: *П'єса препогана, але ж я граю Бенедикта Арнольда*, і.е. Хоч/ незважаючи на те, що п'єса препогана, але я погодився грати в ній головну роль… Nevertheless there is mush common in the nature and structure of the composite sentence in the syntactic systems of Ukrainian and English. Isomorphism is observed first of all in the nomenclature of the Major Syntax units represented by the compound and complex sentences.

6. Typology of the compound sentence

Clauses in compound sentences of the contrasted languages are mostly joined by means of co-ordinate conjunctions which provide parataxal relations between them. Conjunctions joining clauses in compound sentences of the contrasted languages are practically of the

same semantic nature: copulative, adversative, and causal *for* (in English only). Equally common in the contrasted languages are various connectives that join co-ordinate 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*).

Co-ordinate 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 co-ordinate 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.

Questions for self-control

1. What factors influence on isomorphic and allomorphic features and phenomena of syntactic systems of the English and Ukrainian languages?
2. Name common features which are observed in the structural forms of word-groups in the contrasted languages.
3. What three types all word-groups in the contrasted languages split into?
4. What common structural types of sentences are there distinguished in the contrasted languages?
5. What structurally common types of the parts of the sentence are there distinguished in English and Ukrainian?

UNIT 2. PRACTICE

PRACTICAL LESSON 1

GENERAL PROBLEMS OF CONTRASTIVE TYPOLOGY. METHODS OF INVESTIGATION AND HISTORICAL OUTLINE OF TYPOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

Problems for discussion

1. Speak of Typology and Contrastive Typology: definition, aim, the number of different languages which may be simultaneously subjected to typological contrasting at a time.
2. What are the final aims of major typological investigations?
3. What is the object of Contrastive Typology?
4. What branches of contrastive typological investigation do you know? Speak of universal typology and special typologies.
5. Speak of general, partial and areal typologies.
6. What are peculiarities of structural, functional and content typologies?
7. Speak of qualitative and quantitative typologies.
8. What is the object of investigation of semasiological, onomasiological, synchronic and diachronic typologies?
9. What is the practical value of the results obtained in any branch of typological investigation and how they can help in teaching practices?
10. Give the definition of absolute universals, near universals, typologically dominant features and typologically recessive features.
11. What are isomorphic features and allomorphic features?
12. Speak of methods of investigation in Contrastive Typology.
13. Speak of historical development of typological investigations:

a) investigation of M. Krasuskiy P. Richter and O. Barannykov;

b) a grammar on “common in all languages principles” by the C. Lancelot and A. Arnaud;

c) a scientific approach of F. Schlegel and A. Schlegel;

d) morphological criterion by Wilhelm Humboldt;

e) investigation of F. Bopp;

f) investigation of F. Finck;

g) investigation of E. Sapir;

h) contributions of J. Greenberg, R. Jakobson, J. Jenkinson and C. Oshood;

i) Prague school linguists;

j) contributions of O. Isachenko, M. Kalynovych.

14. How is the "type" of a language identified today? What types of languages are distinguished?

Test control

Choose the correct answer.

1. Contrastive typology aims at establishing the most general structural types of languages on the basis of their dominant or common:

a) phonetical, morphological, lexical and syntactic features;

b) lexical and syntactic features;

c) morphological, lexical and syntactic features.

2. The number of different languages which may be simultaneously subjected to typological contrasting at a time is:

a) 2;

b) 3;

c) not limited.

3. There are _____ the final aims of major typological investigations:

a) 3;

b) 5;

c) 4.

4. The object of Contrastive Typology may be:

a) separate features and language units;

b) phenomena pertained to living languages;

c) separate features and language units or phenomena pertained to both living and one or more dead languages.

5. Typology which has for its object of investigation the most general phonetic, morphological, lexical, syntactic or stylistic features is called:

a) charactereological typology;

b) universal typology;

c) general typology.

6. Typology which has for its object the means of grammatical expression, the order of constituent parts at the level of words, word-combinations and sentences is called:

a) structural typology;

b) partial typology;

c) functional typology.

7. Content typology investigates:

a) common and divergent features in languages of a particular geographical area with respect to their mutual influence of one language upon the other

b) investigates the types of possible meanings expressed by various language units and their forms in the contrasted languages;

c) a restricted number of language features / phenomena.

8. Typology which was singled out and identified by the American linguist J. Greenberg is:

a) quantitative typology;

b) qualitative typology;

c) functional typology.

9. Typology which investigats predominant features (phonetic, morphological, syntactic) in the contrasted languages and characterizes them according to the predominance of some of these qualities is called:

a) quantitative typology;

b) qualitative typology;

c) diachronic typology.

10. The results obtained in any branch of typological investigation can be usefully employed:

a) both in theoretical linguistics and in teaching practices;

b) in theoretical linguistics;

c) in teaching practices.

11. Features or phenomena of a language level pertaining to any language of the world are called:

a) typologically dominant features;

b) near universals;

c) absolute universals.

12. Typologically dominant features are:

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

b) features or phenomena of a language level pertaining to any language of the world;

c) features or phenomena common in many or some languages under typological investigation.

13. Common features in languages under contrastive analysis are called:

a) allomorphic features;

b) isomorphic features;

c) typologically recessive features.

14. The etalon language is:

a) the language in which the actual presentation of different features of the contrasted languages is carried out;

b) the languages under contrastive analysis;

c) a hypothetic language created by typologists for the sake of contrasting any languages.

15. Allomorphic features are:

a) observed in one language and missing in the other;

b) are common features in languages under contrastive analysis;

c) are those losing their former dominant role.

16. Metalanguage is the language:

a) in which the actual presentation of different features of the contrasted languages is carried out;

b) under contrastive analysis;

c) created by typologists for the sake of contrasting any languages.

17. Near universals are:

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

b) features or phenomena of a language level pertaining to any language of the world;

c) features or phenomena dominating at a language level or in the structure of one / some of the contrasted languages.

18. The study of _____ and _____ typology would acquaint the student with the fundamentals of this modern branch of linguistics in general and with some of its principal methods of analysis in particular:

a) semasiological and onomasiological;

b) charactereological and partial;

c) synchronic and diachronic.

19. Its object of investigation is isomorphic and allomorphic ways of giving family names and nicknames to people in different contrasted languages. It is called:

a) semasiological typolog;

b) functional typology;

c) onomasiological typology.

20. Typologies which investigate language units or phenomena of a definite level with the aim of establishing isomorphisms and allomorphisms in their form and meaning during a definite historical period (or periods) in the contrasted languages are called:

a) synchronic and diachronic typologies;

b) quantitative and qualitative typologies;

c) a) semasiological and onomasiological.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. Discriminate intermediate constituents of the following words.

a) English

Unprecedented, unanimous, readability, readaptation, disapprovingly, discouragement, dishpan, dishwasherproof, disyllabic, misunderstand, missionary, misspend, mistiness, mistrustfulness, mistress, prehistoric, precolonial, predatory.

b) Ukrainian

Невблаганний, непересічний, небожитель, неопозитивізм, неоригінальний, неореалістичний, проамериканський, проблематичний, пробудитися, пробувати, пробуксовувати, пробковий, перепитувати, переганяти, переможний, передопераційний,передоручений.

Exercise 2. State the relations between constituents of the following compounds using the method of transformational analysis.

Wristwatch, earring, newspaper, sick-leave, cutthroat, skyscraper, blackleg, minefield, nightclub, nightdress, birthday, cry-baby, railway, dragon-fly, armchair.

Exercise 3. Describe the semantic composition of the given words using the method of componential analysis. Give their English / Ukrainian equivalents.

go	кума
walk	парк
step	любити
stride	балувати
stroll	сидіти
cousin	делікатний
park	гуляти
novel	новела
delicate	блат

Recommended literature

1. Березенко В. М. Порівняльна типологія англійської та української мов: навчальний посібник. К. : Освіта України, 2011. 140 с.
2. Корунець І. В. Порівняльна типологія англійської та української мов: навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Нова книга, 2004. 464 с.

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1. Encyclopedia. Dictionary. Reference work. https://www.britannica.com/topic/dictionary
2. The International Society for the Linguistics of English https://www.isle-linguistics.org/
3. https://moodle.dls.udpu.edu.ua – Інформаційно-освітнє середовище для студентів очної та заочної (дистанційної) форм навчання УДПУ імені Павла Тичини.

PRACTICAL LESSON 2

TYPOLOGY OF THE LEXICAL SYSTEMS IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Problems for discussion

1. Factors facilitating the typological study of lexicon.
2. The semiotic or global classification of lexicon.
3. The identification of semiotic superclasses of words.
4. Socially, stylistically and functionally distinguished classes of words.
5. Onomasiological and semasiological characteristics of different units of lexicon.

Test control

Choose the correct answer.

1. How many subgroups are there in the "international" layer of universal lexicon?

a. 4;
b. 3;
c. 2.

2. Which factor of the organization of the language doesn't exist?

a. extralingual;
b. lingual;
c. underlingual.

3. Which of suggested is the so-called "tender kids' word" in Ukrainian?

a. батько;
b. татусь;
c. тато.

4. Which of suggested is the so-called "tender kids' word" in English?

a. daddy;
b. father;
c. there is no kids' words in English.

5. What groups of words due to their lexico-grammatical meaning can you name?

a. ameliorative and pejorative words;
b. notionals and functionals;
c. concrete and abstract words.

6. This part of speech can be divided into countable or uncountable, person or non-person… What is this part of speech?

a. preposition;
b. participle;
c. noun.

7. Adverbial meanings can be expressed by:

a. prepositional nouns;
b. linking verbs;
c. compound adjectives.

8. How many subgroups are there in the class of numerals?

a. 2;
b. 3;
c. 4.

9. The following example: "to learn – to be learnt" express … (about verbals).

a. the ability to take the direct/indirect object;
b. the ability to be used in active/ passive voice;
c. reflexiveness or non-reflexivenes.

10. Which is one of the subclasses of adjectives in English?

a. possessive adjectives;
b. compound adjective;
c. relative adjectives.

11. Dialectical layer can be outlined according to the … principle of lexicon arrangement.

a. functional;
b. stylistic;
c. social.

12. Which of the following English dialects was claimed as a literary language?

a. Scottish;
b. Cockney;
c. Irish.

13. Which of the following Ukrainian dialects is claimed to be a basis of nowadays' literary Ukrainian language?

a. Hutsul;
b. Slobozhan;
c. Middle-Dniprian.

14. An informal word or expression that is more suitable for use in speech than in writing is called…

a. argotism;
b. vulgarism;
c. both variants.

15. Choose an example of English bookish word:

a. summation;
b. realm;
c. adore.

16. Choose an example of Ukrainian bookish word:

a. вольний;

b. косовиця;

c. всесилля.

17. How many subgroups are there in the group of poetic words?

a. 4;

b. 3;

c. 2.

18. A feeling or idea that a word has, in addition to its literal or main meaning is…

a. denotation;

b. connotation;

c. allusion.

19. The inner means of nomination include:

a. sentences, words/phrases, words, lexemes;

b. sentences, words/phrases, words, morphemes;

c. simple words, compound words.

20. What does the following pair of words/phrases express: "іржати" – "to laugh too hard"?

a. that structure of words may be changed in the contrasted languages by affixal morphemes

b. that accent can influence the onomasiological and semasiological status of words in English and Ukrainian;

c. that Ukrainian lexemes can have different structural expression in English.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. Read carefully first the English and then the Ukrainian passage below and point out the animal names which have

apart from their denotative meaning also a connotative meaning in one of the contrasted languages only or in both the contrasted languages.

A. 1) The Dog was wild, and the Horse was wild, and the Cow was wild, and the Sheep was wild, and the Pig was wild. But the wildest of all the wild animals was the Cat. Now there is also the Rat up in the Moon... (Kipling). 2) You only make an ass of yourself... (B. Shaw). 3) «You made a monkey of me last week...» (Carter).

B. 1) За золотими ґратами млів папуга... (Ільченко). 2) Вирячився, як баран на нові ворота. Вовком дивиться (Приказки). 3) ...а капітани – справжні морські вовки (Яновський). 4) Як же це ти таку ґаву упіймав... (Кропивницький). 5) Хлоп'ята стали грати у свинки (Мирний). 6) А соцький, він свиня пиката (Кропивницький).

Exercise 2. Read and translate the English (A) words into Ukrainian and the (B) words into English. Point out a) words whose onomasiological form and semasiological structure coincides and b) words whose onomasiological form and semasiological structures do not coincide in the contrasted languages.

Model: five – п'ять (the onomasiological form and the semasiological structure of the word coincide); ski (v) – ходити на лижах (word-group) (the onomasiological form is different in Ukrainian); рука – hand/arm (the semasiological structure of the word is larger in English).

A. Blue, red, two-thirds, forty, handsome, akimbo, fall in love, good-for-nothing (n), merry-go-round, forget-menot, examinee, portable (n), snow-ball, participate, teach-in, fishing-rod, ink-pot, sidewise, hairdresser, decamp, perfectible.

B. Розкохати (когось), свататися, господарювати, спатки, окріп, літепло, санітар, миттєво, самотужки, самохіть, вусики, вустонька, кулачище, кабанюга, кільканадцять, щонайкраще, якнайбільше, по-нашому, нога, палець, покашлювати, попоїсти, попоходити,

славитися, викати, тикати, нікати/некати, штокати.

Exercise 3. Read the English and Ukrainian words and word-combinations below. Point to the existence or nonexistence of isomorphism and the types of their motivation in the contrasted languages.

A. Black, blacken, large, enlarge, examinee, forget, unforgettable, good, goodish, hang, hiss, moo, cock-a-doodledoo; foot of a mountain, school of fish, arms of a coat, arms of a chair/of a tree, to warm the viper, to make both ends meet, to have a sleepless pillow, to man ships.

B. Збір, збирач, вимога, вимогливий, товариський, кульбаба, кульбабовий, гейкати, мекати, ґелґотати, сьорбати, дзеленчати, квітень, квітневий, лютий, лютневий, підкопуватися (під когось), носити каменя в пазусі, рісочки в роті не мати, не знати ні бе, ні ме, ні кукуріку, купатися в розкошах, липкий на руку, пастися в чужому городі, пастися в чужому зошиті.

Exercise 4. Analyse carefully the given groups of English and Ukrainian words and word-groups below. Try to allot them to the corresponding layers of lexicon: internationalisms (terms), professionalisms, archaisms, neologisms, poetisms. State their typologically national or universal nature.

A. Electron, bacteria, cholera, motor, computer, theorem, triangle, grammar, physics, jurisdiction, lawyer, teacher, dentist, poem, culture, addition/summation, subtraction, pronoun, attribute, predicate, prefix, cu bic equation, outer space, specific gravity, scooling, telelecture, drug, educationalist, anarch, sire, albeit, harken.

B. Кібернетика, література, музика, поезія, академія, інститут, журнал, пекар, письменник, хлібороб, фінанси, валютний фонд, педагогіка, філософія, консенсус, імпічмент, ламбада, рекет, орендар, скрижалі, мечники, списники, осавули, земне тяжіння, питома вага, електричне поле, коротке замикання, керування, узгодження.

Exercise 5. Compare each of the 4 corresponding types of idiomatic expressions in English and Ukrainian. Give your reasons for the non-existence of absolute onomasiological equivalents and the existence of some semasiological variants in all languages of the world.

A. Achilles' heel, to cross the Rubicon, the apple of one's eye, between Scylla and Charybdis, the labour of Sisyphus, the massacre of the innocents, the Trojan horse, a prodigal son, the Ten Commandments, wise Solomon, the game is/is not worth the candles, Augean stables.

B. A crooked stick throws a crooked shadow, strike the iron while it is hot, when at Rome do as the Romans do, there is no use crying over spilled milk, scratch my back and I'll scratch yours, a good beginning is half the battle, the iron heel, when pigs fly.

C. To do harm, to make decision, to be in a hurry, to be on the alert, to keep within the law, to make money, to take part, to say the truth, to throw light, to turn smth. upside down, a war of words, what of it? to take measures, to say no/yes, strike the iron while it is hot, never say die.

D. To accept the Chiltern Hundreds, to cut off with a shilling, Hobson's choice, to dine with Duke Humphrey, to mind one's p's and q's, to treat like a lord, time is money, when Queen Ann was alive, a pretty penny, to carry coals to Newcastle, to fight like Kilkenny cats.

А. Альфа й омега, гордіїв вузол, жереб кинуто, канути в Лету, око за око, зуб за зуб, золотий телець, бути на сьомому небі, Пандорина скринька, пригріти гадюку в пазусі, галас волаючого в пустелі, винищення немовлят, блудний син, тридцять срібняків.

Б. Кирпу гнути (дерти носа); народитися в сорочці; не знати ні бе, ні ме; що з воза впало, те пропало; скажеш гоп, як перескочиш; не спитавши броду, не лізь у воду; накивати п'ятами; що кому, а курці просо; не вчи вченого; який батько – такий син, яка хата – такий тин; нізащо в світі, загнати туди, де Макар телят не пас.

В. Водити компанію, володіти собою, волосся стає дибки, вразливе місце, грати на нервах, гучна слава, давати дорогу, давати змогу, дивитися здивовано/великими очима, морочити собі голову, поширювати чутки, верзти/молоти нісенітниці, казав пан кожух дам.

Г. Збити з пантелику, дурне сало без хліба, пекти раки, скакати в гречку, товкти воду в ступі, ложка дьогтю в бочці меду, наговорити сім кіп/мішків гречаної вовни, на козаку нема знаку; товчеться, як Марко в пеклі, (не довго) ряст топтати, не спіши поперед батька в пекло, як чугуївська верства, ти його хрести, а воно кричить "пусти".

Exercise 6. Guess the meanings of the underlined words from their sounds. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. The child sploshed through the puddles.
2. If you have a sore throat, try gargling with some salt water.
3. I couldn't concentrate on the play because of the rustle of sweet papers behind me.
4. Speak up. Don't mumble.
5. Those stairs always creak.
6. He whacked the ball into the air.

Exercise 7. Which do you think is the correct meaning of the underlined words in these sentences? Translate into Ukrainian.

1. She beamed at him.
a) smiled b) shouted c) attacked
2. After a day of skiing, our faces glowed.
a) were frozen b) were dried up c) were full of colour
3. He has a twinkle in his eyes.
a) a piece of grit b) a sign of humour/enjoyment c) a sign of anger

Recommended literature

1. Березенко В. М. Порівняльна типологія англійської та української мов: навчальний посібник. К. : Освіта України, 2011. 140 с.

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PRACTICAL LESSON 3

WORD-FORMATION IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Problems for discussion

1. Affixal word-formation:
a) suffixal word-formation;
b) prefixal word-formation;
c) combined (suffixal plus prefixal) word-formation.
2. Compounding.
3. Abbreviation.
4. Blending.
5. Back-formation.

6. Reduplication.
7. Accentual word-formation.

Test control

Choose the correct answer.

1. In which example both words are formed by adding the same type of suffixes?

a. teacher, переселенець;
b. citizenhood, братство;
c. scholar, відеречко.

2. Which of the following words is formed by adding evaluative suffixes:

a. бранець;
b. goodness;
c. dolly.

3. Which word has the example of international prefixes?

a. inside;
b. ex-president;
c. попоїсти.

4. Which word has the example of international suffixes?

a. сальце;
b. lioness;
c. ректор.

5. Which word has the example of national prefixes?

a. forcaster;
b. submarine;
c. foresee.

6. In Ukrainian, adjectives with verbal stems have prefix:

a. без-;
b. не-;
c. на-.

7. Combined prefixal+suffixal word-formation method is predominant in:

a. Ukrainian;
b. English;
c. …is distinctive for both languages.

8. Compound words formation is determined by:

a. isomorphic features;
b. allomorphic features;
c. both variants are correct.

9. What way of word formation doesn't exist in Ukrainian (choose from the example that doesn't have a Ukrainian equivalent):

a. Afro-Asian;
b. a to-be-or-not-to-be question;
c. bread-and-butter.

10. Find an English equivalent (according to the method of word formation) to the following: «водоплавний»:

a. East-end;
b. violoncellist;
c. heart-shaped.

11. The example of the combined abbreviation of acronyms and complete words:

a. AFL-SIO;
b. govt.;
c. V-Day.

12. The example of the partial abbreviation in Ukrainian:

a. завгосп;

b. райвно;

c. спец.

13. Find the pair with the same type of abbreviation:

a. INTERPOL – США;

b. govt – зам;

c. pop – зам.

14. What are the main ways of forming compounds? Choose the extra one.

a. with the help of linking o, e, s (o, e (є), y);

b. by adding the suffix -ation (-ці/я);

c. by the placement of the determining and the determined parts.

15. Choose the possible correspondence to the English suffix -ard (-art) in Ukrainian:

a. -ість (-ист);

b. -ар;

c. -тюх.

16. Choose the abbreviation that originates from colloquialism:

a. info;

b. ма;

c. both variants are correct.

17. How many ways of making blends or types of blends are there in English?

a. 2;

b. 3;

c. 4.

18. Which way of making blends (types of blends) expresses the following word: "seacopter"?

a. combining the initial part of the first word or word-group and the complete second word consisting of a root morpheme or a stem only;

b. combining the root morpheme / stem of the first word and the stem of the truncated initial part of the second word;

c. combining blends of the initial stem and the final part of the second word.

19. Find the pair with back-formation:

a. edit – крик;

b. fanzine – аскофен;

c. motorcade – галас.

20. Choose the example of rhymed reduplication:

a. дзінь-дзелень;

b. zigzag;

c. boogy-wogie.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. Give English equivalents for the following Ukrainian words with the negative prefix не-.

Небажаний, небачений, невдалий, невдячний, невидимий, невинний, невідомий, неврівноважений, негарний, недалекий, недійсний, недоброзичливий, неживий, недоля, незадоволений, незгода, нетактовний, неповага, непорядний, несмачний, нечесний, нещасний, нещасливий.

Exercise 2. Translate the following sentences into Ukrainian. What is the meaning of the negative prefix un- in underlined verbs and appropriate participles.

1. He unlocked the door and walked upstairs to his room. 2. The man he'd almost shot had made it nearly all the way to the cabin door … which was unlocked, of course. No one locked up, not way out here. 3. Unsealing the top of a humidor, he reached inside and removed a squat little cylinder of black-japanned tin. 4. Oliphant took an envelope from his pocket and passed it to the Under-Secretary. It was unsealed. 5. Johnston poured his canteen over the man's face to rinse off the blood. Then he unloaded his rifle and set it on the ground. 6. "This gun … my husband's idea. He thought I should have it for protection. I've carried it unloaded for two years." 7. Oliphant took a leather notebook from his jacket, propped it against one knee, and uncapped a reservoir-pen. 8. She was carrying a small canvas shopping basket, and it was loaded with an arsenal of Raid and Black Flag spray cans, all of them uncapped and ready for action.

Exercise 3. Give Ukrainian equivalents for the following English words. What is the meaning of the suffix -er.

Banker, builder, loser, lawyer, roller, bomber, cutter, player, duster, hunter, tanker, lover, newcomer, prisoner, poster.

Exercise 4. What meaning have verbs formed by conversion from nouns? Give their Ukrainian equivalents.

To smoke, to monkey somebody, to finger the pages, to carpet the floor, to skin the apple, to dust furniture, to dust a cake with sugar, to wallpaper the room, to butter bread, to speed the car, to air the room, to water flowers, to milk the cows.

Exercise 5. The underlined words are derivatives. State the way of their word-building. Find Ukrainian word-forming equivalents.

1. The driver's license was soaked, but the name was readable. 2. Somehow, beneath the bitterness, beneath the anger, there was … not love, but the shadow of a love that once was. 3. The President eyed

Gillespie in curiosity. “What makes you say that?” 4. The family occasionally weekended in the country at the home of Mrs. Trent’s parents. 5. “I doubt it,” Isadore said with embarrassed brutality. 6. And while Deke McCaskell had many questionable habits, chewing his nails was not one of them. 7. He had read that amputees sometimes felt horrible agonies and unscratchable itches in limbs that no longer existed. 8. The door opened and he saw, with unutterable relief, that the newcomer was Owen Underhill. 9. He finished his scotch in a single gulp and chewed on the ice, irritated with the nonsensicality of the offering. 10. “Oh, the thing’s rustproof, shockproof, waterproof and antimagnetic,” Savage assured him.

Exercise 6. What is the way of word-building of Ukrainian italicized words? Give their English equivalents.

1. *Кабмін* ухвалив низку постанов. 2. Нова мережа мобільного зв’язку охопить також *автошляхи* європейського значення. 3. Він з якихось міркувань хотів допомогти заступниці *держсекретаря Мінкультури* пані Ганні Чміль. 4. Саме сьогодні на фракційному засіданні *нардепи* обговорюватимуть конфігурацію і глибину цього процесу. 5. Відповідно до цих правил, варто враховувати тільки ті *ДТП*, де є потерпілі й поранені. 6. Владні структури нібито намагаються примусити їх відкликати заяви проти добудови другого *енергоблоку* на Хмельницькій *АЕС*. 7. *Метробудівці* також пообіцяли переглянути проект будівництва лінії до станції «Біличі». 8. Цим документом скасовується *ПДВ* на *книговиробництво*.

Exercise 7. Analyse the following words on the morphemic and on the derivational level. Define their type. Give their structural and derivational pattern.

1) smoking-room, arm-chairs, long-legged;
2) cheekbone, bus-driver, three-cornered;

3) pineapple, marble-topped, blue-eyed;
4) clock-work, pigtails, two-sided;
5) bed-sitters, type-writer, doll-faced;
6) ashtrays, shareholders', lackey-minded.

Exercise 8. What do these abbreviations mean? Use a dictionary if necessary. Give their Ukrainian equivalence.

FBI, Fr, ext., CD, asap, PIN, e.g., UNESCO

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PRACTICAL LESSON 4

WORD COMBINATIONS AND PHRASEOLOGY IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Problems for discussion

1. Free and non-free word combinations.
2. Classifications of phraseological units.
3. Synonyms in phraseology.
4. Antonyms in phraseology.
5. Proverbs, sayings.
6. Typology of idiomatic and set expressions.

Test control

Choose the correct answer.

1. Classification of phraseological combinations includes:

a. phraseological unities, fusions, standardised free word combinations;

b. phraseological unities, semi-free word combinations, standardised free word combinations;

c. phraseological unities, fusions, standardised word combinations.

2. How many groups of word combinations do you know?

a. 2;

b. 3;

c. 4.

3. Which kind of phraseological combinations can be figurative or non-figurative?

a. fusions;

b. phraseological unities;
c. standardised free word combinations.

4. Professionalisms are the part of … classification of phraseological units.

a. semantic;
b. structural;
c. there is no correct answer.

5. The word combination "to look after" is an example of:

a. fusion;
b. standardised word combination;
c. verb-adverb combination.

6. The phraseological unit "as cool as a cucumber" belongs to … phraseological units.

a. interjective;
b. communicative;
c. there is no correct variant.

7. The following example of phraseological pairs "to come to a conclusion – to leap at a conclusion" are:

a. emotionally coloured synonyms;
b. relative synonyms;
c. absolute synonyms.

8. The following example of phraseological pairs "припустити – тягнути ноги" are:

a. antonyms;
b. emotionally coloured synonyms;
c. relative synonyms.

9. Proverb is:

a. an example of nominative phraseological units;

b. a word combination (a sentence) that has nothing in common with phraseological units;

c. a word combination (a sentence) that can serve as the basis for phraseological units.

10.According to grammatical structure of proverbs, they can be represented by compound sentences. Choose from the following examples one that is a compound sentence:

a. What does the moon care if the dogs bark at her?

b. A house is not a home.

c. Який Сидір, така й Гапка, який кожух, така й латка.

11. From the following examples choose one that is a saying:

a. A little pot is soon hot.

b. Маленький, та сміливенький.

c. Ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country.

12. Use previous saying for analyzing and choose what kind of sentences this saying is represented by.

a. interrogative sentence (s);

b. complex sentence (s);

c. imperative sentence (s).

13. From the following idiomatic and set expressions choose one that is an example of metaphorically generalized names:

a. Nosy Parker;

b. the Trojan's horse;

c. пекти раків.

14. From the following idiomatic and set expressions choose one that is an example of word-group idioms:

a. Kill two birds with one stone.

b. Once in a blue moon.

c. Він – ні пес, ні баран.

15. Choose an example of national idioms in Ukrainian:

a. брати на кпини;
b. краще пізно, ніж ніколи;
c. нехай його лихий візьме.

16. Choose an example of national idioms in English:

a. feeling under the weather;
b. the tree of knowledge;
c. Pandora's box.

17. Choose the best Ukrainian equivalent to the English idiom "costs an arm and a leg":

a. всіма правдами й неправдами;
b. скуштувати березової каші;
c. вартувати цілого статку.

18. Choose the best English equivalent to the Ukrainian idiom "ніде курці клюнути":

a. bite off more than you can chew;
b. whole nine yards;
c. packed like sardines in a can.

19. Choose an international idiom:

a. Туманний Альбіон;
b. the tree of knowledge;
c. ставити на карб.

20. Choose correct variant:

a. байдики бити = to be on high ropes;
b. мотати на вус = to play cat and mouse;
c. на руку ковінька = lucky streak.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. Give Ukrainian equivalents for English verbal phraseologisms and English for Ukrainian.

A. To find common ground, to find fault with, to find favour in one's eyes, to find heart to do smth, to find one's death, to find one's leg, to fond one's level, to find one's match, to find one's tongue, to find voice, to find a solution.

B. Давати дорогу, давати завдання, давати завісу, давати знати, давати клятву, давати місце, давати оцінку, давати притулок, давати стусана, давати зелене світло.

Exercise 2. Put down phrasal verbs and give their Ukrainian equivalents. Can they be transformed into one verb?

1. Nor does he *take an interest* in the jostling of younger generations of writers. 2. At a business level, we talk of globalization when companies decide *to take part* in the emerging global economy and establish themselves in foreign markets. 3. Global markets *offer greater opportunity* for people to tap into more and larger markets around the world. 4. Very few companies *give clear advice* about the *steps people should take* to report suspected cases of corruption. 5. We came here to show our appreciation, to *offer our thanks*.

Exercise 3. Add Ukrainian and English similes.

A. As old as…, as wise as…, as poor as…, as merry as…, as fit as…, as cool as…, as quick as…, as silent as…, as green as…, as silly as…, as blind as…, as like as…

B. Блідий як…, старий як…, впертий як…, солодкий як…, гіркий як…, хитрий як…, схожий як…, здоровий як…, п'яний як…, злий як…, холодний як…, м'який як…, гострий як…, чорний як…,

глухий як…

Exercise 4. Give Ukrainian equivalents for English underlined proverbs and sayings.

1. I can always find a place in my organization foe a bright girl. You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours. 2. Unfortunately – as he knew only too well, for he said it enough – it never rains but it pours. 3. In for a penny, in for a pound. If I'm going to jail for killing protected creatures and destroying historic property, I might as well do a thorough job of it. 4. "True," the Chief of Staff agreed, "but it's good politics, and fairly Presidential. It's called letting sleeping dogs lie." 5. Sleeping like a baby – so innocent-looking. You'd think butter wouldn't melt in his mouth. 6. We don't know all the diseases, you see. It's no good, barking up the wrong tree when the horse is out of the stable. 6. Out of sight out of mind. Anyway it'll do you good to have a rest from me.

Exercise 5. Find Ukrainian equivalents for English phraseologisms. What is different and what is similar?

English:

as fussy as hen with one chick
the dog that trots finds a bone
you should not look into the gift horse's mouth
dog does not eat dog
crows do not pick crow's eyes
geese with geese and women with women
what can you get of the cat but her skin?
the sow likes bran better then roses
better an egg today than a hen tomorrow
a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush
a sparrow in hand is worth a pheasant that fly by
to buy a pig in a poke
with foxes we must play the fox

flies go to a lean horse
a wolf in a sheep's clothing
dogs bark, but the caravan goes on
the moon does not heed the barking of the dogs
as like as an apple to an oyster
old cow thinks she was never a calf
as scarce as hen's teeth

Ukrainian:

вовка ноги годують
вовк в овечій шкірі
ворон воронові ока не виклює
дарованому коню в зуби не дивляться
забув віл, коли телям був
як кіт наплакав
знайся кінь конем, ф віл з волом
з поганої вівці хоч вовни жмут
кому що, а курці просо
краще синиця в жмені, ніж журавель у небі
купити кота в мішку
між вовками по-вовчому вий
на похиле дерево ф кози скачуть
пес бреше, дощ чеше, а вітер далі несе
носиться, як курка з яйцем
схожий, як свиня на коня

Recommended literature

1. Березенко В. М. Порівняльна типологія англійської та української мов: навчальний посібник. К. : Освіта України, 2011. 140 с.

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PRACTICAL LESSONS 5-6

TYPOLOGY OF THE MORPHOLOGICAL SYSTEMS IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Problems for discussion

1. Typological features of the Noun as a part of speech:
   a) paradigmatic classes of the Noun;
   b) morphological categories of the Noun;
   c) the category of Case and its realisation in English and Ukrainian;
   d) the category of gender;
   e) the category of definiteness and indefiniteness.
2. Typology of the Adjective:

a) isomorphic and allomorphic classes of Adjectives;
b) the structure of adjectives'
c) grading of Adjectives in English and Ukrainian.

3. The Numeral as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian.
4. Typological characteristics of the Pronoun.
5. Typological characteristics of the English and Ukrainian Verb:
   a) Classes of Verbs in English vs. Ukrainian
   b) expressing morphological categories of the English and Ukrainian Verb.
6. Typological characteristics of the Adverb.

Test control

Choose the correct answer.

1. Choose one of the possible ending of Ukrainian possessive nouns as equivalents to the ones in English with -'s ending:

a. -ин;
b. -ан;
c. -ев.

2. Can definite article the have a Ukrainian equivalent in translation? If yes, which one?

a. один;
b. цей;
c. there is no correct variant.

3. How such phenomenon as "двоїна" is called in English?

a. plural number;
b. dual number;
c. dual case.

4. Choose the example of pluralia tantum:

a. братва;

b. mice;
c. trousers.

5. Choose an example of derivative adjective:
a. beautiful;
b. міцнющий;
c. both variants are correct.

6. Which type of adjectives doesn't exist in English but is actively produced in Ukrainian?
a. possessively-relative;
b. relative;
c. possessive.

7. Choose the wrong variant:
a. the widest;
b. more wider;
c. wider.

8. Which type of numerals doesn't exist in English but is present in Ukrainian?
a. fractionals;
b. derivative;
c. collective that express an invisible unity.

9. Which type of numerals can perform the same function as the noun in the sentence?
a. fractionals;
b. cardinal;
c. ordinal.

10. How many cases do English pronouns have?
a. 6;
b. 4;
c. 3.

11. Choose an example of possessive absolute pronoun:

a. мої;
b. my;
c. mine.

12. Choose a pronoun that can be interrogative and relative:

a. мій;
b. what;
c. any.

13. Choose the group of pronouns that don't belong to indefinite pronouns:

a. negative pronouns;
b. contrasting pronouns;
c. generalizing pronouns.

14. How many reciprocal pronouns are in Ukrainian?

a. 3;
b. 2;
c. 1.

15. Choose a diminutive negative pronoun:

a. нікотрого;
b. аніскілечки;
c. одно-однісіньке.

16. Which group of verbs doesn't exist in Ukrainian?

a. irregular;
b. auxiliary;
c. suppletive.

17. Choose an example of terminative verbs:

a. любити;
b. to glisten;
c. приходити.

18. Which of these reflexive verbs doesn't have an English equivalent?

a. одягатися;
b. цілуватися;
c. голитися.

19. Choose a Ukrainian equivalent for the following adverb: "willy-nilly":

a. ось-ось;
b. ледве-ледве;
c. волею-неволею.

20. Choose a qualitative adverb with a superlative degree:

a. вдосталь;
b. якнайкраще;
c. несвідомо.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. 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, linguistically, dictatorship, computerisation, employee, examinee, duckling, princeling, sissy, cloudlet, studenship, drunkard, sluggard, commander-inchief, merry-go-round, fifty-fifty, sportsman, transportation, willy-nilly, supersonic, rewritten, redistribute, non-aggression, underwrite.

B. краще, вводити, зім'яти, антитіло, посіятися, нереально, диктаторство, недокінченість, комп'ютеризація, по-новому; дитяточко, дрібнесенько, козарлюга, басище, здоровило, щонайкращий, якнайновіша, якнайбільше; переписати, попоходити, попобігати, перекотиполе, Гнидуб, сяк-так, хоч-не-хоч, роботизація.

Exercise 2. Point to the factors facilitating (or otherwise) the identification of the parts of speech in the following English and Ukrainian words/word-forms:

A. clean, cleaner, cleaning; back, bad, badly; worse, force, good, goody, better; deciding, home, man, finance, manned; psychology, finish, set; before, but, butter, must, near, round, save, start, waste, zip, pollution, clear, clearness.

B. добре, краще, мати, матір, молода/ молодий, варене/печене; перед, передове, відживаюче, вчений; батьків, сестрин; коло, край, перше, берегти, береги, кілька, собі; моя/твоя, коло, перед, багато, багатий, багатій, кілька, декілька, нявкати, посміхатися.

Exercise 3. State the difference (if any) in the expression of the category of number and quantity in the following English and Ukrainian nouns:

A. the North-West, the South-East; advice, business, courage; finance; archives, arms, customs, foliage, scum; brushwood, oil, silver, carp, pike, salmon, swine; bacilli, errata, radii, termini, outskirts, riches, shorts, tongs, savings, victuals, the Pole, sweepings; the Netherlands, the Bahamas, scales, money.

B. північний захід/схід, золото, срібло, борошно, м'ясо; білизна, збіжжя, збрид, віниччя, паліччя, сміття; гамір, сметана, гнів; освіта; проводи, вершки, поминки, вечорниці; висівки, вишкрібки, цінності; ворожіння, посиденьки, дріжджі, помиї, міліція, Бровари, Суми, Чернівці, Урал (гори).

Exercise 4. Find the isomorphic and allomorphic features in the expression of the morphological categories of number, case and gender in the italicised English nominals and their Ukrainian equivalents in the counteroppossed sentences below:

A. 1. *The two* were quite unable to *do anything* (Wells). 2. *The first*

was *an old woman* (R. Chandler). 3. I sympathise *with you in your husband's death*. (Maugham). 4. *Young man, you're* very ready *with your tongue* (Cusack). 5. I've got to see *her home* (Maugham). 6. *That* was a *great shock to me* (Christie). 7. *Every family* has its own *cultural rules*... (Schimmels). 8. *Off went* the proud Kangaroo on his four little legs... (Kipling). 9. Freestone frowned, at the... detestable abbreviation of his Christian *name* (Barstow). 10. He asked *his* tall aunt the *Ostrich*, why her tail-feathers grew just so... and he asked... the Hippopotamus why *her* eyes were *red* (Ibid).

В. 1. *Ці двоє* були зовсім не в змозі *щось удіяти/зробити*. 2. *Перша* була *вже старою жінкою*. 3. Я співчуваю *тобі у зв'язку зі смертю твого чоловіка*. 4. Ви, *юначе*, ніколи не лізете *за словом у кишеню*. 5. Я маю провести *її додому*. 6. *То* було *великим ударом для мене*. 7. *Кожна родина* має *свої правила культурної поведінки*. 8. … стрибонув Кенгуру на своїх чотирьох ніжках... 9. Фрістоун нахнюпився, ... зачувши огидне скорочення *свого християнського імені*. 10. Він запитався у *своєї* високої тітки *Страусихи*, чому в *пеїтяк* росте *пір'я*. ... а в своєї гладкої тітки Гіпопотамихи, чому в неї *червоні очі*.

Exercise 5. 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 the genders in their Ukrainian equivalents.

Model: the actor played – the actress played (well). Артист грав – артистка грала (гарно). The team worked – the wheel worked. Бригада працювала – колесо працювало.

A. director – directrix, emperor – empress, king – queen, hero – heroine; bull – cow, bull-elephant – cowelephant; dog – bitch, lion – lioness, billy-goat – nanny-goat, stallion – mare; cock-sparrow – hen-sparrow; drake – duck, gander – goose; sun – moon.

В. директор – директорка, Імператор – імператриця, король – королева, герой – героїня; бугай – корова, слон – слониха, лев –

левиця, цап – коза, жеребець – кобила; горобець – горобка, качур – качка, гусак – гуска; сонце – місяць.

Exercise 6. Pick up the corresponding English equivalents to the Ukrainian adjectives below. Identify their nature (qualitative, relative, etc.) and their grading patterns (if any).

Model: короткий short (base, adjective shorter, shortest); дерев'яний wooden (relative adjective, no grading); байронівський Byronian (possessive and relative adjective, no grading); дядьків (possessive adjective, not available in English).

Бібліотечний, адекватний, оригінальний, керамічний, щасливий, добовий, дробовий, корисний, вузький, скорочений (concise), розумний, відважний, упевнений, мамин, татів, братів, сестрин, тітчин; сліпий, глухий, кривий, голий, керамічний, морський, піщаний, залізний, золотий, рідний, гарнесенький, малесенький, молодесенький, старшенький (старшенька), коротесеньке, сліпесеньке (звірятко), теплесенький, англійський, австралійський, індонезійський, наський, цікавий, важливий, адаптований, відповідальний, відповідний, чотириповерховий, новостворений, всенародний, запорізький, повсякденний, закарпатський.

Exercise 7. Suggest English equivalents and identify the class of numerals (or other parts of speech) to which the following Ukrainian numerals should be allotted:

Восьмий, вісімнадцята, тридцять дев'ятий, дев'яносто дев'ятий, двохсотий, тисяча перший, нуль цілий і три сотих, тринадцять цілих і дві десятих, шість цілих і три восьмих, тридцять два цілих і п'ять вісімнадцятих, три четвертих, дві третіх, кількадесят, кількасот, кільканадцять, півтораста, стонадцять, четверо, п'ятеро, двійко, кілька, декілька, чимало, немало, стільки, скільки, кільканадцятеро, ніскільки.

Exercise 8. Analyse the Ukrainian pronouns below, translate them into English and distribute them between the following typologically deictic groups: 1) noun-pronouns (e.g. he, they me); 2) adjective-pronouns (functioning as attributes): this, my, every, and 3) numeral-pronouns (how many, how much).

Себе, тебе, ви, хто, що, аби-хто, дехто, будь-хто, казна-хто, казна-що, дещо; удвох, утрьох; наш, ваш, твій, мій, ніякий, нікотрий, ніякісінький, отакенний, отакенький, отакезний, який-небудь, кожен, усякий, чийнебудь, сякий-такий, ніскільки, ніскілечки, стільки, стільки-то, скільки-то.

Exercise 9. 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:

1. ... how diligent I have been and I'am being (Keats). / ... яким ретельним я завжди був і все ще (зараз) є. 2. Haven't you ever seen it before? (Fitzgerald). / Невже ви її (автомашини) досі ніколи не бачили? 3. I shall be painting all day (Galsworthy). / Я малюватиму цілий день. 4. I thought we'd ride up together (Fitzgerald). / Я гадав, ми під'їдемо верхи (на конях) разом. 5. What have you been doing to yourself since I've been away? (Cusack). / Що ви тут поробляли самі, відколи мене не було? 6. Water was given her. / Їй дали води. 7. Some things had been lost sight of (Galsworthy). / Від деяких речей загубився й слід (зникли з очей). 8. Success attend you! (Sheridan). / Щасти вам! / Хай вам щастить! 9. Do it down (Galsworthy). / Та сядьте ж. / Та присядьте ж. 10. Let me go in and see him alone (Maugham). / Нум я зайду й сам побалакаю з ним. / Ану я зайду і побалакаю з ним.

Exercise 10. Suggest English typological isomorphism or allomorphism for the Ukrainian italicised words in the following sentences:

Model: Йому значно *полегшало* (stative). He feels much *better*

(adv. modifier of attendant circumstances). Ця новина *приголомшила* всіх (predicat. verb). She was *aghast* (stative). Він схуднув і йому легше *бігається* (adverb, modifier of attendant circumstances). Йому стало набагато *легше* (stative).

1. Цього всього нікому тепер *не треба*, їм як ніколи *треба* доброго здоров'я. 2. Всім стало на серці *веселіше*. Співайте, друзі, ще *веселіше*. 3. Він говорив *суворо* й гнівно. Не *суворо* на серці, не гнівно (Малишко) 4. Батьків і рідних своїх *треба* любити. Нам *треба* більше часу. 5. Дітям *соромно* розповідати про це. Його раптом охопив *сором*. 6. Одні не могли *заснути*. Інші вже давно *позасинали* (спали). 7. Багато лісів навколо столиці Австралії були *охоплені полум'ям*. 8 Йому було *прикро* за сказане. Скрізь на берегах було *прикро*. 9. Над цим *треба добре* поміркувати. Йому вже й справді *добре*. 10. Студенти *легко* впоралися з перекладом. Нікому тепер не *легко*.

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PRACTICAL LESSON 7

TYPOLOGY OF THE SYNTACTIC SYSTEMS IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

Problems for discussion

1. Syntactic relations in English and Ukrainian.
2. Typology of the Word-Group/Phrase.
3. Structural Types of Sentences in English and Ukrainian.
4. Typology of the parts of the sentences.
5. Typology of the composite sentence.
6. Typology of the compound sentence.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. Suggest a corresponding Ukrainian equivalent for each predicate in the English sentences below. Single out the isomorphic and allomorphic structural types of them in these two languages.

1. He began hurredly dressing. 2. “I’ll have you at the hospital in no time”. 3.” Everything is going to be fine”. 4. “I won’t say anything to Alexandra”. 5. “This will be just between the two of us”. 6. She locked herself and her baby in the room all that night and refused to come out.

(Sheldon) 7. “You’ve one white”. (Chase) 8. “I’ll be all right tomorrow”. 9. “Don’t look so damned sorry for yourself”. 10. “Pull yourself together and try to eat something”. (Christie) 11. “All I want is for competent medical experts to give the outfit a thorough trial”. (Carter) 12. “Let this prescription made at the chemist’s”. (Cusack) 13. All furniture was cracked, warped or broken. (Bennett) 14. Clyde began to feel and look crushed at once. (Dreiser) 15. “But there is a deeper trouble still”. (Leacock)

Exercise 2. Give corresponding Ukrainian equivalents to all parts of the English sentences below. Identify the isomorphic or allomorphic features in their structural forms and nature in either of the contrasted languages.

1. Mr. Smith smiled a happy smile. (Priestley) 2. The man behind the desk laughed. (Bradbury) 3. I’m sorry about the clock. (Fitzgerald) 4. I’ve been having lunch with Mr. Gatsby. (Ibid) 5. None of his girls would have said such a thing. (Galsworthy) 6. The man must have been dead a week. (Green) 7. Erik says that you may be coming to New York. (M. Wilson) 8. You should be a Greek. (Aldridge) 9. The rear was brought up by Oleson, the Swede. 10. The temperature rose, and soon the snow began to fall dry and fine and crystallike. (London) 11. “His huge form shook as he gave a laugh, low, silent”. 12. He uttered no word, good or bad, but sat quite still. There, at the front, he was popular in the regimental mess…(Maugham) 13. He saw that someone was watching him, standing in the shadow of one of the trees. (Murdoch) 14. Years ago, Jim used to travel for a canned goods concern over in Carterville. (Lardner) 15. And he began to purr, loud and low, low and loud. (Kipling)

Exercise 3. 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. (J. K. 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. (M. 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 could't mistake that for me being killed". (Kipling)

Exercise 4. Suggest Ukrainian equivalents for the English simple and composite sentences below. Point out isomorphisms or allomorphisms in the corresponding communicative/structural types of sentences in the contrasted languages.

1. It's funny that your husband should never look at you. 2. "I may be very stupid, but I can't make head or tail out of what you're saying". (Maugham) 3. "And I'm glad you came to us, Mademoiselle Marchand". 4. The white young woman. (Updike) 5. That was my father's ship passing over the town. (Bradbury) 6. It's the only way, you know. (Greene) 7. But I couldn't keep my goddam eyes open and I fell asleep. 8. Is she to take it that everything is O'K? (Salinger) 9. You could hear him putting away his crumby toilet articles and all. (Ibid.) 10. To Roberta, since he wouldn't her, he was telephoning briefly. (Dreiser) 11. His house was too far away for anyone to come to meet him. (Cusack) 12. "I am very fond of being looked at". (Wilde) 13. I wish, I were Pyle. (Greene) 14. Oh, if I only could go back to my flower basket. (B. Shaw) 15. "Why start tomorrow?" (Warren)

Exercise 5. Analyse carefully each of the three (A.B.C.) structural types of Ukrainian composite sentences, translate them into English and give the surface models reflecting the interdependence of their coordinated or subordinated componental parts/clauses.

A. 1. Не загримів ні грім у хмарах, ні зловісні блискавиці не розкраяли неба врочистим спалахом, ні не повивертали з корінням могутніх столітніх дубів. (Довженко) 2. Лиш небо гуде неокрає, Та

сім'я журавлина на крилах весну підіймає, Та ясними ночами зорі світять мечами, на Дону, на Дніпрі, на Дунаї. (Малишко) 3. То вітерець дихне по ниві, То коник в житі засюрчить, То радісно бджола з добутком, з квітки, задзижчить. (Глібов) 4. І колишеться м'ята, і тремтить долина, і доріг тих багато, а вітчизна одна. (Малишко) 5. Чи щось сказати хоче, чи так душа болить, чи розгнівалась на когось, чи все разом бентежиться в її вразливій натурі. (Шумило)

B. 1. Не поет, хто забуває про страшні народні рани, щоб собі на вільні руки золоті надіть кайдани. (Л. Українка) 2. Там, де Личка круто в'ється, де хати в садах, де носила мене мати в поле на руках, там я знаю кожну стежку, кожен камінець, там узяв я пісню в серце із людських сердець. 3. Я жив би двічі і помер би двічі, Якби було нам два життя дано, Щоб ворогові глянути у вічі, Не зганьбленим зберігши знамено. (Бажан)

C. 1. Ідуть од шахти шахтарі, А даль така широка та іскриста Там, де рум'яна стежка од зорі біжить в село, що стало уже містом. (Сосюра) 2. Така там була температура, так мене парою проймало, стільки крові з мене вийшло, що я відчув себе здоровим. (Яновський) 3. Осяяні місяцем гори блищать, Осрібляні місяцем сосни шумлять, А море і сердиться і лає вітри, що нишком його підслухують з гори. (Олесь)

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UNIT 3. THEORETICAL ITEMS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

Індивідуальні науково-дослідні завдання включають такі види завдань (за вибором), спрямованих на відтворення інформації тематичного змісту та розвиток комунікативних компетенцій здобувачів вищої освіти:

1. Укладання презентацій у межах тематики змістового модуля. Обсяг роботи – не менше 10 слайдів.

2. Компаративне завдання. Творче завдання підвищеної складності, що базується на попередній підготовці матеріалу пізнавального характеру з подальшим компаративним аналізом визначених аспектів (в межах тематики змістового модуля).

1. The dominant morphological and syntactic features distinguishing the structural type of present-day English from the structural type of present-day Ukrainian.

2. The morpheme as a typological constant in the contrasted languages. Quantitative and qualitative correlation of affixal morphemes in English vs. Ukrainian.

3. Types of inflexional morphemes in the contrasted languages.

4. Isomorphism and allomorphism in the quantitative representation of the morphological categories and means of their expression in the nominals of the contrasted languages.

5. Typological characteristics of the noun (classes, morphological categories, functions of the noun in the contrasted languages).

6. Singularia and pluralia tantum nouns and expression of quantity (or number) in the contrasted languages.

7. Isomorphism and allomorphism in the means of expressing definiteness and indefiniteness in the contrasted languages.

8. Morphological/structural, categorial, functional and other isomorphic and allomorphic features of different classes of adjectives in the contrasted languages.

9. The pronoun. Classes of pronouns. Isomorphic and allomorphic features of English vs. Ukrainian pronouns.

10. The numeral. Classes of numerals and their isomorphic/allomorphic features in the contrasted languages.

11. The verb. Isomorphism and allomorphism in the classes of verbs. Morphological categories of person, number, tense, voice, aspect, mood and their realization in the contrasted languages.

12. Isomorphism and allomorphism in the system of verbals of the contrasted languages.

13. Typological characteristics of different classes of adverbs and their structural peculiarities. The origin of some adverbs in English and Ukrainian.

14. Typological characteristics of English vs. Ukrainian statives and their combinability.

15. Typological characteristics of the functional parts of speech in the contrasted languages.

16. Semantic groups of modal words and modal expressions in English and Ukrainian.

17. Isomorphism and allomorphism in the meaning, structure and functioning of prepositions in the contrasted languages;

18. The conjunction. Paradigmatic classes of conjunctions and their morphological structure in English and Ukrainian;

19. Isomorphic and allomorphic features of different classes of particles in the contrasted languages;

20. Typological characteristics of interjections / emotives in the contrasted languages.

Вимоги до виконання ІНДЗ: якісне оформлення, логічність і послідовність викладення матеріалу, повнота розкриття теми, самостійний і творчий підхід до аналізу досліджуваної проблеми, дотримання принципів академічної доброчесності, грамотність тексту, посилання на першоджерела, своєчасність здачі.

UNIT 4. GLOSSARY

Abbreviation is the process and the result of forming a word out of the initial elements (letters, morphemes) of a word combination.

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

Allomorphic features are observed in one language and missing in the other. For example: palatalisation of practically all consonants or the dual number in Ukrainian, the gerund or the diphthongs and analytical verb forms in English, which are missing (allomorphic) in Ukrainian.

Antonyms *a) words which have in their meaning a qualitative feature and can therefore be regarded as semantically opposite; b) words contrasted as correlated pairs.*

Antonymy *is semantic opposition, contrast.*

Areal typology *investigates common and divergent features in languages of a particular geographical area with respect to their mutual influence of one language upon the other.*

Back-formation *is forming the allegedly original stem from a supposed derivative on the analogy of the existing pairs, i. e. the singling-out of a stem from a word which is wrongly regarded as a derivative.*

Blend is the result of blending.

Blending is combining parts of two words to form one word.

Borrowing is resorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts and to name new objects, phenomena, etc.

Clipping is the process and the result of curtailing (the cutting off of a part) off a word to one or two, usually initial, syllables

Colligation is morphosyntactically conditioned combinability of words as means of realizing their polysemy.

Collocation is such a combination of words which conditions the realization of a certain meaning.

Combinability is the ability of linguistic elements to combine in speech.

Composition is such word-formation where the target word is formed by combining two or more stems.

Compound derivative is the result of parasynthetic word-formation, i. e. a word which is formed by a simultaneous process of derivation and composition.

Connotation is supplementary meaning or complementary semantic and/or stylistic shade which is added to the word's main meaning and which serves to express all sorts of emotional, expressive, evaluative overtones.

Content typology investigates the types of possible meanings expressed by various language units and their forms in the contrasted languages.

Context is a) the linguistic environment of a unit of language which reveals the conditions and the characteristic features of its usage in speech; b) the semantically complete passage of written speech sufficient to establish the meaning of a given word (phrase).

Contrastive linguistic method is usually employed to investigate a restricted number of genealogically related or non-related 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 most general structural types of languages on the basis of their dominant or

common phonetical / phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic features.

Conversion is a special type of derivation where the word-forming means is the paradigm of the word itself, i. e. derivation which is achieved by bringing a stem into a different formal paradigm.

Denotation is the expression of the main meaning, meaning proper of a linguistic unit in contrast to its connotation

Derivation is such word-formation where the target word is formed by combining a stem and affixes.

Derivational morpheme is an affixal morpheme which, when added to the stem modifies the lexical meaning of the root and forms a new word.

Diachrony is the historical development of the system of language as the object of linguistic investigation.

Etymological doublet is a pair of (or several) words more or less similar in meaning and phonation, appearing in language as the result of borrowing from the same source at different times.

Functional typology investigates the frequency of language units in speech, the regularities and particularities of their use with the aim of expressing different meanings.

General typology has for its object of investigation the most general phonetic, morphological, lexical, syntactic or stylistic features.

Homographs are different words coinciding in their orthographic expression.

Homonyms are two (or more) different linguistic units within one sound-and orthographic complex, i.e. displaying diversity on the content plane and identity on the expression plane.

Homonymy is the coincidence in the same sound form (phonetic coincidence) and orthographic complex of two (or more) different linguistic units.

Homophones are words with different morphological structure which coincide in their sound expression.

Hybrid is a word different elements of which are of etymologically different origin.

Ideographic synonyms are such synonyms which differ in shades

of meaning, i.e. between which a semantic difference is stable.

Idiom proper is a phraseological unit with pronounced stylistic characteristics owing to which an element of play is introduced into speech.

Isomorphic features are common features / phenomena in languages under Contrastive analysis.

Language is a semiological system serving as the main and basic means of human communication.

Lexeme is a word in all its meaning and forms, i.e. a variant of a lexeme in a given speech-event.

Lexical morpheme is generalized term for root and derivational morphemes, as expressing lexical meanings in contrast to flexional (morphemes) that express grammatical meanings.

Lexical set is 1) a group of words more or less corresponding in their main semantic component, i.e. belonging to the same semantic field; 2) a group of words having the same generic meaning.

Loan translation is borroving by means of literally translating words (usually one part after another) or word combinations, by modelling words after foreign patterns.

Main meaning of a word is meaning which to the greatest degree is dependent upon or conditioned by its paradigmatic links, while such meanings as display a greater degree of syntagmatic ties are secondary.

Main nominative meaning is the main, direct meaning of a word, immediately referring to objects, phenomena, actions and qualities in extralinguistic reality (referent) and reflecting their general understanding by the speaker.

Meaning is the reverberation in the human consciousness of an object of extralinguistic reality (a phenomenon, a relationship, a quality, a process) which becomes a fact of language because of its constant indissoluble association with a definite lunguistic expression.

Metalanguage is the language in which the description of isomorphic and allomorphic features is performed.

Monosemy is the existence within one word of only one meaning.

Morpheme is the smallest (ultimate) recurrent unit of the system of expression directly related to a corresponding unit of the system of content.

Morphological segmentation is the ability of a word to be divided into such elements as root, stem and affix.

Narrowing of meaning is the restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the course of its historical development.

Near universals are features or phenomena common in many or some languages under typological investigation.

Neologism is a word or a word combination that appears or is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.

Nominative-derivative meanings are other meanings in a polysemantic word which are characterized by free combinability and are connected with the main nominative meaning.

Occasional word is a word which cannot be considered a permanent member of the word-stock: although it is, as a rule, formed after existing patterns, it is not characterized by general currency but is an individual innovation introduced for a special occasion.

Onomasiological typology is a part of semasiological typology. Its object of investigation is isomorphic and allomorphic ways of giving family names and nicknames to people in different contrasted languages.

Paradigmatics is 1) associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in language as distinct from linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech (syntagmatics); 2) an approach to language when the elements of its system are regarded as associated units joined by oppositional relationship.

Partial typology investigates a restricted number of language features / phenomena; for example, the system of vowels / consonants, the means of word-formation or the syntactic level units.

Parts of speech are classes into which words of a language are divided by virtue of their having a) a certain general (abstract, categorical) meaning underlying their concrete lexical meaning; b) a system of grammatical categories characteristic of this class; c) specific syneactic functions; d) special types of form-building and word formation.

Phraseological unit is a word combination in which semantic unity (non-separability) prevails over structural separability, or in which global nomination is expressed in a combination of different units.

Polysemy is diversity of meanings; the existence within one word of several connected meanings as the result of the development and changes of its original meaning.

Productivity is the ability of being used to form (after specific patterns) new, occasional or potential words which are readily understood by the speakers of a language.

Qualitative typology investigates predominant features (phonetic, morphological, syntactic) in the contrasted languages and characterizes them according to the predominance of some of these qualities.

Quantitative typology investigates the quantitative correlation of some features and phenomena and their identifying (dominant) role in the contrasted languages.

Reproductivity is regular use in speech as the principal form of existence of a linguistic unit.

Semantic field is par of reality singled out in human experience and, theoretically, covered in language by a more or less autonomous lexical microsystem.

Semantic isolation is the loss by a word, or word combination, of productivity and the acquisition of idiomatic qualities.

Semantic level of analysis is that level of analysis on which linguistic units are studied bi-aspectually: both as units of expression and units of content, i.e. – in lexicology – the direct relationship of a word and its referent is investigated.

Semantics is the meaning of words, expressions or grammatical forms.

Semasiological typology investigates the ways of expressing meaning (the inner content) of language units in the contrasted languages.

Semasiology is the branch of linguistics which studies the semantics of linguistic units.

Special or charactereological typology investigates

concrete languages, one of which is, as a rule, the native tongue.

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.

Synchronic and diachronic typologies investigate language units or phenomena of a definite level with the aim of establishing isomorphisms and allomorphisms in their form and meaning during a definite historical period (or periods) in the contrasted languages.

Synchrony is a conventional isolation of a certain stage in the development of language as the object of linguistic investigation.

Synonyms are two or more words belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable in some contexts.

Synonymy is the coincidence in the essential meanings of linguistic elements which (at the same time) usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics.

Syntagmatics is linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech as distinct from associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in language (paradigmatics).

Term is a word or a word combination of a special (scietific, technical,etc.) language.

Terminology is the sum total of terms for a specific branch of science, technology, industry, etc., forming a special layer in the word-stock of a language which most readily yields to systematization, standardization.

The deductive method is based on logical computation / calculation which suggests all admissive variants of realisation of a certain feature / phenomenon in speech of one or of some contrasted languages.

The etalon language is a hypothetic language created by typologists for the sake of contrasting any languages. This «language» is supposed to contain exhaustive quantitative and qualitative data or characteristics concerning all existing language units and phenomena.

The notionals serve in all languages as principal means of nomination.

The transformational method is helpful when identifying the nature of some language unit in a contrasted language.

Typologically dominant features are features or phenomena dominating at a language level or in the structure of one / some of the contrasted languages.

Typologically recessive features are those losing their former dominant role as, for instance, case forms in English or the dual number forms of some nouns in present-day Ukrainian.

Typology as a branch of linguistics comes from «type» or «typical», hence, it aims at establishing similar general linguistic categories serving as a basis for the classification of languages of different types, irrespective of their genealogical relationship.

Universal typology investigates all languages of the world and aims at singling out in them such features / phenomena which are common in all languages.

Vocabulary is the totality of words in a language.

Word combination is a non-predicative unit (or elements) of speech which is, semantically, both global and articulated, or a combination of two or more notional words (with accompanying sincategorematic words or without them) serving to express one global concept.

Word-formation is the process of forming words by combining root and affixal morphemes according to certain patterns specific for the language.

Word-forming pattern is a structural and semantic formula, displaying a sequence of elements which is regularly reproduced in speech.

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