

Contrastive Lexicology

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Навчальний посібник призначений для студентів вищих навчальних закладів, які навчаються за спеціальністю «Філологія. Переклад». Посібник містить лекції, практичні завдання, плани семінарських занять і завдання до них, питання для самоперевірки. У посібнику розглянуто основні поняття й терміни лексикології української та англійської мов і надано прийоми лексикологічного аналізу словникового складу цих мов.

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ВСТУП

Інтеграція в усіх сферах суспільного й культурного життя, інформатизація суспільства викликали значні зміни у лексичній системі англійської й української мов, що зумовило необхідність покращення підготовки перекладачів та філологів. Проблеми ознайомлення з основними поняттями й термінами лексикології, порівняння лексичної системи двох мов: української та англійської, вивчення прийомів проведення лексикологічного аналізу словникового складу цих мов є надзвичайно важливими для якісної підготовки фахівця-філолога, перекладача. Знання семасіології, семантики, синонімії, фразеології є основоположними у роботі перекладача науково-технічної, публіцистичної, белетристичної літератури. Тому якісна підготовка перекладачів та філологів у ВНЗ передбачає вивчення курсу порівняльної лексикології, який входить до циклу спеціальних дисциплін у системі підготовки студентів зі спеціальності «Переклад».

У даному посібнику зроблено спробу зібрати й узагальнити результати досліджень з проблем порівняльної лексикології вітчизняних та зарубіжних учених. Основну частину теоретичного матеріалу взято з видань: А.Г. Ніколенка «Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика», Г.Б. Антрушиної «Лексикология английского языка», І.В. Арнольд «Лексикология современного английского языка», Л.Г. Верби «Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов», І.В. Корунця «Порівняльна типологія англійської та української мов». Поряд з цим було використано низку підручників, посібників, наукових статей та ін., в яких висвітлено актуальні питання порівняльної лексикології.

Посібник «Contrastive Lexicology» стисло подає курс порівняльної лексикології англійської та української мов, який вивчається в межах програми підготовки бакалаврів для напрямку підготовки 6.020303 «Філологія. Переклад», галузі знань: 0203 Гуманітарні науки за вимогами кредитно-модульної системи у

вищому навчальному закладі. Створення даного посібника зумовлене необхідністю допомогти студентам у здобутті, формуванні, систематизації теоретичних знань та практичних умінь з аналізу лексикосистем української та англійської мов. Посібник побудований за теоретичним принципом. У ньому викладені основні положення нормативної лексикології англійської та української мов; порівнюються лексичні системи двох мов.

Основними завданнями студентів у вивченні курсу «Contrastive Lexicology» є ознайомлення з теоретичними поняттями, термінологією, методами наукового аналізу, що використовуються у даній дисципліні; практичне опанування методами аналізу лексикону двох мов, що порівнюються; подальший розвиток й поглиблення знань із суміжних філологічних дисциплін.

До посібника увійшли 7 тем: 1) Lexicology as a science. Origin of words; 2) Word-formation in Modern English and Ukrainian; 3) Semasiology; 4) Synonymy. Antonomy. Homonymy, Neologisms; 5) Stylistically Marked and Stylistically Neutral Words; 6) Word Groups; 7) Phraseology. Кожен розділ включає в себе підтеми та закінчується питаннями для самоперевірки та контролю засвоєної інформації. Посібник написано англійською мовою і складається з теоретичної та практичної частини, що вміщує вправи й завдання для семінарських занять. До посібника включено список тем, які виносяться на іспит. Надано зразок картки для повторення вивченого матеріалу, яка охоплює всі питання, що розглядалися в посібнику і може слугувати опорою при підготовці до іспиту.

Автор посібника висловлює щиро подяку науковцям, чії думки було використано для укладання лекційного та практичного матеріалу. Висловюємо свою глибоку вдячність вельмишановним рецензентам, чії критичні зауваження та побажання мали для автора велике значення та дозволили суттєво поліпшити якість даного посібника.

1. LEXICOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS

1.1. CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY IN THE SYSTEM OF LINGUISTIC SCIENCES

Lexicology (from Greek “lexis”- “word” and “logos”- learning”) is a part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of the language. The term “vocabulary” means the total sum of all the words and word equivalents that a language possesses. The term “**word**” denotes the basic unit of a given language. It is a unity of a particular meaning and a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. A word is a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit simultaneously.

According to I. Arnold, a word is the smallest significant unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterised by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninterruptedness and semantic integrity.

The vocabulary of a language is an adaptive system constantly adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communications and cultural surroundings. It is continually developing by overcoming contradictions between its state and the new tasks and demands it has to meet.

There are different branches of lexicological science which indulge themselves in different spheres of it. The general study of word and vocabulary, irrespective the language, is done by **general lexicology**. **Special lexicology** deals with description of peculiarities of a given language.

Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc. Meaning relations as a whole are dealt with in semantics – the study of meaning which is relevant both for lexicology and grammar.

There are two principally different positions from which a language can be studied: diachronic (historical) and synchronic (descriptive). A language is a reality of thought, and thought develops together with the development of society, therefore the language and its

vocabulary must be studied in the light of social history. Every new phenomenon in human society and in human activity in general, which is of any importance for communication, finds a reflection in vocabulary. A word, rendering some notion through its meaning, is a generalized reflection of reality. It is impossible to understand its development if one is ignorant of the changes in social, political or everyday life, production or science, manners or culture it serves to reflect. These extra-linguistic forces influencing the development of words are considered in **historical lexicology**. It should be emphasized that the social nature of language and its vocabulary is not limited to the social essence of extra-linguistic factors influencing their development. A language being a means of communication the social essence is intrinsic (inner) to the language itself. The branch of linguistics dealing with casual relations between the way a language works and develops, on the one hand, and the facts of social life, on the other hand, is termed **socio-linguistics**. A linguistic and extra-linguistic approach must be always be borne in mind, yet in language reality all the aspects are inter-determined and cannot be understood one without the other.

Comparison of linguistic processes of two or more languages is done by **contrastive linguistics**. Contrastive lexicology provides a theoretic basis upon which a comparison of vocabularies of different languages is possible. Contrastive lexicology also takes into account the data obtained by **comparative linguistics**, which is being a branch of historical linguistics is concerned with comparing languages in order to establish their historical relatedness. Comparative linguistics aims to construct language families, to reconstruct proto-languages and specify the changes that have resulted in the documented languages.

1.1.2. METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

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

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

Contrastive analysis can be carried out at **three linguistic levels**:

- phonology,
- grammar (morphology and syntax),
- lexis.

In lexicology contrastive analysis is applied to reveal the features of sameness and difference in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in different languages.

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

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

Operational analysis. The English group of linguists, referred to as London School of Linguistics, suggested operational analysis

which encloses operation of taking units from the text with their further segmentation and substitution. Within the method of contrastive substitution all units are defined by placing them into larger units. The representatives of the London school regarded the meaning of the word as a complex of functions that a unit can possess. To discover the meaning of a form it is placed into a wider context and the word is observed in its relation to the surrounding words. The procedure is based on establishing a sort of associated paradigm for the unit analyzed. As an example the homophones *sow* and *sew* are analyzed: [sou] *sow* / *sew* carrots, onions, radish (words denoting vegetables); dresses, shirts (words different in meaning denoting articles of clothing) six inches apart (confirmed by adverbial modifier). The difference is not due to the meaning and peculiarities of the nouns but it lies in the meaning of the verbs *harvest* and *mend* which can be used to explain the meaning of the given homonyms.

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

Observation of the word relations is facilitated by coding:

N – nouns and personal pronouns, Np – personal noun, Nm – material noun, Ncoll – a collective noun, V – verbs, A – adjectives and their equivalents, D – adverbs and their equivalents. Prepositions and conjunctions are not coded.

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

English:

make smb laugh = make + N
+ V

make a coat = make + a + N

make the machine go,

make somebody work = make
the N+V

Ukrainian:

йде дощ = іти + N явище природи
rain falls

йде поїзд = іти + N неїстота
train runs

йде чоловік = іти + N істота
man goes

make sure = make + A

make a good wife = make + a
+ A + N

йде дим = іти + N неістота

it smokes

йде зима = іти + N неістота

winter approaches

йде заміж – marries

йде на пенсію – retires

іде конем - moves the knight

іти + іменник

іти + адвербіальне

словосполучення

A phrase all elements of which, including the head-word are coded is called a **distributional pattern**:

to make smb laugh → to V, Np VI.

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

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

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

Thus, the fundamental aim of immediate constituents analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into maximally independent sequences (in the given case there are two of them). These maximally independent

sequences are called immediate constituents. The further segmentation of immediate constituents results in ultimate constituents, which means that further segmentation is impossible as no meaning can be found. Therefore the ultimate constituents of the phrase given are —*a, black, suit, in, severe, style*.

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

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

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

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

d1= boy = man = male girl woman female	d1= a man = having a married brother or sister
d2 = boy = girl = young man woman adult	d2= a man = having a married sister
d3 = boy = girl = human bull cow animal	

Therefore the meaning of the word *a boy* contains semantic elements male, young, human. The Ukrainian words *дядько* and *вуйко* differ in their semantic meaning.

Consider the following definitions from the Harby's dictionary: *Cow* – a full grown female of any animal of the ox family (complete definition containing all elements from the proportional oppositions above) *Calf* – the young of the cow (incomplete definition, its missing elements can be substituted from the previous one). Other examples of componential analysis:

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

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

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

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

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

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

Every type of the analysis described above has its positive features and drawbacks. That is why W. Haas, the English linguist, argues that it looks very plausible if one has carefully selected examples from words entering into clear-cut semantic groups, such as terms of kinship or words denoting colours. But it is less satisfactory in other cases.

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

contrastive lexicology to take into consideration distinctive features of the meaning. It often happens that at presence of a number of common semantic features only one can justify the usage of the archisema, a word with more general meaning in combination with other linguistic units which are used to convey the meaning of the source utterance more precisely. Thus while translating the English phrase *his father-in-law* as *йозо мецъ* narrowing of the source meaning occurs as *father-in-law* means *a man having a married son or daughter in relation to their wife or husband* while *мецъ* denotes *a man having a married daughter in relation to her husband*. If one of the distinctive features which is the main in the meaning of the word is absent in the target language it results in untranslatibility. Componential analysis is practically always combined with transformational procedures or statistical analysis. The combination makes it possible to find out which of the meanings should be represented first of all in the dictionaries of different types and how the words should be combined in order to make speech sensible.

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

Permutation is the repatterning on condition that the basic subordinative relationships between words or word-stems of the lexical units are not changed.

For example *His work is excellent* may be transformed into *his excellent work, the excellence of his work, he works excellently*. In the example given the relationships between lexical units the stems of the notional words are essentially the same.

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

Addition (or expansion) may be illustrated by the application of the procedure of addition to the classification of adjectives into two groups – adjectives denoting inherent or non-inherent qualities. e. g. *John is happy. John is tall*. We add a word-group *in Moscow*. We shall see that *John is happy in Moscow* has meaning while the second one is senseless. That is accounted by the difference in the meaning of adjectives denoting inherent (tall) non-inherent(happy) qualities.

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

Transformational analysis is frequently used to reveal semantic connections between constituents of the compounds. For example: heartache – *heart aches* (subject-predicate relation); schoolteacher – *teacher at school* (place of work); sunray – *ray of the sun* (genitive case)

relation); steamboat – *boat set in motion by steam* – (the means of the movement to be caused); snowball – *ball made of snow* (material); skateboard – *board for skating* (purpose of usage). With the help of transformational analysis it is possible to construct a map of all possible meanings of newly formed words if affixes have several meanings or in case of the morpheme homonymy. For instance: *болільник – той, хто уболіває; зрадник – той, хто зраджує; чайник – те, що призначено для заварювання чаю; спільник – той, хто діє спільно з кимсь; здирник – той, хто здирає, вимагає, шляхом примусу; супутник – той, хто супроводжує; могильник – сховище непотрібного, зайвого; полярник – той, хто досліджує полярні регіони; ливарник – той, хто відливає металеві вироби; намордник – те, що надівають на морду тварині; хабарник – той, хто бере хабарі.*

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

For example *division* can be: good – bad; fast – slow; strong – weak; hard – soft; happy – sad.

The meaning of the divisions is that each of the quality may be gradated representing extremely good, very good, neither good nor bad, slightly bad, extremely bad. Therefore division may be very good, not bad, etc.

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

The fundamental technique of comparative linguistics is to compare phonological systems, morphological systems, syntax and the lexicon of two or more languages using a technique known as **the**

comparative method. Therefore among the final tasks of any research in the field of Contrastive Lexicology are the following: 1) to study lexical units of the languages compared; 2) to investigate the problems of word-structure and word-formation in the languages under consideration; 3) to study the problem of interrelation of a word and its meaning; 4) to identify and classify the main isomorphic and allomorphic features characteristic of lexicons of the languages studied; 5) to single out the isomorphic regularities and describe allomorphic singularities in the lexicons of the languages investigated.

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

1.1.3. COMMON FEATURES OF THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LEXICONS

All modern languages have developed common layers of lexicon which came into being under the influence mainly of social, economic, political, historical and other extra-linguistic factors. They are the layers which form dialectal, international, specifically national etc. lexicons. The lexicon is a list of all the words in a language. It can be thought of as a list of all possible roots of a language, or all morphemes (parts of words that contain no smaller meaningful parts) that can stand alone or be combined with other parts to produce words.

Each of them has distinctive features in common. Thus, the functioning of a dialectal lexicon is restricted to a definite territory. The linguistic principles of contrastive 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.

In accordance with the most general lexico-grammatical meanings of words they are grouped in the contrasted languages into:

- a) notionals;
- b) functionals.

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

The last of these is not of equal importance in both languages, as it is not always possible to state what part of speech the word belongs to: *blue, hand, house* may be both nouns and adjectives or verbs. It is mostly not so in Ukrainian, whose words clearly display their lexico-grammatical meaning: *синій, добре, хата, робити, праця*. Still, there are the same classes of notional words in both languages. A word may express the most general implicit (not clear at first sight, meant) meanings of substantivity, verbiality, deitic properties, adverbiality, thus representing nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, verbs, statives. As to functional, they are common except for the articles. Namely: prepositions, conjunctions, particles, interjections, modal verbs, modal phrases.

Common therefore are 12 lexico-grammatical classes of words each of which has mostly the same properties in the contrasted languages.

Another class of words distinguished in both languages represent common lexico-semantic groups (LSGs): Words of a LSG may have a regular synonymic relationship in English and Ukrainian: the notion of “a dwelling” unites the following row of nouns denoting different kinds of shelter: *dug-out (печера, землянка), shanty (халупа), mud-house (глинянка), house, cottage, bungalow, villa, palace, apartment*.

Common lexico-semantic groups can be observed among English and Ukrainian adjectives denoting dimensions; verbs of saying; local prepositions.

1.2. WORDS OF NATIVE ORIGIN AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

Etymologically, the vocabulary of the two contrasted languages is far from being homogeneous. It consists of two layers – the **native stock** and **borrowed stock** of words. Native words comprise only about 30% of the total number of words in the English language. On a straight

vocabulary count, considering the high percentage of borrowed words, one would have to classify English as a language of international origin or, at least, a Romance one (as French and Latin words obviously prevail). But here another factor comes into play, the relative frequency of occurrence of words, and it is under this heading that the native Anglo-Saxon heritage comes into its own. The native element in English comprises a large number of high-frequency words like the articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliaries and, also, words denoting everyday objects and ideas (e. g. *house, child, water, go, come, eat, good, bad*, etc.). Words belonging to the subsets of the native word stock are for the most part characterized by a wide range of lexical and grammar valency, high frequency value and a developed polysemy. They often are monosyllabic, show great word-building power and enter a number of set expressions. Furthermore, the grammatical structure is essentially Germanic having remained unaffected by foreign influence.

A native word is a word which belongs to the original English (Ukrainian) stock, as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the Old English period (for English) and Old Slavonic (in Ukrainian). **A loan word (borrowed, a borrowing)** is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English (Ukrainian) language. The native words are further subdivided into Indo-European and Common Germanic.

By the Indo-European element are meant words of roots common to all or most languages of the Indo-European group. Both English and Ukrainian words of this group denote elementary concepts without which no human communication would be possible. The following groups can be identified:

1. Family relations: *father, mother, brother, son, daughter, мати, брат, дочка*.
2. Parts of the human body: *foot* (cf. Ukr. *п'ядь*), *nose, lip, heat, ніс*.
3. Animals: *cow, swine, goose* (cf. Ukrainian *свиня, гусак, корова*).
4. Plants: *tree* (Cf. Ukr. *дерево*), *birch* (cf. Ukr. *береза*), *corn* (cf. Ukr. *зерно*).

5. Time of day: *day, night* день, ніч.
6. Heavenly bodies: *sun, moon, star, зірка, сонце*.
7. Adjectives: *red* (cf. Ukr. *рудий*, R. *рыжий*), *new, glad* (cf. Ukr. *гладкий*), *sad* (cf. R. *сѣт*).
8. The numerals from one to a hundred.
9. Pronouns — personal (except *they* which is a Scandinavian borrowing); demonstrative.
10. Numerous verbs: *be* (cf. R. *быть*), *stand* (cf. Ukr. *стояти*), *sit* (cf. Ukr. *сидіти*), *eat* (cf. Ukr. *їсти*), *know* (cf. Ukr. *знати, знаю*).

The Germanic element represents words of roots common to all or most Germanic languages. Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element.

1. Parts of the human body: *head, hand, arm, finger, bone*.
2. Animals: *bear, fox, calf*.
3. Plants: *oak, fir, grass*.
4. Natural phenomena: *rain, frost*.
5. Seasons of the year: *winter, spring, summer*.
6. Landscape features: *sea, land*.
7. Human dwellings and furniture: *house, room, bench*.
8. Sea-going vessels: *boat, ship*.
9. Adjectives: *green, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high, old, good*.
10. Verbs: *see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, make, give, drink*.

1.2.1. FOREIGN ELEMENTS IN MODERN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

The term "source of borrowing" should be distinguished from "origin of borrowing". The first means the language from which the loan word was taken into English. The second refers to the language to which the word may be traced. The word "paper" has French as the source of borrowing, but Greek as the origin. There are loan words proper, translation loan and semantic loan. **Translation loans** are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the recipient language according to the patterns of the source language. Only compound words can be of this type: the word "masterpiece" is a translation loan from German "Meisterstück", wonder child – from German "Wunder kind", "first dancer" from Italian "prima ballerina", English "wall paper" from Russian "стенная газета". The term

“**semantic loan**” denotes a development in a word a new meaning due the influence of a related word in another language. The phrase “shock brigade” existed in the English language with the meaning of “*аварийная бригада*”, and has acquired the meaning “*ударная бригада*” from the Russian language.

Borrowing process happens due to different reasons. It can happen **to fill the gap in the vocabulary**. A. Nikolenko states that words *cheese, butter, plum, beet* were borrowed by Saxons from Latin as well as *potato and tomato* were borrowed by English from Spanish because the objects that they denote came into use, but the language did not have a word to denote them. But sometimes a word was borrowed to represent the same concept in a new aspect. So, it supplied a new shade of meaning or a different emotional coloring. This type of borrowing enlarges groups of synonyms and enriches the expressiveness of the language. So, Latin *cordial* exists together with native *friendly*; Latin *admire* and French *adore* are added to native *like* and *love*.

It is true that English vocabulary, which is one of the most extensive amongst the world's languages, contains an immense number of words of foreign origin. Explanations for this should be sought in the history of the language which is closely connected with the history of the nation speaking the language. In order to have a better understanding of the problem, it will be necessary to go through a brief survey of certain historical facts, relating to different epochs, presented by G. Antrushina:

The first century B.C. Most of the territory now known to us as Europe is occupied by the Roman Empire. Among the inhabitants of the continent are Germanic tribes, "barbarians" as the arrogant Romans call them. Theirs is really a rather primitive stage of development, especially if compared with the high civilisation and refinement of Rome. They are primitive cattle-breeders and know almost nothing about land cultivation. Their tribal languages contain only Indo-European and Germanic elements.

After a number of wars between the Germanic tribes and the Romans these two opposing peoples come into peaceful contact. Trade

is carried on, and the Germanic people gain knowledge of new and useful things. The first among them are new things to eat. It has been mentioned that Germanic cattle-breeding was on a primitive scale. Its only products known to the Germanic tribes were meat and milk. It is from the Romans that they learn how to make butter and cheese and, as there are naturally no words for these foodstuffs in their tribal languages, they are to use the Latin words to name them (Lat. *butyrum*, *caseus*). It is also to the Romans that the Germanic tribes owe the knowledge of some new fruits and vegetables of which they had no idea before, and the Latin names of these fruits and vegetables enter their vocabularies reflecting this new knowledge: *cherry* (Lat. *cerasum*), *pear* (Lat. *pirum*), *plum* (Lat. *prunus*), *pea* (Lat. *pisum*), *beet* (Lat. *beta*), *pepper* (Lat. *piper*). It is interesting to note that the word *plant* is also a Latin borrowing of this period (Lat. *planta*).

Here are some more examples of Latin borrowings of this period: *cup* (Lat. *cuppa*), *kitchen* (Lat. *coquina*), *mill* (Lat. *molina*), *port* (Lat. *portus*), *wine* (Lat. *vinum*). These Latin borrowings were perhaps the earliest ones.

The fifth century A.D. Several of the Germanic tribes (the most numerous amongst them being the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) migrated across the sea now known as the English Channel to the British Isles. There they were confronted by the Celts, the original inhabitants of the Isles. The Celts desperately defended their lands against the invaders, but they were no match for the military-minded Teutons and gradually yielded most of their territory. They retreated to the North and South-West (modern Scotland, Wales and Cornwall). Through their numerous contacts with the defeated Celts, the conquerors got to know and assimilated a number of Celtic words (Mod. E. *bald*, *down*, *glen*, *druid*, *bard*, *cradle*). Especially numerous among the Celtic borrowings were place names, names of rivers, hills, etc. The Germanic tribes occupied the land, but the names of many parts and features of their territory remained Celtic. For instance, the names of the rivers Avon, Exe, Esk, Usk, Ux originate from Celtic words meaning "river" and "water".

Ironically, even the name of the English capital originates from Celtic *Llyn* + *dun* in which *llyn* is another Celtic word for "river" and *dun* stands for "a fortified hill", the meaning of the whole being "fortress on the hill over the river".

Some Latin words entered the Anglo-Saxon languages through Celtic, among them such widely-used words as *street* (Lat. *strata via*) and *wall* (Lat. *vallum*).

The seventh century A.D. This century was significant for the christianisation of England. Latin was the official language of the Christian church, and consequently the spread of Christianity was accompanied by a new period of Latin borrowings. These no longer came from spoken Latin as they did eight centuries earlier, but from church Latin. Also, these new Latin borrowings were very different in meaning from the earlier ones. They mostly indicated persons, objects and ideas associated with church and religious rituals. E. g. *priest* (Lat. *presbyter*), *bishop* (Lat. *episcopus*), *monk* (Lat. *monachus*), *nun* (Lat. *nonna*), *candle* (Lat. *candela*).

Additionally, in a class of their own were educational terms. It was quite natural that these were also Latin borrowings, for the first schools in England were church schools, and the first teachers priests and monks. So, the very word *school* is a Latin borrowing (Lat. *schola*, of Greek origin) and so are such words as *scholar* (Lat. *scholar(-is)*) and *magister* (Lat. *ma-gister*).

From the end of the 8-th c. to the middle of the 11-th c. England underwent several Scandinavian invasions which inevitably left their trace on English vocabulary. Here are some examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: *call*, v., *take*, v., *cast*, v., *die*, v., *law*, n., *husband*, n. (< Sc. *hus* + *bondi*, i. e. "inhabitant of the house"), *window* n. (< Sc. *vindauga*, i. e. "the eye of the wind"), *ill*, adj., *loose*, adj., *low*, adj., *weak*, adj.

Some of the words of this group are easily recognisable as Scandinavian borrowings by the initial *sk-* combination. E. g. *sky*, *skill*, *skin*, *ski*, *skirt*.

Certain English words changed their meanings under the influence of Scandinavian words of the same root. So, the O. E. *bread*

which meant "piece" acquired its modern meaning by association with the Scandinavian *brand*.

The O. E. *dream* which meant "joy" assimilated the meaning of the Scandinavian *draum* (cf. with the Germ. *Traum* "dream" and the R. *дрѣма*).

1066. With the famous Battle of Hastings, when the English were defeated by the Normans under William the Conqueror, we come to the eventful epoch of the Norman Conquest. The epoch can well be called eventful not only in national, social, political and human terms, but also in linguistic terms. England became a bi-lingual country, and the impact on the English vocabulary made over this two-hundred-years period is immense: French words from the Norman dialect penetrated every aspect of social life. Here is a very brief list of examples of *Norman* French borrowings:

Administrative words: *state, government, parliament, council, power.*

Legal terms: *court, judge, justice, crime, prison.*

Military terms: *army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy.*

Educational terms: *pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil.*

Everyday life was not unaffected by the powerful influence of French words. Numerous terms of everyday life were also borrowed from French in this period: e. g. *table, plate, saucer, dinner, supper, river, autumn, uncle, etc.*

The Renaissance Period. In England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilisations of Greece and Rome and their languages. Hence, there occurred a considerable number of Latin and Greek borrowings. In contrast to the earliest Latin borrowings (1st c. B. C.), the Renaissance ones were rarely concrete names. They were mostly abstract words (e.g. *major, minor, filial, moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create*). There were naturally numerous scientific and artistic terms (*datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music*). The same is true of Greek Renaissance borrowings (e. g. *atom, cycle, ethics, aesthete*).

The Renaissance was a period of extensive cultural contacts between the major European states. Therefore, it was only natural that new words also entered the English vocabulary from other European languages. The most significant once more were French borrowings. This time they came from the Parisian dialect of French and are known as *Parisian borrowings*. Examples: *regime, routine, police, machine, ballet, matinee, scene, technique, bourgeois*, etc. (One should note that these words of French origin sound and "look" very different from their Norman predecessors.

Italian also contributed a considerable number of words to English, e. g. *piano, violin, opera, alarm, colonel*.

Phenomenon, philosophy, method, music, etc. were borrowed into English from Latin and had earlier come into Latin from Greek.

There are certain structural features which enable us to identify some words as borrowings and even to determine the source language. We have already established that the initial *sk* usually indicates Scandinavian origin. You can also recognise words of Latin and French origin by certain suffixes, prefixes or endings. The two tables below will help you in this.

Table 1.

I. Latin Affixes

Nouns	The suffix <i>-ion</i>	<i>communion, legion, opinion, session, union, etc.</i>
	The suffix <i>-tion</i>	<i>relation, revolution, starvation, temptation, unification, etc.</i>
Verbs	The suffix <i>-ate</i> [eit]	<i>appreciate, create, congratulate, etc.</i>
	The suffix <i>-ute</i> [ju:t]	<i>attribute, contribute, constitute, distribute, etc.</i>
	The remnant suffix <i>-ct</i>	<i>act, conduct, collect, connect, etc.</i>
	The remnant suffix <i>-d(e)</i>	<i>applaud, divide, exclude, include, etc.</i>

	The prefix <i>dis-</i>	<i>disable, distract, disown, disagree, etc.</i>
Adjectives	The suffix <i>-able</i>	<i>detestable, curable, etc.</i>
	The suffix <i>-ate</i> [it]	<i>accurate, desperate, graduate, etc.</i>
	The suffix <i>-ant</i>	<i>arrogant, constant, important, etc.</i>
	The suffix <i>-ent</i>	<i>absent, convenient, decent, evident, etc.</i>
	The suffix <i>-or</i>	<i>major, minor, junior, senior, etc.</i>
	The suffix <i>-al</i>	<i>cordial, final, fraternal, maternal, etc.</i>
	The suffix <i>-ar</i>	<i>lunar, solar, familiar, etc.</i>

Table 2.

II. French Affixes

Nouns	The suffix <i>-ance</i>	arrogance, endurance, hindrance, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ence</i>	consequence, intelligence, patience, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ment</i>	appointment, development, experiment, etc.
	The suffix <i>-age</i>	courage, marriage, passage, village, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ess</i>	tigress, lioness, actress, adventuress, etc.
Adjectives	The suffix <i>-ous</i>	curious, dangerous, joyous, serious, etc.
Verbs	The prefix <i>en-</i>	enable, endear, enact, enfold, enslave, etc.

To make a conclusion, Latin loans are classified into sub-groups:

1. Early Latin loans: came into English through the language of Anglo-Saxon tribes (*cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine*).

2. Later Latin Borrowings: penetrated the English vocabulary during the 16-th and 17-th centuries, when the people of England converted to Christianity (*priest, bishop, nun, candle*).

3. The third period of Latin borrowing came into English due to the Norman conquest in 1066 and the Renaissance (*major, minor, intelligent, performance*).

4. The Latest Stratum of Latin Words are mainly abstract and scientific terms (*nylon, molecular, vaccine, phenomenon, vacuum*).

One would certainly expect the native element to prevail in English. This anomaly is explained by the country's eventful history and by its many international contacts.

It has been mentioned that the English proper element is, in certain respects, opposed to the first groups of borrowings. Not only can it be approximately dated, but these words have another distinctive feature: they are specifically English having no cognates in other languages whereas for Indo-European and Germanic words such cognates can always be found, as, for instance, for the following words of the Indo-European group.

Star: Germ. *Stern*, Lat. *Stella*, Gr. *aster*.

Sad: Germ. *satt*, Lat. *satis*, R. *сыт*, Snsr. *sd-*.

Stand: Germ. *stehen*, Lat. *stare*, R. *стоять*, Snsr. *stha-*.

Here are some examples of English proper words. These words stand quite alone in the vocabulary system of Indo-European languages: *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always*.

Lexical correlations are lexical units from different languages which are phonetically and semantically related. The number of Ukrainian-English correlations is 6870: *beat-бути, voice-голос, day-день, widow-вдова, young-юний*. Semantically Ukrainian-English lexical correlations are various. They denote everyday objects and commonly used things: *brutal-брутальный, sarcapanelюx, cold - холодний, ground-грунт, kettle-котел, kitchen-кухня, lily-лілія, money-монета, sister-сестра, quart-квартал*.

Most of Ukrainian-English correlations have Indo-European background: *murder-мордувати*, *garden-город*, *soot-сажа*. The corresponding vocabulary units belonging to each of the languages can be alike: *nose-ніч*, *son-син*, *mother-мати*, *brother-брат*. But historically the process of phonetic adaptation and semantic development went on differently in the contrasted languages: *stone* is related to *цїна*, *sit* to *сидїти*, *answer* to *сварити*, *swear* and *сварити*.

As for the history if its development there exist two different approaches toward **the historical development of the Ukrainian language**.

The first one belongs to academician Yury Shevelyov. According to him, the Ukrainian language emerged from the pre-Slavonic language.

As a result of the split of the pre-Slavonic language five dialects were formed, two of which – Kyivo-Polissky and Galician-Podilsky – laid the basis of the Ukrainian language.

Yu. Shevelyov divided the history of the Ukrainian language into 6 periods:

- a) Pre-Ukrainian (the 7-th – the 9-th centuries),
- b) Old Ukrainian (the 9-th – the 11-th centuries),
- c) Early middle Ukrainian (the middle of the 15-th – the beginning of the 16-th century),
- d) Middle Ukrainian (the middle of the 16-th up to the first part of the 18-th century),
- e) Late Middle Ukrainian (the 18-th century),
- f) Modern – from the last years of the 18-th century up to date.

There exists, though, another concept, put forward by a Russian scientist Alex Shachmatov and a Ukrainian scholar Agatangel Kymsky. According to A. Shachmatov, the Ukrainian language originated from the pre-Slavonic (from which other languages were derived, Russian and Byelorussian among them). In our further research we shall stick to this view.

Among inherited words the oldest are those belonging to the common Indo-European word stock. They (with certain phonetic or

word-building changes) are widely spread among all the European languages. These are names of parts of the body, natural phenomena, plants, animals, the most necessary actions and processes, family relations: *мати, син, брат, сестра, тітка, дочка*.

The common Slavonic lexical units are the oldest layer of the stock of the Ukrainian vocabulary, inherited from the pre-Slavonic language, which existed as early as the 5-th century C.E., through Old Slavonic. Assimilation of pre-Slavonic word stock began as early as the Old Slavonic period: *уста, супостат, істина, небеса, Бог, хрест, золото, возьдъ, святиня, собор, союз, соратник*.

Later the pre-Slavonic language became the source of nascency for all the other Slavonic languages. Old Slavonic spread on the territory of Kyiv Rus together with proliferation of Christianity.

Words which are most widely spread in all the Slavonic languages, e.g.: *жінка, орати, сіяти, кувати, шити, меч, граблі, вовк, коза, бик, кінь, свиня, ніс, зуб, око, борода, воля, гнів, гріх* belong to common Slavonic word stock. Words of Old Slavonic origin can be found in any Slavonic language with certain phonetic or word-building variations: *плем'я, чоловік, чоло, шия, рот, тіло, мило, весло, кінь, тионо, вікно*.

Some names of abstract notions are of Old Slavonic origin as well: *диво, гріх, душа, правда, кривда, честь*.

East-Slavonic layer of lexical units is the part of Ukrainian word stock, which was inherited by our language from Old Slavonic. The Old Slavonic language, being the literary language of the 9-th – 10-th centuries and a common source for modern Russian, Byelorussian, Ukrainian languages, contained words that are common to all of the three languages: *білка, кішка, селезень, собака, коровай, пряник, коржик, гречка, осока, урожай, полова, мельник, селянин* etc.

The word stock which appeared on the Ukrainian language basis, that is during the period of formation and development of the Ukrainian language (the 14-th century): *багаття, бавитись, будинок, вареник, гай, карбованець, кисень, паляниця, освіта, мрія, літак* is considered Ukrainian proper.

Assimilation of Russian borrowings went on quickly after Ukraine was joined to Russia. A part of the word stock is accepted through first-hand oral contacts: *начальник, завод, чин, подвиг* (the 17-th century).

Since the 18-th century the Russian language has become an intermediary in assimilating foreign word stock of West-European origin: *акт, адвокат, боцман, генерал, дивізія, комісія*.

Until the 17-th century Ukraine and Byelorussia belonged to the Great Lithuanian Principality. One can trace words of common Ukrainian-Byelorussian literary language: *бадьорий, бурчати, гудити, дьоготь, ківш, кажан, бачити, ганок, гудзик, помилка, хата, клуня*.

But the Ukrainian language has many features which distinguish it from among the others. The idea of Alexander Tsarook, another scholar who indulged himself in studying the history of the Ukrainian language, states that the Ukrainian language emerged from the pre-language known as the Ants' language.

Such differences in the ways of etymological development of the contrasted languages can be observed:

a) the huge influence of Slavonic elements in the Ukrainian language, while Germanic influence is observed in the English language;

b) different sources and ways of assimilation of borrowings. The process of implementing Christianity has resulted in a lot of Latin borrowings in the English language. Greek borrowings filled the same gap in the vocabulary of the Ukrainian language.

c) borrowings from languages of neighbouring nations are different. While there a lot of borrowings from French in the English language, there are a lot of borrowings from Arabic in the Ukrainian: *казан, хватати, хворий, праця*.

Polish borrowings in the Ukrainian language are: *хлопець, кума, зичити, мешкати, в'язень, застава, тильнувати, блазень, вирок, необачний, прикрий, шаленство, ліжко, кпини, бидло, власний, гасло, гудзик, завзятий, качка, козуб, кохати, лялька, обіцяти, перешикода, пончик, рантом, суніця, хіба, илюб, шушваль, брама*,

бавитись, барвінок, вдячність, досконало, жупан, склеп, полька, панство (the 15-th century).

There are also a lot of borrowings from other Slavonic and Ingo-European languages. Among them there are: Check borrowings in the Ukrainian language. They are: *брама, вагатися, влада, власний, ганьба, гасло, замок, постать, праця, смутний, наглість, табір*.

Turkic (Arabic) borrowings are: *торба, батіг, кайдани, отаман, адмірал, баран, беркут, бугай, кабан, ковбаса, бурлака*.

Borrowings from Baltic-Finnish languages (from the 40-th century B.C.): *дуб, журба, сом, цур, кульгати, сани (саамська), Русь*.

Borrowed from the Caucasian languages (different languages) dating back to 35-th century B.C.): *вино* (Pelasgean), *залізо, книга* (Sumerian), *коноплі* (the same source), *тигр* (Armenian), *багнет* (Basks), *Ворскла, Псло*.

Borrowings from the Balkan languages (from the 30-th century B.C.): *ватра, Карпати, могила, цан* (Albanian), *Самбір, Стрий*.

From Greek: (the 5-th century B.C.): *бандура, ванно, гасид, ідея, комора, кутя, любисток, мак, огірок, Севастополь, троянда, Херсон, ховрах, циган, Ялта*.

Iran borrowings (from the 4-th century B.C.): *бориц, груша, Дніпро, доїти, заради, лелека, люлька, майдан, пан, сковорідка, собака, Сула, терези, хабар, хворий, хмиз, Хорол, чобіт, шаровари*.

The Celtic borrowings (the 2-nd century B.C.): *брага, будинок, Галичина, коньяк, лютий, сало, сокира*.

Borrowings from the Roman languages (the 1-st century B.C.): *агрус, аркуш, барвінок, газета, капелюх, капуста, каструля, кашкет, ковдра, комір, котлета, крейда, лемент, оцет, палац, пальто, свиня, секс, сосиска, тортури, халтура, цибуля*.

From the Germanic languages such words are borrowed (the 2-nd century A.D.): *буква, виноград, гість, гуцул, дружина, кіт, скло* (from the Gottic languages), *Аскольд, жебрак, клунок, скарб, стяг* (Scandinavian), *барва, глузд, король, плуг, ринок, слюсар, труна, француз, хутро, хвиля, шибка* (Middle German), *борт, вафлі, картуз, кран, швабра* (Dutch).

Borrowed from the Slavonic languages: (4-th century A.D.): *бажати, клопіт, невіглас, парубок, праця, прудкий, цікавий* (all are from the Check language), *Берлін, тисок, халява* (з лужицької), *виховати, звіробій, ззаду, маруда, нащадок, обридати, розкішний* (усі з білоруської), *владика* (з болгарської), *жменя* (словенська), *хлопець* (сербська).

Altay languages borrowings are: (approximately the 5-th century A.D.): *Балаклава, Бахчисарай, беркут, богатир, булава, гарбуз, кабан, кавун, казан, килим, кобза, ковбаса, козак, Крим, сорок, товариш, торба, Тузла, тютюн, чумак, штани* (Turkic), *бовдур, князь, пиріг, ура!, чавун* (Mongolian).

Borrowed from the Semitic languages: (the 7-th century A.D.): *алкоголь, бензин, валіза, борг, гітара, кава, лев, мафія, могорич, харчі, хустка* (all of them came into Ukrainian via the Arabic languages), *Африка, Барселона, мана* (from the Phoenician), *блуза, гума, канана, папір, хімія* (from Old Egyptian), *бегемот, Іван, махлювати, субота, хохма, ювілей* (from Hebrew).

From the Hungarian language: (the 10-th century A.D.): *гайдамак, тазда, кучма, куліш, табір, хутір*.

From the Lithuanian language: (the 14-th century A.D.): *блазень, відлига, вовкулака, гаразд, гринджоли, зозуля, калюжа, кепсько, локишина, Москва, надра, пампушка, настка, пелька, скарб, троцити, шморгати, Шостка, юшка, ялина*.

Active penetration of German words took place during the 17-th – 18-th centuries A.D.: *орден, солдат, швабра, паплет, фарш, футляр, шахта, вексель, бухгалтер*.

Borrowed from German also are: *бавовна, бешикет, вага, важкий, вантаж, гамбургер, груба, танок, трунт, дах, дріт, друк, жарт, киталт, куля, краб, ланцюг, ліхтар, льох, маляр, нирка, пляшка, поштамт, рама, ринок, скарга, фарба, форель, цвях, шарф, шафа, шина, шлях, шпак, шприц, штанга, штука, шухляда* (the 16-th century A.D.).

From the local languages of the European colonies in Africa and Asia, America (the 17-th century A.D.): *какао, шоколад*

(нахуатль), *каучук* (майнас, Еквадор), *банан* (баконго), *бамбук* (малайська), *табу, татуаж* (languages of Australian aborigines).

Borrowings from Russian are: (the 20-th century A.D.): *болітьник, вертоліт, вихідний, відмінник, достоїнство, залізобетон, колгосп, копійка, націнка, підприємство, прогул, приймач, промисловість, самодіяльність, трикутник, телебачення, учасник, супутник.*

Borrowed from English are such words: *вагон, вокзал, гумор, інтернет, мітинг, страйк, флірт* (the 19-th century common era). Such borrowings as *док, ихуна, мічман, футбол, хокей, старт, фініш, трамвай, кекс, ром, пуши* are dated to the beginning of the 20-th century.

Dutch borrowings are: *матрос, гавань, шлюпка, каюта.* Italian borrowings are: *адажіо, бас, віолончель, опера.*

Most Ukrainian names are also borrowed. Having lost their original meanings such words as: *Анатолій* (схід сонця), *Андрій* (сміливий, мужній), *Василь* (царський), *Зоя* (життя), *Галина* (спокій) *Катерина* (чиста) were borrowed from Greek and became personal names. Latin borrowings are: *Валентин* (сильний), *Вікторія* (перемога), *Марина* (морська). From Scandinavian: *Гліб* (нащадок бога), *Ігор* (захисник).

The oldest borrowings are those from Greek and Latin. Greek borrowings are: *ботаніка, геологія, математика, психологія, азот, хлор, атмосфера, граматики, драма, діалог, демократія* etc.

Latin borrowings are: *інфекція, ангіна, вена, делегат, арматура, мотор.*

One can differentiate a loan word from the original native word by its phonetic form and lexical meaning. For example, the sound **ф** is not inherent for the Ukrainian language. All the Ukrainian words containing this sound are borrowed from Greek or Latin: *фізика, фігура, фокус, фея, факт.* The words Turkic by origin are characterized by the presence of several sound **а** in their phonetic structure: *сарай, базар, баклажан, байрак, кабан, сазан, чабан, барабан.*

The initial sound *a* is characteristic for the borrowed words, Arabic in particular: (*алгебра, алкоголь*), Latin: (*аудиторія, абітурієнт, ангіна*), Greek: (*алфавіт, автор, архів, азот, афоризм, анемія, автономія*).

Greek borrowings contain the combination of letters *ps, x, sk*: (*психологія, ксерокс, скелет*), root parts: *biblio-, geo-, bio-, log-, fon-* (*бібліотека, геологія, біологія, філолог, фонетика*). Such borrowings are mostly terms used in different spheres of social and scientific life: *демократія, космос, ідея, метод, аналіз, історія, граматики, діалог*.

French borrowings enter the Ukrainian language mostly through the Russian language of the 18-th and especially of the 19-th century: *політика, кур'єр, балет, режисер, роль, романс, абажур, магазин, пальто, люстра*. Other borrowings from French are: *бульйон, ампула, пляж, кутюр'є, годе*.

One can differentiate two ways of borrowing a word from one language into another.

They are: penetrating through the oral speech and through the written language. The first way of penetrating is characterized by a radical adjustment of the borrowed word to the language environment into which it is borrowed. Sometimes the lexical meaning of the borrowed word is distorted by the so called "people's etymology". The range of such borrowings is very wide: along with cultural notions it includes words denoting household activities and swearing words. The oldest borrowings in the Ukrainian language are those which were borrowed in the Old Slavonic period of its development. That is why such borrowings can be found in almost all the Slavonic languages. They can be traced to Old Germanic. Among oral borrowings are those which were borrowed into Ukrainian from Turkic ones or via these languages.

Words which are borrowed from literally sources are characterized by corresponding emotional colouring. They tend to become international words and can be widely spread in many languages. The main source of lexical borrowings, which are connected

with the notions of West-European culture, science, law, politics is Latin both for Ukrainian and other European languages.

Some borrowings can be used as synonyms of native Ukrainian words: (*лінгвістика* — *мовознавство*, *мемуари* — *спогади*, *емоції* — *почуття*) but the sphere of their use and stylistic colouring can be different.

If the word does not look like a Ukrainian one, its form can help you understand its meaning. It is known that musical terms were borrowed from Italian: *анданте*, *акорд*, *композитор*, *піаніно*, *опера*, *соната*, *віолончель*, *соло*, *тріо*, names of articles of furniture, clothes, meals are borrowed from French: *пенсне*, *жабо*, *кашине*, *манжет*, *юре*, *рагу*. A lot words of French origin are still used in Ukrainian unassimilated: *бюро*, *купе*, *шасі*, *лото*, *манто*, *турне*, *гофре*.

During many centuries close contacts among all Slavonic languages led to penetrating words of these languages into one another. Many words of Ukrainian origine penetrated the Russian and Byelorussian languages. In written memorials of the 14-th –15-th centuries one can find words *брунатний*, *гай*, *тиждень*.

Ukrainian was a mediator source and a source of enrichment of the Russian language with foreign lexical units: *автор*, *гіми*, *натура*, *кромаль*, *метафора*, *фантазія*, *фігура*, *фортуна*.

One should not think that the process of borrowing is restricted by certain time limits, say Medieval times or Old Slavonic period. It is constantly taking place due to international contacts. With the appearance of global internet system the process of borrowing is going quicker, e.g.: *комп'ютер*, *файл*, *сервер*, *принтер*, *факс*, *модем*, *сканер*, *інтернет*, *рیمейк*. All these words were borrowed into Ukrainian within a couple of decades of the 20-th century and the process is still going on, adding new words to the bulk of the languages every time they come into contact.

1.2.2. ASSIMILATION OF BORROWINGS

Words when they migrate from one language into another adjust to the norms of the recipient language. They undergo certain changes which gradually erase their foreign features and finally they are

assimilated. Professor A. Nikolenko points out that **assimilation of a loan word** is used to denote a partial or total confirmation to the phonetic, graphic, morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic system. **Phonetic assimilation** comprises changes in stress and sound form. Sounds that were alien to the English language were fitted into it. The stress in borrowings is usually transferred to the first syllable. Phonetic adaptation is a very lasting process. If we compare the Norman borrowings (*table, plate, courage, chivalry*) that have long been present in the system of the English language and later Parisian borrowings (*regime, ballet, café, valise*) the latter still sound French, though some of them were borrowed as early as in the 15-th century. The degree of phonetic adaptation depends on the period of borrowing.

Grammatical adaptation of a loan word consists in a complete change of its grammatical paradigm (the system of grammatical forms peculiar to it as a part of speech). It is also a lasting process. So, the word *datum* of the period of English Renaissance has the plural *data, phenomenon-phenomena, criterion-criteria*, whereas the earlier Latin borrowings *cup, plum, street, wall* are fully assimilated.

By **semantic assimilation** is meant an adjustment to the system of meanings of the vocabulary. Borrowings are usually caused either by the necessity to fill the gap in the vocabulary or to add a synonym conveying a new shade of meaning. Yet, the process of borrowing is not always so logical clear and purposeful and efficient as it might seem. Sometimes the word may be borrowed without any obvious reason. Quite a number of such borrowings are soon rejected by the language and forgotten. But there are others which manage to take root by semantic adaptation. So, the word *large* was borrowed from French in the meaning of “wide”. Then it entered another synonymic group with the meaning of “having vast horizontal dimensions”. Now it is used in the meaning of “big in size”. The adjective “nice” was borrowed from French with the meaning of “silly”. The English change of meaning started with phrase “*a nice distinction*”, that is, a very small distinction, then precise, then nice as we know it.

The process of **semantic assimilation** has many forms:

1. Narrowing the meaning (poly-semantic words are borrowed in one of their meanings).
2. Specialization of generalization of meaning.
3. Acquiring new meanings in the recipient language.
4. Shifting the primary meaning to the position of the secondary meaning.

The degree of assimilation depends upon the length of the period the word has been used by the receiving language, upon its importance for communication process and its frequency. Oral borrowings due to personal contacts are assimilated more completely and more rapidly, than literary borrowings.

According to the degree of assimilation borrowings fall into such groups: **a) completely assimilated loan words; b) partially assimilated loan words, c) unassimilated loan words.** The group of partially assimilated word may be subdivided according to the aspect that remains unaltered: spelling, pronunciation, morphology, denotation (when the word demotes some specific realia).

Completely assimilated loan words in English can be found in all layers of borrowings: **the 1-st layer of Latin borrowings:** *cheese, wine*; **Scandinavian loan words:** *husband, fellow, gate; call, die, like, take; happy, ill, odd, wrong*; **French loan words** are: *chair, table, face, figure, finish, matter*. **Latin loans of the revival period** are: *animal, article*. The number of completely assimilated words is much greater than partially assimilated ones. They follow the phonetic, syntactic, morphological standards of the recipient language. Being frequent in use and stylistically neutral, they are often found as the dominant words in the synonymic groups. They take an active part in word formation. Their morphological structure and motivation remain transparent and they supply the English language with bound forms as affixes are easily recognized and separated. For example, the French suffixes *-ment, -ance, -age* and the English modification of French *-esse, -fier* provide speech material to produce speech hybrids such as *shortage, goddess* etc. The free forms are readily combined with native affixes, e.g.: *pained, painful, painless*. These words are formed from *pain* Fr. *peine* – Latin *pvena* – Gr. “*poine*”, meaning “*penalty*” (Rus. *пеня*).

Completely assimilated loan words are indistiguished phonetically. A loan word never brings into the receiving language the whole of its semantic structure if it is polysemantic in its original language.

Partially assimilated loan words can be subdivided into 4 subgroups:

1). Loan words not assimilated semantically because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they come. For example: clothing (*mantilla, sombrero*); titles and professions (*shah, rajah, toreador, bei*); vehicles (rickshaw); food and drinks (*pilaw, sherbet*); currency (*euro, rupee, rouble*).

2). Loan word not assimilated grammatically for example, nouns borrowed from Greek and Latin: *bacillus-bacilli; crisis-crisis, formula-formulae, index-indices, phenomenon-phenomena*. Some of these words take also English plural forms. There can be a difference in meaning.

3). Loan words not completely assimilated phonetically. Some of the French words borrowed after 1650 keep accent on the final syllable: *machine, cartoon, police*. Others, alongside with peculiarities in stress, contain sounds or combinations of sounds that are not standard for the English or Ukrainian languages: *bourgeois, camouflage, prestige, sabotage, regime, memoir, mélange*. In some cases it is not the sounds but the whole patterns of the world's phonetic make-up that is different from the rest of the vocabulary, as in some of the Italian and Spanish borrowings: *confetti, incognito, macaroni, spaghetti, sonata, opera, soprano, tomato, tobacco*.

The pronunciation of the words where the process of assimilation is phonetically incomplete may vary: foyer and boulevard.

4). Loan words not completely assimilated graphically. This group is very large and variegated. There are word borrowed from French in which the last sound is not pronounced: *ballet, buffet, corps*. Some keep the diacritic mark: *café, cliché*. Specifically French digraphs (*ch, qu, ou*) may be retained in spelling. In the Ukrainian language most of the words of this group are assimilated: *в бйфети, нїд час балетної вистави*.

The 3-d group of borrowings comprises the so-called **barbarisms**, i.e. word from other languages which are used in English or Ukrainian but not assimilated in any way: *chiao, coup d'Etat, at libitum (at pleasure), N.B., P.S.*

The incompleteness of assimilation results in some specific features which permit us to judge of the origin of words: Latin, Greek, French. They may serve as formal indicators of loan words.

Both English and Ukrainian have a common Indo-European origin and a part of the vocabulary coincides. Both have suffered a deep influence of a language of another nation. Russian words of the Soviet period entered the Ukrainian language very aggressively. It happened because the origin of these languages is close and such likeness made the process of penetration easier. The process of integration of different languages is natural. In the Ukrainian language there are a lot of “legal” borrowings from Russian, Polish, German and other European languages. It is considered that about 10-30% of the Ukrainian language are loan words.

Partially assimilated words in the Ukrainian language have little phonetic difference from the original ones except the stress. Most of them still preserve the stress of the original language, e.g.: *кіно, село*. They may have grammatical peculiarities: *метро, галіфе, портмоне, парвеню*. The borrowings can have some restrictions in word-building. It is very difficult if not impossible to form any derivative from the words: *хакі, от кутюр, прет-а-порте, бюро, вестибюль*, but some others provide good opportunities for word-building: *бордо – бордовий, темно-бордовий, карбюратор-карбюраторний*. Some borrowed words preserve phonetic peculiarities, they keep the letter “ю” after *в, н, б*, which is not characteristic of the Ukrainian language (see the words above).

Some partially assimilated words suffer restrictions of case endings forming, e.g.: *ноу-хау, рандеву, джакузі*.

Some words have developed a specific plural form: *чіпси, джинси, памперси*.

There is a group of words that have been borrowed from English and partially assimilated in the Ukrainian language. They do not belong

to the native English wordstock and preserve the traces of their foreign origin, e.g.: *terrace* (Portugese), *banana* (via Spanish from African languages), *chocolate*, *cocoa* (via Spanish from the language of Red Indians living in Central America). *Khaki* comes from Urdu, *ikebana*, *judo*, *karaoke* from Japanese.

A special group of borrowing constitutes terminological formations made from morphemes of Latin and Greek origin. They are used in all spheres of culture, science, politics. Their peculiarity is that there were no such words in the Greek or Latin languages: *телефон*, *організація*, *інаугурація*, *консиліум*.

Among international words and borrowings from the English to the Ukrainian language there is a group of words which have a number of meanings and have been borrowed into the Ukrainian language only in one of them. The rest ones differ in the contrasted languages and thus may cause difficulties in the process of translation. E.g.: *idiom* means *ідіома* in the Ukrainian language but in English it means both *style* and *speech*. Such pseudo-international words that coincide in one meaning and differ in the other one are: *construction*, *address*, *operation*, *stress*, *technical*, *concern* etc. There are words that completely differ in their meaning in the contrasted languages: *accurate*, *academic*, *technique*, *familiar*, *faculty*, *scholar*, *intelligence*, *composition*, *figure*, *data*, *order*.

1.3. ETYMOLOGICAL DOUBLETS

A pair of words originating from the same etymological source, but different in phonemic shape and meaning are called **etymological doublets**. The words *shirt* and *skirt* etymologically originated from the same root. *Shirt* is a native word, and *skirt* is a Scandinavian borrowing. And still there is a certain resemblance which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated; they both denote articles of clothes. Etymological doublets enter the language by different routes. Some of the pairs consist of a native and a borrowed words. Others are represented by two borrowings from different languages which are historically descended from the same root: *senior* (Lat.)-*sir* (Fr.); *canal* (Lat.) – *channel* (Fr.). Still others are borrowed from the same language twice, but in different period: *corpse*

(Norm.Fr.) - corps (Par. Fr.); travel (Norm. Fr.) – travail (Par. Fr.). The Latin word *discus* is the origin of a whole group of doublets: dais - (ME deis) - OE deis - Lat. discus- ME dish- OE disc- Lat. discus. Other doublets that for the most part justify their names by coming in pairs show in their various ways the influence of the language or dialect systems which they passed before entering the English vocabulary.

Compare words borrowed in Middle English from Parisian French: *chase*, *chattels*, *guard* with their doublets of Norman French origin: *catch*, *captain*, *ward*.

Etymological triplets (groups of three words of common root) occur rarer: hospital (Lat.) - hostel (Norm. Fr.) - hotel (Par. Fr.). A doublet may consist of a shortened word and the one from which it was derived: *history-story*, *fantasy-fancy*, *fanatic-fan*, *defence-fence*, *shadow-shade*.

In Ukrainin one may find among the others the following doublets: *вензель-вузол*, *армія-армада*, *волють-влада*, *дом-дим*, *губити-гинути*, *глухий-глумитися-глузд*, *земля-змій*, *вечір-вітер*, *каварня-кав'ярня*, *адекватний-екватор*, *ацетон-оцет*, *гіацинт-яхонт*, *госпиталь-отель*, *декан-десятник*, *проспект-спектакль*, *пост-пошта*, *губернатор-кібернетика*, *капелюх-кашкет*, *печаль-пекти*, *преса-сперма*, *майор-мажор*, *вікно-око*, *хист-хитрий*, *олівець-олово* etc. Let's consider the words *губернатор* and *кібернетика*. In ancient times the Greek word *кібернетик* meant the captain of a ship, later it was applied to naming any person who had the right to command or rule and later on it began to be used to name the person who is at the head of a region or district, that is “*governor*”. So, due to the shift of the meaning in the course of the language development the word has acquired one more, additional meaning, and is widely used in it, while its original meaning was forgotten.

1.4. INTERNATIONAL WORDS

Expanding global contacts result in the considerable growth of international vocabulary. All languages depend upon the cultural and social matrix in which they operate and various contacts between nations are part of this matrix reflected in vocabulary. It is often the

case that a word is borrowed by several languages. Words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source are called **international words**.

Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication (Fr. *telephone, organization, industrialization, consilium*).

International words play an especially prominent part in various terminological systems including the vocabulary of science, industry and art. Many of them are of Greek and Latin origin.

Most names of sciences are international: *philosophy, physics, mathematics, chemistry, biology, lexicology*. There are also a number of arts of the same origin: *music, opera, drama, comedy, artist, philharmonics, prima-donna*.

The etymological sources of this vocabulary reflect the history of world culture. For example, the mankind's debt to Italy is reflected in the number of Italian words connected with architecture, painting and especially music borrowed into most European languages: *allegro, aria, arioso, barcarole, baritone, concert, duet, piano*. It is quite natural that political terms often occur in the group of international words: *policies, policy, revolution, democracy, communism, militarism*.

The 20-th century scientific and technological advances brought a great number of new international words: *atomic, antibiotic, radio, television, sputnik*. The rate of change in technology, political, social and artistic life has been greatly accelerated in the last decade and so has the rate of growth of international wordstock. A few examples of comparatively new words due to the progress of science will suffice to illustrate the importance of international vocabulary: *algorithm, antenna, microelectronics, microminiaturization, quasar, ribosome, cybernatics, entropy, gene, genetic code, graph, pulsar*. All these show sufficient likeness in English, French, Russian, Ukrainian and several other languages. The international wordstock is also growing due to the influx of exotic borrowed words like *anaconda, bungalow, kraal, orang-outang, sari*.

The English vocabulary penetrates into other languages. We find numerous English words in the field of sport: *football, out, match, tennis, volley-ball, basketball, cricket, golf, time* in Ukrainian and other Slavonic languages. A large number of English words are to be found in the vocabulary pertaining to clothes: *jersey, pull-over, sweater, tweed*. Cinema and different types of entertainment are a source of many international words of English origin: *film, jazz, cocktail, club*.

At least some of Russian words are borrowed onto English and other languages: *balalaika, sputnik, valenki, Bolshevik, mammoth, soviet, cosmonaut, Kremlin, vodka*.

Food and fruit imported from exotic countries become international: *avocado, coca-cola, banana, grapefruit, chocolate, cocoa, mango, coffee*.

It is important to note that international words are not borrowings. The outward similarity of the English word *son*, the German *Sohn* and Russian *сын* and Ukrainian *син* should not lead one to the quite false conclusion that they are international words. They represent the Indo-European group of the native element in each representative language and are cognates (words of the same etymological roots), not borrowings.

To conclude, one should bear in mind that sources of borrowings are different in the contrasted languages, though there is a layer of words of common Indo-European origin

Problems for revision:

1. What is contrastive lexicology?
2. What is the place of contrastive lexicology in linguistics?
3. What methods of analysis are used in contrastive lexicology?
1. What are the two approaches to the history of the Ukrainian language?
2. What are the main stages of the English language development?
3. What are the main sources of borrowings in Ukrainian?
4. What are the main sources of borrowings in English?
5. What types of assimilation are there?
6. What degrees of assimilation are there?

7. What are etymological doublets?
8. What are pseudo-international words?
9. Are there any words of common origin in the lexicons of the contrasted languages?
10. What are international words?

2. WORD-FORMATION

2.1. THE MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF A WORD

Word formation is the creation of new words from elements already existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of word formation. L. Bloomfield gives such a definition of a word: "A word is the smallest free form". Modern science states that the word is not the smallest unit of the language. It consists of morphemes. The term "morpheme" is derived from Greek "morphe" "form" and "eme". The Greek suffix "eme" was adopted by linguists to denote the smallest significant or distinctive unit.

The morpheme may be defined as the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning and which occurs in speech only as a part of a word. In other words, a morpheme is an association of a given meaning and a given sound pattern. But unlike the word it is not autonomous. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of a single morpheme. They are not divisible into smaller meaningful units. That's why a morpheme may be defined as the minimum meaningful language unit.

A morpheme can be either free or bound. **A form** is said to be free if it may stand alone without changing its meaning. If not, it is a **bound form** (called so because it is bound to something else). For example: if we compare the words *sportive* and *elegant*, we see that *sport*, *sportive* and *elegant* may occur alone as utterances, whereas *eleg-*, *-tive*, *-ant* are bound forms because they never occur alone.

According to the role they play in constructing words, **morphemes are subdivided into roots and affixes.** The latter are subdivided according to their position into **prefixes, suffixes and**

infixes. According to their function and meaning they are divided into **derivational and functional affixes**, the latter also called **endings** or outer formatives.

The root morpheme is the lexical centre of the word. It is the semantic nucleus of the word with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected. The root may be also regarded as the ultimate constituent element which remains after removing of all functional and derivational affixes and does not admit any further analysis. It is the common element of words within a word family. Thus, *-heart-* is the common root of the following series of words: *heart, heartily, dishearten, heart-broken, kind-hearted, whole-heartedly, sweetheart, hearten*. In some of them there is only one root (*heart, heartedly, heartily*); the root *-heart-* in others is combined with some other root, thus forming a compound like *sweetheart*.

The root word (*heart*) is **unsegmentable**, i.e., it is non-motivated morphologically. The morphemic structure of all the rest words in this word-family is obvious – they are segmentable as consisting of at least two distinct morphemes. They can be further subdivided into:

1). Those formed by affixation or affixational derivatives consisting of a root morpheme and one or more affixes: *hearted, dishearten*;

2). Compounds or compound words containing at least two root morphemes: *sweetheart, warehouse, camera-man*;

3). Derivational compounds where words of a phrase are joined together by composition and affixation: *kind-hearted, whole-heartedly*. This last process is also called phrasal derivation (*kind+heart+ed*).

Monomorphemic are **root-words consisting of only one root-morpheme** i.e. simple words: *dry, boss, grow, sell*.

Polymorphemic are **words consisting of at least one root-morpheme and a number of derivational affixes**: *customer, lady-bird, body-building, shipping*.

Derived words are those consisting of a **root-morpheme and one more derivational morpheme**: *consignment, publicity, outgoing*.

Stem is that part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm and to which grammatical inflexions and

affixes are added. The stem expresses the lexical and the part of speech meaning. For the word *hearty* and for the paradigm *heart* (sing.) – *hearts* (pl.) the stem is *heart-*. This stem is a single morpheme, it contains nothing but the root, so it is a **simple stem**. It is also a free stem because it is homonymous to the word *heart*. The stem of the paradigm *hearty-heartier- the heartiest* is *hearty*. It is a free stem, but as it consists of a root morpheme and an affix, it is not simple, but derived. Thus, a stem containing one or more affixes is a derived stem. If after deducting the affix the remaining stem is not homonymous to a separate word of the same root, we call it a bound stem. Thus, in the word *cordial* – proceeding as if from the heart, the adjective-forming suffix can be separated on the analogy with such words as *bronchial, radial, social*. The remaining stem, however, cannot form a word by itself, it is bound. In *cordially*, on the other hand, the derived stem *cordial* is free.

Bound stems are especially characteristic of loan words. The point may be illustrated by the following French borrowings: *arrogance, charity, courage, coward, distort, involve, notion, legible, tolerable*. After the affixes of these words are taken away the remaining elements are *arrog-, char-, cour-, cow-, -tort, -volve, not-, leg-, toler-*, which do not coincide with any semantically related independent words. In English word stems and roots often coincide.

Affixational morphemes include inflections and derivational affixes. Derivational morphemes can be in English and Ukrainian either suffixes or prefixes. The number of suffixes in the contrasted languages considerably exceeds the number of prefixes.

Inflection is an affixal morpheme which carries only grammatical meaning thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms: *book-s, open-ed, strong-er*.

Derivational morpheme is an affixal morpheme which modifies the lexical meaning of the root and forms a new word. In many cases it adds the part-of-speech meaning to the root: *manage-ment, en-courage, fruit-ful*.

Morphemes which may occur in isolation and function as independent words are called **free morphemes** (*sun, pay, farm*).

Morphemes which are not found independently are called bound morphemes (*-er, un-, -less*). The segmentation of words is usually carried out according to the method of **Immediate and Ultimate Constituents**. This method is based upon the binary principle: each stage or procedure contains two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these components are referred to as the **Immediate Constituents (IC)**. Each IC at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents that are incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to as **Ultimate Constituents (UC)**. The analysis of word structure on the morphemic level must naturally proceed to the stage of UCs.

An **allomorph** is defined as a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment and so characterized by complementary distribution. **Complementary distribution** takes place when two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment. For example, stems ending in consonants as a rule take *-ation* (*liberation*), stems ending in *pt*, however, take *-tion* (*corruption*) and final *t* becomes fused with the suffix.

The term “**Allomorph**” comes from Greek *allos* meaning “*other*”. It is used in linguistics to denote elements of a group whose members together constitute a structural unit of the language (allophones, allomorphs). For example, such forms as *-tion, -sion, -tion, -ion* are allomorphs (positional variants of the same suffix). They do not differ in meaning or function but show a slight difference in sound form depending on the final phoneme of the preceding stem. They are considered as variants of one and the same morpheme and are called allomorphs.

Different morphemes are characterized by **contrastive distribution**, i.e., if they occur in the same environment, they signal different meanings. The suffixes *-able* and *-ed*, for instance, are different morphemes, not allomorphs, because adjectives with *-able* mean “*capable of being measured*”, whereas *-ed* as a suffix of adjectives has a resultant force: “*measured*” – “*marked by due proportions*”, as “*the measured beauty of classical Greek art*”.

Allomorphs will also occur among prefixes. Their form then depends on the initial sound of the stem with which they will assimilate. A prefix such as *-im* occurs before bilabials (*impossible*), its allomorph *i-r* occurs before *r* (*irregular*), *il-* before the letter *l* (*illegal*). It is *in-* before all other consonants and vowels (*indirect, inability*).

Two or more sound forms of a stem existing under conditions of complementary distribution may also be regarded as allomorphs, as, for example, in *long* adj.>*length* n.

Allomorphs are phonetically conditioned positional variants of the same derivation or functional morpheme (suffix, root or prefix) identical in meaning and function and differing in sound form only inasmuch as their complementary distribution produces various phonetic assimilation effects.

2.2. PRODUCTIVE AND NON-PRODUCTIVE WAYS OF WORD FORMATION

Productivity is the ability to form new words after existing patterns which are readily understood by the speakers of the language. The most important and the most productive ways of word-formation are **affixation, conversion, word-composition** and **abbreviation**. In the course of time the productivity of this or that way of word-formation may change. **Sound interchange** or **gradation** (*blood-to bleed, to strike-stroke*) was a productive way of word building in Old English and is important for a diachronic study of the English language. It has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new word can be formed by means of sound interchange. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of word building in Modern English.

The principal ways of word-formation in the contrasted languages are common. They are: 1) morphological; 2) morphologico-syntactic; 3) lexico-semantic; 4) lexico-syntactic.

The most productive of them in Ukrainian is the morphological way which is realized with the help of the following means: affixation, compounding, and non-affixal word formation. Affixal morphemes are

used to form the same parts of speech: nouns, adjectives, numerals, verbs.

The widespread development of homonymy and polysemy, the loss of motivation, the great number of generic words and the very limited autonomy of English words as compared with Ukrainian words are all closely connected with the monomorphemic analytical character of the English language and the scarcity of morphological means.

2.3. AFFIXATION. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF AFFIXES.

The process of affixation consists of coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morpheme. Affixal or derivational word-formation in both languages includes: a) suffixal word-formation; b) prefixal word-formation; c) combined (suffixal and preffixal) word-formation.

Suffixation is a more productive way of word-formation as prefixation. In Modern English and Ukrainian suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while prefixation is typical of verb formation. (*income, principal, promotion, development, increase, trainee, дівчинонька, сонечко, узбережжя, поїсти, натисати*). From the etymological point of view affixes are classified into the same two large groups: native and borrowed. It would be wrong, though, to think that affixes are borrowed for the same reason and in the same way as words. The term borrowed affixes is not very exact as affixes are never borrowed as such, but only as parts of loan words. To enter the morphological system of a language a borrowed affix has to meet certain conditions. **The borrowing of the affixes is possible only if the number of words containing this affix is considerable, if its meaning and function are definite and clear enough, and also its structural pattern corresponds to the structural patterns already existing in the language.**

If these conditions are met, the foreign affix may even become productive and combine with the native stems or borrowed stems within the system of English vocabulary like *-able* (*Lat. abilis*) in such word as *laughable or unforgettable, unforgivable*. The English word

balustrade, brigade, cascade are borrowed from French. On the analogy with these the English words as *blockade* are coined. Affixes are usually divided into **living and dead**. Living affixes are easily recognized and separated from the stem (*care-ful*), dead affixes become fully merged with the stem and can be singled out by a diachronic analysis of the development of the word: *admit-Lat. ad+mittere*.

Affixes can also be classified into **productive** and **non-productive ones**. By productive affixes we mean the affixes, which take part in deriving new words in this particular period of language development. The best way to identify productive affixes is to look for them among neologisms and so-called **nonce-words**, i.e. words coined and used only for this particular occasion. The latter are usually formed on the level of living speech and reflect the most productive patterns in word-building: unputdownable thrill; I don't like Sundays. I feel so Mondayish; Professor Pringle was a thinnish, boldish, dispeptic-lookingish cove with an eye like a haddock (From *Right-Ho, Jeeves* by P. G. Wodehouse).

In many cases the choice of the affixes is a means of differentiating meaning: *disinterested* – *uninterested*; *distrust* – *mistrust*.

One should not confuse the productivity of affixes with their frequency of occurrence. There are quite a number of high-frequency affixes which, nevertheless, are no longer used in word-derivation (e.g. the adjective-forming native suffixes *-ful, -ly*; the adjective-forming suffixes of Latin origin *-ant, -ent, -al* which are quite frequent). Unlike roots, affixes are always bound forms. The difference between suffixes and prefixes is not confined to their respective position, suffixes being “fixed after and prefixes before the stem”. It also concerns their function and meaning.

A suffix is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class. Cf.: *-en, -y, -less* in *hearten, hearty, heartless*. When both the underlying and the resultant forms belong to the same part of speech, the suffix serves to differentiate between the lexico-grammatical classes by rendering some very general lexico-grammatical

meaning. For instance, the suffixes *-ify* and *-er* are verbal suffixes, but the first characterizes causative verbs, such as *horrify*, *purify*, *simplify*, *rarefy*; whereas the second is mostly typical of frequentative verbs: *flicker*, *shimmer*, *twitter* and the like.

If we realize that suffixes render the most general class of phenomena to which the referent of the words belongs, the reason why suffixes are as a rule semantically fused with the stem stands explained.

A prefix is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning, cf.: *hearten-dishearten*. It is only with verbs and stative verbs that a prefix may serve to distinguish one part of speech from another, like: *sleep-asleep* (stative). It is interesting that a prefix *en-* may carry the same meaning of being of bringing into a certain state as the suffix *-en*: *enable*, *encamp*, *endanger*, *endear*, *enslave* and *fasten*, *deepen*, *lengthen*, *strengthen*.

Preceding a verb stem, some prefixes express the difference between transitive and intransitive verbs: *stay* (v) and *outstay* (v.t). With a few exceptions prefixes modify the stem for time: (*pre-*, *post-*) place (*in-*, *ad-*) or negation (*un-*, *dis-*) and remain semantically rather independent of the stem.

An infix is an affix placed within the word, like *-n-* in *stand*. The type is not productive.

An affix should not be confused with a combining form. A combining form is also a bound form but it can be distinguished from an affix historically by the fact that it is always borrowed from another language, namely, from Latin or Greek, in which it existed as a free form, i.e., a separate word, or also as a combining form. They differ from all other borrowings in that they occur in compounds and derivatives that did not exist in their original language but were formed only in modern times in English, Russian, French etc. Cf.: *television*, *telemechanics*, *stereophonic*, *polymer*, *polychlinic*. Combining forms are mostly international. Descriptively a combining form differs from an affix, because it can occur as one constituent of a form whose only other constituent is an affix, as in *graphic*, *cycle*.

Also affixes are characterized either by preposition with respect to the root (prefixes) or by postpositions (suffixes), whereas the same

combining form may occur in both positions, Cf.: *telegraph, phonology, microphone, phonograph*.

2.3.1. SEMANTICS OF AFFIXES

Meanings of affixes are specific and considerably differ from those of root morphemes. Affixes have widely generalized meanings and refer the concept conveyed by the whole word to a certain category, which is vast and all-embracing. So, the noun-forming suffix *-er* could be roughly defined as designating persons from the object of their occupation or labour (*painter- the one who paints*) or from their place of origin or abode (*southerner-the one living in the South*). Some words with this suffix have no equivalents in Ukrainian and may be rendered in descriptive way:

The sheriff might have been a slow talker, but he was a fast mover (Irish). Можливо шериф і говорив повільно, але рухався він швидко.

I'm not a talker, boys, talking's not what I do, but I want you to know that this is not... (King). Я не дуже балакучий...

Michael is a great breaker of hearts. I do hope you won't let him break yours. (Howard)

Майкл добре вміє розбивати серця.

He looked back at the whisperers as if he wanted to say something to them but thought better of it.

Він озирнувся на тих, хто шепотілися, ніби хотів щось сказати, але передумав.

According to I. Korunets, the number of suffixes in English does not exceed 100, among them 60 noun-forming, 26 adjective-forming, 5 verb-forming 3 adverb-forming. Among the noun-forming suffixes in English there are: **-acy, -ance, -ion, -dom, -er, -ess, -hood, -ics, -ism, -ity, -ment, -ness, -ship** etc. Adjective indicating suffixes are: **-able, -al, -fold, -ful, -ic, -ile, -ish, -less, -ous, -some, -ward, -y** etc. Verb indicating suffixes are: **-ate, -en, -esce, -ify, -ize**; adverb forming suffixes are: **-ly, -wards, -ways**.

Ukrainian word-forming suffixes are more numerous and also more diverse in their nature, there being special suffixes to identify

different genders of nouns missing in English. The masculine gender suffixes of nouns in Ukrainian are: **-ник, -івник, -ч, -ільник, -ік/- ік, -ець/-єць, -ар/-яр, -ир, -ист, -іст, -тель, -аль**: *медик, колгоспник, рахівник, шахтар, кравець, керманіч, хімік, босець, прозаїк, бригадир, діяч, окуліст, вихователь, скрипаль*.

Suffixes of feminine gender usually follow the masculine gender suffix in the noun stem, the most frequent are: **-к/а, -иц/я, -ес/а, -ух/а, -ш/а, -івн/а** etc. Cf.: *виховат-ель-к-а, рад-ист-к-а, спів-ач-к-а, учен-иц-я, ткач-их-а, поет-ес-а*.

The corresponding English suffixes (**-or, -ess, -ine, -rix, -ette**) identify the masculine and feminine sex: *actor-actress; emperor-emperatrix; hero-heroine; poet-poetess*.

Ukrainian suffixes can form nouns of feminine gender denoting non-human beings – animals, birds, insects, as well as some class nouns, abstract and collective nouns: *сніг-ур-к-а, переп-іл-к-а, рід-н-я, біг-ан-ин-а, бороть-б-а, спирт-н-ість, свіж-ин-а*.

Suffixes of neutral gender are mostly used in Ukrainian to identify abstract and collective nouns, names of materials, as in the following examples: *жіно-цтв-о, учи-тель-ств-о, не-роб-ств-о, сміт-т-я, бади-лл-я, кло-чч-я, аел-ін-н-я, гор-ін-н-я*.

Among the noun-forming suffixes there also are:

a) agent suffixes (суфікси, що означають діяча): **-ist (-ист)** *analyst, journalist, артист, тракторист, журналіст; артист*, b) – **ant /-ent (-ант, -ент)** *servant, student, solvent, комерсант, лаборант, кореспондент*; c) **-ar (-ар-, -яр)** *burglar, scholar, байкар, муляр, зброяр*; **-er/or (-ер, -ор)** *teacher, farmer, actor, директор, інспектор, інженер, актор*; **-ier/yer (-ир)** *cashier, employer, lawyer, бригадир, командир, поводитир*; **-eer (-ер, -ір)** *auctioneer, profiteer, аукціонер, колекціонер, міліціонер, землемір*.

b) suffixes denoting the recipient of action which are few in number and pertaining to English only: **-ee** *employee, examinee, referee, refugee*.

c) suffixes denoting abstract notions: **-ing (-н/а/)**: *clothing, meeting, wedding, вбрання, зібрання, одруження*; **-ism (-ізм)** *barbarism, despotism, feudalism, колоквіалізм, феодалізм, варваризм*,

деспотизм; **-ness (-m/a)** darkness, goodness, доброта, темнота, сліпота; **-tion (-ац/ія/)** corruption, generation, корупція, сигналізація; **-dom (-ств/о/цтв/о)** beggardom, butlerdom, officialdom, newspaperdom, жіноцтво, учительство, газетярство, сусідство; **-hood (-ств/о)** citizenship, brotherhood, громадянство, братерство, відвство.

Other noun-forming suffixes designating the same semantic field both in English and Ukrainian are given in table 1.

Table 1.

English	Ukrainian
-er teacher, banker, thinker, worker, miner, dancer, leader, producer, widower, observer, programmer	-ар шахтар, лікар -ір/ир/ар/ер банкір, санітар, лідер, офіцер, диктатор -тель учитель, мислитель -ник/ик працівник, засновник, радник, власник, відмінник, грабіжник, робітник
-ar/or liar, proprietor, vendor, ambassador, dictator	-ій водій, тюхтій -ун брехун, товстун -ець українець, підприємець
-ant/ent participant, student, claimant	-ач споживач, відповідач -ак співак, мастак
-ist philologist, scientist	-іст машиніст, програміст -ант/-ент практикант, музикант, студент, кореспондент, дилетант
-ee detainee, employee	-ака тисака, зівака -ан критикан
-ess actress, stewardess, lioness	-ло брехло, базікало -нь учень, злидень, здоровань
-an/ian vegetarian, politician	-ша лівша -ля, -еса, -ка, -иця праля, ткаля, поетеса, актриса, практикантка, провідниця
-ette usherette, suffragette	-ин молдаванин, грузин -як сибіряк, свояк
-ite Muscovite, laborite	-ит одесит, сибарит, бандит

d) Evaluating suffixes (оцінні суфікси) are of two types: diminutive (16 in English, only 4 of which are productive) and augmentative (збільшувальні).

Diminutive suffixes are: **-et/ -ette**: *eaglet, kitchenette*, **-let**: *kinglet, ringlet*; **-y/-ie, ey**: *dotty, sissy*; **-ling**: *duckling, princeling*; **-kin**: *ladikin, lordkin*; **-el/-le**: *morsel*; **-cule**: *corpuscule, monticule*; **-een**: *velveteen*; **-ock**: *hillock*; **-ing**: *lording*; **-ee**: *bootee*.

The evaluative suffix **-ard** has a negative meaning in English, e.g.: *bastard, drunkard, dullard*.

The number of diminutive noun-forming suffixes in Ukrainian is 53, and also there exist adjective-forming, pronoun-forming, numeral-forming, adverb-forming, verb-forming and even interjection-forming diminutive suffixes in Ukrainian: **-атк/ятк**: *дівчатко, курчатко*; **-ик**: *дубик, носик*; **-ок**: *дубок, синок*; **-ечок**: *батіжечок, стіжечок*; **-ечк/а**: *свічечка, річечка*; **-ичк/а**: *сестричка, ягничка*; **-оньк/а**: *дівчинонька*.

Ukrainian words of this type may be diminutive, caressing or coarsened variations: **-ньк-, -ець-, -чк-, -езн-, -ил-** etc.: *зіронька, донечка, здоровило, кияночка, шахтарочка, вітерець, малесенький, здоровенний, дівуля, дівчисько, дівчинонька, дівчинка, дівка, дідуган, волоцюга, шоферюга, ледацюга*.

The correlation of the other noun-forming suffixes are given in table 2.

Table 2.

English	Ukrainian
-ion <i>explanation, probation, rotation</i>	-ота <i>доброта, скорбота, біднота</i>
-ment <i>unemployment, movement, appointment, enjoyment</i>	-ина <i>ширина, данина, довжина</i>
-ence/-ance <i>experience, reassurance, entrance</i>	-ість <i>бідність, вагітність, убогість</i>
-ancy/-ency <i>valency, pregnancy</i>	-ство <i>свинство, товариство, малярство, дитинство</i>
-ness <i>happiness, willingness, kindness, tenderness</i>	-ання/-ення <i>призначення, сьогодення, світання, пояснення</i>
-ism <i>ynicism, criticism</i>	

-th <i>breadth, width</i>	-изм/-ізм <i>расизм, шовінізм</i>
-dom <i>kingdom, freedom</i>	-ція <i>ерудиція, апробація, агітація, симуляція</i>
-ship <i>friendship, statesmanship</i>	-(і)тя <i>безробіття, лихоліття, майбуття, шмаття</i>
-hood <i>childhood, likelihood</i>	
-ing <i>painting, building</i>	

All Ukrainian diminutive suffixes are productive, whereas in English only **-ie/ey**, **-y**, **-ette**, **-let**, **-ing** and **-kin** can be considered productive.

The augmentative suffixes in Ukrainian are: **-ань**: *бородань, мордань*; **-ач**: *бородач, носач*; **-ил**: *барилу, здоровило*; **-юр**: *собацюра, бицюра*; **-ищ**: *ручище, собачище*; **-яр**: *носяра, мисяра*.

e) Gender/ sex expressing suffixes of person are clearly distinct in both languages. They form in Ukrainian 3 groups: 1) masculine gender and sex expressing suffixes like **-ар/-яр** (*лікар, каменяр*); **-ист/іст** (*бандурист, комуніст*); **-тель** (*учитель, мучитель*); **-ач/-яч** (*викладач, споживач*); **-ант/-ент** (*студент, президент, музикант*); **-ій** (*водій, носій*); **-ин/ анин (-янин)** (*селянин, киянин*); 2) Feminine gender and sex expressing suffixes usually follow the masculine gender/sex expressing suffixes which are mostly followed by inflections: Cf.: **-к/а** *артистка, журналістка, учителька*; **-их/а** *ковалиха, кравчиха*; *громадянин-громадянка, англичанин-англичанка*.

Neuter gender/sex suffixes are common in Ukrainian. They form both abstract and concrete (life and lifeless) nouns, e.g.: **-ств-о/цтв-о**: *братерство, козацтво*; **-атк-о/ятк-о**: *звірятко, курчатко*; **-к-о**: *пушко*; **-ечк-о**: *ясчко*; **-ц-е**: *болітце, сальце*.

English gender/sex suffixes are only sex expressing, e.g.: *actor-actress, waiter-waitress, widow-widower, hero-heroine, lion-lioness, usher-usheress*. The suffixes **-er/or**, **-ess**, **-o**, and **-ine** clearly identify the objective gender of life nouns (the natural sex).

f) One more group consists of international suffixes which are of common nature (origin) and meaning in English and Ukrainian: **-er/ ер**: *carter, bulldozer/картер, бульдозер*; **-or**: *dictator, conductor/диктатор, кондуктор*; **-ist**: *specialist, socialist/спеціаліст, соціаліст*; **-ism**: *heroism, feudalism/героїзм, феодалізм*; -

ation/-ці-я: administration/ адміністрація; **-able/ -а-бельн-ий**
readable/читабельний.

Identical is the position/ distribution of suffixes in English and in Ukrainian words: they are added either to the root (teacher, sailor) or to the stem of the word (foolish+ly, friend+ly).

g) Many words in both languages are formed by means of zero affixes, which is very productive in English: *go, come, boy, they, soon, five, he, she*, and in Ukrainian: *світ, річ, ви, там, тут, два, три*.

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

N+Suf.=N *hostess, Liberian, grammarian, Londoner*

V+Suf.=N *reader, runner, painting, insistence*

Adj.+Suf.=N *freedom, hardship, softness, clearance*

Ad.+Suf.=N *earliness, slowness, wellness*

Adj.+Suf.=V *actualize, modernize, blacken*

N+Suf.=Adj. *glorious, earthy*

Adj.+Suf. =Adj. *bluish, reddish*

N+Suf.=Ad. *Southward, seaward,*

Adj.+Suf.=Ad. *Longwise, shortly*

Ad.+Suf.=Ad. *Onward, outward*

The adjective-forming suffix *-ful* has the meaning of “*full of*”, “characterized by” (*beautiful, careful*) whereas *-ish* may often imply insufficiency of quality (*greenish-green but not quite, youngish-not quite young, but, looking it*):

Although Polly was *twelvish*, a year younger, she did not seem it (Howard).

He felt a bit foolish saying such a thing – a little *auntieish* – but it was clear the guy needed reassurance (King).

Such examples might lead one to the somewhat hasty conclusion that the meaning of a derived word is always a sum of the meanings of its morphemes: *un/eat/able*=“not fit to eat” where *un-* stands for “*not*”, and *fit* for “*-able*”.

There are numerous derived words whose meanings can really be easily deduced from the meanings of their constituent parts. Yet, such

cases represent the first and the simplest stage of semantic readjustment within derived words. The constituent morphemes within derivatives do not always preserve their current meanings and are open to subtle and complicated semantic shifts.

Let us take at random some of the adjectives formed with the same productive suffix *-y*, and try to deduce the meaning of the suffix from their dictionary definitions:

brainy (inform.) – intelligent, intellectual, i.e. *characterized by brains*

catty – quietly or slyly malicious, spiteful, i.e. *characterized by features* ascribed to a cat

chatty – given to chat, *inclined* to chat

dressy (inform.) – showy in dress, i.e. *inclined* to dress well or to be overdressed

fishy – improbable, hard to believe (like stories told by fishermen)

foxy – foxlike, cunning or crafty, i.e. *characterized by features* ascribed to a fox

stagy – theatrical, unnatural, i.e. *inclined* to affection, to unnatural theatrical manners

touchy – apt to take offence on slight provocation, i.e. resenting a touch or contact (not at all *inclined* to be touched).

The Random-House Dictionary defines the meaning of the *-y* suffix as “characterized by or inclined to the substance or action of the root to which the affix is attached”. Yet, even the few given examples show that, on the one hand, there are cases, like *touchy* that are not covered by the definition. On the other hand, even those cases that are roughly covered, show a wide variety of subtle shades of meaning. It is not only the suffix that adds its own meaning to the meaning of the root, but the suffix is, in its turn, affected by the root and undergoes certain semantic changes, so that the mutual influence of root and affix creates a wide range of subtle nuances.

It is sufficient to examine further examples to see that other affixes also offer an interesting variety of semantic shades. Compare the

meaning of adjective-forming suffixes in each of the groups of adjectives:

- 1) *eatable* (good or fit for eating)
- lovable* (worthy of loving)
- questionable* (open to doubt, discussion)
- imaginable* (capable of being imagined);
- 2) *lovely* (charming, beautiful)
- lonely* (solitary, lone)
- 3) *friendly* (characteristic of or be fitting as a friend)
- heavenly* (resembling heaven, beautiful, splendid)
- 4) *childish* (resembling a child)
- tallish* (rather tall, but not quite)
- girlish* (like a girl, but not quite, in a bad imitation of one)
- bookish* (devoted to reading or study)

The semantic distinctions of words produced from the same root by means of different affixes are also of considerable interest, both for language studies and research work, cf.: *womanly-womanish*; *flowery-flowered-flowering*; *starry-starred*; *reddened-reddish*; *shortened-shortish*.

The semantic difference between the members of these groups is very obvious. The meanings of the suffixes are so distinct that they colour the whole words. *Flowery* is applied to a speech or style and means in Ukrainian “барвистий”; *flowered* means “decorated with a pattern of flowers”, in Ukrainian “квітчастий”; *flowering* is the same as blossoming, in Ukrainian “квітучий”.

Starry means “resembling stars” (e.g. starry eyes), and *starred* “covered with stars”. *Womanly* is used in a complimentary manner about girls and women, whereas *womanish* is used to indicate effeminate men and implies criticism.

Adjective-forming suffixes both in English and Ukrainian are given in the table below:

Table 3.

English	Ukrainian
-able/ible <i>probable, miserable, edible, perceptible</i>	-ов-ий випадковий, спадковий

-al <i>accidental, tribal</i> -ic <i>poetic, archaic, public</i> -ical <i>theoretical, political</i> -ant/-ent <i>pleasant, constant, different, insistent</i> -ate/-ete <i>separate, appropriate, complete</i> -ed/d <i>booked, hooked, married, bearded</i> -ful <i>shameful, beautiful, careful</i> -ish <i>English, childish</i> -ive <i>passive, destructive</i> -less <i>merciless, childless</i> -like <i>childlike, lifelike</i> -ly <i>manly, cowardly</i> -ous <i>glorious, nervous</i> -some <i>quarrelsome, tiresome</i> -y <i>moody, juicy</i>	-н-ий <i>їстівний, безпечний</i> -ич-н-ий <i>поетичний, епічний</i> -ат-ий/ ят-ий <i>бородатий, рогатий</i> -увати/-ювати- <i>дурнуватий, синюватий, вовчуватий</i> -ив- <i>мінливий, щасливий</i> -ив/ний <i>активний, прогресивний</i> -уч-ий <i>балакучий, сипучий</i> -ський/цький <i>панський, студентський</i>
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Suffixes forming the other parts of speech are given in table 4:

Table 4.

Numeral-forming suffixes	Verb-forming suffixes	Adverb-forming suffixes
-fold <i>twofold</i> -teen <i>fourteen</i> -th <i>seventh</i> -ty <i>sixty</i>	-ate <i>facilitate</i> -er <i>glimmer</i> -en <i>shorten</i> -fy/-ify <i>terrify,</i> <i>solidify</i> -ize <i>equalize</i> -ish <i>establish</i>	-ly <i>coldly</i> -ward/wards <i>upward,</i> <i>towards</i> -wise <i>likewise</i>

Prefixes in the contrasted languages modify the lexical meaning of the word. Prefixal morphemes also have their main features in common in the contrasted languages. They are both form-building and word-forming. In English, however, prefixes can form words of more parts of speech than in Ukrainian. E.g.: **statives** *a+sleep=asleep*; **verbs**: *bedew; hijack*; **adverbs**: *inside*, etc.

The structure of prefixal morphemes is common, though there are more single-sign prefixes in Ukrainian than in English (cf.: asleep, alike, but встати, внести, вдох, зліт, угору, схід).

All prefixes can be subdivided typologically into some groups:

1. International prefixes whose lingual form and meaning are identical in the contrasted languages. Their form-building capacities can be seen from the following models:

anti+Adj.=Adj.	antifascist, anti-British
anti+N=N	antifascist, antibody
counter+N=N	countermarch, counterplot
counter+V=V	counter-act, counter-attack
ex+N=N	ex-champion, ex-president
extra+Adj.=Adj.	extraordinary, extravagant
sub+N=N	submarine, subordination
sub+Adj.=Adj.	subtropical, subordinator

2. Prefixes having in the contrasted languages a semantic identity only (but no lingual similarity): *foresee-передбачити*, *extra-natural-надприродний*, *intra-artereal-внутрішньоартеріальний*, *non-party-безпартійний*, *pre-war-довоєнний*, *post-war-післявоєнний*, *sub-species-підвиду*.

3. Semantically alien (national) prefixes pertaining to one of the contrasted languages only. The lexical meaning of such divergent prefixes forms part of the semantic structure of the stem and it is usually conveyed by other than morphological (usually by lexico-semantic) means. Cf.: *desamp-покидати табір*, *виїжджати*, *misstate-робити фальшиву, неправильну заяву*, *underhung-той, що витирає*, *виступає вперед*, *to resurge-загинати*, *вигинати назад*, *upthrow-кидок вгору*

There are some Ukrainian prefixes with no semantic equivalents in English where their meaning is conveyed by other means. Cf.: *но-українському* - *in Ukrainian*, *щонайкраще* - *in the best way possible*, *very well indeed*, *rather/extremely well*, *якнайповільніше* - *as slowly as possible / in the most slowly ever possible way*, etc.

A specifically Ukrainian phenomenon alien not only to English but even to other Slavonic languages is the reduplicated use of the

prefix *no-* in verbs to express an intensive and repeated or durative action: *попоїсти, попоходити, попоблукати, поповозитися, попогребти, попоспати*.

The formation of new words with the help of prefixes and suffixes is performed in English and Ukrainian according to the same morphological/structural models. The number of models is four and they are as follows:

1) one prefix+ the root morpheme/stem + one suffix, forming **nouns** (*dis-arma-ment, en-rich-ment, for-cast-er, un-supect-ness, перемов-ин-и, без-штань-ко, роз-збро-єнн-я*); **adjectives** (*anti-cyclon-ic, anti-chist-ian, be-jewel-ling, in-ponder-able, para-phras-tic, pre-scrip-tive, перед-бач-єн-ий, не-вид-н-ий*); **verbs** (*de-colour-ize, dis-satis-fy, ex-cav-ate, over-estim-ate, re-vivi-fy, роз-мал-юва-ти, пере-мис-а-ти*);

2) two or more prefixes + the root morpheme/stem +one suffix, as in the following **nouns**: *over-sub-scrip-tion, re-im-prison-ment, re-in-carn-ation; ви-до-бут-ок, пере-за-вантаж-єнн-я*;

3) one prefix + the root morpheme/stem+ one or more suffixes, as in adverbs that are formed from adjectives and participles, for example: *dis-stress-ing-ly, dis-trust-ful-ly, en-harmon-ical-ly, pro-portion-ate-ly, under-hand-ed-ly, про-пору-її-н-о, з-мал-оьва-н-о*.

Among the words formed according to this combined structural model are also adjectives and nouns. The most typical adjectives are as follows: *counter-revolu-tion-a-ry, de-contenin-at(e)-ing, de-central-iz(e)-ing, pre-histor-ic-al, контр-революц-ій-н-ий, де-центр-ал-із-ова-н-ий*. Examples of nouns thus formed are: *dis-trust-ful-ness, in-comprehens-ible-ness, ir-respons-abil-ity, de-moral-ization, до-вір-лив-ість*.

4) two or more prefixes +root morpheme/stem +two or more siuffixes as in the words *in-ac-count-abil-ity, in-dis-pens-abil-ity, non-re-act-iv(e)-a-tion, без-від-по-від-аль-н-ість*.

Words of the combined type are well exemplified in Ukrainian, though their quantitative distribution coincides in their first type only. This type of word-formation has the largest representation in the contrasted languages. Thus, the following suffixes and prefixes form

both productive and non-productive types of nouns in Ukrainian: **без-/к-:** *безитанько*; **від-/ок:** *відрізок, відтінок*; **на-/ник** *наушник, начальник*; **за-/ок** *загрибок, задвірок*, та ін.

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 form a large number of **я/-а** nouns: **без-/-:** *безлюддя, безладдя*; **за-/-:** *заріччя, загір'я*; **між-/-:** *міжгір'я, міжріччя*; **над-/-:** *надбрів'я, надпліччя*; **перед-/-:** *передпліччя, передсердя, переджнив'я*; **по-/-:** *пониззя, 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-:** *безготівковий, віддієслівний, міжвидовий, навітряний, наддніпрянський, безстатевий, безчуттєвий*.

Adjectives with verbal stems in Ukrainian have the characteristic prefix **-не**, originated from the negative particle. The suffixes used with this prefix in combined adjectives are of two kinds: 1) **-м-, -уч-/-юч-, -ущ-/-ющ-, -лив-:** *невловимий, невмирущий, неминучий, непосидючий, нетитуцій*;

2) **-н-, -анн-/-янн-/-єнн-:** *невтомний, незбагнений, невпізнаний, неказаний*.

Unlike noun and adjectives, combined verbs are formed in Ukrainian according to the third structural model. They are formed from over 400 nominal stems. The most occurrent of which are adjectival and substantival. The prefixes may be different, whereas the suffixes are usually common. They are: **-н-/-і-** and **-ти-/-а-:** *вдосконалити, уможливити*; **-з-/-с-/-:** *збільшити, зменшити, спростити*, **-о-/-:** *очумити, обідніти*; **-ви-/-:** *видужати, з-/-:* *здужати*, etc.

Verbs from substantival stems are formed with the help of the suffixes **-н- -ти-:** *викорінити, закарканти, переселити*, that is according to the third structural model.

In combined verbs formed from verbal stems, the main suffixes are: **-ува-** and **-ти-:** *вицв'юхкувати, перечитувати, підкахикувати, розбалакувати.*

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

There are fewer adverbs, nouns and adjectives in Ukrainian that are formed according to the third and fourth combined structural models: **adverbs:** *до-не-с-хоч-у, с-про-квол-а, що-най-крац-е;* **participles and adjectives:** *за-в-час-ний, не-в-благ-ан-н-ий, не-до-ви-торг-у-ва-н-ий.*

Inflexional morphemes in the contrasted languages express different morphological categories. The number of genuinely English inflexions is only 16, noun inflexions are: **-s (-es); -en; -ren** (*boys, watches, oxen, brethren*). Inflexions of the comparative and superlative degrees of qualitative adjectives **-er/ier. -est/iest** (*bigger, the biggest*); the verbal inflexions: **-s/-es, -d/-ed, -n/-en:** *he puts/watches; she learned, burnt; a broken pencil.*

The inflexions of absolute pronouns: **-s, -e:** *hers, thine, mine.* There are also some genuinely English plural form inflexions of nouns with restricted use. These are: *kine* (poetic for cows), *fone* (archaic for foes), *shoen* (archaic for shoes).

Apart from the genuine English inflexional morphemes, there exist some foreign inflexions borrowed and used with nouns of Latin, French and Greek origin only: Among them are **Latin inflexions:** **-um – -a** (*datum-data, erratum-errata*); **-us – -i** (*focus-foci, terminus-termini*); **-a – -ae** (*formula-formulae*); **-us – -a** (*generous-genera*); **-is – -es** (*axis-axes, thesis-theses*); **-ix – -es** (*appendix-appendices*); **-ies – -ies** (*series-series*).

In French borrowings, only the plural forms are inflected: *beau-beaus/beaux; bureau-bureaux, monsieur-monsieurs; madam-madames.*

A few pairs of Greek inflexional appositions are: **-is – -es** (*analysis-analyses, basis-bases*), **-on – -a** (*criterion-criteria*).

The number of Ukrainian inflexions exceeds their number in English since every notional part of speech has a variety of endings. They express number, gender, case of nominal parts of speech and tense, aspect, person, number, voice and mood of verbs, for example: *йому, Петра, червоний-червоному-червоного; дати-даши-дамо-дали-давав-дають-давали* etc.

Due to the structural nature of the contrasted languages, the paradigms of the same notionals differ, the Ukrainian paradigms being much richer than the English. However, in Old English the noun paradigm included 9 different inflexional forms, the weak verbs paradigm had 10 forms, and the paradigm of adjectives included 13 synthetic (inflected) forms. The variety of case inflexions in Ukrainian nouns is also predetermined by the existence of four declinations, the first and the second of which have different case and number inflexions depending on the nouns belonging to the hard, palatelizeed or the mixed stem consonant type, cf.: *вода-води; учень-учні; поле-поля; лоша-лошати; миша-мишею; доня-донею*.

Some morphological categories in English and Ukrainian (though much rarer) are expressed by analytical means – prepositions, analytical word forms, particles, e.g.: *to give something to Peter, not far from the river, written with (in) pencil*. Analytically expressed are the degrees of comparison of adjectives and adverbs, e.g.: *more calm, most calm*. In Ukrainian the construction is less frequently used (*більш/менш важливий*). The future tense in Ukrainian can also be expressed analytically, though it is closely connected with the modal meaning of certainty: *я буду виступати на зборах, ми будемо боротися*.

Analytical in form is only the expression of the passive voice in English, and in Ukrainian the present passive has generally a synthetic form only, and past and future passive can also be synthetic, e.g.: *завод будуватиметься, буде будуватися; завод буде (був) збудований*.

2.3.2. COMPOUNDING

Word–composition is another productive type of word formation.

Compound words may be classified according to the type of composition, and according to the linking element, according to the part

of speech to which the compound belongs, according to the structural pattern following which the compound was formed. Semantically they fall into motivated and idiomatic; motivated fall into idiomatic and direct. In **coordinative compounds** neither of the components dominates the other, both are structurally and semantically independent: *self-discipline, breath-taking*. Compounds may be **neutral, morphological and syntactic**.

In **neutral** compounds the process of compounding is clear without any link-word: *sun-flower, bedroom, золотослов, горлохват*. These are simple neutral compounds. They consist of simple affixless stems. There are derived (derivational) compounds, which have affixes in their structure: *blue-eyed, film-goer, broad-shouldered, соняшник*. The productivity of this type in English is proved by a great number of compounds formed nowadays: *baby-sitter, teenager, double-decker, four-seater, lunch-outer*.

Morphological compounds are few in number: *handicraft, spokesman*. This type is not productive in English. It is represented by compounds the two stems of which are joined by a vowel or a consonant. In Ukrainian it is rather productive, though: *вуглевидобувний, землечерпалка, дубоніс*.

Syntactic compounds are formed from segments of speech, preserving in their structure numerous traces of syntagmatic relations typical of speech: *Jack-of-all-trades, sit-at-home*. This type is bound to English.

The classification of compounds according to the structure of immediate constituents distinguishes:

1) compounds consisting of simple stems: *film-star*; 2) compounds consisting of compounds where at least one part is a derived stem: *chain-smoker*; 3) compounds where at least one of the constituents is a clipped stem: *math-mistress (maths-mistress Br. E.)*; 4) compounds where one constituent is a compound stem: *wastepaper-basket*. This type of word formation is one of the most productive in Modern English, the other two are conversion and affixation.

Common are two main ways of forming compounds in English and Ukrainian:

- 1) by the juxtaposition (зіставлення) of the determining and the determined parts;
- 2) with the help of the linking / interfixal **o, e, s** in English and **o, e/є, y** in Ukrainian.

Compounds with linking elements represented by preposition or conjunction stems: *matter-of-fact*, *down-and-out*, *son-in-law*, *up-and-coming*, *devil-may-care* *adj.*, *what's-her-name* *n.* are frequent in English.

The largest group of compounds formed by juxtaposition of free root/stem words in English constitute **nouns**: *aircraft*, *blackboard*, *fountain-pen*, *grown-up*, *inkpot*, *lookout*, *mankind*, *motherland*, *note-book*; **adjectives**: *sky-blue*, *pitch-dark*, *social-economic*, *peace-loving*; and **verbs**: *blackwash*, *ill-treat*, *take-off*. Less numerous are **adverbs**: *anywhere*, *everything*, *herself*; and **numerals**: *one-fifth*, *twenty-one*, *two-thirds*. Compounding by juxtaposition is considered less productive in Ukrainian. Still, there are several nouns, verbs, adverbs, particles, pronouns, conjunctions formed by this pattern: **nouns**: *генерал-майор*, *вагон-ресторан*, *зернотрест*; **pronouns**: *дещо*, *дехто*, *хтозна-що*, *казна-що*. There are also several nouns and verbs of coordinate nature: *інженер-технік*, *хліб-сіль*; *думати-гадати*, *говорити-балакати*; *немов*, *нібито*.

Pertaining to English mostly are compounds (nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and some numerals) with prepositions and conjunctions used as connectors of different roots /stems, for example **nouns**: *commander-in-chief*, *bread-and-butter*; **adjectives**: *rough-and-ready*; **adverbs**: *rough-and-tumble*; **numerals**: two and twenty. Ukrainian has only a few compound adverbs and some nouns of this type: *де-не-де*, *хоч-не-хоч*, *пліч-о-пліч*, *як-не-як*, *Ростов-на-Дону*.

Compounding with the help of the linking interfixal element is less productive in English than in Ukrainian, generally being restricted to nouns and adjectives: *Afro-American*, *Sino-American*, *Israeli-American*.

The principal way of forming compounds in Ukrainian, however, is by means of linking interfixes which connect abbreviated and full words. The latter usually follow the initial abbreviated forms, e.g.

nouns: *землечерпалка, броненосець, сновидець, театрознавець, болюголів, самозбереження*, **adjectives:** *білоголовка, полумисок; доморощений, нафтоносний*, **adverbs:** *карколомно, передовсім.*

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 peculiar to English (so-called wholophrasing). It represents an occasional incorporation of word groups or sentences into compounds, e.g.: *a never-to be-forgotten event; a to-be-or-not-to-be question; a do-come-please-tomorrow expression.*

Of common nature, however, are a lot of composite words in both languages formed from word combinations or sentences: **nouns:** *forget-me-not, East-end, sleeping-bag*, **adjectives:** *three-year-old*. There are a lot of nicknames and geographical names composed according this pattern: *Springfield, Greenfield, Georgetown, Newfoundland, Mr. Know-all, Humpty-Dumpty* etc.

Agglutination (аглютинація, склеювання) represents a **mechanical adding of one or more affixal morphemes in pre-position, post-position or interposition to the root morpheme**. Somewhat different is the qualitative representation of the parts of speech formed by means of **pre-posed** agglutinating morphemes in the contrasted languages. In present day English, which has more zero-morphemed root words, there exists a larger number of the parts of speech formed by agglutinating prefixes, for example, verbs: *adhere, assure, co-exist*; adjectives: *post-war, pre-war*.

Prepositional agglutinating prefixes can form, apart from new parts of speech, new shades of meaning: *do-undo-overdo; lead-mislead*; in Ukrainian: *захід-схід; вхід-вихід-прихід; жити-прожити-пережити; бити-збити-перебити-добити-вибити*.

Post-posed agglutination is observed in both languages, but is more productive in Ukrainian than in English. All Ukrainian infinitives, without exception, are formed by adding to the root the post-positive morphemes **-ти/-ть, -ся, -ки, -оньки, -тусі, -туні**. E.g.: *бити, працювати, злитися, спатки, їстоньки, спатусі*.

In Ukrainian there are many composite words of this type, but they are mostly formed with the help of the linking element (usually **-и-**): *горихвістка, варивода, держидерево, любви-мене, мати-й-мачуха, крутивус, перекотиноле*. Several Ukrainian family names were formed according to this pattern: Нечуйвітер, Недайборщ, Вернидуб, Нетудихата, Панібудьласка, Добривечір, Небаба.

Apart from nouns there some words belonging to other parts of speech that are formed from prepositional phrases and word-groups of sentences: *задовго, запанібрата, досхочу, неабияк, віднині, дотепер, відразу; бавовнопрядильний, нафтопереробний, водоплавний; зубоскалити, благодіяти, хліборобствувати*. Similar compounds can be observed in English: *whole-heartedness, absent-minded, three-coloured, heart-shaped*.

The semantic aspect of compounds is of great interest. If we consider such compounds as *a classroom, bedroom, evening-gown, dining-room, sleeping-car, dancing-hall, reading-room* etc. it becomes clear that the meaning of each of them is the sum of meanings of the words constituting the compound. But can observe **a slight shift of meaning** especially in the last three examples.

The second group of examples demonstrates a full change of meaning in one or both components of the compound: *blackboard, football, lady-killer, pick-pocket, good-for-nothing, lazy-bones, chatterbox*. In all these compounds the meaning of the whole word can not be defined from the meanings of its constituents. Yet, the meaning of each component is rather transparent and can be traced.

In the third group of compounds the process of deducing the meaning is impossible: *a ladybird* is neither a lady nor a bird, it is an insect; *a tallboy* is not a boy but an article of furniture; *a bluestocking* is a person; *a bluebottle* may denote either an insect or a flower, but not a bottle. The compounds whose meanings do not correspond to the separate meanings of their constituents are called **idiomatic compounds**, in contrast to the first group known as **non-idiomatic compounds**.

Pseudo-compounds are the words like *gillyflower* and *sparrow-grass* which are not compounds at all, they are examples of false

etymology, an attempt to find motivation for a borrowed word. Gillyflower is from O. Fr. *giroflé*, *crayfish* (small lobster-like freshwater crustacean) from O. Fr. *crevice*, and *sparrow-grass* is from Latin *asparagus*. *May-day* is an international radio signal used as a call for help from a ship or plane, and it comes from the French *m'aidez* (help me).

The criteria for distinguishing between a compound and a word combination are: 1) **the graphic criterion**, though in different dictionaries one can find different approaches, e.g.: *headmaster* (solid spelling) and *head master*; *air-line*, *air-line*, *air line*; *break-up*, *breakup*. The solid spelling is more frequent than hyphenated.

2) **the semantic criterion**, according to which a combination of words can be classified as a free phrase or a compound, e. g.: *dirty work* in its figurative meaning is a compound, while *clean work* is a phrase.

3) **the phonetic criterion** for compounds may be treated as that of a single stress. There is a strong tendency in English to give compounds a heavy stress on the first syllable. The only exception can be found in phrases with the initial element *all-*: *all fools day*.

4) **transformational procedure** when it is possible to transform a word combination into a free phrase: *a stone wall* is *a wall of stone*; but *a toothpick* is not *a pick for teeth*. It works well for idiomatic compounds, while when applied to other ones, it brings about a change of meaning: *the wall-paper* is not the *paper on the wall*.

2.3.3. ABBREVIATION

The shortening of words involves the shortening of both words and word-groups. Distinction should be made between shortening in written speech (**graphical abbreviation**) and in oral speech (**lexical abbreviation**). Lexical abbreviations may be used both in written and oral speech. This comparatively new way of word-building has achieved a high degree of productivity, especially in American English. **Shortenings (contracted/curtailed words, clippings)** are produced in two different ways:

1) to make a new word from a syllable of the original word. It may lose the ending (*phone* for the *telephone*; *fence* for *defence*; *vac* for

*vacation; ad for advertisement; or both the beginning and ending as in flu –influenza; fridge-refrigerator). Words that have been shortened at the end are called **apocope** (vet for veterinary). Words that have been shortened at the beginning are called **aphaeresis** (phone for telephone).*

2) The second way of shortening is to make a new word from the initial letters of a word group (*UNO for United Nations Organization*). This type is called **initial shortening**. It is widely used in colloquial speech as well: *g. f.* stands for *girl-friend*; *I.O.Y.* means *I owe you* (a written acknowledgement if a debt).

Abbreviations are often used in internet communication: *AFAIK* – *as far as I know*; *BTW* – *by the way*; *DH* – *dear husband*; *DIY* – *do it yourself*; *FYI* – *for your information*; *HTH* – *hope this helps*; *ICBW* – *I could be wrong*; *ISWYM* – *I see what you mean*; *SCNR* – *sorry, could not resist*; *TIA* – *thanks in advance*; *TTFN* – *that is all for now (ta ta for now)*; *TWIMC* – *to whom it may concern*. *TNX, THX, THANX, TY* mean “*thank you*”. *NP* means “*no problem*”, that is a usual answer to “*thank you*”; *YW* means “*you are welcome*”, which is also a commonly used answer to “*thank you*”. *PLZ or PLS* is the abbreviation which means “*please*”. *XOXO* means “*kisses and hugs*”. *LOL* has the meaning “*laughing out loud*” or “*lots of laughs*”. In Ukrainian it is rendered as “*зу-зу-зу*”, and the abbreviation *ROFL* means “*Rolling On the Floor Laughing*” and might be translated as “*сміюсь, мало не лусну*”. *WTF?* means “*What the fuck?*” and can be translated as “*якого дідька?*”. The list of frequently used shortenings includes the following: *10Q* – *thank you*, *143* – *I love you*, *A/S/L/P* – *Age/Sex/Location/Picture*, *A3* – *Anyplace, Anywhere, Anytime*, *ADR* – *Address*, *AEAP* – *As Early As Possible*, *AFK* – *Away From Keyboard*, *ASAP* – *As Soon As Possible*, *Aight* – *All right*, *AITR* – *Adult In The Room*, *ALAP* – *As Late As Possible*, *ALTG* – *Act Locally, Think Globally*, *ASL* – *Age/Sex/Location*, *B&F* – *Back and Forth*, *B/C* – *Because*, *B4* – *Before*, *B4N* – *Bye For Now*, *B4U* – *Before You*, *B15* – *Back In Five*, *BON* – *Believe it Or Not*, *BRB* – *Be Right Back*, *BRT* – *Be Right There*, *BZ* – *Busy*, *CD9* – *Code 9 – it means parents are around*, *CT* – *Can’t Talk*, *CTA* – *Call To Action*, *CTO* – *Check This Out*, *CUL8R* – *See You Later*, *CY* – *Calm Yourself*, *CYE* – *Check your Email*, *CYL* – *See You Later*,

CYM–Check Your Mail, CYO–See You Online, CYT–See You Tomorrow, D&M–Deep & Meaningful, d/c–Disconnected, TF–Face to face, G2B–Going to bed, G2G –Got to go, GBH–Great big hug, GBY–God bless you, GL–Good luck, H&K –Hug and kiss, HAND–Have a nice day, HOAS–Hold on a second, J/K–Just kidding, KMA–Kiss my ass, M/F – Male or Female , OIC–Oh, I see, P@H or PAH–Parents at home, AL–Parents Are Listening, PAW–Parents are watching, RU/18–Are You Over 18? , SRY–Sorry, SYS—See you soon, W8AM–Wait a minute. WAY or WAU–What about you, WBS–Write back soon, WB–Welcome back, WP–Wrong person, WTF–What The F***, WU–What’s up, YL–Young lady, =w= –Whatever, *G*–Giggle or grin, *H*–Hug, *K*–Kiss, *S*– Smile *T*–Tickle , *W*–Win .

A specific type of abbreviation having no parallel in Ukrainian is represented by abbreviations in Latin which are not read in Latin but substituted by their English equivalents: *ad lib-ad libitum-at pleasure*; *a.m.-ante meridiem-in the morning*; *cf.-conferre compare*; *cp.-comparere-compare*; *e. g.-exempli gratia- for example*; *ib (id)-ibidem-at the same place*; *i.e.-id est-that is*; *loc.cit.- locus citato-in the passage cited*; *ob.- obiit-he (she) died*; *q.v.-quod vide- which see*; *p.m.-post meridiem- in the afternoon*; *viz.-videlicet-namely*.

An interesting feture of present-day English is abbreviation for famous persons’ names: *G.B.S. for George Bernard Show*; *Herbert George Wells as H.G.* Ukrainian abbreviations of this type are: *ЛІМ – Леонід Макарович (Кравчук, the first president of Ukraine)*, *БАБ-Борис Абрамович Березовський (a well-known businessman)*.

Journalistic abbreviations are often occasional and are made for economizing head-line space: *CNO-Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament*; *MLF- Multilateral Nuclear Force*; *“BB”-«Вечірні вісті»*; *«МК» - Московський комсомолец*; *«КП»- Комсомольська правда*.

Abbreviation represents a generally common type of word formation in the contrasted languages, though it is not devoid of divergences either. Common and equally productive in both languages are:

1) the initial abbreviation such as NATO, UNO, USA, MP. Similarly in Ukrainian we have ВИЩ, ЮНЕСКО, США, ООН.

In the Ukrainian language abbreviations can belong to different genders: *УРЕ* – feminine gender, *НЛО* – masculine gender, *АЕС* – feminine gender. Abbreviations, created of initial letters are of masculine gender: *КАМАЗ*, *БУЗ*.

Specifically English is the compounding consisting of an acronym and a complete word: an H-bomb, U-language, etc. If the abbreviated written form tends to be read as though it were an ordinary English word and sounds like the one, it is called **acronym** (from Greek *acros*-end + *onym*-word). Acronyms present a special interest because they exemplify the working of the lexical adaptive system. In meeting the needs of communication and fulfilling the laws of information theory requiring the maximum signal in the minimum time the lexical system undergoes modification in its basic structure: namely it forms new elements not by combining existing morphemes and proceeding from sound forms to their graphic representation but the other way round – coining new words from the initial letters of phrasal terms originating in texts.

The initial abbreviations retain their valency (the combining possibilities of the prototype). They take the plural and the possessive case forms: *MP's*; *P.O.W's* (*prisoners of war*).

Aphaeresis is the omission of the initial part of the word. In many cases the shortened word differs from its source only stylistically: telephone - phone, omnibus - bus. Sometimes, however, the shortened word is somewhat modified in meaning or even altered: *acute* (*sharp*) - *cute* (*pretty, clever*), *espy* (*see at a distance*) - *spy* (*to try to get secret information*).

Some words owe their historical development to aphaeresis as for instance down from adown which in its turn developed from the Anglo-Saxon of dune (from the hill, from the down).

Many first names were shortened the aphaeresis way: *Bess* (*Elisabeth*), *Becky* (*Rebecca*) etc.

Syncope is the omission of an unstressed middle syllable: fantasy - fancy, courtesy - curtsy. Syncopated words used to be popular with

poets (*e'en* - *even*, *ne'er* - *never*) because of purely rhythmical considerations. Modern poetry seldom if ever resorts to syncope. There are some graphical abbreviations of this type: Mr, Mrs, LP.

Apocope is the omission of the final part of the word. It is the most productive type of shortening. It is mostly through apocope that stylistic synonyms are coined. It is the colloquial layer that profits from apocope: *gym* (*gymnasium*), *specs* (*spectacles*), *croc* (*crocodile*). Proper names are also apocopated: *Nick* (*Nicholas*), *Ed* (*Edward*), *Люда* (*Людмила*). There are some words that are seldom if ever used in their unapocopated form (pub for public house, brig for brigantine).

Apocope and syncope are not characteristic of the Ukrainian language. Though apocope is used in Ukrainian slang: *універ*, *лаби*. Apocope is often used with compounding: *генпрокуратура*, *міськрада*. There are not so many words of this type in English: *Internet*, *Eurobank*.

2.3.4. BOUNDARY CASES BETWEEN DERIVATION, INFLECTION AND COMPOSITION

There are a few roots in English which have developed great combining ability in the position of the second element of a word and a very general meaning similar to that of an affix. These are **semi-affixes**. They receive this name because semantically, functionally, structurally and statistically they behave more like affixes than like roots. Their meaning is as general. They determine the lexical and grammatical class the word belongs to, cf.: *sailor-seaman*, where *-or* is a suffix, and functionally similar *-man* is a **semi-affix** (*sportsman*, *gentleman*, *nobleman*, *chairman*, *policeman*). Semantically, the constituent *-man* in these words approaches the generalized meaning of such noun-forming suffixes as *-er*, *-or*, *-ist* (*artist*, *hypocrite*). It has moved so far in its meaning from the corresponding free form *man*, that such word-groups as *woman policeman* or *Mrs. Chairman* are quite usual.

Other examples of semi-affixes are *-land* (*Scotland*, *Ireland*, *fatherland*, *Iceland*); *-like* (*ladylike*, *businesslike*); *-worthy* (*trustworthy*, *seaworthy*, *praiseworthy*).

Another specific group is formed by the adverb-forming suffix *-ly*, following adjective stems, and the noun-forming suffixes *-ing*, *-ness*, *-er* and by *-ed* added to a combination of two stems: *faint-hearted*, *long-legged*.

Almost every adjective stem can produce an adverb with the help of *-ly*, and an abstract noun by taking up the suffix *-ness*. Every verbal stem can produce the name of the doer by adding *-er*, and the name of the process or its result by adding *-ing*. A suffix approaching those in productivity is *-ish* denoting a moderate degree of the quality named in the stem. These affixes are remarkable for their high valency also in the formation of compound derivatives corresponding to free phrases.

2.3.5. NON-PRODUCTIVE WAYS OF WORD FORMATION

Blending (fusion, blends) (mixing) is defined as formation that combines two words and include letters or sounds they have in common as a connecting element: bio(logical)+(elec)ronics=bionics, Ukrainian банківський+автомат=банкомат. This process of forming new words is also called telescoping. Depending upon the prototype phrases with which they can be correlated two types of blends can be distinguished: **1) additive; 2) restrictive.** The **additive type** words consist of two complete stems and the conjunction that combine them: *smoke+fog=smog*. *breakfast+lunch=brunch*. The elements may be synonymous, belonging to the same semantic group or be members of the same lexico-grammatical class of words: *transmitter and receiver = transceiver*.

The **restrictive type** is formed from an attributive phrase where the first element serves as modifier of the second: *medical care =medicare*, *positive electron=positron*, *motorists' hotel=motel*.

In Russian and Ukrainian blends are restricted to similar contaminations in which the final elements of initial words and the initial elements of succeeding words are transacted: пірам (ідон)+(кофе) ін = пірамеїн; ас (пірін) +кофе (їн) =аскофен.

Back-formation (reversion) denotes derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through

misinterpretation of their structure. E.g.: *to beg* was formed from the French word *beggar*; *to burgle* from *burglar*; *to cobble* from *cobbler*. Later examples are: *to buttle* from *buttler*; *to baby-sit* from *baby-sitter*; *to force-land* from *forced landing*; *to blood-transfuse* from *blood-transfusing*. Back formation is mostly active in compound verbs and is combined with word-composition. The basis of this type of word-building are compound words and word combinations having verbal nouns, gerunds, participles or other derivative nouns as their second component (*finger-printing*, *well-wisher*). These compounds are wrongly considered to be formed from compound verbs which are nonexistent in reality. This gives rise to such verbs *as to fingerprint*, *to wellwish*, *to rush-develop*. Back-formation may be based on the analogy of inflectional forms as testified by the singular nouns *pea* and *cherry*. *Pea* (the plural is *peas* or *pease*) is from Lat. *pisa* (pl. *pesum*). The ending *-s* being most frequent mark of the plural in English, English speakers thought the sweet *peas(e)* was a plural and turned the combination *peas(e)soup* into *pea soup*. *Cherry* is from O.Fr. *cerise*, and the *-se* was dropped for exactly the same reason. The most productive way of back-formation in present-day English is derivation of verbs from compounds that have either *-er* or *-ing* as their last element: *air-conditioning* *n* – *air-conditioner* *n* – *air-condition* *v*.

Onomatopoeia (sound-imitation, echoism) is the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a natural sound associated with it (*crow*, *twitter*, *babble*). Words coined by this type of word-formation are made by imitating different kinds of sounds that may be produced by animals, birds, insects, human beings and inanimate objects. It is interesting that sounds produced by the same kind of animal are often represented by quite different sound groups in different languages. English dogs *bark*, Ukrainian *завкають*, Russian ones *лают* or *howl* (*вуют*, *воют*). In English cocks cry *cock-a-doodle-do*, in Ukrainian they *кукурікують*, in Russian *кукарекают*. Some names of animals and especially birds are produced by sound-imitation: *crow*, *cuckoo*, *humming-bird*, *cricket*.

In **reduplication** new words are formed by doubling a stem, either without any phonetic changes or with a variation of a root vowel

or consonant: *walkie-talkie*, *riff-raff* (a worthless or disreputable member of the society), *chi-chi* (a chic girl). Other examples are: *fifty-fifty*, *drip-drop*, *helter-skelter*, *super-doooper*, *fuddy-duddy*, *hoity-toity*. The English language is very rich in rhymed reduplications: *helter-skelter*; *hurry-scurry*; *lovely-dovely*. Peculiar to the English language are compounds with post-positives: *camp-in*; *love-ins*; *teach-in*; *sit-in* etc. In Ukrainian: А очі в нього *суні-суні*.

Accentual word-formation is common in the system of both languages. Words thus formed in English generally change both lexicogrammatical nature and meaning: *'accent-to ac'cent*; *'conduct- to con'duct*. The change of stress in Ukrainian usually does not effect the lexicogrammatical nature of the word but its semantics only: *'замок- за'мок*, *'жила- жи'ла*, *'мука- му'ка*, *'приклад- при'клад*. But: *'бігом (n)- бі'гом (adv.)*, *в'го'рі (adv.)- в'зори(n)*.

Substantivization, verbalization, adverbialization. This type of word formation is common and equally productive in English and Ukrainian. Adjectives may become wholly substantivized or partially substantivized. Wholly substantivized adjectives are: *a criminal*, *a black*, *a white*, *a liberal*, *European*, *a proletarian*, *a weekly*, *a monthly*. 2) Partially substantivized adjectives and participles: *the dead*, *deaf*, *the French*, *the invited*, *the useful*, *in the open*, *the affirmative*. It is often difficult to distinguish between a) wholly and b) partially substantivized adjectives in Ukrainian: а) поранений, молодий, старий, милий, чорнобрива, завідуючий, братова, Ніжин, Львів, Сватове, б) гнідий, гаряче, німецька, давнє, минуле, особисте.

Partially substantivized in English may be: **a) verbs:** *let's have a go*; *this is a must with me*; *a quiet read after suppe-the haves and have nots*; **b) numerals:** *a sign of four*; *King Charles the First*; *page ten*; *to receive a one/ a two*; **c) pronouns:** *a little something*; *a good for nothing*; *the all of it*; *those I's of his*; **d) adverbs:** *I don't know his whereabouts*. **Nouns can be adjectivized:** *the market prices*; *London docks*, *average incomes*. **Nouns can be adverbialized:** *going home*, *to come by chance*, *on the outskirts of Kyiv*.

Similarly in Ukrainian there are partially substantivised a) **pronouns**: мій (твій), А твій вдома? b) **numerals**: отримати чотири, Єлизавета Друга.

To conclude, one should bear in mind that Ukrainian is much richer in affixes and morphological way of word formation is very productive.

Problems for revision:

1. What are the main units of morphological structure of a word?
2. What are the main differences in the morphological structure of English and Ukrainian words?
3. What types of analysis can be applied to the morphological structure of a word?
4. What are the productive ways of word formation in the contrasted languages?
5. What are non-productive ways of word formation in the contrasted languages?
5. Which of the languages has a richer set of morphemes? Why?
6. What types of shortening are there?
7. What is an allomorph?
8. Is reduplication widely used in formation of Ukrainian words?
9. What criteria lie at the basis of classifying compounds?
10. What are the main word building patterns in the contrasted languages?

3. SEMASIOLOGY

3.1. SEMASIOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS.

Semasiology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents. The word comes from the Greek “*semasia*” – signification. The main objects of semasiological study are types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic development of words, the main tendencies of the change of word-meaning, semantic grouping in the vocabulary system,

i.e. synonyms, antonyms, semantic fields, thematic groups. All the pragmatic functions of language — communicative, emotive, evaluative, emphatic, esthetic, etc., are also relevant and have to be accounted for in semasiology, because they show the attitude of the speaker to the thing spoken of, to his interlocutor and to the situation in which the act of communication takes place.

Semasiology operates with **semes** – **the smallest units of meaning**.

A sememe is a lexico-semantic variant of the word which constitutes the complex sems.

A semanteme is a complex of sememes of a polysemantic word. A semanteme is a complex of sememes which are close in their meaning and united by a common expressive field.

Valency is the ability of a word to define the quality and quantity of dependent forms of a word. It is determined by the word's semantic and grammatic properties.

Deepening contacts among nations and consequently languages have become a source of emerging of new meanings in the semantic structure of a word. Comparing the lexical systems of the two contrastive languages one can observe a full correlation and a partial correlation of lexical meanings.

L. Barhudarov differentiates two kinds of correlation in lexical meanings:

a) inclusion, when the volume of significant units of meanings of a lexical unit belonging to one language is fully covered by significant units of another one;

b) differentiation, that is a partial coverage and partial divergence of significant units of meaning of a lexical unit which belongs to different languages. E.g.: in the set *swim, float, sail* with the meaning of “*пливти*” one can observe semantic differentiation of the significant units of the meaning comparing with the significant units of meaning of the Ukrainian word.

Each meaning of the English word above has a feature that is absent in the set of significant meanings of the Ukrainian word. E.g.: “*пливти*” – *to move in the water or on the surface of the water at any*

direction with the help of certain movements of the body, specific organs or tools does not single out a meaning that is essential in some contexts: “*using certain vessels*”, whereas in the English “swim” the idea of natural movement is essential.

Ye. Vereshchagin and V. Kostomarov doubt that the semantics of a word is limited by its lexical meaning. They point out the phenomena which influence the meaning of the word:

a) conceptual motivation of a lexical unit;

b) additional semantic components, e.g.: “*drugstore*”- in Ukrainian has the meaning of “*аптека, аптекарська крамниця*”, that is a medical and sanitary health establishment, that is the place where drugs are produced and sold. Whereas in the English language (AmE) the semantic meaning of the word is much wider, as you can buy snacks, chewing gum, stationery, soft drinks there.

So, while translating a word one can take into account the lexical background. The lexical background and main semantic units are known by all the members of the national, social and language community. It helps in compatibility and combinability of words.

The semantic meaning of a word is relatively stable, whereas the lexical background undergoes considerable changes, constantly acquiring and losing semantic components. It sometimes happens within the lifetime of one generation.

Referential approach to meaning. The common feature of any referential approach is that meaning is in some form or other connected with **the referent** (object of reality denoted by the word). The meaning is formulated by establishing the interdependence between words and objects of reality they denote. So, meaning is often understood as an object or phenomenon in the outside world that is referred to by a word.

Functional approach to meaning. In most modern methods of lexicographical analysis words are studied in context, a word is defined by its functioning within a phrase or a sentence. The meaning of a linguistic unit is studied only through its relations to other linguistic units. Meaning is defined as a function of a word in speech.

Though the meaning of a word is closely connected with the underlying concept it is not identical with it. Concept is the thought of

the object that singles out the most typical, the most essential features of the object. So all concepts are almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of historic development. The meanings of words though are different in different languages. E.g. the concept of “*a building for human habitation*” is expressed in English “*house*”, in Ukrainian *dim*; but their meanings are not identical as house does not possess the meaning of “*fixed residence of family or household*” (*домівка*) which is part of the meaning of the Ukrainian word *dim*; it is expressed by another English word *home*. In English, for example, the word —*foot* is used to denote the extremity of the leg. In Ukrainian there is no exact equivalent for —*foot*: —*чмона* is a little bit smaller than *foot*, the word —*нога* denotes the whole leg including the foot.

Differences in the lexical meaning of correlated words account for the differences of their collocability in different languages. Thus, the English adjective —*new* the Ukrainian adjective *новий* when taken in isolation are felt as correlated words: *a new dress, New Year*. In collocation with other nouns however the Ukrainian adjective cannot be used in the same meaning in which the English word —*new* is currently used: *new potatoes, new bread, etc.*

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing the same concept but possessing linguistic meaning that is felt as different, e.g.: *big, large; to die, to pass away, to join the majority, to kick the bucket; child, baby, babe, infant.*

3.2. TYPES OF WORD MEANING. CONNOTATIONAL AND DENOTATIONAL COMPONENTS OF LEXICAL MEANING.

The branch of linguistics which specializes in the study of meaning is called semantics. The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner form of the word (i.e. its meaning) presents a structure which is called **the semantic structure of the word. Thus, the meaning is a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena, or relations that makes part of the linguistic**

sign - its so-called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet.

There distinguished grammatical and lexical meanings within grammatical and lexical aspects of a language.

Grammatical meaning is defined as the expression in speech relationships between words. The grammatical meaning is more abstract and more generalized than the lexical meaning. It is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words as, for example, the meaning of plurality.

The definitions of **lexical meanings** given by various authors, though different in detail, agree in the basic principle: they all point out that **lexical meaning is realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system.** Measures of the meaning of a word are restricted by its relations with other words that are close in meaning. E.g.: the meaning of the word “вечір” is restricted on the one hand by the meaning of the word “день» (it is not a day already), and on the other hand – by the meaning of the word “night” («not the night yet»). The same goes for the word підліток — «not a grown-up yet», but at the same time «not a young man». The meaning of the word is also clarified by the context, which restricts one side of the meaning and intensifies others. E.g.: the word *чорний* in word combinations *чорна сажка, чорна хмара, чорний хліб, чорний хід, чорний день* has a different meaning.

It is common knowledge that there are many cases when one English word combines the meanings of two or more Ukrainian words expressing similar notions and vice versa. For example:

a) *boat* — судно, шлюпка, пароплав, човен; *coat* — пальто, піджак, китель; *desk* — парта, письмовий стіл; *floor* — підлога, покврх; *gun* — гарматна, рушниця; *cry* — кричати, плакати.

b) *нога* — foot and leg; *рука* — hand and arm; *годинник* — watch and clock; *пальці* — fingers and toes; *сон* — sleep and dream; *високий* — high and tall. The last example is particularly interesting because it reveals that the word high cannot cover all the cases of great vertical dimension, i.e. the scope of the notion and that of the meaning do not coincide.

The conceptual content of a word is expressed in its **denotative meaning**. To denote means to serve as a linguistic expression for a concept or a name for an individual object. It is the **denotational meaning** that makes communication possible.

Connotation is the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on where, when, by whom, for what purpose and in what context it may be used. There are four main types of connotations: **stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive/intensifying**.

Stylistic connotation is the expression in speech relationships between words and the appropriate functional style (*kill vs slay*); **evaluative connotation** shows the speaker's attitude (approval or disapproval) towards the object spoken of (*clique vs group*); **emotional connotation** conveys the speaker's emotions (*mommy vs mother*); the degree of intensity (*adore vs love*; *влюбоваться vs полюбоваться*) is expressed by **intensifying/expressive meaning**.

The interdependence of connotative and denotative meanings is different for different types of connotations. For instance, emotional connotation comes into being on the basis of denotative meaning but in the course of time may substitute it by other types of connotations with general emphasis, evaluation and colloquial stylistic overtone. E.g.: *terrific* originally meant "*frightening*" but now it means "*very good*" (colloquial style) (terrific pleasure); or *fucking* in "*You look fucking good today*".

Fulfilling **the significative and communicative functions** of the word the denotative meaning is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of the language.

The expressive function of the language (the speaker's feelings) and **the pragmatic function** (the effect of words upon the listener) are rendered in connotations. They are optional.

Connotation differs from implicational meaning of the word. **Implied meaning** is the implied information associated with the word, with what the speaker knows about the referent. *A wolf* is known to be greedy and cruel (implicational meaning) but the denotative meaning of this word does not include these features. **The denotative meaning** of it is "a wild animal resembling a dog that kills sheep and

sometimes even attacks men”. Its figurative meaning is derived from implied information from what we know about wolves – “*a cruel greedy person*”, also the adjective *wolfish* means “*greedy*”.

Many connotations associated with names of animals, birds, insects are universally understood and used, *e.g.*: *calf* (теля) – *a young inexperienced person*; *donkey* (осел) – *a foolish person*; *monkey* (мавна) – *a mischievous child*; *serpent* (змія) – *a treacherous, malicious person*. In Ukrainian the given above examples have the same meaning.

But it should be mentioned here that different languages structure the world differently. *E.g.*: the word *bug* has such figurative meanings in the English language as *a crazy, foolish person and an enthusiast*, the word *shark* means *a swindler*. In the Ukrainian language the words жук and акула do not have such meanings.

Sometimes words in different languages can have different meanings. *E.g.*: the word *gull* means *a fool, a swindler*, in the Ukrainian language the word чайка can be applied to a woman or a girl. The word *hawk* possesses a negative meaning in the English language (*a deceiver*), the word *coquil* is applied to a handsome and strong young man.

Metals possess well-established connotations, derived from their individual qualities. The word *gold* is associated with great worth. *Iron* and *steel* connote strength, *brass* – audacity, *lead* – sluggishness or weight and these connotations are similar in the contrasted languages.

3.3. POLYSEMY

Most words convey several concepts and thus possess the corresponding number of meanings. A word having only one meaning is called **monosemantic**. A word having several meanings is called **polysemantic** and the ability of words to have more than one meaning is called **polysemy**. Most English words are polysemantic. The wealth of expressive resources of a language depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in it. The process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding new words to it, but in constant developing of polysemy. The system of meanings of any polysemantic

word develops in the course of time, when some new meanings are added to the old ones, and some old ones are cast out. The general tendency with the English vocabulary at the modern stage of its development is to increase the total number of its meanings and in this way to provide a qualitative and quantitative growth of the language's expressive resources. E.g.: the word *stone* has the following meanings:

- 1) hard compact nonmetallic material of which rocks are made;
- 2) pebble;
- 3) the woody central part of such fruits as peach and plum;
- 4) jewellery, short for gemstone;
- 5) a unit of weight, used in Britain to express human body weight;
- 6) a calculus concretion in the body, as in the kidney.

In Ukrainian the word *земля* conveys the following meanings:

- 1) третя від Сонця планета;
- 2) верхній шар земної кори;
- 3) речовина темно-бурого кольору, що входить до складу земної кори;
- 5) суша;
- 6) країна, край, держава.

Polysemy is very characteristic of English vocabulary due to its monosyllabic character and the predominance of root words. The greater the frequency of the word, the greater number of meanings that constitute its semantic structure. There exists a law (Zipf's law) that expresses the correlation between frequency, word length and polysemy: the shorter the word, the higher its frequency of use; the higher its frequency, the wider its combinability; the wider its combinability, the more meanings are realized in its contexts.

The word in one of its meanings is termed a lexico-semantic variant of this word. All the lexico-semantic variants of a word taken together form its **semantic structure** or **semantic paradigm**. No general or complete scheme of types of semantic meanings have so far been adopted by linguists. The following terms are used: meaning can be either direct or figurative; main or derived; primary and secondary; concrete and abstract; general or special; narrow and extended.

These phenomena are characteristic of many languages: e.g., the word with the meaning of 'схоплювати' or 'уміщати' often gain the meaning of 'сприймати, розуміти', cf.: укр. *схотути* ("дитина швидко схоплює").

Meaning is **direct** when it nominates the referent without the help of context, in isolation: meaning is **figurative** when the referent is named and at the same time characterized through its similarity with other objects, e.g.:

Direct meaning

Tough meat

Head

Foot

Figurative meaning

Tough politician

Head of cabbage

Foot of a mountain

Primary meaning is the one existed in old variations of the language from which the later ones developed: *table* in Old English meant "a flat slab of stone or wood", the derived meaning in Modern English is "a piece of furniture used for having a meal on its surface".

A Ukrainian word, which has acquired additional positive connotations, is *голінний* among others. It originated from Old Slavonic *голаѣмъ*, which meant «huge, big» (cf. Bulg. *голям* – «big»). In Ukrainian it has acquired several positive meanings: «хвацький, бравий, жвавий»; «здатний до чогось, охочий до чогось».

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of one and the same word at a certain historical period of its development. In that case the problem of interdependence of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of a word must be investigated from the point of view of both their central/peripheral meanings and main/derived ones. **An objective criterion of determining the main or central meaning is the frequency of its occurrence in speech.**

Polysemy is a phenomenon of language, not speech. As a rule the contextual meaning represents only one of the possible lexico-semantic variants of the word. So polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language because the situation and the context cancel all the unwanted meanings.

There are several principles of analysis of the structure of meanings of polysemantic words. According to the first one (**different meanings analysis**), the semantic structure of a word is considered as a system of meanings. Meaning I holds a kind of dominance over meanings II and III conveying the concept in the most general way. Meanings II and III are associated with special circumstances, aspects of existence of the same phenomenon. Meaning I (usually referred to as **the main meaning**) presents the centre of the semantic structure of the word holding it together. It is only through meaning I that meanings II and III (they are called **secondary meanings**) can be associated with one another though each separately is easily associated with meaning I. E.g.: *meaning I of the word bar – any kind of a barrier preventing people from passing; meaning II is – the profession of a barrister, lawyer (to stand for the bar =to take exams for becoming a lawyer), meaning III – a counter or room in a hotel where drinks are served.*

Yet, some semantic structures are arranged on a different principle. If we compare the meanings of the adjective *dull* we will not be able to find any generalized meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure:

Dull – 1) uninteresting, monotonous; 2) slow in understanding, stupid; 3) not clear or bright; 4) not sharp; 5) not active; 6) not loud or distinct; 7) seeing badly; 8) hearing badly.

Cf. Ukrainian: 1) нецікавий; 2) тупий, дурний; 3) тупий, негострий; 4) неактивний (сленг «тупити», тобто робити щось повільно або не розуміти чогось).

All these meanings have an implication of some deficiency in common: that of colour, of intellect, interest, sharpness. The implication of insufficient quality, something lacking is clearly distinguished in each separate meaning. Such transformed scheme of the semantic structure of the adjective *dull* clearly shows that the centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but **a certain component** that can be easily singled out within each separate meaning.

Гарний – about a person whose features are attractive, красивий, вродливий (being born with attractive features), хороший

(beautiful and having an affable character), славний (well-known for his / her beauty), ладний (having a nice posture, figure and pleasant-looking features), доладний (having a nice, sportive figure), красний (good-looking), гожий, пригожий (the same meaning), ловкий (both good-looking and strong), красовитий, благоліпний, преподобний, сподобний (all these words are obsolete in modern Ukrainian, but have the same meaning of "having a good-looking face"), файний, хосний, леський, хунавий (all the words have the meaning "looking good" belong to dialects), прекрасний, чудовий, чарівний, пишний (having a figure of vivid curves or having an abundance of hair etc.); казковий (looking elfish); дивний (breathtaking), чудесний (charming), мальований (looking as nice as if being painted).

Here are some of the most common synonyms for the word beautiful in English. Some apply more specifically to a beautiful "person": *angelic (exceptionally beautiful and innocent), attractive (appealing to look at, sexually appealing), alluring (powerfully or strongly attractive), lovely (exquisitely beautiful), prepossessing (attractive or appealing by appearance), delightful (charming), gorgeous (beautiful, attractive, charming), stunning (extremely attractive), ravishing (delightful), radiant (emanating joy, health, love), divine (excellent, delightful), breathtaking (astonishing or awe-inspiring in quality so as to take one's breath away).* The main component that unites all these meanings is "pleasant to look at" or the one that expresses a certain degree of the quality "beautiful".

Each separate meaning can be subject to **structural (componential) analysis** in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components. In terms of componential analysis, the meaning of a word is defined as a set of elements of meaning, which are not part of the vocabulary of the language, but rather of theoretical elements, postulated in order to describe the semantic relations between the lexical units of a given language.

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is termed **denotative component**. The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of the word. But in order to give a more or less full picture of the meaning of a word, it is necessary to

include in the scheme of analysis additional semantic components which are termed **connotative components or connotations**:

Table 1.

Words	Denotative components	Connotative components
Notorious	Widely known	For criminal acts or bad traits of character
Celebrated	Widely known	For special achievements in art, science etc.
To glare	To look	Steadily, lastingly, in anger
To glance	To look	Briefly, passingly
To shiver	To tremble	Lastingly, with cold
To shudder	To tremble	Briefly, with horror, disgust

The system of meanings of polysemantic words evolves gradually. The older the word is, the better developed is its semantic structure. The normal pattern of a word's semantic development from monosemy to a simple semantic structure encompassing only two or three meanings, with a further movement to an increasingly more complex semantic structure.

3.4. CONTEXT. TYPES OF CONTEXT

The notion "context" is not equal to the notion "text". The number of contexts depends on the number of constituents of its units where the context corresponds to each of the constituent. As the text has a linear disposition, the context is presented by its left-hand (precedent) and right-hand (successive) parts. There are linguistic and extralinguistic types of context. A context can be explicit and implicit one. Depending on the function, there distinguished different types of linguistic contexts proper: untiring, supportive, repaying, compensating, intensifying. We shall understand the untiring context as the one which treats the polysemantic word as a monosemantic one, it removes the polysemy. E.g.: *there was a very bright star in the sky*. In the given context the word *star* means a heavenly body.

So, context is a combination of semantically realized word (the nucleus, the connotator) and its denotating minimum (denotator). A sum of all the contexts inherent to one of the meanings of a polysemantic word allows to draw out a set of units characteristic of every lexico-semantic variations of a polysemantic word.

There is always a chance for misunderstanding if a polysemantic word is used irrespectively the context. Context is a powerful preventative against any misunderstanding of meanings. As in the mentioned above adjective *dull* one can observe such actual meanings: *a dull pupil, a dull lesson, a dull razor-blade, dull weather* etc. Sometimes, however, such a minimum context fails to reveal the meaning of the word, as in the following example: *The man was large, but his wife was even fatter*. It may be correctly interpreted only through a **second-degree context**: the word *fatter* here serves as a kind of indicator pointing out that *large* describes a stout man and not a big one.

So, by the term “**context**” we shall understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The context individualizes the meanings, brings them out.

Roughly, context may be subdivided into lexical, syntactical and mixed. Lexical context, for instance, determines the meaning of the word *black* in the following examples. *Black* denotes colour when used with the key-word naming some material or thing, e. g. *black velvet, black gloves*. When used with key-words denoting feeling or thought, it means ‘*sad*’, ‘*dismal*’, e. g. *black thoughts, black despair*. With nouns denoting time, the meaning is ‘*unhappy*’, ‘*full of hardships*’, e. g. *black days, black period*. In Ukrainian one can find: *чорний день, чорні думки, чорна душа, чорна фарба*.

If, on the other hand, the indicative power belongs to the syntactic pattern and not to the words which make it up, the context is called syntactic. E. g. *make* means ‘*to cause*’ when followed by a complex object: *I couldn’t make him understand a word I said*.

The other two main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are **the lexical context and the grammatical context**. These types are differentiated depending on

whether the lexical or grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning.

In lexical contexts, of primary importance are lexical groups combined with the polysemantic words under consideration. E.g.: the adjective *heavy* in isolation means “*of heavy weight, weighty*”. When combined with the lexical group of words denoting natural phenomena as *wind, storm* etc. means “*following with force, abundant, striking*”, a *heavy storm, a heavy rain*. In combination with the words *industry, arms, artillery* the adjective *heavy* means “*the larger part of something*” as in *heavy industry*. In Ukrainian one can consider the word “*важкий*” which means: *a) той, що має велику вагу (важкв валіза), b) гнітючий, морально тяжкий (важкий день), c) значний, найбільш значущий (важка артилерія)*. But the word is not combined with the nouns “rain” or “storm”.

In grammatical context it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word, e. g.: *I made Peter study. He made a good teacher*. In the pattern to make + N (Pr.)+V inf. the word “*to make*” has the meaning “*to force*”. In the pattern to make + A + N the word “*to make*” means “*to turn out to be*”. In Ukrainian, the meaning of the verbs “*стати, ставати*” is not clear until they are placed in a grammatical context: *1) стали героєм; 2) стали на вагу; 3) стали на захист*.

Contextual analysis concentrates its attention on determining the minimal stretch of speech and the conditions necessary and sufficient to reveal in which of its individual meanings the word in question is used. In studying this interaction of the polysemantic word with the syntactic configuration and lexical environment contextual analysis is more concerned with specific features of every particular language than with language universals. So **linguistic (verbal) context** comprise lexical and grammatical contexts. They are opposed to **extra linguistic (non-verbal) contexts**. In extra-linguistic contexts the meaning of the word is determined not only by linguistic factors but the actual situation in which the word is used.

3.5. CAUSES OF DEVELOPING A NEW MEANING

Changes in meaning are as common as changes in form. Like the latter they can be internally or externally motivated. E.g.: the original meaning of the word *post* was '*a man stationed in a number of others along a road as a courier*', hence it came to mean the vehicle used, the packets and letters carried, a relay of horses, the station where horses could be obtained (shortened for post-office), a single dispatch of letters, as in the following: "It is a place with only one post a day" (Sidney Smith). It is also used as a title for newspapers. There is also the verb to post '*to put letters into a letter-box.*'

The equivalent to the paradigm in morphology is, in semantics, the word field in which words and their meanings stand in a network of relationships. The alteration of meaning occurs because words are constantly used and what is intended by speakers is not exactly the same each time. If a different intention for a word is shared by the speech community and becomes established in usage then a semantic change has occurred. The word *whole* originally meant 'unharméd', unwounded'. The early verb *whole* meant *to make whole*, hence 'heal'. Its sense of 'healthy' led to its use as a salutation, as in hail!

A semantic change is not acquired simultaneously by all members of a speech community. An innovation enters into a language and spreads through the speech community along socially determined lines. The original meaning of a form is not immediately displaced by the innovated meaning, but the two coexist for some time. Semantic change is not a complete and quick change in meaning, but the addition of a meaning to the semantic system or the loss of a meaning from the semantic system while the form remains constant. Semantic change does not occur with words in isolation. The group of items which are affected by a shift are called a word-field, i.e. a collection of items with related senses and denotations, e.g. terms for housing, for garments, for immediate relatives, for classification of human behaviour, etc.

Different kinds of changes in a nation's social life, in its culture, knowledge, technology, arts etc. lead to gaps appearing in the vocabulary which beg to be filled. Newly created objects, new concepts, phenomena must be named. Languages are powerfully affected by

social, political, economic, cultural, technical changes. Social factors can influence even structural features of linguistic units: terms of science, for instance, have a number of features as compared to words used in other spheres of human activity.

We already know of two ways for providing new names for newly created concepts: making new words (word-building) and borrowing foreign ones. **One more way of filling such vocabulary gaps is by applying some old word to a new object or notion.**

The word being a linguistic realization of notion, it changes with the progress of human consciousness. This process is reflected in the development of lexical meaning. As the human mind achieves an ever more exact understanding of the world of reality and objective relationships that characterize it, the notions become more and more exact reflections of real things.

The extra-linguistic motivation is sometimes obvious, but in some cases are as straightforward as they may look. For example, the swimming suit *bikini* was named after the *Bikini atoll* in the Western Pacific where atomic bomb testing was held. The impression of this suit worn for the first time was “atomic”, i.e. shocking.

The tendency to use technical imagery is increasing in every language, thus the expression *to spark off* in chain reaction is almost international. The expression *live wire*, though, used figuratively about a person of intense energy seems purely English. Other international expressions are *feed-back* and *black box*.

When first textile factories appeared in England, the old word *mill* was applied to them. So the word *mill* (an old English borrowing from Latin) added a new meaning to its former meaning of “*a building in which corn is ground into flour*”. The new meaning was “*textile factory*”. Why was that the word *mill* – not any other word was selected to denote the first textile factory? There must have been some connection between the former sense of *mill* and the new phenomenon to which it was applied. Mills that produced flour were mainly driven by water, and the textile factories also first used water. So, in general terms, the meaning of *mill*, both the old and the new one, could be

defined as “*an establishment using water power to produce certain goods*”.

In actual fact, the all cases of development or change of meaning are based on some association.

New meanings can also be developed due to linguistic factors (the second group of causes). The development of new meanings, and also a complete change of meaning, may be caused through the influence of other words, mostly of synonyms.

E.g.: **steorfan** *Old Eng.* – **to perish** – **to die** Scandinavian borrowing

To starve – to die (or suffer from hunger).

Deor *Old Eng.* – any beast – animal (*borrowed word*)

Deer – a certain kind of beast (олень).

The noun *knave* (O.E. *knafa*) suffered an even more striking change of meaning as a result of collision with its synonym *boy*. Now it has a pronounced negative evaluative connotation and means “scoundrel, swindler”.

The process of development of a new meaning is termed **transference**. It is important to note that in any case of semantic change it is not the meaning but the word that is being transferred from one referent onto another. The result of such a transference is the appearance of a new meaning.

In Ukrainian the word «боронити» is from Old Slavonic *borniti* which, in turn, originated from *bornъ* «quarrel, fight». In Modern Ukrainian the word has a rather positive meanings, as in:

a) *боронити* – to defend, to protect (*esp. in poetic style*);

b) *боронити* – to harrow (a land);

c) *боронити* – to forbid, to prohibit (*from doing smth.*).

The Ukrainian word «*бравий*» penetrated the lexicon from French (*bravoure* «bravery») through one of the Roman languages (either Italian or Spanish):

1. from It. *bravata* «impudent action, boasting», *bravura* «bravery, conceit», which, in turn, originated from Latin *bravus* «wild, coarse»;

2. from Sp. *bravo* «brave, courageous», which, in turn, originated from Latin *bravus* «wild, coarse».

In the Ukrainian language the word obtained rather positive meaning of «*brave, courageous person*».

The Ukrainian word «*деспот*» is of Greek origin: from Greek *despotēs* «*master, ruler, tyrant*». In Greek it had a faint pejorative meaning, but the latter was more progressive in the negative sense in most languages when characterizing the Roman emperors, Christian rulers of Ottoman Empire, etc. This is the case for the Ukrainian language, where the word has carried a negative connotation of «*rude, cruel ruler*», «*steel-hearted person*» since XVII c. (деспотъ (XVII c.).

The Ukrainian word «*драговина*», «*дряговина*» is of Old Slavonic origin: from Proto-Slavonic *dregati* (v.) – «to display sudden movements (of limbs), to jerk». In the Ukrainian language it gained a meaning of «*marsh, morass, mud*».

3.5.1. CHANGE OF MEANING

Sometimes, the process of transference may result in a considerable change in range of meaning. For example, the verb “*to arrive*” was borrowed from French in a narrow meaning “*to come to shore, to land*”. In Modern English it has considerably widened its combinability and developed the general meaning “*to come*”. The meaning developed through transference based on contiguity (the concept of coming somewhere is the same for both meanings), but the range of the second meaning is much wider.

Fond- люблячий – О.Е. *fond* (дурний),

Glad- радий – О.Е. *glad* (розумний),

Husband- чоловік – О.Е. *Hus- bonda* (власник будинку).

Extension (widening of meaning) is the extension of semantic capacity of a word, i.e. the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, e.g. *manuscript* originally meant “*written by hand*”; *warm* - 1) *теплый*; *зігрітий*, *підігрітий*; 2) *гарячий*; *серцевий*; 3) *гарячий*, *жагучий*, *палкий*;

dry - 1) *сухий*; 2) *сухий*, *стриманий*; 3) *холодний*; *безпристрасний*;

sharp - 1) *гострий, відточений, гострий*; 2) *розумний, кмітливий; дотепний; проникливий*; 3) *спритний, миткий; хитрий*;
to help: *лікувати, ціляти – допомагати*;
stock: *запас дров – запас будь-яких товарів*.

Extension of meaning means extension of the word range. In most cases it is naturally combined with a higher degree of abstraction than implied in the earlier meaning of the word.

Most words begin as specific names for things. However, this precise denotation is lost and the meaning of the word gets extended and generalized, e.g.: *Season* once had the meaning spring, time for sowing. Now it embraces all parts of the year. *Salary* once had the meaning the money to buy salt for. Now it means money to buy anything. *Thing* once meant anything that can be agreed on in trade. Now it has a generic meaning. *Town* once meant fence. Now it denotes a settlement. Cf.: Ukrainian: *город* (from Old Slavonic – *обгородити*, тобто *обгороджене місце-город*). *Arrive* once meant *to land, to reach the shore*. Now any place of destination is presupposed. *Free* once meant dear. Then according to the process of generalisation it acquired the meaning free. At first it was used in regard to someone from the family of a slave-owner, who he loved and respected. Then it was applied to any relative of a slave-owner. The opposition – free and slave – brought to the extension and change of meaning of the word.

It is interesting to trace the history of the word “girl” as an example of the changes in the range of meaning in the course of the semantic development of a word. In Middle English it had the meaning of “a small child of either sex”. Then the word underwent the process of transference based on contiguity and developed the meaning of “a small child of a female sex”, so that the range of meaning was somewhat narrowed. In its further semantic development the word gradually broadened its range of meaning. At first it came to denote not only a female child but, also, a young unmarried woman, later, any young woman, and in modern colloquial English it is practically synonymous to the noun *woman*.

Cf.: in Ukrainian the word *стріляти* originally meant “*випускати стрілу із лука*”, and now it has broadened its range of

meaning and now it means “стріляти з будь-якої зброї, що вражає на відстані”, «стріляти очима». Столяр meant той, що виготовляє столи. Now it means той, хто виготовляє вироби з дерева.

Narrowing of meaning is the restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the historical development. Here are some examples of narrowing of meaning:

deer: *any beas – a certain kind of beast;*

Meat: *any food – a certain food product*

Boy: *any young person of male sex – a servant of male sex*

It should be pointed out that in all words the second meaning developed through transference based on contiguity, and that when we speak of them as examples of narrowing of meaning we simply imply that the range of the second meaning is more narrow than that of the original meaning.

Elevation (or melioration) is the semantic change in the meaning of a word which rises it from humble beginning to a position of greater importance, e.g. “*minister*” in old times meant simply “*servant*”. Positive changes in evaluative connotation are seen in such an example: **fond:** *foolish – affectionate, loving; tory – a highwayman – a member of the Tories; knight – a man servant – a noble, courageous man.*

Degradation (or degeneration) of meaning is a semantic change, by which, for one reason or another, a word falls into disrepute, or acquires some derogatory emotive charge, e.g.: *silly* originally meant “*happy*”. These terms do not mean degeneration or elevation of the meaning itself, they mean degeneration or elevation of referent to which the word is transferred. E.g.: **gossip:** *God parent – the one who tells slanderous stories about other people.* The second meaning, in contrast with the one from which it developed, denotes a person of bad repute or character. *Imp* – (earlier) – «*a new twig of a plant*»; (later) – «*a child*»; (now) – «*a cruel person, devil*». *Gay* – «*happy, lively*; (now) – «*homosexual*».

Idiot meant *private* in Greek and *uneducated* in Latin. Now it has a negative meaning of *a fool* in both languages. *Greedy* meant *hungry*.

Now it means stingy. *Villain* meant a person living in the country. Now it means *a scoundrel*.

Semantically speaking, the second meaning developed a negative evaluative connotation which was absent in the first meaning. Such a readjustment in the connotative structure accompanying the process of transference can be observed in all cases of changing in the meaning of words. It can be either positive or negative. E.g.: *knave* used to mean “хлопчик, слуга; особа незнатного походження” has developed a negative meaning “негідник, шахрай”; adjectives “*sly*” with the meaning of “хитрий, спритний, прозорливий”; have developed the meaning of “*cutting* “підступний, хитрий, лукавий”; *crafty* “хитрий, лукавий, підступний”. All these adjectives have lost their initial connotations “митикуватий, умілий”. The same goes for the words “*lust*” “прагнення, похоть”; *lewd* «похитливий, розпусний»; *immoral* «аморальний»; *vice* «порок, зло»; *hussy* – «зухвале, розпусне дівчисько»; *harlot* “повія», «лиходій, негідник»; *boor*» «груба, необтесана, невихована людина»; *chur* «грубіян, нечема».

Lexical maning of words, especially those which are of life importance are very stable. The words belonging to native word stock are thousands years old but their meaning remains unchanged.

But some words acquire new meanings and this process go in three directions: narrowing, broadening or shifting. E.g.: the word *печиво* used to mean evetything baked of flour, now it means «кондитерські вироби з борошна»; the word *квас* used to mean «усе кисле», now it means «кислуватий напій із житнього хліба або житнього борошна»; the word *каша* used to mean «будь-яка густа їжа, звільнена від рідини», now it means «страва з крути, зварена на воді або молоці».

Narrowing of meaning is the process when a word acquires a specialised sense in which it is applicable only to some of the objects it had previously denoted or a word of wide usage is restricted in its application and comes to be used only in a special sense. E.g.: In Shakespeare’s „King Lear“ *there is a reference made to mice and rats and such small deer*. In Old English *deer* meant any beast. *Coffin* once meant a box. Then it began to mean a special box for the dead. These

are the cases in which narrowing took place due to the concretization of meaning. Sometimes narrowing takes place due to the differentiation of concepts. This is the case when two words were synonyms once and then they acquired different meanings. E.g.: *Stool* once meant *табурет і стілець*. After the word *chair* was borrowed from French, the word *stool* began to be used only for *табурет*. Attributes when used continuously with a word may lead to the narrowing of meaning: *corn* (*Indian corn*), *private* (*private soldier*). Narrowing can take place when the name of the material is transferred onto the thing made of this material: *iron*, *kids*.

It is a well-known fact that people tend to specialise and thus to narrow the meanings of words connected with their special activities.

E.g.: The word *operation* (*операція*) has quite different meanings to a financial worker, to a mathematician, to a military man and to a physician.

The word *поле* used to mean «*безліса рівнина, порожній великий простір*», now besides the mentioned meaning it has the following ones:

- a) «*ділянка землі, відведена під що-небудь*»,
- b) «*простір, у межах якого відбувається якась дія*»,
- c) «*сфера діяльності*»,
- d) «*смужка вздовж краю аркуша паперу*»,
- e) «*відігнуті краї капелюха*» etc.

The word *столяр* had a meaning «*той, хто робить столи*», now — «*виготовлювач виробів із дерева*»; the word *меценат* was a proper name of a Roman politician who provided material support to Vergil and Horace, now *меценат* — «*багатий покровитель наук та мистецтв*».

As a result of a semantic shift the word may acquire another meaning, e. g.: the word *берег* used to mean «*гора*» (cf. німецьке Berg «*гора*»), now it means «*край землі, що межує з річкою, озером, морем*»; the word *благий* in Old Slavonic had the meaning of «*добросердий, лагідний*», now it means «*старий, убогий*» {*благий одяг*}. First the word *мабуть* expressed certainty (*має бути*), now it has the meaning of uncertainty; the same goes for the words *очевидно*,

певно, напевно. The word “стріла” now means “рухлива частина піднімального крана”, “супутник” – “космічний апарат, за допомогою ракетних пристроїв запускається на орбіту у космічний простір”, “навантаження” – “обов’язок, доручення”, “перегин” – “порушення правильної лінії, шкідлива крайність”.

Nice meant *foolish*. The word was gradually specialised in the sense foolishly particular about trifles. Then the idea of folly was lost and particular about small things, accurate came into existence. *To adore* had the meaning *to speak with, to greet, to address*. Now it means *to love, to worship*. The words *офіс, менеджмент, кур’єр* are considered to have better meanings than *контора, управління, посылний*.

The survival of two grammatically equivalent forms of the same word when they help to distinguish between its lexical meanings. Some nouns, for instance, have two separate plurals, one keeping the etymological plural form, and the other with the usual English ending -s. For example, the form *brothers* is used to express the family relationship, whereas the old form *brethren* survives in ecclesiastical usage or serves to indicate the members of some club or society; the scientific plural of *index*, is usually *indices*, in more general senses the plural is *indexes*. The plural of *genius* meaning a person of exceptional intellect is *geniuses*, genius in the sense of evil or good spirit has the plural form *genii*.

Sometimes the meaning of the word is changed for the opposite one, remaining expressed by the same word: *Спасибі, дідусю, що ти заховав в голові столітній ту славу козачу; я її онукам тепер розказав (Т. Шевченко). На весь куток іде слава про її сварливу вдачу (О. Котиленко).*

Thus, the changes in the denotational component brings about the extension or restriction of meaning. The change in the connotational component may result in degradation – pejorative or ameliorative development of meaning.

3.5.2. TRANSFERENCE BASED ON RESEMBLANCE. METAPHOR

Metaphor is the transfer of name based on the association of similarity. It is the application of a name or a descriptive term to an object to which it is not literally applicable. E.g.: the head of Parliament, the head of the army, eye of a needle. This type of transference is also referred to as **linguistic metaphor**.

Metaphor may be based on the resemblance of two physical objects: *the neck of a bottle*; Ukr.: *вушко голки, mouth – рот*. Its metaphoric meanings are: 1) *отвір, вихід*; 2) *гир. устя вироблення*; 3) *вхід (у гавань, печеру)*; 4) *устя (рік; горлечко (пляшки))*; 5) *восн. дуло; дульце (гільзи)*; 6) *вікно (магазину)*; 7) *тех. зів, устя*; 8) *вихідний патрубок*; 9) *розтруб and so on*.

Leg - нога, and its metaphoric meanings are: 1) *ніжка; підпірка, підставка*; 2) *стійка*; 3) *етап, частина шляху*; 3) *спорт. тур, коло*; 4) *лінійка (рейшини)*; 5) *тех. косяк*; 6) *коліно*; 7) *косинець*; 8) *ел. фаза*; 9) *плече (трифазної системи) etc.*

The meaning of the word “**branch**” is “*limb or subdivision of a plant or tree*”; but there is also “*a branch of industry or art*”, so it brings us to understanding that transference based on resemblance association is possible between a concrete object and an abstract concept. The noun “*star*” in the meaning of “*heavenly body*” has developed a meaning of “*a famous actor*” with a slightly ironical colouring. Then the ironical colouring was gone. The word has acquired a much wider usage as a *football star, a pop-star* etc. This meaning implies a God-like look with rays of glory. The original meaning is weakened and erased.

The meaning formed on resemblance often occur in slang of informal speech: *carrot or ginger* for a red-haired person, *rat* for the one who is given to spying etc. Both these meanings are used metaphorically. The slang meanings of words such as “*nut*”, “*onion*” (*head*), “*saucers*” (*eyes*) were all formed by transference based on resemblance.

Ukrainian folk songs and dumas are extremely rich in metaphors: *Чорна рілля заорана, і пулями засіяна, білим тілом зволочена, і*

кров'ю сполошена; білі руки ламала. Battles of the cossak era are depicted as happy events: “з ляхами тиво варити починайте». Death is described as an inevitable event, not a sad, but a desirable one, it is sometimes compared with a wedding: “душа козацька розсталася з тілом”, «взяв собі паняночку – в чистому полі земляночку». Other examples of metaphors in Ukrainian folk songs are: *слава не помре, не впаде; віру топтати; ніченька обіймає душу; молитва визволяє; господь допомогає; недобрый час прийшов; горе б'є; прийде суд; прийшла журба; доля обізвалася.* Metaphoric expressions are formed on the resemblance of form: *журавель колодязя, серезжки верби;* colour: *материнська сивина, сивина турбот, калинова кров;* quality: *лампада сонця, дзеркальце води, леза молній, глибина небес, тиша душі, маленька плакса.*

Metaphoric change of meaning is often observed in idiomatic compounds. The transfer of name based on the association of similarity is as often in English as in Ukrainian. The transfer of name based on the association of similarity of nouns has **the pattern animal – human being**. Here are several examples studied by a Ukrainian scholar L. Verba:

English	Ukrainian
Fox - a cunning person	Лис -хитра, підступна людина
Sheep -an easily led or unimaginative, silly person	Вівця -покірпа, ляклива людина
Dog -an ugly, boring or rude person	Пес -погана, негідна людина, посіпака, прислуга
Parrot -a person who, without thought or understanding, merely repeats the words of other people	Папуга -той, хто не має власної думки
Hen -a woman esp. busybody or gossip	Квочка -жінка, що опікується тільки дітьми
Pig -a person of piglike character or behavior, esp. one who is fat, greedy, selfish	
Swine -a coarse, brutishly sensual person	Свиня -брудна чи нечесна, підла людина

Cock-a leader, chief person

Rabbit-a person who is poor at sport, esp. golf, cricket, tennis

Cow-a large, obese, slovenly woman

Bull-a large, solidly built person

Ass-a stupid, foolish, stubborn person

Goat-a licentious or lecherous man; lecher

Hawk-any person who pursues an aggressive policy in business, government etc.

Dove-an innocent, gentle, tender person

Magpie-a talkative person, noisy character

Viper- a false or treacherous person

Snake- an insidious enemy, a treacherous person

Owl- a person of owl-like appearance or solemnity

Lark-a merry, carefree adventure, frolic, escapade

Goose- a foolish or silly person

Shark-a person who preys greedily on others, as by cheating or usury

Jackal-a person who performs dishonest or base deeds as the follower or accomplice of another

Півень-хоробрий, бадьорий, що іноді має зверхній вигляд

Кролик-немає відповідника, але **заєць**-боягуз

Корова-незграбна, товста, негарна жінка

Бугай- здоровий непрацьовитий чоловік

Віслук-нерозумна вперта людина

Цап- а borrowing from Russian and means the same

Яструб-войовничий

Голуб, **голубка**-пестливе звертання до чоловіка, жінки

Сорока- балакуха

Гадюка-зла, підступна людина

Змія-зла підступна людина

Сова-людина, що пізно лягає і плідно працює вночі

Жайворонок-людина, що рано встає і плідно працює зранку

Гусак, **гуска**-бундючний, зарозумілий, але дурний чоловік

Акула-хижак; у бізнесі людина, здатна на все заради вигоди

Шакал-негідник, який діє підло, зненацька

Cat -a woman given to a malicious or spiteful gossip	Кішечка, киця -пестливе, хоч і дещо зневажливе звертання до жінки
Puppy -a conceited or empty-headed young man	Щеня -зарозумілий молодий чоловік
Ducky -dear, sweetheart, darling	Качка - відповідника немає
Peacock -a vain, self-conscious person	Павич -гордовита, пихата людина
Bear -gruff, burly, clumsy, bad-mannered or rude person	Ведмідь -незграбний, неповороткий чоловік
Mouse -a quiet, timid person	Мишка -непримітна, тиха людина (переважно жінка)
Rat - a scoundrel, a person who betrays his party, esp. in the time of trouble	Пацюк -товста людина
Wolf -a cruelly rapacious person, who makes amorous advances to many women	Вовк -уособлення злості й жадібності
Crocodile - a person who makes a hypocritical show of sorrow	Крокодил -страховисько
Cuckoo -a crazy, silly, foolish person	Зозуля -жінка, яка відмовляється від дітей

Verbs denoting animals' cries are used metaphorically with reference to human beings: *bark* - to utter an abrupt, explosive cry; *cackle* - to produce a shrill, broken cry or sound as of a hen; *завкати, лаятися* – розмовляти грубо, образливо, використовуючи лайливі або принизливі слова; *цокотіти* – розмовляти швидко, нерозбірливо; *мурчати, муркати* – говорити повільно, з ласкавими інтонаціями.

3.5.3. TRANSFERENCE BASED ON CONTIGUITY. METONYMY

Metonymy is the transfer of name based in the association of contiguity (близькість, суміжність). It is a universal device in which the name of one object (or concept) is changed for that of another, to

which it is related by association of ideas, as having close relationship to one another, e.g.: *the chair* may mean “*the head of the committee, chairman*”; *the bar* may mean “*the lawyers*”.

Another term for this type of transference is linguistic metonymy. The association is based upon subtle psychological links between different objects and phenomena, sometimes traced and identified with much difficulty. The two objects may be associated together because they often appear in common situations, and so the image of one is easily accompanied by the image of the other; or they may be associated on the principle of cause and effect, of common function, of some material and an object which is made of it, etc.

The foot of a bed is the place where the feet lie when one rests on the bed; and *the leg of a bed* is the part which serves as a support: the original meaning being “the leg of a man or animal”. The association here lies behind this development of meaning is the common function: a piece of furniture is supported by its legs as living beings are supported by theirs.

But *the foot of a mountain* got its name by another association: the foot of a mountain is its lowest part, so that the association here is founded on common position.

The meaning of the noun “*hand*” is realised in the context “**hand of a clock**” originated from the main meaning of this noun “part of a human body”. It also developed due to the association of the common function: the hand of a clock points to the figures on the face of the clock, and one of the functions of human hand is also that of pointing to things. Another meaning of “**hand**” realised in such contexts as *factory hands, farm hands* is based on another kind of association: strong, skilful hands are the most important feature that is required of a person engaged in physical labour.

Meanings produced through transference based on contiguity sometimes originate from geographical or proper names. *China* in the sense of “*dishes made of porcelain*” originated from the name of the country which is considered to be the birthplace of porcelain. *Tweed* – a coarse wool cloth got its name from the river Tweed in England, from the same source comes the name of *cheviot*- a kind of leather - from the

Cheviot hills in England. Ukrainian: *золото у вухах, кришталь на столі, столове срібло, вивчали Шевченка, подай математику, зібралася вся школа, відділ у відпустці, немає серця.*

Consider the following examples:

English	Ukrainian
From <i>her cradle</i> she was self-willed	До цього ж закликав <i>дитячий фонд</i>
<i>Hospitals</i> rob everyone of dignity	Банкова різко понизила його шанси на прем'єрство
<i>The White House</i> says It's okay	Вона вся у <i>золоті</i>
He played <i>Gershwin</i>	<i>Перша скрипка</i> оркестру
Aren't you a <i>real Lady Galahad</i>	Не вистачає <i>робочих рук</i>

Synecdoche is a figure of speech in which a part is used to represent the whole e.g.: *ABCs for alphabet*; or the whole for a part *England won the World Cup in 1966, Київ стить, гомоніла Україна, з'їсти тарілку*. Synecdoche is often treated as a type of metonymy. It is a specific kind of transference of lexical meaning as it is based on logical correlations that exist in a man's mind.

Paronomasia (Gr. paronomasia — "about naming") is a stylistic device which is based on close using of words which have an almost identical pronunciation but a different meaning: *талант твій латаний* (Т. Шевченко); *вогонь вагань* (Д. Фальківський); *будьте безумні — не зимні, атоми утоми* (П. Тичина); *серпанок серпня* (І. Драч); *груді грудня* (М. Вінграновський); *у білій білоті недосягання* (В. Стус); *Зимно, зимно вітер над землею віє. І кричить, і виє, і когось шукає* (О. Олесь).

Paronomasia can be called a sound metaphor, using which the author tries to make close not only the sound form, but also the semantics of the words. It causes the sense of different words mix and become close to one another. New unexpected associations can emerge: *Синь уже синіє. Ніч іде нечутно, та для міста ночі наче і нема* (В. Сосюра); *Борвій-бурани хотів дерева в брані; І ніжним чадом, чудом чистим бузкова свічка понад листом вже злотом-променем*

жива (І. Драч); *І вже болить душа на дуб здубіла, в цій чужаниці, чужбі, чужині!* (В. Стус).

Hyperbole is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration, e.g. «to hate» (doing something), (not to see somebody) «for ages», сто років тебе не бачив, ненавиджу запізнюватися.

Hyperbole is often used to form phraseological units, e.g. «to make a mountain out of a molehill», «to split hairs» etc.

Litote is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker expresses affirmative with the negative or vica versa, e.g. not bad, непогано, no coward etc.

Different in the contrasted languages are the types of connection (space, time, causative-consecutive) upon which the change of meaning is fulfilled. Different is also the productivity of transference types.

To conclude one should bear in mind that Ukrainian being a poetic language is extremely rich in metaphors, hyperbole, paronomasia.

Problems for revision:

1. What types of meanings are there?
2. What is polysemy?
3. What types of lexical meanings are there?
4. What are the reasons of changes of lexical meanings?
5. What are the ways of transference of lexical meanings?
6. What types of context are there?
7. What's synecdoche?
8. What's paronomasia?
9. What's litote?
10. What's hyperbole?

4. SYNONYMS, ANTONYMS, HOMONYMS, EUPHEMISMS

4.1. SYNONYMS. A SYNONYMIC GROUP AND ITS DOMINANT MEMBER

Synonyms are two or more words belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical meanings, interchangeable in some contexts. These words are distinguished by different shades of meaning, connotations and stylistic features. Words that have a common meaning in their semantics are united in synonymic groups (nests). E.g. the mood of despair in O. Wilde's poem "Taedium Vitae" (Weariness of Life) is felt due to an accumulation of epithets expressed by words with negative, derogatory connotations, such as: *desperate, paltry, gaudy, base, lackeyed, slanderous, lowliest, meanest.*

The synonymic dominant is the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group. The words *face, visage, countenance* are synonyms as they have a common denotational meaning – the front of the head which makes them close synonyms. *Face* is the dominant, the most general word; *countenance* is the same part of the head with the reference to the expression it bears; *visage* is a formal word, chiefly literally, for *face* or *countenance*.

All (or at least most) synonymic groups have a "central" word of this kind whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all the synonymic group, cf.:

to surprise- to astonish- to amaze- to astound

to shout- to yell- to bellow- to roar

to shine- to flash- to blaze- to gleam- to glisten- to sparkle- to glitter- to shimmer- to glimmer

to tremble- to shiver –to shudder- to shake

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent. So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word. Its meaning, which is broad and generalized, more or less covers the meaning of the rest of the synonyms, so that it may be substituted for any of them. Yet, such substitution would mean an irreparable loss of the additional information supplied by connotative components of each synonym.

The following characteristic features of the dominant synonym can be underlined:

- 1) high frequency of use;
- 2) broad combinability, i.e. the ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words;
- 3) broad general meaning;
- 4) lack of connotations, (this goes for stylistic connotations as well, so that neutrality as to style is also a typical feature of the dominant synonym).

One must bear in mind that the majority of frequent words are polysemantic and it is precisely the frequent words that have many synonyms. The result is that a polysemantic word may belong in its various meanings to several different synonymic groups, e.g.:

- 1) *Piece, parcel, section, segment, fragment*;
- 2) *member, organ, constituent, element, component*.

The semantic structure of two polysemantic words sometimes coincide in more than one meaning, but never completely. In a great number of cases the semantic difference between two or more synonyms is supported by the difference in valency.

As many words have a broad semantics they can join several synonymic groups. For example the English word *great* enters such synonymic groups:

- a) in the meaning of *unusually large* it enters the group *immense, enormous, gigantic, huge, vast, grand*;
- b) in the meaning of *notable* it enters the group *remarkable, exceptional, outstanding, noteworthy*;
- c) in the meaning of *important* it enters the group *significant, consequential, weighty, serious, momentous, vital, critical*.

In Ukrainian the adjective *великий* also enters different semantic groups:

- a) *великий, чималий, немалий, величезний, велетенський, гігантський, колосальний, грандіозний, могутній, потужний, здоровий, здоровезний, порядний, отакенний*;
- в) *великий, монументальний, капітальний, масивний, громіздкий, об'ємний, рослий*;

- c) великий, дорослий;
- d) великий, видатний, славетний.

Synonyms are one of the language's most important expressive means. The principal function of synonyms is to represent the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variations. Synonyms add precision to each detail of description and the correct choice of a word from a group of synonyms may colour the whole text. The duality of synonyms is, probably, their most confusing feature.

4.1.1. CRITERIA OF SYNONYMS

In contemporary research of synonymy semantic criterion is used. In terms of componential analysis synonyms may be defined as words with the same denotative component, but differing in connotations, or in connotative components.

A group of synonyms may be studied with the help of their dictionary definitions (**definitional analysis**). In this work the data from various dictionaries are analysed comparatively. After that the definitions are subjected to transformational operations (**transformational analysis**). In this way, the semantic components of each analysed word are singled out.

For example:

	Denotation		Connotation
To stare	To look	Steadily, lastingly	in surprise, curiosity
To glare	To look	Steadily, lastingly	In anger, rage, fury
To gaze	To look	Steadily, lastingly	In tenderness, admiration, wonder

In Ukrainian: *дивитися* – *випіюватися* – *споглядати*. The denotation of the given words is the same – «to look» but the connotation is quite different: «*дивитися*» means the process of using eyes for getting the image of the object, «*випіюватися*» means to look steadily as if in deep thought and «*споглядати*» means to look at some object observing it.

The common denotation convincingly shows that, according to the semantic criterion, the words grouped in the above table are synonyms. The connotative component highlights their differentiations.

4.1.2. CLASSIFICATION OF SYNONYMS

In modern research on synonyms **the criterion of interchangeability** is applied. According to this, **synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning.**

There are different types of synonyms. There are different approaches to classification of synonyms and, respectively, different terms are used to denote classes of synonyms. Here are some of the terms used in different sources and their definitions.

Synonyms are subdivided into language and contextual ones. Language synonyms are those which do not depend on the context, they are felt as synonyms irrespective of the context: *життєпис-біографія; абетка-азбука-алфавіт; визискування-експлуатація; всесвіт-космос; лаштунки-куліси.*

The synonyms are contextual if they are felt as such only in certain contexts or in certain word combinations: *чешу (їду) до хати; сива (давня) історія; заливатися (сміятися) без причини* тощо.

According to the criterion of interchangeability in the context synonyms are classified into total (absolute), relative and contextual.

Total (повні, абсолютні) synonyms are those members of a synonymic group which can replace each other in any given context, without any slightest alteration in denotative meaning or emotional meaning and connotations. Absolute synonyms are those which are interchangeable in all the contexts as their meanings are very close.

Examples can be found mostly in special literature among technical terms and the like: *fatherland – motherland; suslik – gopher; noun – substantive; functional affix – inflexion; scarlet fever – scarlatina.*

In Ukrainian: *століття – сторіччя, сум – смуток, орфографія – правопис, процент – відсоток, екземпляр – примірник, тираж – наклад, фотографія – світлина, аеродром – летовище, борошно –*

мука, площа – майдан, півники – іриси, нагідки – календула, воротар – голкіпер, мовознавство – лінгвістика, лелека – чорногуз – бусел, оплески – аплодисменти, доказ – аргумент, зодчий – архітектор, відтінок – нюанс, літак – аероплан, укол – ін'єкція, вітрило – парус.

Relative (відносні) synonyms are those which denote different degree of the same notion or different shades of meanings and can be substituted only in some contexts. E.g.: ask-beg-implore; like-love-adore; gift-talent-genius; famous-celebrate-eminent.

In Ukrainian *добрий (про людину), чуйний, співчутливий, доброзичливий, щирий, людяний, уважний, приятний, прихильний.*

Contextual (контекстні) or context-dependent synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. It may happen that the difference between the meanings of two words is contextually neutralized, e.g. *to buy* and *to get* would not generally taken as synonyms, but in the following examples they are synonyms: We'll go to the baker's and get (buy) some bread.

In Ukrainian the synonyms *замурзаний, заяложений, каламутний, неприбраний, нечистий* have different collocability and combinability. Though their common semantic meaning is «брудний», it isn't possible to interchange them in the word combinations: *замурзане обличчя, заяложений одяг, каламутна вода, неприбрана кімната, нечиста гра.* Their semantic meaning doesn't allow to make such changes.

A more modern and more effective approach to the classification of synonyms may be based on the **definition describing synonyms as words differing in connotations.**

According to whether the difference is in denotational or connotational component synonyms are classified into ideographic and stylistic.

It seems convenient to classify connotations by which synonyms differ rather than synonyms themselves. It opens possibilities for tracing much subtler distinctive features within their semantic structure.

1. The connotation of degree of intensity can be traced in such groups of synonyms as:

To surprise-to astonish-to amaze-to astound;
To satisfy- to please-to content- to gratify- to delight- exalt;
To shout- to yell-to bellow-to roar;
To like-to admire- to love-to adore- to worship.

In Ukrainian one can find such examples as:

захоплюватися-любити-обожнювати;
товариш-приятель-друг-побратим;
здібний-обдарований-талановитий
нещастя-горе-трагедія.

Some words have two and more connotative components in their semantic structure. In the above list the synonymic groups headed by ***to satisfy*** and ***to like*** contain words which can be different not only in connotation of intensity but also by the **connotation of manner**. Each of them describes the feeling of a different type, and not only of different intensity.

2. **The connotation of duration.** In the group of synonyms *to stare-to glare-to gaze-to peep-to peer* all the synonyms except *to glance* denote a lasting act of looking at somebody or something, whereas *to glance* describes a brief, passing look. These synonyms may be said to have a connotation of duration in their semantic structure.

In Ukrainian the synonyms *вести річ (держати річ), просторікувати-говорити* can serve as examples. The word “*просторікувати*” means “*to talk much and slowly*”, the word “*вести річ*” is used when one means “*to talk calmly and to be argumentative with the aim of convincing somebody*” and the word “*говорити*” has the most general meaning.

3. **Emotive connotation.** In the group *alone-single-lonely-solitary* the adjective *lonely* has an emotive connotation. E.g.: *She was alone* implies simply the absence of company; but *She was lonely* stresses the melancholy and desolation resulting from being alone. *A single tree on the plain* states that there is only one tree on the plain not two or more, but *a lonely tree* gives the same information but also creates an emotionally coloured picture.

In Ukrainian the words *(no)одинокий-самотній* present the meaning “*to be the only one that is present; without other*

representatives of the same species” and “*to feel lonely*”. The words *говорити-паякати, шварґотіти, ленемати* also represent shades of emotive connotation, e.g.: “*паякати*” means to speak senselessly as if one is drunk; the word “*шварґотіти*” means to speak not distinctly and the word “*ленемати*” means to speak not convincingly, in a childish manner, timidly. These words are used if the listener wants to demonstrate that he considers the speaker to be an unimportant or not a trustworthy person.

4. Evaluative connotation conveys the speaker’s attitude towards the referent, labeling it as good or bad. So in the group *well-known-famous-notorious-celebrated*, the adjective *notorious* bears a negative evaluative connotation and *celebrated* a positive one. In the group *to produce-to create to manufacture to fabricate*, the verb *to create* possesses the characteristics of the process of creation as noble and inspired. So, it may be said to have a positive evaluative connotation while *to manufacture* which possesses the meaning of “*to produce mechanically without creativity or imagination*” has a negative evaluative connotation.

In Ukrainian the synonymic chain *говорити-висловлюватися, ректи, глаголати, цвенькати, подейкувати, балакати, гомоніти, просторікувати, молоти, верзти, базікати*; or *обличчя, лице, фізіономія* present the evaluative connotation. The word “*висловлюватися*” means to speak convincingly; the words “*ректи*” and “*глаголати*” mean to use elevated style or poetic (maybe archaic) words while speaking; the word “*цвенькати*” means to speak in a manner that no one can consider respectful, convincing and the speech trustworthy; the words “*молоти*”, “*верзти*” mean to say something unpleasant or that no one wants to hear and the word “*базікати*” means to talk on thing of little importance.

5. Causative connotation can be illustrated by the example *to sparkle* and *to glitter*. One’s eyes *sparkle* with *positive* emotions and *glitter* with *negative* emotions. The causative connotation is also typical of the verbs *to shiver* and *to shudder*. In their semantic structures the process of trembling is encoded as “to tremble with fever, cold, because of the frost” and “to tremble with fear, disgust, anger, horror”.

In the Ukrainian language the word «*трястися*» is easily combined both with the word “*від холоду*” and “*від страху*”, but the word «*здрігнутися*” is combined with the word “*від огиди*” or «*несподіванки*»

6. The connotation of manner can be singled out in some groups of verbal synonyms. The verbs *to stroll - to stride- to trot - to pace - to swagger - to stagger - to stumble* all denote different ways and types of walking, encoding in their semantic structure the length of pace, tempo, gait and carriage, purposefulness or lack of purpose.

In Ukrainian the synonymic row *йти-швендяти-чалати-тягти ноги-пересуватися-брести-повзти-йти спроквола* presents different manners of walking. The word “*йти*» has a neutral and most general meaning, while the word “*брести*” means to walk slowly as if one lacks strength or energy, and the word “*швендяти*” means to walk without a definite aim, just to pass the time. The word “*пересуватися*” describes the process of moving from one place or another on a flat surface with or without the help of any means.

7. Connotation of attendant features. *To peer* is characteristic of looking at something or somebody thoroughly as *to peer through fog; to peer through dimmed windows; to peer from a big distance*. So, in the semantic structure of *to peer* are encoded circumstances preventing one from seeing clearly.

In Ukrainian the synonymic chain *дивитися-вдивлятися-роздивлятися-втупити очі-оглядати-кинути погляд-накинути оком* demonstrate different ways of producing the act of looking, e.g.: “*роздивлятися*” means to look for a long time, as if trying to remember; the word “*вдивлятися*” means to look with the intension to see more clearly; the word group “*кинути погляд*” means to look briefly or secretly; the word group “*втупити очі*” means to look but not see as if in deep thought; the word group “*накинути оком*” means to pay special attention to somebody or demonstrate that the person is sexually attractive to you.

Stylistic connotations are subjected to further classification, namely: colloquial, slang, dialect, learned, poetic, terminological,

archaic. In many cases a **stylistic synonym** has an element of elevation in its meaning, e.g.: *face-visage*; *girl-maiden*.

In Ukrainian one can find *говорити-мовити-верзти-базікати* or *обличчя-лика, морда, рилю*.

Along with elevation of meaning there is a reverse process of **degradation**: *to begin-to fire away*; *to eat-to devour*; *to steal-to pinch*.

Pictorial language always uses poetic words, archaisms as **stylistic alternatives** of neutral words: *maid* for *girl*; *bliss* for *happiness*; *steed* for *horse*; *quit* for *leave*.

Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality. They are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g.: *beautiful-fine-handsome-pretty*. *Beautiful* conveys the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that quality in its fullest extent, while the other terms denote the possession of it in part only. Fineness, handsomeness, prettiness are to beauty as parts to a whole.

In Ukrainian we observe: *завірюха - хуртовина - віхола - метелиця*. Each of the synonyms presents a shade of the meaning of the notion “a snowstorm” but of a different intensity or duration. Also *говорити-виступати, проголошувати, розмовляти; тихий-повільний, спокійний, хата-дім, будинок, житло, квартира; дорога- шлях, гостинець, путь, узвіз, тракт, бетонка*.

Synonymic groups contain the element which present the most general meaning, e.g.: in the synonymic group *choose, select, opt, elect, pick* the word *choose* has the most general meaning, the others are characterized by differences clearly statable:

Select implies a wide choice of possibilities;

opt implies an alternative;

pick often implies collecting and keeping for future use;

elect implies choosing by vote.

Compare the synonymic groups: *blaze (to burn fiercely), flame (to burn or cause to burn brightly), flare (to burn or cause to burn with an unsteady or sudden bright flame), glow (to emit a steady even light without flames)*. All these words express a different intensity and stages of the process of burning.

Comparative analysis of synonymic groups in the English and Ukrainian languages states that in English one can find a great number of stylistic-ideographic (non-derivational) synonyms which give a detailed description of quality, action, process etc. But they have stylistic restrictions in usage (colloquial speech only). Let's consider a group of synonyms each member of which is a borrowing from Latin and is stylistically neutral or belongs to bookish or official layer:

Think – brood (ponder morbidly or persistently), celebrate (to use the mind, think, ponder, consider), cogitate (to think deeply about a problem, possibility etc.), consider (to think carefully about something), contemplate (to think about intently and at length especially for spiritual reasons), deliberate (to consider something deeply), meditate (to think about something deeply), muse (to reflect or ponder on, usually in silence), ponder (to give thorough or deep consideration to).

A corresponding group of synonyms in the Ukrainian includes more words which are of colloquial or ironic character: *думати, роздумувати, гадати, мислити, метикувати, міркувати, аналізувати, помишляти, мізкувати, кумекати, микитити.*

Meal: *snack, bite (col.); snap (dial); repast, refreshment, feast (formal).* These synonyms, apart from stylistic connotations, have connotations of attendant features. *Snack, bite, snap* denote a frugal meal taken in a hurry, *refreshment* is also a light meal; *feast* means a rich or abundant meal.

Їсти: *жерти, затихатися, об'їдатися, споживати, жититися, (похатцем) перекусити, (захланно) вульг. лугати, (багато) наминати, перти/кидати на зуби, кидати за драбину.*

Girl: *girlie (col.); lass, lassie (dial.); bird, birdie, jane, fluff, skirt (sl.); maiden (poet.); damsel (arch.).*

Ukrainian: **дівчина** - *дівча, дівчина, дівчинонька, дівка, дівуля, діва, леді, жінка, баба, бабиця, жіночка.*

Synonymic groups of adjectives are very numerous in both languages.

The Ukrainian language has a rich potential in creating stylistic synonyms as it contains a large number of diminutive and coarse suffixes which are very productive in creating ideographic and stylistic-

ideographic synonyms of neutral words which belong to different parts of speech: *хвилиночка, спатоньки, дівчинонька, солоденький*.

The scholar O. Ponomariv considers synonymy in a wider sense. Except lexical synonyms he distinguishes between morphological, syntactical, word-building, phraseological, phonetic synonyms. Syntactical synonyms, according to O.Ponomariv, are different nsyntactic constructions used to express one and the same thought: *для створення* (neutral with a shade of bookish), *щоб створити* (neutral), *з метою створення* (official); *замість того, щоб написати* (*зробити, вивчити*) – *замість написати* (*зробити, вивчити*).

4.1.3. SOURCES OF SYNONYMS

One of the sources of synonymy is borrowing. Synonymy has its characteristic patterns in each language. Its peculiar feature in English is the contrast between *simple native words* which are stylistically neutral, *literary words* borrowed from French, and *learned words* of Greco-Latin origin and their sphere of application is rather narrow and specific.

Native English	French Borrowing	Latin Borrowing
To ask	To question	To interrogate
To rise	To mount	To ascend
Teaching	Guidance	Instruction
To end	To finish	To complete
Belly	Stomach	Abdomen
Begin	Commence	
Find out	Clarify	
Give up	Abandon	

In Ukrainian the sources of synonymy are: word-formatin patterns of native words, Old Slavonic and borrowed word stock. There are also author's occasional synynymic formations, but they are rare.

In Ukrainian there exists a rather big group of synonyms which represent borrowed words the meaning of which fully coinsides with the meaning of corresponding native words. They belong to

professional terms: *офтальмолог* – *окуліст*, *стоматолог* – *зубний лікар*, *педіатр* – *дитячий лікар*, *унілатеральний* – *односторонній*, *генітальний* – *статевий*, *дітородний*, *пневмонія* – *запалення легень*.

There are also **synonyms that came from dialects**, in the last hundred years, from American English, in particular, *a long distance call* (Br. E.) – *a trunk call* (Am. E.); *radio* (Am. E.) – *wireless* (Br. E.).

Synonyms are also created by means of all word-forming processes productive in the language. This way of formation is more productive in Ukrainian than in English. Synonyms are created by prefixation: *віяти* – *повівати*, *подихати*, *подувати*; *відрада*, *розрада*, *утіха*; suffixation: *нишком*, *тишком*; *славний*, *славетний*; *плескання*, *хлюпання*, *плескотіння*; combined suffixation-prefixation pattern: *безсумнівний*, *незаперечний*; *безталання*, *бездолля*. Due to different meanings of suffixes and prefixes one can find a wide range of stylistical-syntactic synonyms in the Ukrainian language: *писав*, *натисав*, *понаписував*, *попписав*; *темніти* – *темнішати*, *біліти* – *білішати*; *їсти*, *їстки*, *їстоньки*; *спати*, *спатки*, *спатуні*, *спатунічки*; *коритися*, *підкоритися*, *покоритися*; *кидати*, *покинути*, *закинути*, *скинути*. There are synonyms of this type in English as well: *sad*, *sadness*; *glad*, *gladness*; *run*, *running*; *late*, *later*, *latest*; *feel*, *feeling*; *less*, *lesser*; *short*, *shorter*, *shortest*; but they are not so numerous.

Synonyms may influence each other semantically in two diametrically opposite ways: one of them is **dissimilation or differentiation**, the other – the reverse process, i.e. **assimilation**.

Many words that are marked in the dictionaries as “archaic” or “obsolete” have dropped out of the language in the competition of synonyms, others survived with a meaning more or less different from the original one. This process is called **synonymic differentiation** and is so current that it is regarded as an inherent law of language development, cf.: *soil* (*French borrowing*) – a strip of land – *corpe*, *land*, *folde* (*OE synonyms*) – the upper layer of earth in which plants grow – *soil*, *earth*, *ground* – the mould in which plants grow.

The assimilation of synonyms consists in parallel development. The loss of meaning becomes linguistically possible

because there were too many synonymous words of similar meaning. As the result all the words undergo degradation in their meaning: *wench (a girl)- indecent girl; knave (a boy)-rascal; churl (a labourer)-country man.*

To conclude, English synonymy is much richer in synonyms of different stylistic layers (bookish, colloquial, terminological) and dialectal synonyms while Ukrainian synonymy is rich in syntactic synonyms.

4.2. HOMONYMS

The monosyllabic phonological type of the English word, for instance, enhances homonymy. Cf. *miss (v) 'not hit', 'not catch'* and *miss (n) — a title for a girl or unmarried woman.* **Homonyms are words which are identical in sound and spelling, but different in their meaning,** e.g.: *a bank of a river; a bank – an institution of receiving and safeguarding money.* The English and Ukrainian vocabulary is rich in such pairs and even groups of words. Their identical forms are mostly accidental: the majority of homonyms coincided due to phonetic changes which they suffered during their development.

The pun is a joke based upon words of similar form but different meaning (i.e. homonyms) as in the following:

“A tailor guarantees to give each of his customers a perfect fit”.

Fit: 1) perfectly fitting clothes; 2) a nervous spasm.

4.2.1. CLASSIFICATION OF HOMONYMS

The most widely accepted classification of homonyms is that recognizing **homonyms proper, homophones and homographs.**

Homonyms proper (or perfect, absolute) are words identical in pronunciation and spelling but different in meaning, cf.: *bear (n) – an animal; bear (v) – carry, tolerate.*

Homophones are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning: *air (n) – heir (n); buy (v) – by (prep.); him(pr.)-hymn (n).*

In Ukrainian: Вчителька: «Дітки, придумайте речення зі словом ананас».

Оксанка: «Мій тато купив ананас».

Вовочка: «А мій татко всю зарплату пропив».

Вчителька: «Чекай, Вовочко, а де ж ананас?»

Вовочка: «А на нас йому начхати»

Гамма – 1) буква алфавіту, 2) музичний термін; біль – білль, гриби – гребі, прибликлий – пребляклий, преглухий – приглухий, Вікторія – вікторія, Коваль – коваль, клинок- кленок.

Ой, скажи, дай пораду, як прожити без долі?

Як одрізана гілка, що валяється долі. (Л.Українка)

Думи мої, думи мої! Квіти мої, діти!

Виростав вас, доглядав вас,

де ж мені вас діти? (Т. Shevchenko)

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling:

Bow (bau), (v) – to decline the head or body in salutation;

Bow (bou), n – a flexible strip of wood for propelling arrows;

Lead (li:d), v – to conduct on the way, go before others to show the way;

Lead (led), n – a heavy, rather soft metal.

сага – жанр давньогерманського епосу;

сага – річкова затока.

In Ukrainian, the position of the stress may form different words (homographs), e.g.: *деревина – одичичне дерево; деревина – матеріал для будівництва та виготовлення предметів; гори – гори, атлас – атлас, мала - мала*, or forms of one and the same word: *руки – руки, води – води, озера – озера*.

Homoforms are words identical in some of their grammatical forms: *to bound (jump, spring) – bound (past participle of the verb to bind); found (establish) – found (past participle of the verb to find)*. Ukrainian: *ручка (дитини) – ручка (для тисьма); поле – 1) лан, 2) від "полоти"; ніс – 1) людини, 2) від "нести"; кілька – 1) риба, 2) числівник; літа – 1) роки, 2) від "літас"*.

Homonyms may belong both to the same and to different categories of parts of speech. Professor A.I. Smirnitsky classified homonyms into two large classes: **full homonyms** and **partial homonyms**. **Full lexical homonyms are words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm, cf.:**

match, n – a game or a contest; match, n – a short piece of wood used for producing fire. In Ukrainian: *точити – 1) гострити, 2) лити; однотонний – 1) вагою в 1 тонну, 2) одноманітний; бал – 1) вечірка, 2) одиниця виміру; моторний – 1) швидкий, 2) те, що має мотор.*

Partial homonyms are subdivided into three subgroups:

a) a simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms are words which belong to the same category of parts of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form, but it is never the same form: *found (infinitive of the verb) – found (Past Participle of the verb to find); lay (lay, the infinitive of the verb) – lay (Past Participle of the verb to lie).* In Ukrainian: *початок – початка (кукурудзи), початку (кінострічки); пролісок – проліска (квітки), проліску (галявини).*

b) complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms are words of different categories of parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradigm, e.g.:

rose, n – rose Past Ind. of the verb to rise;

maid, n – made Past Ind., Past part. of the verb to make.

кадри – кадр (з фільма), кадри (робітничі); рись – 1) біг коня, 2) риси - звірі

c) partial lexico-grammatical homonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms:

lie (lay, lain), v – lie (lied, lied), v

hang (hung, hung), v – to hang (hanged, hanged), v

зривати (недок.) – зірвати (док. вид); зриту (док. вид); ступити (недок.) – ступати (док.), ступлювати.

Homonyms in English are very numerous. Oxford English Dictionary registers 2540 homonyms, of which 89% are monosyllabic words and 9,1% are two-syllabic words.

Paronyms are words that are alike in form, but different in meaning and usage. They are liable to be mixed and sometimes mistakenly interchanged. The term paronym comes from the Greek “*para*” “beside” and “*ono*” which means “name”.

Preposition - proposition;

popular - populous.

In Ukrainian:

громадський-громадянський;

економний-економічний;

соціальний-соціалістичний;

компанія-кампанія;

статичний-статистичний;

абонент-абонемент.

In Ukrainian morphological paronyms are most frequent. The morphological patterns according to which paronyms are formed are the following:

1. Stem+suffix : *смішний – сміховий, сильний – силовий; холодний - холодовий*);

2. Adding prefixes: *вникати – уникати, доглядати - наглядати*);

3. Flective paronyms: *навал – навала, адрес – адреса, капсула - капсул.*

4. Root paronyms: *тиролька (сорт яблук) – тіролька (жителяка Тіролю), кампанія – компанія, ступінь - степінь.*

4.2.2. SOURCES OF HOMONYMS

The sources of homonyms in English are:

a) **phonetic changes** which words undergo in the course of their historical development. As a result of such changes, two or more words which were formerly pronounced differently may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms. *Night* and *knight*, for instance were not homonyms in Old English, as the initial *k-* was pronounced (OE *kniht*). A more complicated change of form brought together another pair of homonyms: *to kneed* (OE *cnēdan*) and *to need* (OE *nēadian*).

b) conversion which serves the creating of grammatical homonyms, e.g.: *iron – to iron; work – to work*, etc.

c) shortening is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms. E.g.: *fan* in the sense of “*an enthusiastic admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor*” is a shortening produced from *fanatic*. Its homonym is a Latin borrowing *fan*, n. which denotes an implement for waving lightly to produce a cool current of air. The noun *rep.* denoting a kind of fabric has three homonyms made by shortening: *repertory – rep., n.*

representative – rep., n.

reputation – rep., n.

d) borrowing is another source of homonyms. This source is productive both in English and Ukrainian. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation, duplicate in form either a native word or another foreign borrowing:

ritus Lat. – rite n. – write v. – right adj.

pais OFr. – piece, n. – pettia OFr. – peace, n.

vitim Lat. – wrong, an immoral habit – vice Eng. – evil conduct

vilis Lat. – spiral – vice Eng. – apparatus with strong jaws in which things can be held tightly

vice Lat. – instead of, in place of – vice – president Eng.

мул – 1) на дні водоймиці; 2) сільська тварина; як – 1) сполучник; 2) велика розгата худоба.

e) words made by sound-imitation can also form pairs of homonyms with other words:

bang, n – “a loud, sudden explosive noise” – bang, n – “a fringe of hair combed over the forehead”

mew, n. “a sound that a cat makes” – mew, n. “a sea gull” – mews, n. “a small terraced house in central London”.

f) split polysemy, which is productive in both languages. Two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when, for some reason, the semantic structure of the word breaks into several parts. As soon as a derived meaning is no longer felt to be connected with the primary meaning at all polysemy breaks up and separate words come into existence, quite different in meaning from the

basic word but identical in spelling: *bar* – балка; бар; адвокатура; лист – 1) у рослин, 2) паперу; порох – 1) тил; 2) вибухова речовина; ключ – 1) джерело, 2) зграя птахів.

In Ukrainian one can observe one more source of homonyms which is very productive: creating homonyms from existing lexical units according to word building patterns of the language: *злити* < 1) злю; 2) лити; *купати* < 1) купувати, 2) купати; *кормовий* < 1) корм, 2) корма (частина судна).

From the viewpoint of their origin homonyms are divided into historical and etymological.

Historical homonyms are those which result from breaking up polysemy; then one polysemantic word will split up into two or more separate words, e.g.: *to bear (tolerate)* – *to bear (give birth to)*; *pupil (student)* – *pupil (of the eye)*; *plant (a tree or bush)* – *plant (factory)*.

Etymological homonyms are words of different origin which come to be alike in sound or in spelling (and may be both written and pronounced alike).

In the English language there is a much richer range of homonyms due to conversion and a widely developed phonological system (homophones and homographs).

4.3. EUPHEMISMS

There are words in every language which people instinctively avoid because they consider them impolite, too direct, rude, indelicate, indecent. As the “offensive” referents, for which these words stand, must still be alluded to, they are often described in a round-about way, by using substitutes called “**euphemisms**”. This device is dictated by social conventions which are sometimes apt to be over-sensitive, see “indecency” where there is none and seek refinement in absurd avoidance and pretentiousness.

The word *lavatory* has produced many euphemisms. Here are some of them: *toilet room, ladies’ room, restroom, gentlemen’s room, retiring room, washroom, powder room, (public) comfort station, public conveniences, water-closet, w.c., Windsor castle (for water closet)*.

Pregnancy is another topic for “delicate” references. Here are some of the euphemisms used as substitutes for the adjective “pregnant”: *in a interesting condition, in a delicate condition, in the family way, with a baby coming, (big with child), expecting*. In Ukrainian: *в інтересному (цікавому) становищі, важка, ность під серцем*.

The apparently innocent word “trousers”, not so long ago, had a great number of euphemistic substitutes: *unmentionables, inexpressible, indescribable, unwhisperables, you-mustn’t-mention-’ems, sit-upons*. Nowadays nobody seems to regard this word as an “indecent” any more, and these euphemistic substitutes are no longer used.

The love for affectation, which displays itself in the excessive use of euphemisms, has never been a sign of good taste. Quite the opposite, fiction writers have often ridiculed pretentious people for their weak attempts to express themselves in a delicate and refined way.

There are words which are easy targets for euphemistic substitutions: words associated with drunkenness, for instance.

The adjective *drunk* has a great number of such substitutes, some of them “delicate”, but most are comical: *intoxicated (formal), under the influence (formal), tipsy, mellow, fresh, high, merry, flustered, overcome, full (coll.), drunk as a lord (coll.), drunk as an owl (coll.), boiled (sl.), fried (sl.), tanked (sl.), tight (sl.), stiff (sl.), pickled (sl.), soaked (sl.), three sheets to the wind (sl.), high as a kite (sl.), half-seas-over (slang)*.

In Ukrainian: *напідпитку, п’яний як чін, у нетверезому стані (замість п’яний – про того, хто постійно вживає алкогольні напої); in Russian: пьяный в стельку, лыка не вяжет, море по колено, навеселе, ни в одном глазу*.

Euphemisms may be used in a concern not to hurt somebody’s feelings. A liar may be described as the person “*who does not always strictly tell the truth*”; a stupid person may be described as “*not exactly brilliant*”; *говорити неправду (замість брехати)*,

All the euphemisms that have been described so far are used to avoid the so-called “social taboos”.

Superstitious taboos gave rise to the use of other type of euphemisms. The reluctance to call things by their proper names is also typical of this type of euphemisms, but this time it is based on a deeply-rooted subconscious fear. All words denoting evil spirits, dangerous animals, or the powers of nature were taboo. If uttered it was believed that unspeakable disasters would result not only for the speaker but also for those near to him. That's why all creatures, objects and phenomena denoting danger were referred to in a round-about descriptive way, e.g.: *the black death, the-one-lurking-in-the-wood*. In Ukrainian there are: *чорна смерть, Михайло Потапович, Лиса Патрикєївна, той, хто в скалі сидить, лісовик, домовик, той, хто греблі рве, вовчик-братик*.

Religious taboos include the name of the devil and the God. A number of euphemisms are used as substitutes for them: *the black one, the evil one, the Prince of Darkness, Old Nick (col.); Good Lord, Good gracious, by Heaven, Good Heavens, my goodness*. In Ukrainian one can find the following euphemisms with the meaning of "devil": *дідько, рогатий, нечистий*.

In the English language a great number of euphemisms appeared in Victorian epoch. The most widely known are euphemisms which are used instead of naming certain "inappropriate" parts of the body. Their names are substituted by names of animals, e.g.: instead of "*butt*" the word *ass* is used; instead of *penis (dick)* the word *cock* is used; instead of "*cunt*" the word "*pussy*" is used. In Ukrainian cultural tradition such parts of body are usually not named.

People are reluctant to use the word "*to die*". Instead of it a number of euphemisms are used: *to pass away, to be taken, to breathe one's last, to depart his life, to close one's eyes, to yield (give up) to the ghost, to go the way of all flesh, to go West (sl.), to kick off (sl.), to check out (sl.), to kick the bucket (sl.), to take a ride (sl.), to hop the twig (sl.), to join the majority (sl.)*.

In Russian and Ukrainian there are such phrases: *отбросить копыта, склеить лапы, дать дуба, отбросить тапки, загнуться, Кондратий схватил (пришел), отойти в мир иной, уйти в небеса, испустить дух, проститься с жизнью, вернуться к праху, уйти в*

мир теней, навіки спочити (замість померти), піти на той світ, піти туди, звідки не повертаються, піти на небеса, бути на небесах.

Mental diseases also cause the frequent use of euphemisms. A mad person may be called *insane, mentally unstable, unbalanced, unhinged, not quite right (col.), not all there (col.), off one's head (col.), off one's rocker (col.), wrong in the upper storey (col.), having bats in one's belfry (col.), crazy as a bedbug (col.), cuckoo (sl.), nutty (sl.), off one's nut (sl.), loony (sl.), having rats in the roof (sl.), a mental case (formal), a mental defective.*

In Russian and Ukrainian there are such phrases: *не сповна розуму, з'їхати з глузду, не всі вдома, крыша поехала, чердак потек, ку-ку, псих, трохи не при собі, недолугий.*

Euphemisms are the oldest type of synonyms. They are substitutes for their synonyms. Their use and very existence are caused by social conventions or certain psychological factors. Most of them have stylistic connotations that can be singled out in their semantic structures.

4.4. ANTONYMS

We use the term “**antonym**” to denote words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as *hot-cold, light-dark, happiness-sorrow, to accept-to reject, up-down.*

Antonyms can be divided into a) complementary and b) contrary, the first ones have no intermediate forms and form a complete notion if taken together: *dead-alive; true-false; живий-мертвий; справжній-фальшивий.*

According to their structure antonyms can be derivational and semantical. Derivational antonyms are formed by adding affixes to roots. In the English language the prefixes *un-, in-/il-/ir/-im, dis-, mis-* and adjectival suffix *-less*, and derivatives with prefixes which are derived from antonymous prepositions:

True-untrue

Easy-uneasy

Firm-infirm

Legal-illegal

Regular-irregular

Proper-improper

Honest-dishonest
Merciful-merciless
Thoughtful-thoughtless
Painful-painless
Believe-disbelieve
Indoor-outdoor

Understand-misunderstand
Careful-careless
Harmful-harmless
Do-undo
Appear-disappear
Overestimate-underestimate

Negative affixes do not automatically form words with opposite meanings. E.g.: *different-indifferent* are not antonyms.

In the Ukrainian language the prefix *не-* is almost universal. It is added to adjectives and nouns and forms complimentary antonyms. The same function is fulfilled by the prefix *без-* which when used together with different suffixal morphemes forms antonyms in nominal parts of speech:

Правда-неправда
Чистий-нечистий
Милість-немилість
Болісний-безболісний
Вусатий-безвусий

Дружній-недружній
Зрозумілий-незрозумілий
Свобода-несвобода
Лісистий-безлісний
Гарний-негарний

Negative affixes in the English language usually form derivational antonyms and in the Ukrainian language prefix *без-* usually creates antonyms to words formed from other stems:

Боязкий-безстрашний, розумний-безглуздий, порядок-безладдя.

In the Ukrainian language the negative particle *не-* is written separately from the verbs, so verbal derivational antonyms are formed with the help of prefixes *роз-*, *а-*, *анти-*, *де-*, *дез-* and prefixes formed from pronouns:

Підходить-відходити
Підземний-надземний
Логічний-алогічний
Стабілізація-дестабілізація

Увійти-вийти
Заплутати-розплутати
Мобілізувати-демобілізувати
Інфікувати-дезінфікувати

Antonyms usually appear in pairs, though polysemantic words may have an antonym or antonyms for each of their meanings. E.g., adjective *dull* may have such antonyms as *amusing*, *interesting*, *entertaining* for its meaning “deficient of interest”; *clever*, *bright*,

capable for its meaning “deficient in intellect”; *active* for its meaning “deficient in activity”.

Antonyms are not equally distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives which is only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: *wide-narrow*, *high-low*, *strong-weak*, *old-young*, *friendly-hostile* etc.

Verbs take the second place, as far as antonyms are concerned. Yet, verbal parts of antonyms are fewer in number: *to lose-to find*, *to stop- to begin*, *to open –to close* etc.

Nouns are not rich in antonyms, but some examples can be found: *friend-enemy*, *good-evil*, *heaven-earth* etc.

Antonymic adverbs can be divided into two groups:

a) adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly*, *hardly*, *merrily*, *sadly*, *loudly*, *softly*, *coldly*;

b) adverbs proper: *now-then*; *ever-never*; *up-down*; *in-out*.

Antonyms are often used in the stylistic device called antithesis. A translator should be careful in choosing the proper word as the senses which are absent in different languages may be involved in it.

4.5. NEOLOGISMS. OCCASIONALISMS

The study of the vocabulary as an adaptive system reveals the pragmatic essence of the communication process, i.e. the way language is used to influence the addressee. There is a considerable difference of opinion as to the type of system involved, although the majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system.

To adapt means to make or undergo modifications in function and structure so as to fit for a new environment or a new situation. Being an adaptive system the vocabulary is constantly adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communication and cultural and other needs. The speaker chooses from the existing stock of words such words that in his opinion can adequately express his thoughts and feelings. If he doesn't find the expression he needs the speaker creates a new one. It is important to stress that the development

is not confined to coining new words on the existing patterns but in adapting the very structure of the system to its changing functions.

Language as well as other adaptive systems is capable of obtaining information from the extra-linguistic world and makes use of feedback for self-optimisation. If the variation proves useful, it remains in the vocabulary. The process may be observed by its results, that is by studying new words or neologisms. New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. Sometimes a new name is introduced for a thing or notion that continues to exist, and the older name ceases to be used. The number of words in a language is therefore not constant, the increase, as a rule, more than makes up for the leak-out. New words and expressions or **neologisms** are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all-important and concern some social relationships, such as a new form of state, e.g. *People's Republic*, or something threatening the very existence of humanity, like *nuclear war*. Or the thing may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (e. g. *roll-neck*).

The concept of adaptive system permits us to study a language as a constantly developing but systematic whole. This approach gives a more adequate account of systematic phenomena of a vocabulary by explaining more facts about functioning of words and providing more relevant generalizations, because we can take into account the influence of extra-linguistic reality.

A neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language.

At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called «neology blowup». R. Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED (New English Dictionary) says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization. New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called «originator». New lexical units are

primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media. Neologisms can develop in three main ways: 1) a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word «umbrella» developed the meanings: «авіаційне прикриття», «політичне прикриття». 2) A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word «slum» was first substituted by the word «ghetto» then by the word-group «inner town». 3) A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology.

Several semantic groups of neologisms can be pointed out. When we analyze the group of neologisms connected with computerization, the following words are used: a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. *PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain*; b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. *hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware (experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production)*; c) to denote computer languages, e.g. *BASIC, Algol FORTRAN* etc; d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. *computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out (to ruin data in a computer's memory)*.

There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme «tele», e.g. *to telework, to telecommute / to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works*. There are also such words as telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank, videobank or computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence.

In the sphere of linguistics we have such neologisms as: *machine translation*, *interlingual* (an artificial language for machine translation into several languages) and many others.

In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: *finger-print scanner* (*finger prints*), *biometric eye-scanner* (*blood-vessel arrangements in eyes*), *voice verification* (*voice patterns*). These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key.

In the sphere of medicine computers are also used and we have the following neologisms: *telemonitory unit* (a telemonitory system for treating patients at a distance).

With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. *youthquake* – заворушення серед молоді, *pussy-footer* - політик, який йде на компроміс, *Euromarket*, *Eurodollar*, *Europarliament*, *Europol* etc.

In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. *belonger* – представник середнього класу, той, хто дотримується консервативних поглядів. To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type *yuppie* – young urban professional people, such as: *muppie*, *gruppie*, *rumpie*, *bluppie* etc. People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called *survivors*, a little bit more prosperous are called *sustainers*, and those who try to prosper in life and imitate those they want to belong to are called *emulators*. Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called *achievers*. All these layers of society are called VAL – Value and Lifestyles. The rich belong also to jet set that is those who can afford to travel by jet planes all over the world enjoying their life. Sometimes they are called «jet plane travellers». During Margaret Thatcher's rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means «People like us» by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves. Nowadays (since 1989) PLU was substituted by «one of us». There are a lot of immigrants now in UK, in connection with which neologisms *partial and non-partial* were formed (ті, хто має право жити в країні, і його антонім). The word-group

«*welfare mother*» was formed to denote a non-working single mother living on benefit.

In connection with criminalization of towns in UK voluntary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers of the neighbourhood are joined. These groups are called «*neighbourhood watch*», «*home watch*». Criminals wear «*stocking masks*» not to be recognized. The higher society has neologisms in their speech, such as: *dial-a-meal*, *dial-a-taxi*.

In the language of teen-agers there are such words as: *Drugs!* (OK), *sweat* (біг на довгі дистанції), *task* (home composition), *brunch* etc.

With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in «speak» appeared in English, e.g. *artsspeak*, *sportsspeak*, *medspeak*, *education-speak*, *video-speak*, *cable-speak* etc. There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life:

a) food e.g. «*starter*» - *instead of «hors d'oeuvres»*, *macrobiotics* - *raw vegetables*, *crude rice*, *longlife milk*, *clingfilm*, *microwave stove*, *consumer electronics*, *fridge-freezer*, *hamburgers* (*beef-*, *cheese-*, *fish-*, *veg-*).

b) clothing, e.g. *catsuit* – *one-piece clinging suit*, *slimster*, *string* – *miniscule bikini*, *hipster* – *trousers or skirt with the belt on hips*, *completenik* – *a long sweater for trousers*, *sweatnik* – *a long jacket*, *pant* – *skirt*, *bloomers* – *lady's sports trousers*.

c) footwear e.g. *winklepickers* – *shoes with long pointed toes*, *thongs* - *open sandals*, *backsters* – *beech sandals with thick soles*.

d) bags, e.g. *bumbag* – *a small bag worn on the waist*, *sling bag* – *a bag with a long belt*, *maitre* – *a small bag for cosmetics*.

There are also such words as: *dangledolly* – *a dolly-talisman dangling in the car before the windscreen*, *boot-sale* – *selling from the boot of the car*, *touch-tone* – *a telephone with press-button*.

Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into: **phonological neologisms**, **morphological neologisms**, **semantic neologisms** and **syntactical neologisms**. Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological – word-building and phraseological – forming word-groups.

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, they are called artificial, e.g. rah-rah /a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades, «yeck» “yuck» which are interjections to express repulsion produced the adjective yucky (yecky). These are strong neologisms. Strong neologisms include also phonetic borrowings, such as «*perestroika*» (Russian), «*solidarnosc*» (Polish), “*Berufsverbot*” (German), *dolce vita* (Italian) etc. Morphological and syntactical neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language, therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms.

Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types, such as «*free-fall*” –“різке падіння курсу акцій» appeared in 1987 with the stock market crash in October 1987 (on the analogy with free-fall of parachutists, which is the period between jumping and opening the chute). Here also belong: *call-and-recall* – виклик на диспансеризацію, *bioastronomy* –search for life on other planets, *rat-out* – betrayal in danger, *zero-zero (double zero)* – ban of longer and shorter range weapon, *x-rated* (about films terribly vulgar and cruel), *Ameringlish* – American English, *tycoonography* –a biography of a business tycoon. There are also abbreviations of different types, such as *resto*, *teen* (teenager), *dinky* (dual income no kids), *ARC* (AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS), *HIV* (human immuno-deficiency virus).

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. *snowmobile* (automobile), *danceaholic* (alcoholic), *airtel* (hotel), *cheeseburger* (hamburger), *autocade* (cavalcade). There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: *decompress*, *to disimprove*, *overhoused*, *educationalist*, *slimster*, *folknik* etc.

Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. *to buy into* (to become involved), *fudge and dudge* (avoidance of definite decisions), and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. *electronic virus*, *Rubic’s cube*, *retail park*, *acid rain*, *boot trade* etc.

In Modern British English there is a tendency to change pronunciation of some sounds and combinations of sounds due to the influence of American English and some other factors. These changes are most noticeable in the speech of teachers and students of the universities in the Southern part of England (Oxford, Cambridge, London).

There are the following changes in pronouncing vowels: a) shortening of long vowels, especially at the end of the word and before voiceless consonants, e.g. see, keep; b) lengthening of short vowels before voiced consonants, e.g. big, good, come, jam etc. In such adjectives which end in /d/ lengthening of the vowel is observed all over England, e.g. bad, sad, glad, mad etc. c) drawing of stressed syllables and clipping of unstressed syllables. d) In unstressed syllables /i/ is pronounced instead of /i:/, e.g. /b`ko:z/, /`evid ns/ etc. e) In the words consisting of three or more syllables there is a tendency to have two main stresses, e.g. /`nes `s ri/, /`int `restin/. f) The diphthong /ou/ is pronounced /u/, e.g. home /hum/, go /gu/. g) the diphthong /u/ is pronounced /o:/, e.g. sure /sho:/. Vowels can also change under the influence of consonants: a) after fricatives and consonants /n/ and /m/ /ju:/ is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. resume, music, news, enthusiasm. b) before fricatives and combinations of fricatives with consonants «a» is pronounced as /ʌ/, e.g. dance, answer, class, fast. The pronunciation of some consonants is also changed: a) after a vowel /r/ is pronounced, e.g. /ka:r/, /ha:rt/. b) There appears an intrusive /r/ in the combinations where after the final vowel / / there is a vowel at the beginning of the next word, e.g. the idea of, Asia and Europe/ on the analogy with word combinations there is, there are/. c) /s/ is used instead of /sh/ before /i/ in the structure of suffixes, e.g. social /`souisil/, negotiate / ni`gousi,eit/; d) /l/ is vocalized at the end of the word, e.g. full/ ful/ (close to /v/ in sound). e) /sh/ is voiced in the intervocal position in some geographical names, e.g. «Asia», «Persia»; f) combinations of sounds /dj/, /tj/, /sj/ in such words as duke, tube, issue have two variants of pronunciation: /d3u:k/ and /dju:k/, /chu:b/ and /tju:b/, /`ishu:/ and /`isju:/; g) pronunciation approaching spelling is being developed, e.g. often /`oftn/, forehead / fo:`hed/ etc; h) /t/ and /d/ at the end of words are not

pronounced, e.g. «half past five» /`ha:f `pa:s`faiv/, «old man» /`oul `m n/.

According to Korunets I., the English language has acquired a large number of quite new words i.e. neologisms which have come from different languages, both European and Asian and belong to various spheres of social life and human activities as:

a) social relations and other social phenomena. For example: *yakuza* /ja:ku'za:/ Japanese gangster (from Japanese), *Chorzim* /ho:z'i:m/ re-emigrated to Israel Jews (Hebrew); *brigatisti* /brigatisti/ members of the brigade rosse (Ital. terrorists); (*Al*) *fatah* Palestine guerilla group organisation (its member).

b) Neologisms belonging to the sphere of cultural life: *Cafe theatre* /kag: feiteiae: tre/ room for lecturing and theatrical performances, *policierl* /pousjei/ detective novel or film (both of French origin), *hayashi* Japanese theatre (from Japanese), *salva* (Spanish) Caribbean dancing music (mambo, jazz and rock-like).

c) Neologisms reflecting borrowings from various cuisines as *calzone* (Italian) high curds pie; *burrito* (Spanish) maize pancakes wrapped around the minced veal, curds and fried beans; *hoisin sauce* (Chinese) thick dark-red soy and garlic sauce with spices.

d) Eastern sports terms as *iaido* (Japanese) kind of fencing, *basko* - a fifteen matches competition in sumo.

e) Terms designating religious and medical notions as *satsang* (Sanskrit) Hindu sermon, *zazen* (Japanese) meditation in Zen Buddhism, *shiat-su* (Japanese) kind of healing massage; *sulfazin* - sulphazin (Russian) medicine (for the mentally ill), etc. The same neologisms are very frequently used in Ukrainian as well.

Very wide-spread during the last decades became the derivative means of forming neologisms in English as *workaholic* heavy worker, *clothsaholic* (lover of clothes), *milkaholic* lover of milk, *chocoholic* i. e. sweet tooth, etc.

No less productive is also the use of prefixes to form neologisms in English. Cf. *megadual* something better than twice as good, *megarich* i.e. very rich, *megafirm* – a very large firm, *megaprojects* – a very rich or complicated projects, etc. Suffixes are also used to form

neologisms. Thus, the international suffix *-ism* forms *afroism* – admirer of the African culture, *hyppyism* – adherent of hippies. The suffix *-y/-ie* forms neologisms as *groupie* – a fan/ admirer of a music group or popular star, *preppie pupil* – schoolboy of a private school or offspring of the middle class, *fundie* – adherent of fundamentalism or any radical group, etc. Many neologisms are regular collocations characteristic not only of the English language. The most common of them have the N+N or A+N structure as *athomic cleansing*, i.e. *banishment*, *hot button*, i.e. high interest in goods (or political figures) social structures; *safe haven protected zone* in a country to safeguard a religious or national minority, *shakeholder economy* – an attractive for all citizens economy or economic progress.

Apart from word and phrasal neologisms the English language makes use of abbreviations which are usually different terms like the VCR video-cassette recorder, MTV Music Television, OMOV one member-one vote, GASP Group Against Smoke and Pollution, ASH Actions on Smoking and Health, SMAT special weapons and tactics (juridical term); HDTV High Definition Television, i.e. TV having high distinctness of picture; Gerbill (Brit.) Great Education Reform Bill (of 1988); CLASS Computer-based Laboratory of Automated School System (classes of programmed teaching). Many neologisms form a common subgroup of lexicon in the contrasted languages (as well as in all languages). They may sometimes coincide in English and Ukrainian (when they are wide known or internationalisms). Among these are, for example, *clarifier* (the hearing aid), *advil* (medical pills), AIDS and respectively ЧІД, in Ukrainian. English new borrowings from Russian and Ukrainian are, for example, *cosmodrome*, *glasnost*, *perestroika*, *Rukh movement*, *hryvnia*, *Rada (the Verkhovna Rada)*, *salo* and others. Comparatively new borrowings from the English language in present-day Ukrainian are *брокер*, *джинси*, *котон*, *бартер*, *дисплей*, *дискета*, *касета*, *гіт/хіт блюз*, *рекет*, *маркетинг*, *офіс/офісний*, *ретро*, *менеджмент*, *сервіс*, *аудит*, *стільниковий*, *зв'язок*, *мобільний телефон*, *i-мейл*, *гамбургер*, *чізбургер* (from English), *піцца* (from Italian), *бістро/бистро* (from French) and several others.

One more subgroup constitutes colloquial newly-formed neologisms which are characteristic only of a national living language. They designate some new notions formed on the basis of the previously existing as well as on the basis of previously non-existing denotata. For example, in English: *spiv* (black marketeer), *sky-mobile* (*egg-beater*) (helicopter), *Iran-gate*, *Ramboism* (violence shown in films/on TV), "wellness " i.e. *health* (cf. to return patients to "wellness"), *yuppy* i.e. young upwardly-mobile professional, etc. Similar neologisms, both colloquial and literary, exist in Ukrainian. Cf. "зелені" (*амер. долари*), "телек" (*телевізор*), "шкура" (*шкіряна куртка*), "Бушові стегенця" (*стегенця американських бройлерів*), *кравчучка* (*вертикальний/легенький двоколісний візок*), *кучмовоз* (*більший і міцніший двоколісний вертикальний візок типу тачки*), *понса* (*американські чи інші естрадні пісні низької якості*), *стречі* (*вузькі дівчачі штани*), *капрі* (*дівочі штани-кльош із розрізом унизу*). *фритюр* (*смажіння*), *мондіаль* (*світовий чемпіонат*), *візаж* (*косметичний і художній догляд за обличчям*), etc.

Neologisms appear at a certain stage of a language development. The aim of their usage is to name the new notions and realia: *довкілля*, *складнощі*, *податківець*, *наркобізнес*, *бартер*, *менеджмент*, *рекетир*, *факс*, *телетайп*, *конверсія*, *дилер*, *імідж*, *грант*.

Their active usage is predetermined by social and local factors of a language functioning. We will distinguish between general and author's neologisms, which are usually termed "occasionalisms". General neologisms become widely used by all the speakers and soon lose their novelty, e.g.: *ваучер*, *гамбургер*, *безпіщанка*, *бомж*. They can later move to the group of words called archaisms, e.g.: *комнезам*, *колгосп*, *радгосп*, *трудодень*, *партгрупорг*, *стахановець*, *патефон*, *грамофон*.

Occasionalisms are words coined by an author and used only once or several times. Language users are aware of the novelty and originality of these nominations. Occasionalisms rarely enter the common word stock, they stay as they are: characteristic of an author's style.

Reasons for emerging neologisms and occasionalisms in a language are different:

a) the demand for naming new objects: *дисплей, принтер, бейсбол, бронедвері, гіпсокартон, йогурт, виробниче об'єднання, віце-прем'єр-міністр, електорат, клонування, Інтернет;*

b) the demand for changing the name that already exists in the language for another, more easily understood; the one that corresponds to the inner structure of the language and its word-building patterns: *літак* for *аероплан*, *вертоліт* for *гелікоптер*, *рукоборство* for *армреслінг*, *примірник* for *екземпляр*, *відсоток* for *процент*, *летовище* for *аеродром*;

c) the intention to be more expressive and to find a new image (a characteristic feature of the author's style): *бистроплин, вітровіння, сміхобризний, злотоцінно, трояндно, яблуневоцвітно, блискотінь, турбація, зашовковитися, акордитись* — in P. Tychyna's works; *громоносний, огнекрилий, міднодзвонний, стоцвітно, успадкоємити, заприязнитися, дипломатити, вицвіт, допомога* — in M. Rylsky's works; *яснота, ясінь, краплинь, дощовиця, тужіть*, — in O. Honchar's works.

Closely related to the last group are also individual artistic language neologisms created by poets and authors for the sake of expressiveness as in Ukrainian: *горобинно, аркоджуні мости* (from Tychyna's poetic works), *пісня сонцебризна* (M. Bazhan) and others. *розвітання, повесніння, весновій* — in A. Malyshko's works; *бджолиність, розламица, очужілість, сніговерть, безмір, випроб, невситенний, начасний, знедуховніти, знебутись, знещасливити*

Newly coined words stop being neologisms when they are widely and intensively used by language speakers. E.g.: 100 years ago such words as *суспільство, промисловість, мистецтво, винахідник, дослідник, споживач, читач, переможець, свідоцтво, властивість, присмність, байдужість, отвір, зміст, внутрішній, зовнішній* were considered neologisms.

Enrichment of vocabulary also takes place due to the process of changing the semantics of already existing lexical meanings. In such a way **lexical neologisms** are coined.

Neologisms are very seldom created out new, unknown language elements or the ones that were never used before. Almost all of them are formed by way of acquiring a new meaning of the word that already exists and is widely used. Well-known words the central semantic core of which (the sem) is potentially capable of creating an indirect meaning are mostly used. In the course of time such new indirect meanings spot being mew and are perceived as a separate indirect meaning: *саркофаг* – "спеціальна споруда над ядерними реакторами, установками, призначена для захисту довкілля від радіоактивних речовин", *чорнобиль* – "назва нового комп'ютерного віруса", *самосел* – "той, хто без офіційного дозволу влади, самовільно поселився в Чорнобильській тридцятикілометровій зоні", *марафон* – "тривала і напружена боротьба за щось", *таймаут* – "перерва, відпочинок".

The intensive development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones, e.g.: *aerobics*, *black hole*, *computer*, *hardware*, *software*, *isotope*, *feedback*, *pulsar*, *supermarket* etc.

Several nouns have developed new meanings in the modern English language along with the already existing ones. E.g., the words collar '*комір, комірець*', cage '*клітка*', concertina '*концертина* (musical instrument)', ship '*корабель*' began to be used in such new word combinations as:

Collar – "a floatation device used to keep spacecraft afloat and upright on water after splash-down";

Cage – "lacy outer dress worn over a slip or a dress";

Concertina – "brand of woman's gird expanding and contracting like a concertina";

Ship – "space-craft".

The laws of efficient communication demand a maximum signal in a minimum time. To meet these requirements the adaptive lexical system is not only adding new units but readjusts the ways and means of word-formation and the word-building. Thus, when radio location was invented it was defined as "radio detection and ranging" which is

long; and so a convenient abbreviation out of the first letter or letters of each word in this phrase was coined, hence *radar*.

The process of nomination may pass several stages. In other words, a new notion is named by a terminological phrase consisting of words which in their turn are made up of morphemes. The phrase may be shortened by ellipsis or by graphical abbreviation, and this change of form is achieved without a change of meaning.

Acronyms are not composed of existing morphemes according to existing word-formation patterns, but on the contrary revolutionise the system by forming new words and new morphemes out of letters. The whole process of word-formation is paradoxically reversed. The lexical system may adapt itself to new functions by combining several word-building processes. Thus *fall-out* — the radioactive dust descending through the air after an atomic explosion — is coined by composition and conversion simultaneously. *Ad-lib* “to improvise” is the result of borrowing (Lat. *ad libitum*), shortening, compounding and conversion. Compare also *admass* coined by J.B. Priestley and meaning “mass advertising in its harmful effect on society”.

It is also interesting to mention the new meaning of word-formation patterns in composition. *Teach-in* is a student conference or a series of seminars on some burning issue of the day, meaning some demonstration of protest. This pattern is very frequent: *lie-in*, *sleep-in*, *pray-in*, *laugh-in*, *love-in*, *read-in*, *sing-in*, *stay-in*, *talk-in*.

In all the above variants the semantic components ‘protest’ and ‘place’ are invariably present. This is a subgroup of peculiarly English and steadily developing type of nouns formed by a combined process of conversion and composition from verbs with postpositives, such as a *holdup* “armed robbery” from “*hold-up*” “*rob*”, “*come-back*” — “a person who returns after a long absence”. The intense development of shortening aimed at economy of time and effort but keeping the sense complete is manifest not only in acronyms and abbreviations but also in blends, e.g. *bionics* < bio+(electr)onics; *slintnastics* < slim+gymnastics and back-formation. The very means of word-formation change their status. This is for instance manifest in the set of combining forms. In the past these were only bound forms borrowings from Latin and Greek

mostly used to form technical terms. Now some of them turn into free standing words, e. g. *maxi* meaning “something very large”. Semi-affixes which used to be not numerous and might be treated as exceptions now evolve into a separate set. An interesting case is person substituting the semi-affix -man due to an extra linguistic cause — a tendency to degender professional names, to avoid mentioning sex discrimination (*chairperson, policeperson*). The set of semi-affixes is also increased due to the so-called abstracted forms, that is parts of words or phrases used in what seems the meaning they contribute to the unit. E. g. *workaholic* “a person with a compulsive desire to work” was patterned on *alcoholic; footballaholic* and *bookaholic* are self-explanatory. Compare also: *washeteria* “a self-service laundry”. When some word becomes a very frequent element in compounds the discrimination of compounds and derivatives, the difference between affix and semi-affix is blurred. Here are some neologisms meaning “obsessed with sth.” and containing the elements mad and happy: *power-mad, money-mad, speed-mad, movie-mad* and *auto-happy, trigger-happy, footlight-happy*.

Automation “automatic control of production” is irregularly formed from the stem automatic with the help of the very productive suffix -tion. The corresponding verb automate is a back-formation, i. e. “re-equip in the most modern and automated fashion”. Re- is one of the most productive prefixes, the others are anti-, de-, un-, the semi-affixes self-, super- and mini- and many more; e. g. *anti-flash* “serving to protect the eyes”, *antimatter* n, *anti-novel* n, *anti-pollution, deglamorise* “to make less attractive”, *resit* “to take a written examination a second time”, *rehouse* “to move a family, a community, etc. to new houses”. The prefix un- increases its combining power, enjoys a new wave of fashion and is now attached even to noun stems.

Compounding by mere juxtaposition of free forms has been a frequent pattern since the Old English period and is so now, cf. : *Brains trust* “a group of experts”, *brain drain* “emigration of scientists”, to *brain-drain, brain-drainer, quiz-master* “chairman in competitions designed to test the knowledge of the participants”. In the neologism *backroom boys* “men engaged in secret research” the structural

cohesion of the compound is enhanced by the attributive function. Cf.: *redbrick* (universities), *paperback* (books), *ban-the-bomb* (demonstration). The change of meaning, or rather the introduction of a new, additional meaning may be illustrated by the word *network* “a number of broadcasting stations, connected for a simultaneous broadcast of the same programme”. Another example is a word of American literary slang — *the square*. This neologism is used as a derogatory epithet for a person who plays safe, who sticks to his illusions, and thinks that only his own life embodies all decent moral values.

Generally neologisms at first clearly motivated. An exception is shown by those based on borrowings or learned coinages which, though motivated at an early stage, very soon begin to function as indivisible signs. A good example is the much used term *cybernetics* “study of systems of control and communication in living beings and man-made devices” coined by Norbert Wiener from the Greek word *kybernetes* ‘steersman’+suffix *-ics*. There are, however, cases when etymology of comparatively new words is obscure, as in the noun *boffin* “a scientist engaged in research work” or in *gimmick* “a tricky device” — an American slang word that is now often used in British English.

In the course of time the new word is accepted into the word-stock of the language and being often used ceases to be considered new, or else it may not be accepted for some reason or other and vanish from the language. The fate of neologisms is hardly predictable: some of them are short-lived, others, on the contrary, become durable as they are liked and accepted.

Once accepted, they may serve as a basis for further word-formation: *gimmick*, *gimmickry*, *gimmicky*. **Zip** (an imitative word denoting a certain type of fastener) is hardly felt as new, but its derivatives — the verb *zip* (zip from one place to another), the corresponding personal noun *zipper* and the adjective *zippy* — appear to be neologisms. When we consider the lexical system of a language as an adaptive system developing for many centuries and reflecting the changing needs of the communication process, we have to contrast the

innovations with words that dropped from the language (obsolete words) or survive only in special contexts (archaisms and historicisms).

Problems for revision:

1. What types of synonyms are there?
2. What sources of synonyms are there?
3. What types of homonyms are there?
4. What sources of homonyms are there?
5. What are euphemisms?
6. What are antonyms?
7. What are neologisms?
8. What are occasionalisms?
9. What types of synonyms are most frequent in the contrasted languages?
10. What types of homonyms are most frequent in the contrasted languages?
11. What are the peculiarities of forming antonyms in the Ukrainian language?
12. What types of neologisms can one find in the contrasted languages?

5. LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL GROUPS. WORD FAMILIES

A lexico-grammatical group is a class of words which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possible characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning. These groups are subsets of the parts of speech, several lexico-grammatical groups constitute one part of speech. Every lexico-grammatical group of words or class is characterised by its own lexico-grammatical meaning, forming, as it were, the common denominator of all the meanings of the words which belong to this group. The lexico-grammatical meaning may be also regarded as the feature according to which these words are grouped together. E.g.: the meaning of a specific property in such words as

bright, clear, good, quick, steady, thin is a particular realisation of the lexico-grammatical meaning of qualitative adjectives. These adjectives always denote the properties of things capable of being compared and so have degrees of comparison. They refer to qualities that vary along a continuous scale and are called gradable. The scope of the notion rendered by the lexico-grammatical meaning of the class is much larger than the scope of the notion rendered by the lexical meaning of each individual word.

Thus English and Ukrainian nouns are subdivided into the following lexico-grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, collective names (for people), collective names (for animals), abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, proper names for people, toponymic names.

Another traditional lexicological grouping is known as **word-families** in which words are grouped according to the root morpheme, for example: *dog, doggish, doglike, doggy, to dog, dogged, doggedly, doggedness, dog-days, dog-biscuit, dogcart* etc.

5.1. COMMON SEMANTIC DENOMINATOR

A semantic field is a closely knit sector of vocabulary characterized by common concept (e.g. in the semantic field of space we find nouns: *expanse, extent, surface*; verbs: *extent, spread, span*; adjectives: *spacious, roomy, vast, broad*). The members of the semantic field are not synonyms but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. **This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning**, like the concept of kinship, concept of colour, parts the human body and so on. The basis of grouping in this case is not only linguistic but also extra-linguistic: the words are associated, because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality.

5.2. THEMATIC OR IDEOGRAPHIC GROUPS. COMMON CONTEXTUAL ASSOCIATIONS

Thematic (or ideographic) groups of words joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things and events in objective reality. Contextual associations are formed as a result of regular co-occurrence of words in similar repeatedly used contexts.

Thematic or ideographic groups are independent of classification into parts of speech. Words and expression are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but strictly according to their signification, i.e.: to the system of logical notions: *tree-grow-green; journey-train-taxi; sunshine-brightly-blue-sky etc.*

5.3. HYPONOMY, HYPERONOMY, EQUONYMS

Hyponymy is the semantic relationship of inclusion existing between elements of various levels. Thus, e.g. *vehicle* includes *car, bus, taxi; oak* implies *tree, horse* implies *animal; table* implies *furniture*. The hyponymic relationship is the relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms.

A hyperonym is a generic term which serves as the name of the general as distinguished from the names of the species-hyponyms. In other words, the more specific term is called the hyponym. For instance, *animal* is a generic term as compared to the specific names *wolf, dog, fox* or *mouse (these are called equonyms)*. *Dog*, in its turn, may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as *bull-dog, collie, poodle* etc.

Problems for revision:

1. What are lexico-grammatical groups?
2. What are word families?
3. What are thematic or ideographic groups?
4. What is hyponymy?
5. What is hyperonymy?

6. FUNCTIONAL STYLES

The social context in which speech takes place determines the style of speech.

Styles are variations of a literary language which are used in different circumstances of communication. The word style comes from the Greek word “stylos” – a sharp stick made of bone, wood or metal used for writing on wax boards.

Functional style is a system of interrelated language means serving a definite aim in communication. Functional styles are:

- official (formal style);
- scientific;
- publicistic (mass-media style);
- belles-letres style (fiction style);
- informal style;
- colloquial style;
- slang.

Each of the styles can be expressed in both oral and written forms. The suitability or unsuitability of a word for each particular situation depends on its stylistic characteristics or, in other words, on the functional style it represents. The term **functional style is defined as a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication** (the definition is given by prof. I.V. Arnold).

By the sphere of communication we mean the circumstances attending the process of speech in each particular case: professional communication, a lecture, an informal talk, a formal letter etc. All these circumstances can be classified into **formal** and **informal**.

Informal vocabulary is used in one's immediate circle: family, relatives, friends. We use informal style when at home or when we feel at home. But the choice of words is determined not only by the situation (formal or informal) and consequently the style but also by the age, education, cultural background, occupation and religion of the person. Informal words and word combinations are divided into colloquial, slang, dialect words and word-groups.

Formal style is restricted to formal communication. It falls into words connected with professional communication and learned words. Learned words (or bookish) include such subdivisions: words used in scientific prose, official style words (канцеляризми), literary words and poetic words.

Among learned words such examples can be found: *comprise, compile, experimental, heterogeneous, homogeneous, conclusive, divergent* and the like. Words of poetic diction are characterized by lofty, high-flown, sometimes archaic, colouring: *Alas! They have been friends in youth, but whispering tongues can poison truth.* In Ukrainian:

Officials are words of the official, bureaucratic language: *assist (for to help), endeavour (for to try), approximately (for about), sufficient (for enough), attired (for dressed), inquire (for to ask).* Official style is characterised by the absence of non-finished sentences, interjections, words are used in their direct meaning, no words with diminutive, augmentative, evaluating meaning are used. Specific terms are widely used. The specific features of Ukrainian official style are:

1) standard language, a wide use of typical word forms: *відповідно до ..., у зв'язку з тим, що ..., доводимо до Вашого відома... Сподіваємося на подальшу плідну співпрацю;*

2) accuracy, consistency and conciseness of presentation;

3) lack of imagery, emotion, individual features.

Scientific style is characterized by a logical structure, a direct meaning of words, a wide use of specific terms, complex and compound sentences. In the English language scientific style the more short, clear-structured sentences are used. Genres of scientific style are: summary, review, thesis, article, lecture, textbook, monograph, abstract.

The characteristic feature of publicistic style is a wide use of socio-economic terms.

Literally colloquial words are used in everyday communication both by educated and non-educated people of all age groups. They should be distinguished from familiar colloquial and low colloquial ones. This vocabulary group closed merges on with slang and has some coarse flavor: *doc* for *doctor*; *hi* for *how do you do*, *привіт!*, *як справи?*, *бувай!* etc.

Colloquial style is characterized by a wide use of suffixes with diminutive, coarse, augmentative, evaluative meaning and simple sentences along with addresses and interjections. Words of this style are often stylistically coloured.

Fiction style is mostly the style of literature. The word which is used in this style does not only name some object or action but also serves as a means of aesthetic influence on the reader or listener. Archaic words or historisms are widely used in fiction.

Archaic words are words which are fully or partially out of circulation, rejected by the living language. The sphere of use is historic novels and poetry. **Obsolete** words are those which have completely gone out of use. E.g.: *закель (замок, застібка), барило (опукла бочка), флаша, фляша (пляшка, бутель, бокал, чара), флашечка (аптекарьський флакон), лямна (світило, світильник,*

Archaic words are divided into historisms and archaisms proper (stylistic archaisms).

Examples of historisms are: *гетьман, волосць, лихвар, волосний, гусар, столоначальник, дігтяр, чумак, спис, гаківниця, мушкет; гріш, дукат; верства, пасмо, челядь, шляхта, ланіти, чадо, ресстровий (козак), алтин, лицедій, півдинарій, коногон, вартівник, глас, весі, гаківниця, вельми, зигзиця, січовик, полтина, повелитель, бран, кожум'яка.*

Such words do not have synonyms in modern language and are used by writers to depict the facts or events of the past. Some archaisms can return to active word stock, e.g.: *хорунжий, козак, гетьман, кошовий.*

Archaisms proper are words denoting objects that exist nowadays, but their forms are obsolete: *враг- ворог, град- місто.* Some other words are obsolete synonyms to active words of the Ukrainian language: *бран – полон, вельми – дуже, десниця – права рука, перст – палець, чоло – лоб, актор – лицедій, битва – прія, уста – губи, відкривати – отверзати, рибар – рибалка, повітка – повість, сторожа – стража, паспорт – пашипорт, дзеркало – зерцало, піт – поет, інак – інакше, читаючи – читяше, сей – цей, вражий – ворожий, весі – села, хлопець – отрок, шуйця – ліва рука.*

Professional terminology are words belonging to special scientific, trade, professional, art terminological systems and not used or even understood by people who are not indulged in this particular sphere.

Basic vocabulary are words which are stylistically neutral, and, as such, opposed to formal and informal words. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all situations, both formal and informal, and in verbal and written speech. These are words without which no human communication is possible. This basic vocabulary is the central group of the vocabulary, its living core. It is characterized by lack of other connotations (that is other meanings). Their meanings are broad, general and convey the concept without any additional information.

The basic vocabulary and the stylistically marked vocabulary do not exist independently. They are closely interrelated. Most stylistically marked words have their neutral counterparts in the basic vocabulary, except the terms. Colloquialisms have their counterparts among learned words, slang words have their counterparts among both learned and colloquial words. Archaisms and obsolete words also have their counterparts among modern words.

6.1. COLLOQUIAL STYLE

Literally colloquial words are used in everyday conversation both by educated and non-educated people of all age groups. They should be distinguished from familiar colloquial and low colloquial ones. The borderline between these groups is not always clear, but low colloquials are usually used by young people and semi-educated people. Nowadays colloquial words are frequently used by writers in conversations and even in descriptions which was rare in the 19th century. This vocabulary group closely merges on with slang and has some of its coarse flavor: *doc* (for *doctor*), *hi* (*how do you do*), *to kid somebody* (*to tease or banter*), *pal* (*for friend*), *to have a crush on somebody* (*for to be in love with*).

A characteristic feature of colloquial style is the usage of word like *awfully*, *terribly*, *million*, *thousand*, *hundred* (*стращенно*, *жасливо*, *тисячі*, *сто*) as intensifiers. Such words do not contain their

lexical meaning any more, they are used as intensifiers, e.g.: I'm awfully glad to see you. *Я страшенно радий тебе бачити.*

Phrases *kind of, sort of* are used in the function of approximators and phrases which serve to soften categorical expressions. E.g.: *You're sort of working for me now.* In Ukrainian the word *miny / mina* has been widely used in the same meaning lately: *Ти, мина, працюєш на мене зараз.*

Colloquial speech contains a lot of words of offensive, humiliating, swearing character: *damn, blast, devil, bloody*; in Ukrainian: *якого дідька, біса, чортів.*

It is necessary to emphasize that this layer of words is much richer in Ukrainian than in English. For example, in the synonymic chain of words with the meaning of "to walk" in Ukrainian more than a half belong to colloquial speech style: *ходити, крокувати, ступати, простувати, прямувати, блукати, плентатися, швендяти, чвалати, чаланати, тупцювати, пертися, тарабанитися.* The corresponding synonymic group *to go, walk, step, stride, stroll, saunter, ambulate, perambulate, promenade, drag, lag behind, wander, roam, ramble, trudge* does not contain any stylistically restricted words. English colloquialisms contain much more swearing words which are not restricted to oral speech only but are freely used in the written speech: *That's a damned old question.*

Colloquial phrases when used out of the sphere of their usually application produce a comic or ironical effect.

6.2. SLANG

Slang is determined as language of highly colloquial style, considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words used in some special sense. It can be also defined as a social or professional dialect. There can be computer slang, slang of show business, students' slang, criminal slang, slang of sex minorities and professional slang.

People use slang for a number of reasons: to be picturesque, arresting, striking, and, above all different from others; to avoid

common words, to demonstrate one's spiritual independence and daring, to sound modern and up-to-date.

All or most of slang words are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically changed. Each slang metaphor is rooted in a joke. The criterion for distinguishing slang from colloquialisms: slang words are metaphors and jocular, often with a coarse, mocking, cynical colouring. The circle of users of slang is more narrow than that of that of colloquialisms. It is mainly used by the young and uneducated. Yet, slang's colourful and humorous quality makes it attractive to many people, so a considerable part of it may become accepted by all the groups of speakers. Often slang words transfer to colloquial speech and become commonly used and neutral in style.

In the English language the slang layer of words is extremely rich. E.g.: *money – ackers – ace – beans – bees and honey – billies – boodle – bread – cabbage – cake – clams – coin – dinero – green-greenback – greenies – guineas – dough – duckies – gelt – green lettuce – hoot – lolly – long – green loot – mazuma – Oscar – potatoes – readies – rhino – sugar etc.* Ukrainian slang group of the same meaning is less numerous: *бабки, бакси, зелень, єврики, штука, стольник, тугрики, капуста.*

Some slang words which penetrate the language originate from criminal slang: *busted (to be charged with a criminal offence), ex-con (someone who has spent time in jail), kickback (a payment made, often secretly or illegally, to someone who has helped to arrange a deal or a job), loot (stolen money or goods), mug shot (a photograph of someone taken after their arrest), pimp (a manager of prostitutes).*

Some slang words come from dialects: *bat – швидкість (ходьби, руху); bone- жебракувати.* A word with the same meaning can be found in Yorkshire dialect.

Cockney rhythmic slang is characterized by the use of several words which are rhymed so as to fit a new word, e.g.: *Adam and Eve – believe, holly ghost- toast, Joanna- piano, hig's ears- beer, almond rocks-socks, butcher's hook-look, china plate-mate, dog and bone-phone, sky rocket-pocket.*

In the Ukrainian language slang proper, that is words that have appeared in the process of communication of a specific social group do not usually bear any vulgar connotations.

Computer slang is becoming more and more widely spread among young Ukrainians. Here are some examples:

Вінт – жорсткий диск.

Вінда – операційна система Windows.

Геймер – гравець.

Глюкати – працювати з помилками.

Домен – ім'я комп'ютера або мережі в Інтернет.

Клава – клавіатура.

Зависнути – припинити відповідати на команди.

Квакати – грати у комп'ютерну гру.

Мама – материнська плата.

Монік – монітор.

Перекачати, злити – переписати інформацію.

Постінг – стаття, надіслана в мережу.

Системник – системний блок.

Чайник – нічого не розуміє у комп'ютерах.

Юзер – користувач.

Other examples of slang in Ukrainian are: *бачик* (телевізор), *бжух* (великий живіт), *бивень*, *шлепень*, *рогуль*, *лох* (телепень), *бийно* (небезпечно, ризиковано), *біоміцин* (вино марки «Біле міцне»), *Бухенвальд* (їдальня, від бух = алкоголь), *вантажити* (рос. *грузити*), *витиграфія* (фотографія), *вгавкатися*, *врубатися* (зрозуміти), *вогорити* (говорити), *дефіляда* (погулянка), *дерти даха* (сміятися), *жуужман* (агресивний молодий чоловік), *жуужик* (моторолер).

6.3. DIALECTS

A dialect is a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase (H. W. Fowler).

The English language has a lot of dialects: Southern English, Northern English, Midlands English, West Midlands English, Scottish

English, Hiberno-English (spoken in Ireland), Estuary English. Examples of dialect words are: long *a*: in the words like *castle*, *bath*, *cast*, *dance*, *fast* (in Southern dialect) as opposed to *a* as in *trap* or *cat* in Midland and Northern varieties and Scottish English.

Cold and *old* are pronounced in the Midlands as *kowd* and *owd* rhyming with *loud*, and *home* becomes *wom*.

Yorkshire dialect (Tyke) peculiarities: in the words like *night* the letter *I* is pronounced as long [i:]. The word *south* becomes *sahth*, *down* becomes *dahn*, the words *art* and *out* sound alike. The words *take*, *make* and the like are pronounced as [tek, mek], set etc. The word *goose* is pronounced as [guuz]. The words like *box* are pronounced as *boxer*, *badge* – as *badger* etc. The peculiar feature of Yorkshire pronunciation is using the sound [r] instead of the sound [t]. E.g.: *I'm gerring berrer* instead of *I'm getting better*; *gerroff* instead of *get off*; *purrit dahn* instead of *put it down*. One more peculiarity is the change of reflexive pronouns. E.g.: *self* is pronounced as *sen*; *yourself* is pronounced as *they sen*. In the lexicon one can also find some peculiarities, e.g.: *while* is used instead of *until*: *I'll not go home while 7*.

East Midlands (Nottingham) dialect is characterised by some peculiarities in the pronunciation, e.g.: the word *feet* is pronounced as [feeyut], new sound as [nu:]. The letter [u] is pronounced as [u] in the words *bus*, *but*, etc. The lexical peculiarities include the use of words: *scaight* (to cry), *crate* (to cry), *gleg* (to look), *snidered* (covered), *tabs* (ears), *yawp*, *yorp* (shout), *snap* (food, lunch), *nesh* (a weak person), *mash* (to make a cup of tea), *yorn* (yours), *theirn* (theirs), *ourn* (ours). E.g.: *It een't theirn, it's ourn – it isn't theirs, it's ours. You sen – yourself; thisens – themselves, mesen- myself, ussens – ourselves.*

Liverpool dialect is characterized by such peculiarities: *right* is pronounced as *rice*, but is pronounced as *bur* [b^r]. The sound [r] at the beginning of the word is pronounced as in the Ukrainian language. The lexical peculiarities are: *pure* is used in the meaning of *really*, *la-lad-friend*. *Shadly* is used in the meaning of *unfair*, *bladdered* is used in the meaning of *drunk*.

West Midlands dialect is characterized by such peculiarities: the word *Birmingham* is pronounced as *Brum*, the diphthong [ai] in the

words like *price*, *rice* is pronounced as [oi], the short sound [i] in the words *bit*, *fit* is pronounced as [i:]. The long sound [a:] in the words *bath*, *cast* is pronounced as the short one, the neutral sound is pronounced as [a] at the end of the word. The dialect is rich in phraseologisms, e.g.: *a bit black over Bill's mother – it is likely to rain soon; face as long as Liver street – looks miserable*. The lexicon is rich in dialect words, e.g.: *bab-wife*, *bostin-excellent*.

Here are some examples of Sranan (Creole spoken in Surinam): *mi go - I've gone, m'ekon – I come, ala mi mati – you all my friends, tak wan mofo – say the words*.

West Indian dialect examples: *It's my book* is pronounced as *its mai buk - iz mai buk - iz mi buk – a mi buk dat – a fi mi buk dat*.

The Ukrainian language can not boast of such widespread use. Modern Ukrainian language has 3 dialects: the northern dialect which is spread on the territories of Zhytoyr, Rivno, Volyn regions and northern parts of the Kyiv and Sumy regions.

Southern-western dialect is spread on the territories of the Zakarpatska, Ivano-Frankivska, Lvivska, Chernivetska, Khmelnytska, Ternopyl, Vinnytsa regions; northern-western parts of Kirovogradska and Odesska regions; northern part of Mykolayivska region. Southern-eastern dialect embraces Poltava, Harkiv, Donetsk, Zaporizhzhya, Dnipropetrovsk, Kherson regions. This dialect has become the background of the modern literary Ukrainian language.

Here are some examples of Ukrainian dialect words:

a) north-Ukrainian: *глива (груша), коросліп (пролісок), товар (худоба), конопляник (горобець), клювок (дятел), випуст (вигон), лісавця (драбина), ореля (гойдалка), сохар (дерев'яні вила), веселики (журавлі), ясниця (райдуга),*

b) south-Ukrainian: *жалива (кропива), курай (перекотиполе), скот (худоба), зобува (взуття), хвища (сильний дощ), довбур (димар), банити (мити), пакіл (кілок), квасець (щавель), вагани (ночви), тиінка (кукурудза).*

c) west-Ukrainian: *вуйко (дядько), тазда (господар), ватра (вогонь), файний (гарний), летінь (юнак), ногавиці (штани), біти*

(чоботи), мандибурка (картопля, чичка (кохана), мешти (черевіки).

One can group dialectisms into several groups:

a) **Ethnographic dialect words**, that is the words which denote names of houseware, dishes, local natural phenomena, clothes peculiar to the certain region, e.g.: *гуня* (свита з домашнього нефарбованого сукна), *кошуля* (вид сорочки), *кобеняк* (довга свита з відлогою на негодю), *корсет* (жіночий одяг без рукавів у талію) in the Northern dialect; *дерга* (груба без оздоблення запаска), *каптур* (головний убір), *втяжки* (чоботи із суцільної шкіри) – in the South-Eastern dialect; *крисаня* (вид капелюха), *сардак* (верхній зимовий одяг), *черес* (широкий шкіряний одяг) – in South -Western dialects of the Ukrainian language. Among other examples there are: *ванькир* (спальня), *овинь* (приміщення для просушування снопів), *оденок* (дерев'яний настил під копицею, стіжком) – in Northern dialects; *ковганка* (дерев'яна посудина для затовкування сала), *сапетка* (велика корзина), *підкат* (навіс для зберігання сільськогосподарського реманенту) – in South-Eastern dialects; *оборіг* (споруда з рухомим дахом), *кошниця* (високий стоячий кіш, виплетений з ліщини і з дахом, для зберігання кукурудзи в качанах), *колиба* (чабанська або лісорубська хатина з конусоподібним верхом) – in South-Western dialects; *жур* (їжа з вівсяного борошна), *галагани* (вид печива), *чулаки* (довгасті пампушки з гречаного або пшеничного борошна), *гуголь* (страва з курятини, приправленої квасолею й цибулею) – in the Northern dialects; *балабухи* (спечені або зварені з тіста шишки), *бекмес* (мед із буякового соку або кавунів), *кваша* (солodka страва із житнього борошна) – in South-Eastern dialects; *бануш* (кукурудзяний куліш на овечому лої), *гусянка* (ряжанка з овечого молока), *плачинда* (вид печива) – in South-Western dialects; *заплекс* (смуга піску, замочувана хвилями), *бабана* (піщаний острівець на міліні), *припай* (смуга піщаного берега иоря під кручею), *верховина* (вітер з суші), *низовка* (вітер з моря), *побережник* (вітер вздовж моря), *камка* (морська трава на узбережжі Чорного моря), *плай* (гірська стежка), *полонина*

(пасовище в горах), кичера (лиса гора), ізвор (джерело), бескид (круча, ущелина), грунь (верхів'я гори у Карпатах)

b) **Semantic dialect words**, that is, the words which are used in local dialect speech in the meaning different from generally known, e.g.: in the South-Western dialect one can find such words as *берег (гора)*, *вага (криничний журавель)*, *вічко (шибка)*, *врода (врожай)*, *квас (мінеральна вода)*, *молодиця (дівчина перед весіллям)*, *невістка (заміжня жінка)*, *квасок (щавель)*.

Semantic dialect words can be of 2 types: those which have an additional meaning different from the generally used one; and those which have a meaning completely different from the generally used one. E.g.: the word *гора* has 2 meanings:

a) *гора*,

б) *горище*.

The word *верх* has 2 meanings:

a) *верх*,

б) *димар*.

The word *вино* has got 2 meanings: *вино й виноград*; the word *загата* has got 2 meanings: a) *гребля*; б) *зовнішня обкладка хати солом'ю яш сінном для утеплення*.

Words with a completely different meaning are: *родичі (батьки)*, *кум (весільний батько)*, *ноша (одяг)*, *обід (сніданок)*, *аркан (гуцульський танок)* (These words are found in the West-Ukrainian dialect).

c) Word-building dialectisms differ in their word building patterns. They can have suffixes which differ from the common word stock, e.g.: *білиця (білка)* in South-Western dialects; *димник (димар)*, *бабакуль (кульбаба)*, *моримуха (мухомор)*.

Constant and long-lasting inter-relations of the two neighbouring languages – Russian and Ukrainian – have resulted in an influence of the Russian language on the lexical structure of Ukrainian. A language phenomenon known as “суржик” is the result of an artificial joining of elements belonging to different languages without observing the laws of either of them. So, the semantic nucleus of such words contains two elements of the meaning and as the result, degradation of the meaning

and the quality of the languages as a whole. Here are some examples of «суржик»: *безвихідне становище – безпорадне становище, безвихідь; благополуччя – щастя, добробут, гаразд; рибалка – риболовля; на наступній неділі замість наступного тижня, піддати критиці – критикувати, оговорити питання – дискутувати, в будь-якій ситуації, я трошки опіздаю, по-українськи, віддільно від..., унаслідувати, я рахую (замість я вважаю), самий головний (замість найголовніший), міроприємство (захід), до цих пір (досі), бувший в користуванні.*

A part of Ukrainian speakers uses Russian words on purpose boasting their profound knowledge of the Russian language. Another part is the category of people who do not know the Ukrainian literary language and use Russian words and phrases considering them as a literary variant of the Ukrainian language. And one more category of people who possess the knowledge of the Ukrainian language but they don't consider it necessary to use the memory and remember the corresponding Ukrainian word.

Dialectal peculiarities are constantly entering everyday colloquial speech or slang. From these levels they may be transferred into the common word-stock, i.e. words which are not stylistically marked.

The number of dialects in English is much bigger due to a wider spread of the language in the world. A constant interrelation of the English language with native dialects and local languages gave rise to a lot of pidgin variations of it. The Ukrainian language is not so widely spread in the world. It cannot boast such a variety of dialects.

Problems for revision:

1. What functional styles of a language are there?
2. What is slang?
3. What is colloquial style characterized by?
4. What dialects are there in English?
5. What dialects are there in Ukrainian?
6. Which of the contrasted languages is richer in dialects and why?

7. Are the most vivid peculiarities of the functional styles similar in the contrasted languages?
8. Is Ukrainian slang rich in foreign elements?
9. What are the sources of slang?
10. Are the styles interrelated?

7. PHRASEOLOGY

7.1. FREE WORD GROUPS

A free word group is a group of syntactically connected notional words within a sentence, which by itself is not a sentence.

Every utterance is a patterned, rhythmized and segmented sequence of signals. Words combined to express ideas and thoughts make up **word-groups**. On the lexical level these signals building up the utterance are not exclusively words. Alongside with separate words speakers use larger blocks consisting of more than one word. Some word groups are semantically and functionally inseparable: *rough diamond, cooked goose, to slew in one's own juice*. Such word groups are traditionally described as set phrases or phraseological units. Phraseological units are characterized by non-motivation for idiomaticity and stability of context. They can not be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units.

The component members in other word groups are possessing greater semantic and structural independence: *to cause misunderstanding, to shine brightly, linguistic phenomena, red rose* etc. Word-groups of this type are defined as free word-groups or free phrases. They are freely made up in speech by the speakers according to the needs of communication.

Set expressions are contrasted to free phrases and semi-fixed combinations. Word components of a word-group may belong to any part of speech, therefore such groups as *in the morning, the window* are also considered to be word-groups though they comprise only one notional verb and one form-word.

7.2. STRUCTURE OF FREE WORD-GROUPS

Free word groups are divided into:

a) endocentric – those which have one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group. The word-group *red flower, bravery of all kinds* are distributionally identical with their central components *flower bravery*:

I saw a red flower – I saw a flower;

I appreciate bravery of all kinds – I appreciate bravery;

In Ukrainian: *я побачив квітку; я ціную хоробрість.*

b) exocentric – those which have no such central member, for instance *side by side* or *grow smaller* and others where the component words are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word-group. In Ukrainian: *пліч-о-пліч; стати краще.*

Word-groups are also classified into:

a) predicative;

b) non-predicative ones.

Such word groups that have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, e.g.: *John works, he went* (*Джон працює; він пішов*) are classified as predicative and all others are non-predicative.

Non-predicative word groups are classified according to the type of syntactic relation between the components into **subordinative** and **coordinative**. Such word groups as *red flower, a man of wisdom* and the like are termed subordinative in which *flower* and *man* are head-words and *red, wisdom* are subordinated to them respectively and function as their attributes.

Such phrases as *a woman and a child, day and night, do or die* are classified as **coordinative**. Both components of these word-groups are functionally and semantically equal.

Subordinative word groups are classified according to their head-words into **nominal word-groups** (*red flower*), **adjectival word-groups** (*kind to people*), **verbal word-groups** (*to speak well*), **pronominal ones** (*all of them*), **stative** (*fast asleep*).

The head is not necessarily the component that comes first in the word-group, e.g.: *bravery in the struggle, very great bravery.*

7.3. MEANING OF FREE WORD GROUPS

The meaning of a free word-group may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the components.

Word groups possess not only the lexical meaning conveyed by the pattern of arrangement of their constituents. Such word groups as *school grammar* and *grammar school* are semantically different because of the difference in the pattern of arrangement of the component words.

Word groups may be also classified as **lexically motivated** if the combined lexical meaning of the group is deducible from the meaning of the components. Free word groups are characterized by complete motivation, as their components carry individual lexical meaning, e.g.; *poor girl, nice girl, big girl; poor peasant, poor worker; poor knowledge; тисати швидко, тисати листа, тисати англійською; швидко згорів, швидко прийшов*. Phraseological units are **non-motivated** and are characterized by different degree of idiomaticity: *by hook or crook; to beat about the bush, ні сіло, ні впало; байдудику бити*.

Two basic linguistic factors which unite words into word-groups and which largely account for their combinability are **lexical valency or collocability** and **grammatical valency**. Words are used in certain lexical context, i. e. in combination with other words. The ability of a word to appear in various combinations with other words is called lexical valency.

The range of potential lexical collocations is restricted by the inner structure of the words.

Within a synonymic group one word usually has the widest possible range of collocability, while another has the limited collocability because of its semantic structure.

There is a certain norm of lexical valency for each word and any intentional break of this norm results in a change of stylistic colouring: *a life ago, tons of words*.

Words traditionally collocated in speech tend to make up so-called **clichés** or **traditional word combinations**. In such combinations words retain their full semantic independence although they are limited in their combinative power.

7.4. CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Phraseology studies combinations of words which are not created in the speech every time we need them but those which exist in a language as ready-made blocks with a set meaning, common to all of the elements. Very often the meaning of such a combination of words does not equal to the sum of meanings of its constituents. An essential feature of phraseologisms is expressiveness, metaphorism, imagery. They often belong to stylistically coloured words (bookish or colloquial). Any language is constantly evading and enriching its phraseologic resources. Phraseological units fill the gaps in the lexical system of a language, which is not able not to provide nomination for all the phenomena of life which appear every day. In many cases phraseological units remain the only possible means of nominating objects, states, situations. Phraseological units creation helps to diminish the contradiction between the needs of thinking and limited lexical resources of a language. With the help of phraseological units which are not translated literally but perceived and reconsidered, the aesthetic level of a language is raised.

There are not so many phraseological units in the contrasted languages which fully correlate in their meaning. Sometimes the translator uses an analogue of the phraseologism of the contrasted language which is based on another image: *to work one's fingers to the bone* – працювати, не покладаючи рук; *to hit the bird in the eye* – вцілити в "яблучко"; *to catch somebody red-handed* – виймати на гарячому.

Phraseologisms can be translated in two ways: using equivalent and variant (relative) phraseologisms.

Absolute equivalents of phraseologisms match with the original in their style and grammar, e.g.: *bitter truth* – гірка правда; *to read between lines* – читати між рядків.

Relative equivalents match with the original in their meaning and style, but can be different from the original in their grammatical and lexical meanings. E.g.: *a bird may be known by its song* – видно пана по халявах; *to kill the goose that lays the golden eggs* – вбити курку,

що несе золоті яйця; the game is not worth the candle – справа заходу не варта.

Sometimes the translator gives a word by word translation of English phraseologisms, if there are neither analogues nor equivalents in Ukrainian, e.g.: *liars must have good memories – обманщикам потрібна гарна пам'ять; to keep a dog and bark oneself – тримати собаку, а гавкати самому.* Such types of translation are appropriate if the image depicted in the phraseological unit is clear to both native speakers and foreigners.

The structural components of phraseological units are usually termed **lexemes**. They are subdivided according to their character into:

a) real words, e.g.: *better late than never, touch one's cap.* Almost all of phraseological units belong to this type.

b) potential words, lexemes with a weakened lexical meaning and syntactical functions. They occur in motivated phraseological units, e.g.: *still waters run deep (під лежачий камінь вода не тече).*

c) former words – components of phraseological idioms e.g.: *send somebody to Coventry (бойкотувати когось), spick and span – елегантний.*

d) pseudo-lexemes. For example, the word **muttons** does not exist in the English language, it appears only in the phraseological unit *let us return to our muttons (повернімося до нашої розмови)* and is taken from the French language (*mouton*) and can be found only in this context. Pseudo-lexemes occur very rarely.

The main source of phraseological units is the vivid, picturesque language of common people, which is metaphoric and imaginative. Such metaphoric phrases become set expressions and serve as the main source of phraseological units of a language, e.g.: *ноги на плечі; зуби з'їсти на чомусь; кивати/накивати п'ятами.* But they can not be translated directly: *to take legs on the shoulders; to eat up one's teeth on something, to nod by heels* do not have the same meaning as the phraseological unit possesses and will not be understood by the English people. A great number of phraseological units comes from Ukrainian folklore and common wisdom: *гуртом і чорта побереши або гуртом і батька легко бити - many hands may work light; тихие ідеи - дали*

будеш, поспішиши - людей насмішиши, хто спішисть - той людей сміюють - haste makes waste/the more haste, the less speed.

Along with phraseological units which have no correlations in the contrasted languages there are those which have correlations in both languages: *не знати, не тямити себе, ні бе, ні ме, ні кукуріку - not to know chalk from cheese; вночі, що сіре те й вовк - all cats are gray in the dark; яка хата, такий тин - like father, like son; кленки бракує - has not all his buttons, not a cat's chance.*

Phraseological units, like words proper may enter synonymic chains, have antonyms. Some of them may even have variations alongside with fixed phraseological units. Some of them may have an interchangeable component (an allomorph).

There are several terms which are used in modern lexicology with reference to this lexical phenomenon: **phraseological units, set expressions, set phrases, phrases, fixed word groups, collocations etc.** Let's consider some of them.

The term **set phrase** means that the main criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of the given word group.

The term **idiom** implies that the essential feature of the lexical unit is idiomaticity or lack of motivation.

The term **word-equivalent** underlines not only semantic but also functional inseparability of a certain word group and its ability to function in speech as a single unit.

The commonly used term for naming such combinations of words is as follows: it is a semantically integrated idiomatic structure which is used as a ready form in speech.

In the Ukrainian linguistic science the classification of phraseologisms offered by academician V.V. Vinogradov and profesor A.V. Koonin are used. According to academician Vinogradov, phraseologisms are classified in relation to their motivation or retaining a separate meaning by the components of a phraseological unit. The definition given by Prof. Koonin is as follows: a phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning. Ukrainian scientists consider phraseological units

as follows: they are combinations of words which have a semantic integrity, can not be separated and are used in the speech as integral units.

The Ukrainian scholar who worked in the sphere of contrastive phraseology R. Zorivchak, basing on the theory put forward by A. Koonin, singles out full and partial phraseological equivalents. She states that full phraseological equivalents are the phraseological units which have imaginative and structural equality; a complete subjective, logical, expressive and stylistic equality. Partial equivalents can be different in structure, style, expressiveness. The more characteristics differ, the lower the coefficient of equality is.

D.I. Kveselevych differentiates between:

- a) full phraseological equivalents which fully coincide in their components, meaning, images, grammatical structure;
- b) partial phraseological equivalents which have minor differences in the lexical meaning or the grammatical structure or have analogues adequate in their meaning but different in their components; and c) phraseological units which have significant differences. So full phraseological equivalents are those which have the same structure and grammar, expressive means, functional and stylistic features, emotional connotation.

According to Ye. Soloduho, one should consider a compliance of meanings as the main characteristic of inter-language phraseological equivalents as the same lexical structure or similarity of their inner form does not testify to their equivalency.

So we will differentiate between such groups of phraseological units according to their correlation:

- a) fully correlated phraseological units which have corresponding units in the contrasted languages;
- b) partially correlated phraseological units. Translating them one should take into account specific features of them;
- c) phraseological units which have no equivalents in the contrasted languages. Translating such units one should use the pragmatic meaning of the context and expressive means based on different images.

The essential features of phraseological units are:

- 1) lack of semantic motivation;
- 2) lexical and grammatical stability.

According to the **semantic motivation** phraseological units can be: a) *motivated* - (simple addition of denotational meanings), e.g.: *sight for sore eyes, to take to heart, to shrug one's shoulders*; *кидати погляд, пробігти поглядом, сунути брови розв'язати питання, розв'язати завдання; надати допомогу, надати підтримку; храм науки, храм мистецтва; зло бере, страх бере, сміх бере, жаль бере*. Such phraseological units are very numerous. Here belong verb-nominal paraphrases of simple verbs: *to give a nod, to give a glance, to take haste, to make an offer, брати зобов'язання, брати приклад, отримати визнання, отримати оцінку, поставити питання*. Here also belong adjectival combinations: *гарячі почуття, гарячі голови, чорна невдячність, high water, hot blood, bitter cold*. Another term for them is **phraseological combinations (фразеологічні сполучення)**

b) **partially motivated (when only one of the components is used in figurative meaning) (фразеологічні єдності)**, e.g.: *to be on the seventh heaven, to fall in love, to stick to one's word, передати куті меду, мухи не зобидити, прикусити язика, тримати язик за зубами, води в рот набрати, ні пари з вуст, тримати камінь за пазухою, робити з мухи слона, замилювати очі, море по коліна, накивати п'ятами, кіт наплакав, стріляний горобець, у сірка очі позичити*. They are semantically indivisible, but the original meanings of the constituents can be traced. The border-line dividing partially motivated phraseological units and semi-fixed or non-phraseological word groups is vague and confusing.

c) **completely non-motivated (фразеологічні зрощення)**, e.g.: *beat about the bush, to rain cats and dogs, некти раків, бити байдики, точити яси, правити теревені, собаку з'їсти, дати дуба, залишитися з носом, зарубати на носі*. Such phraseological units are used as syntactical units, do not suggest any restructure or changes, additional attributes. Their meaning is not derived from meanings of their constituents' meanings. Their metaphoric meaning

has completely substituted the original meanings of their constituents. Mostly the term **idiom** is applied to these phraseological units. Another term for them is *fusions*.

According to the **structural criterion** some characteristic features of phraseological units can be distinguished, which contrast them from free word groups. All of the mentioned above groups of phraseological units possess them to a certain extent. First and foremost, they are: **structural invariability**, which is an essential feature of all phraseological units, though they possess it to a greater or lesser degree. According to this feature phraseological units are restricted in substitution, otherwise they suffer changes of sense. Cf.: *to carry coal to Newcastle, to give somebody the cold shower*.

The second type of restriction is restriction of introducing any additional component into the structure of a phraseological unit.

In contrast to phraseological units free word groups do not suffer any changes in meaning if the structure is changed.

Though one of the characteristic features of phraseologisms is the stability of their structure, in real speech, stability of the structure appears not so strict. A considerable number of phraseological units have several variations, it should be stressed that not only grammar parts but the meaningful components appear to be changeable, e.g.: *not to care a bit (a brass button, a button; not to care (give) a curse, a damn, a darn, a dern, a fig, a hang, a hoot, a pin, a rap, a rush, a straw, a tinker's damn, a tinker's curse, a whoop, tuppence, a blank in hell, a cent, a continental, a red cent for (мені байдуже, мене це не обходить, мені начхати, мені наплювати, мені по барабану, фіолетово, начхати, паралельно)*.

Very often one and the same phraseological unit has a number of variations. Such phraseological units:

To give oneself / assume / put on airs

To be / get / on the high horse

To get too big for one's shoes / boots

To look down one's nose at

To put on frills

To turn up one's nose

To put on side

are united by one and the same meaning *to be too proud of oneself*, *гордувати, величатися, гнути курпу, задирати носа*.

In the Ukrainian language one can also find variations in the lexical form of a phraseological unit:

За царя Гороха, за царя Панька; ні богу свічка, ні чорту / лукавому кочерга.

The third type of restriction is grammatical restriction. Grammatical invariability is an essential feature of a phraseological unit, e.g.: *from head to foot (not feet); to find fault (not faults) with somebody*. There are some exceptions from this rule: *to build a castle (and castles) in the air; skeleton (and skeletons) in the cupboard; a black sheep (and the blackest) sheep of the flock*.

In real speech their structure appears not to be so unbreakable and is subject to semantic renovation especially in fiction. If the phraseological unit is motivated and has another analogue based on other associations, the translation of such analogue works in one association and does not work in another one.

Combinations on the basis of the verb and a noun (*to give a nod, to give a shrug, to take a breath, to take a gulp*) which are used to express a non-permanent action are very frequent in English. They are characterized by a certain generalized meaning and sometimes they are considered as structures close to grammatic. Similar structures can also be found in the Ukrainian language – verbs with the suffix *-нути*: *хильнути, гульнути, стрибнути, пальнути, ковтнути, дихнути*.

English verb-noun paraphrase of simple verbs with the component *give/offer/take* etc. have the additional meaning of voice (passive-active): *give advice - take advice*. Such phrases are easily correlated with simple verbs in the active and passive voice: *advice-to be advised* and have rich possibilities for clarifications (*to give good advice*). In the Ukrainian language similar constructions are characteristic: *давати пораду, давати раду, дати ляпаса*. Such word combinations may be considered as stable ones that can render grammar categories by lexical means.

7.5. STRUCTURE OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

According to their structure phraseological units can be:

verbal: *to put one's best foot forward, вийти сухим з води;*

nominal: *the root of the trouble, корінь зла (проблеми);*

adjectival: *as good as gold, червоний як варений рак;*

adverbial: *from head to foot, з голови до ніг;*

prepositional: *in the course of, в ході;*

conjunctive: *as long as, on the other hand, з одного боку, з іншого боку.*

interjectional: *Well, I never! Боже!*

This classification takes into consideration not only the type of components but also the functioning of the phraseological unit as a whole: *to fight tooth and nail* is an adverbial phrase, because it describes how the fight went on.

So, such subdivisions can be pointed out:

a) phraseological units that function as nouns:

N+N – *maiden name* – serves as a noun, means the family name of a woman before she was married. In Ukrainian: *авгієві стайні*.

N's+N – *cat's paw* – one who is used for the convenience of a cleverer and stronger person (чужими руками жар загрібає). In Ukrainian: *Ахіллесова п'ята*.

Ns' +N – *ladies' man* – one who makes special effort to please and charm women.

N+prep+N – *the arm of the law, skeleton in the cupboard*. In Ukrainian: *око за око, зуб за зуб*.

N+Adj – *knight errand* – the phrase is applied to characterize a chivalrous man ready to protect and help oppressed people.

N+ and+N – *lord and master (husband), all the world and his wife*.

Adj+N – *high tea*. In Ukrainian: *легкий на руку*.

N+subordinate clause – *ships that pass in the night* – chance acquaintance.

b) phraseological units that function as verbs. These phraseological units are most numerous in the English language. Among the verbs which enter these phraseological units verbs of

movement, action, speech can be found, e.g.: *to go Dutch, to go into details, to run into debt, to go the way of all fresh, to dance on a tight rope, to cut one's nose, to wash one's dirty linen in public.*

Phraseological units of the same pattern can be found in Ukrainian: *бити байдики, з'їхати з глузду, прикусити язика, виходити сухим з води, дати перцю, пекти раків, випасти з голови, потрапити під гарячу руку, з'їсти пуд солі.*

It should be emphasized that we can find corresponding English and Ukrainian phraseological units containing verbs as their main logical constituent, but the verbs may belong to different semantic fields:

To grease one's palm – *дати хабара, «дати на лапу»;*

To meet the demands – *відповідати вимогам;*

To take pleasure of something – *діставати насолоду від;*

To shake like a leaf – *тремтіти як осиковий лист;*

To wind one round one's little finger – *обкрутити навкруг пальця;*

To take one at one's word – *піймати на слові.*

Let's consider the patterns of phraseological units which contain verbs as their main logical constituents:

V+N – *take advantage!* In Ukrainian: *накивати п'ятами, чесати язиком;*

V+and+V – *pick and choose.* In Ukrainian: *пальцем не поворушити.*

V+one's+N+ prep – *snap one's finger at.* In Ukrainian: *виходити в тираж; ножа гострити на когось.*

V+one+N – *give one the bird (to fire somebody).*

V+ subordinate clause – *see how the land lies (to discover the state of affairs).* In Ukrainian: *ніти куди Макар телят не ганяв, встати ні світ ні зоря.*

c) phraseological units that function as adjectives:

A+and+A – *high and mighty;* In Ukrainian: *кров з молоком, не ликом шитий, ні риба ні м'ясо, під мухою.*

As +A+as+N – *as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter; п'ний як чін.*

d) Phraseological units functioning like adverbs:

N+N – *tooth and nail*; In Ukrainian: *з голови до ніг*;

Prep.+N – *by heart, of course*. In Ukrainian: *напам'ять*;

Adv.+prep,+N – *by hook or crook*.

Cj.+ clause – *before one can say Jack Robinson*

In Ukrainian: *по зав'язку, до лампочки, склавши руки, через пень колоду, на кожному кроці, за тридев'ять земель, куди Макар телят не гаяв, ні світ ні зоря, курям на сміх, рукою подати.*

e) Phraseological units functioning like prepositions:

prep.+N+prep – *in consequence of*. In Ukrainian: *у зв'язку з*.

f) Phraseological units functioning like interjections:

Bless one's soul! God bless me! Hang it all!

In Ukrainian: *ну й ну, чорт візьми, хоч кулю в лоб, ради бога, слава богу, в добрий час.*

Ways of translating phraseological units are different. They depend on the fact whether the phraseological units in the contrasted languages are formed on the similar or different images. In cases when it is impossible to find a direct correlation between two phraseological units belonging to different languages, one can use a descriptive way of rendering the meaning, e.g.: *a blind date* – *побачення з незнайомою людиною*; *побачення наосліп*; *backseat driver* – *непроханий порадник*.

7.6. WAYS OF FORMING PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out **primary** and **secondary** ways of forming phraseological units.

Primary way of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group.

Most productive in English are:

a) the **formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups**: *launching pad* in its terminological meaning is *стартова площадка*, in its transformed meaning – *відправний пункт*, *to link up* – *стикуватися*,

з'єднувати космічний корабель in its transformed meaning it means *знайомитися*.

b) a large group of phraseological units was **formed from free word-groups by transforming their meaning**: *granny farm – пансіонат для престарілих*, *Trojan horse – комп'ютерна програма, спеціально сконструйована для руйнування комп'ютера*.

In Ukrainian: *надягати хомут на шию, вибивати з сідла, ділити шкуру невбитого ведмедя, альфа і омега, аріаднина нитка*.

c) phraseological units are formed **by means of alliteration**: *a sad sack – нещасний випадок*; *culture vulture – людина, що цікавиться мистецтвом*; *fudge and nudge – ухиляння*.

d) they can be formed **by means of distorting a word group**: *odds and ends* were formed of *odd ends*.

e) phraseological units are formed **by using archaisms**: *in brown study – in gloomy meditations* (both components preserve their archaic meanings).

f) they can be formed by **using a sentence in a different sphere of life**: *that cock won't fight* can be used as a free word group when it is used in sports (cock fighting), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically.

g) they can be formed **when we use some unreal image**: *to have butterflies in the stomach – to feel nervous about something*; *to have green fingers – to be very good at gardening*.

i) they can be formed **by using expressions of writers and politicians in everyday life**: *corridors of power* (Snow); *American dream* (Alby); *locust years* (Churchil); *the winds of change* (Mc Millan).

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit, they are:

a) **conversion**: *to vote with one's feet – vote with one's feet*;

b) **changing the grammar form**: *make hay while the sun shines – to make hay while the sun shines*.

c) **analogy**: *curiosity killed the cat – care killed the cat*.

d) **contrast**: *acute surgery – cold surgery, fat cat – thin cat*.

e) shortening of proverbs and sayings: *you can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear – to make a sow's ear.*

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans: *living space (German); to take the bull by the horns (Latin); or by means of phonetic borrowings:* *meche blanche (French); corpse d'elite (French); sotto voce (Italian); etc.*

Phonetic borrowings among phraseological units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often.

The scholar O. Ponomariv points out such ways of forming phraseological units in Ukrainian:

a) proverbs and sayings: *Добре там живеться, де гуртом сіється й ореється; під лежачий камінь вода не тече; як бригадир порядкує, так бригада й працює;* and humorous expressions: *сім мішків гречаної вовни; ви мовчіть, а я буду слухати; нема хліба — їж пироги; буває, що і слон літає.*

a) Professional terminology: *сім раз приміряй, а раз одріж; тріццати по всіх швах; грати першу скрипку, підвищувати тон; цей номер не пройде; увійти в роль; відігравати роль; виконувати завдання на відмінно; дружній череді вовк не страшний; лити воду на млин; взяти в шори; не святі горшки ліплять; взяти під обстріл.*

With the development of science and technologies the Ukrainian language phraseology was enriched by new phraseological units which originated due to usage of the word combinations from professional communication in the indirect meaning: *ланцюгова реакція, зсув за фазою, спускати на гальмах, зводити до спільного знаменника, з космічною швидкістю, лакмусовий папірець, коефіцієнт корисної дії, питома вага, температура кипіння, вийти на фінішну пряму, зійти з орбіти.*

b) Precise words by writers and poets: *«Бути чи не бути?» (В. Шекспір), «Залиш надію кожен, хто сюди входить» (Данте), Сидіння між двома стільцями (М. Салтиков-Щедрін). «Як би чого не сталося» (А. Чехов). «Людина — це звучить гордо» (О. Горький), «Вогонь в одежі слова» (І. Франко), «Чи є що краще, краще в світі, як купити жити» (Т. Шевченко). «Наша пісня, наша*

дума не вмре, не загине» (Т. Шевченко). «Все йде, все минає, і краю немає» (Т. Шевченко). «Нехай не забувають люди, що дурень всюди дурнем буде» (Л. Глібов). «Хіба ревуть воли, як ясла повні?» (П. Мирний). «Убий — не здамся» (Леся Українка). «Тільки той ненависті не знає, хто цілий вік нікого не любив» (Леся Українка). «Стою, мов скеля, непорушний» (П. Тичина). «Не той тепер Миргород, Хорол-річка не та» (П. Тичина). «Перемагають і життя» (П. Тичина).

c) Translations of phraseological units from other languages: *Як з гуся вода, діло табак, і носа не покажуть, відкладати в довгу шухляду* (from Russian). *Апетит приходить під час їди. Бути не в своїй тарілці* (from French); *Дивитися крізь пальці. Тут собака зарита* (from German).

d) Translations of ancient saying, mostly from Latin and Greek: *розрубати гордіїв вузол, Прокрустове ложе, чистити авгієві конюшині, прийшов, побачив, переміг, крокодилячі сльози, альфа і омега, кінець – ділу вінець.*

e) Biblical sayings: *сіль землі; пісня пісень; повертатися на круги своя; земля обітована; не хлібом єдиним живе людина; лікарю, зцілися сам; берегти, як зіницю ока, стати притчею во язицех, витити чашу до дна, Содом і Гоморра, Вавілонське стовпоторіння, блудна віця.*

Among the secondary ways of forming phraseologisms the scholar mentions:

a) Phraseological units formed on the basis on metonymy: *накивати п'ятами, брязкати зброєю, голити чуба (лоба), крутити хвостом, зрушувати (знизувати) плечима.*

b) Synecdoche: *ясна голова, холодний розум, золоті руки, віч-на-віч.*

c) Hyperbole or litote: *бездонна бочка; видно, хоч голки збирай; тихо, хоч мак сій; чугуївська: (пирятинська) верста; куціший від заячого хвоста; небо за макове зернятко здається.*

d) Phraseological units based on symbols: *синій птах (the symbol of happiness), лавр (victory), пальма (glory), зірка (destiny):*

увінчати лаврами, пальма першості, висхідна зоря (зірка), провідна зоря (зірка), через терни (через терни до зірок)

7.7. POLYSEMY AND SYNONYMY OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Phraseological units are the most specific sphere of linguistics. Their specificity is predetermined by extra-linguistic factors. Researchers can study the peculiarities of the national character and mentality through phraseological units. Any phraseological units should be considered in close connection with the culture and history of the nation. Phraseological units are cultural stereotypes existing in the language.

Comparative analysis of the phraseological units studied predetermines their classification into such sub-groups depending on the spheres of life which they reflect:

- 1) phraseological units reflecting the social system and social hierarchy, historical facts and realia;
- 2) traditional phraseologisms which emerged from national traditions, customs;
- 3) geographical phraseologisms;
- 4) those which emerged from literary sources, official papers, mass media.

Semantic features sub-dividing set expressions into units of fixed meaning are **simile, contrast, metaphor, and synonymy**, cf.:

as like as two peas, as old as the hills, and older than the hills (simile);

from beginning to end, for love or money, more or less, sooner or later (contrast);

a lame duck, a pack of lies, arms race, to swallow the pill, in a nutshell (metaphor);

by leaps and bounds, proud and haughty (synonymy).

A few more combinations of different features in the same phrase are:

as good as gold, as pleased as Punch, as fit as a fiddle (alliteration, simile);

now or never, to kill or cure (alliteration and simile).

More rarely there is an intentional pun: *as cross as two sticks (very angry)*. This play upon words makes the phrase jocular.

There are other cases when phraseological units lose their picturesqueness, having preserved some archaic words or expressions which are no longer understood, e.g.: *to buy a pig in a poke*. The word *poke* (from French *pouch*, meaning *pocket, bag*) is not used any more.

Expressions taken from obsolete sports and occupations may survive in their new figurative meanings. In these cases the euphemic qualities of the expression are even more important.

Words which constitute phraseological units often lose some of their lexical meanings, but sometimes they can gain new ones, e.g.: the word *penny* in different phraseological units has the meaning of “a small sum of money”, but in the phraseologism “*cost a pretty penny*” it gets the meaning of “to cost much” (обійтися в копійчку); *not have a penny to one's name* – не мати й копійки за душею; *turn an honest penny* – чесно підробляти.

7.8. SEMANTICS OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Phraseological units of the contrasted languages semantically differ as they reflect specific activities, geographical and historical conditions of the nations' development. As Great Britain is an island country with a mild wet climate; its activities depend on the sea and a lot of phraseological units are based on marine professions. Phraseological units based on marine and weather terminology are frequent in English. Ethnonyms – phraseological units which contain proper, geographic names are different in both languages. Zoo-semantic and botanic elements in phraseological units are different. Creation of a certain image, accent on quality, intensification of an action or process are almost similar in the contrasted languages; but they are often based on different elements.

Among semantic groups of phraseologic units such can be distinguished: *somatic (the ones in the structure of which names of parts of human body can be found)*. We base our investigation on the research made by L. Verba:

at hand, by hand, change hands, come to hand, eat of one's hands, force one's hand, from hand to hand, from hand to mouth, hand and foot. In Ukrainian there are: *під рукою, чужими руками жар загрібати, переходити з рук в руки, потрасти в руки, взяти в свої руки, докласти рук, зв'язувати рук;*

come to a head, give someone his/her own head, head and shoulders, head to head, lose one's head, keep one's head, one's head off, over one's head, pull one's head in, take it into one's head, make head to. In Ukrainian there are: *голови полетять, гарячі голови, перекласти з хворої голови на здорову, заморочити голову, накласти головою, відповідати головою, не брати дурного в голову, в голові не вкладається, сушити голову, вбити в голову;*

face to face, get out of someone's face, in the face of, to make a face to somebody, on the face of it, put on a bold face, save face, lose face. In Ukrainian there are such somatic phraseological units the main components of which are names of parts of human body: *сказати прямо в очі, ховати очі, геть з очей;*

count noses, follow one's nose, keep one's nose clean, keep or put one's nose to the grindstone, lead or be led around by the nose, on the nose, pay through the nose, put someone's nose out of joint, rub someone's nose, under someone's nose. In Ukrainian we have: *пхати носа, носа не показувати, відвертати носа, задирати носа, винюхувати, рознюхувати;*

bite one's lip or tongue, button one's lip, hang on the lips of, keep a stiff upper lip, smack one's lip. In Ukrainian there are such phraseological units: *молоко на губах не обсохло, на всю губу, губу закотилити, з піною на губах, наче медом на губах, робити з губи халяву;*

cry on someone's shoulder, put someone's shoulder to the wheel, rub shoulders with, shoulder to shoulder, straight from the shoulder. In the Ukrainian language we can find: *рубати з плеча, пліч-о-пліч, підставити плече, взяти на плечі;*

leg up, not have a leg to stand on, on one's last leg, pull someone's leg, shake a leg, stretch one's legs. In Ukrainian there are: *розім'яти ноги, простягнути ноги, взяти ноги на плечі;*

burn one's finger, have a finger in the pie, keep one's fingers crossed, to lift a finger, twist or wrap around one's little finger. Понав пальцем в небо, пальцем не поворухнути, крізь пальці дивитися, мізинця не вартій.

find one's tongue, give tongue, hold one's tongue, lose one's tongue, on the tip of one's tongue, slip of the tongue. Плескати язиками, прикусити язика, крутиться на язичці, язик до Києва доведе.

The number of phraseological units with the core word **soul** in the Ukrainian language approximately four time bigger than in the English language.

There are also numerous phraseological units which contain components of somatic meaning, those in which the main logical constituents are **cheek, ear, throat, tooth, arm, knee, hip** etc.

Phraseological units of other semantic groups can also have both similar and different features. In the group of phraseological units with **weather meaning** one can observe both similar and different features. We can observe a diversity in the meaning of such a phraseologic unit in the contrasted languages: the phrase *rainy day* in the English language has the meaning of *black day*, while in Ukrainian with a much drier climate it does not arise any negative association, the Ukrainian phraseological unit is *чорний день*.

In the Ukrainian language one can find a large number of phraseological units with weather meaning. They came into being in the process of weather phenomena observations: *як вітром здуло, свіжим вітром повіяло, пустити за вітром, як грім з ясного неба, хмари згущуються, витати в хмарах, з дощу та під ринву, обдало морозом, радіий сонце прихилити, чекати біля моря погоди.*

Phraseological units with the main element **wind** in English: *in the teeth of the wind, how the wind blows, in the eye of the wind, in the wind's eye, in the wind, off the wind, sail close to the wind, take the wind out of one's sails, between wind and water* are numerous. It can be explained by the fact that the English are a marine nation and the direction of the wind is very important for them: *to be all at sea, to sink or swim, in deep water, in low water, on the rocks, to be in the same*

boat with somebody, to sail under false colours, to show one's colours, to weather (to ride out) the storm, to nail one's colours to the mast, to bow to the storm, three sheets in(to) the wind, half seas over, between the devil and the deep sea.

Ethnonyms are also different, e.g.: *it's Greek to me – китаїська грамота; Indian summer – бабине літо.*

It is interesting that there are a lot of phraseologisms with the word **Dutch**: *Dutch auction – the auction beginning with high prices and ending with lowest prices, Dutch concert – when everyone sings his own song, Dutch defense – pretending to defend, Dutch feast – the feast when the host gets drunk the first, earlier than the guests, Dutch treat – when the prices are share, Dutch bargain – the bargain profitable for only one party.*

In the Ukrainian language phraseological units with the basic component **meaning a nationality** are as follows: *чого стоїш, як турок; за компанію й жид повисівся; чукча.*

A large number of phraseological units in Ukrainian emerged of word combinations **which determined everyday life realia and actions of people in different situations, family relations etc**: *водити за ніс, кліпати очима, копилити губи, мотати на вус, протуркотіти вуха, розмахувати кулаками після бійки, бити себе в груди, хапатися за соломинку, гнути спину, танцювати від печі, ковтати слину, махнути рукою, зіпнутися на ноги, руки сверблять, склавши руки, пальчики оближеш, як за рідного батька, з молоком матері, свій брат, з одного тіста, як горохом об стіну, горох з капустаю, як медом по губах, по саму зав'язку, казанок варить, облизати макогона, за одним рипом, кути не держиться. бити байдики (ледарювати), пекти раків (червоніти), одним ликом шиті (однакові), облизня спіймати (зазнати невдачі), і усом не моргнути (не реагувати), заткнути за пояс (перевершити), кури не клюють (багато), на вагу золота (цінний), не по зубах (непосильний). responding to a call of nature, without a stitch to our backs, ladies of easy virtue, to be good at something, to be a good hand at something.*

Another group is the one **containing an animalistic component**. It is also very numerous: *не бачити смаленого вовка,*

хитрий лис, заяча душа, як кіт наплакав, перелітний птах, розправляти крила, мокра курка, курям на сміх, комар носа не підточить, тедзь укусив, to lock the stable door after the horse is stolen, to look a gift horse in the mouth, to ride the high horse, a big bug/pot, a fish out of water, dog's life, cat-and-dog life, calf love, nervous as a cat, (as) weak as a kitten, as the crow flies.

Phraseological units with plant or herbal element are as follows: *на вербі груші, блекоти наїстися. to come a cropper, neck and crop, cool as a cucumber.*

There are phraseological units in **which historical events are reflected**: *вільний козак, козацьке сонце, наче татарська орда, голо як би татари пройшли, наче на турка йде, мудрий як лях по шкоді, прив'язався як москаль, голити в москалі, здирати шкуру, кат із ним, не взяв його кат.*

But a greater part of phraseological units came into being thanks **to different crafts and activities, such as:**

agricultural activities: *прокласти першу борозну, орати переліг, перти плуга, одягати вуздечку, випускати віжки зі своїх рук, де не посій, там і вродиться, посіяти паніку, знаходити сокиру під лавкою, як п'яте колесо до воза, повертати голоблі;*

blacksmithing: *кувати вухналі зубами, брати в лецата, попадати в лецата, дати гарту, як ковальський міх, як молотком ударити;*

fishing: *пійматися на гачок, піддаватися на вудку, заманити в свої сіті, битися як риба в сітях;*

weaving and spinning: *розмотувати клубок, клубком ставати в горлі, нитка увірвалася, лежати в основі;*

tailoring: *білими нитками шитий, по нитці доходити до клубочка, як нитка за голкою, шукати голку в сні, розплутувати вузол, з голочки, на один копил, правити на свій копил, міняти шило на швайку by hook or by crook;*

transportation: *входити в колію, давати зелену вулицю, ставити на рейки, на всіх парах, натискати на всі педалі, давати задній хід, спускати на гальмах, брати на буксир, без керма і*

вітрил, на повних парусах, пливати за течією, тримати курс, кинути якір, рятівне коло;

financial activities: *зводити рахунки, акції ростуть, скидати з рахівниці, брати на свій рахунок, показувати товар лицем, перший сорт, купить і продасть; be in Queer Street, live from hand to mouth, not to have a shirt to one's back, not to have a penny to bless oneself with, without a penny to one's name, keep body and soul together, make both ends meet;*

soldiery: *гострити меч, схрестити мечі, ламати списи, тримати порох сухим, переходити в наступ, брати на озброєння, влучати в ціль, брати з бою, викликати вогонь на себе;*

theatre and performing: *грати роль, помінятись ролями, сходити зі сцени, опускати завісу, під завісу, номер не пройде, попадати в тон, як по нотах, фальшива нота, співати з чужого голосу, співати стару пісню, інша музика black art, first night;*

card playing: *відкривати карти, сплутати карти, ставити на карту, карти в руки, козир у руках, останній козир, робити ставку, іти ва-банк, підкласти свиню.*

Religious beliefs gave rise to many phraseological units: *земний рай, проспати царство небесне, пройти через пекло, пекельні муки, як з хреста знятий, шлях на Голгофу, віддати Богові душу, дзвонити в усі дзвони, на ладан дихати, одним миром мазані, рада б душа в рай, та гріхи не пускають, Worship the ground one walks on.*

A large number of phraseological units emerged on the basis of **folklore customs, traditions, superstitions and prejudices:** *дістати гарбуза, на рушник стати, зв'язати руки, як засватаний, пускати ману, зуби заговорювати, вставати на ліву ногу, виносити сміття з хати, з легкої руки, дорогу перейти.*

Certain phrases of folk songs and tales have become phraseological units as well: *біле личко, чорні брови, тихі води і ясні зорі, молочні ріки й кисельні береги, казка про білого бичка, лисичка-сестричка, на злодієві шапка горить, так- то так, та з хати як.*

Proper names: The most numerous are phraseological units are those which contain proper names. Among them are: *the man of Destiny* - *Наполеон*, *the Iron Lady* - *Маргарет Тетчер*, *the mistress of Adriatic* - *Венеція*.

In Ukrainian we find: *язиката Хвеська; Коцій Безсмертний; товчеться, як Марко по пеклі, розрубати гордіїв вузол, авгісві стайні, нитка Аріадни, сізіфова праця, піррова перемога*.

The basic element in phraseological units differ in the contrasted languages:

flies go to the lean horse – *на бідного Макара всі шишки летять;*

on the Greek calends, when the Ethiopian changes his skin, when the moon turns green cheese – *на Миколи та й ніколи;*

every cock sings in its own manner - *у всякого Муся своя затія;*

idle folk lack no excuse – *у всякої Федорки свої одговорки;*

we shall see what we shall see - *що буде, те й буде;*

when queen Anne was alive – *за царя Панька;*

there is many a slip betwween the cup and the lip - *казала Настя, як удасться;*

tastes differ – *кожен Івась має свій лас;*

among the blind one-eyed is the king - *на безлюдді й Хома чоловік;*

it is six and half in a dozen – *не вмер Данило, так болячка задавила;*

a crooked stick throws a crooked shadow – *який Сава, така й слава.*

Comparative analysis shows that **the basis for comparison in the contrasted languages is different:** *as black as a cider / a crow / crow's wing / raven / coal / ink / jet / soot / the ace of spades* - *чорний як смола, сажка;*

sober as a judge – *тверезий як скельце;*

as good as gold – *золото, а не ...;*

sting as a bug in a rug – *зручно та затишно, як у бога за пазухою;*

fresh as a daisy – свіжа як квіточка;
bright as a button – блищить, як нова копійка;
pale as death – блідий як смерть;
cool as cucumber – дуже спокійний; в українській мові
 порівняння на основі огірка за ознакою свіжості;
keen as mustard – ентузіаст своєї справи;
dead as a doornail – зовсім мертвий;
mad as a hatter – не при своєму розумі;
large as life – як живий;
fit as a fiddle – в доброму здоров'ї;
bold as brass – безсовісний;
pretty as a picture – гарна, як намальована;
poor as a church mouse – голий як бубон.

An English verbal phraseological unit can have a verbal equivalent in Ukrainian though the verb itself may belong to a different semantic field: *to grease one's palm* - дати хабара, дати на лапу; *to shake like a leaf* - тремтіти, як осиковий лист; *to wind one round one's little finger* - обкрутити навколо пальця.

Some noun phraseologisms have their equivalents in contrasted languages. Others do not. If they don't have an equivalent, the translator should use description to render them, e.g.: *sacred cow*; *baker's dozen* (укр. священна корова; чортова дюжина); *a blind date* - побачення з незнайомою людиною, побачення всліпу; *backseat driver* - непроханий порадник.

In the Ukrainian language one can find equivalents of international phraseological units: *коси коса поки роса* – *make hay while the sun shines*; *ні Богові свічка, ні чортові штичка або ні права, ні гава* – in the English language the phraseological unit does not have a nationally coloured element and has another source of origin: *neither fish nor flesh*; *потягнути ноги* – *to turn one's toes up*.

7.9. PROVERBS, SAYINGS

Proverbs and sayings can be found in the phraseological systems of both languages. A **proverb** is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and

imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with set expressions, because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they appear in the speech in their ready-made form. Here are some examples of English proverbs: *We never know the value of water till the well is dry; you can take the horse to the water, but you cannot make it drink*. If one compares proverbs and phraseological units in the semantic aspect, the difference seems to become even more obvious. Proverbs could be best compared with minute fables for, like the latter, they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralise (*Hell is paved with good intentions*), give advice (*Don't judge a tree by its bark*), give warning (*If you sing before breakfast, you will cry before night*), admonish (*Liars should have good memories*), criticise (*Everyone calls his own geese swans*).

No phraseological unit ever does any of these things. They do not stand for whole statements as proverbs do but for a single concept. Their function in speech is purely *nominative* (i. e. they denote an object, an act, etc.). The function of proverbs in speech, though, is *communicative* (i. e. they impart certain information). The question of whether or not proverbs should be regarded as a subtype of phraseological units and studied together with the phraseology of a language is a controversial one.

Professor A. V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them *communicative phraseological units*.

Communicative phraseological units (sayings and proverbs) of both languages can be similar in their semantic meaning, communicative meaning, stylistic colouring, but most of them have some peculiarities. Moreover, the corresponding units in either of the contrasted languages may not correlate fully. Comparing proverbs and sayings of both languages one should take into consideration the following criteria: common association meaning; the similar situation in which the contrasted proverbs are used. There are some examples of a few correlated proverbs containing zoonyms:

a) The situation predetermines the fact that a friend will not betray a friend: *dog does not eat dogs, crows do not pick crow's eyes; ворон ворону око не виклює (крук крукові око не виклює).*

b) The situation: the proverb states that one shouldn't intrude in the society where one is a stranger: *geese with geese, women with women; знайся кінь з конем, а віл з волон.*

c) people often forget what they were in their youth: *old cow thinks she was never a calf; забув віл, коли телям був.*

d) one should not neglect the small if he can't get something big: *a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush, a sparrow in hand is worth a pleasant fly by; краще синиця в небі, ніж журавель в небі.*

e) when in a new society the person should behave the same as all the rest do: *with foxes we must play the fox, між вовками по-вовчому вий.*

f) everyone should earn his/her living: *the dog that trots finds a bone, вовка ноги годують.*

Comparing sayings and proverbs with the meaning of death and life which exist in the contrasted languages, one can note that the Ukrainian people consider these phenomena as inevitable, the ones which can not be changed: *“Ніхто наперед не знає, що його в житті чекає”* “*You never know! You never can tell*”, *“Що має статися, те станеться”* (*What is fated to happen must happen*); *“Чему быть, того не миновать”*, *“Над кем стряслось, над тем и сбылось”*, *“Що судилося, того не об'їдеш”*, – reflect the attitude of the Ukrainians to life events. Ukrainians treat the inevitability with humour: *“Якби знав, де впадеш, то й сіна підклав би”*.

Comparing the attitude to death and life in both languages one can notice that the Ukrainians consider life as a challenge, struggle and suffering: *“Життя прожити – не поле перейти”*, *“Гіркий світ, а треба жити”*, *“Живу і світу не бачу”*, *“Життя так вчить, що на тілі синці лишаються”*. English proverbs and phraseological units depict life not so dark though difficult: *Life is not a bed of roses; life is not all cakes and ale / beer and skittles.*

The end of life is also imagined by the representatives of the two contrasted cultures in different ways: the Ukrainians consider death as

inevitability, e.g.: “Помер ти сьогодні, а я завтра”, “Жалістю не допоможеш, коли смерть прийшла”. They demonstrate an ironical attitude to death: “Пішов на дно раків годувати”, “Не вмер Данило – болячка задавила”, “раз мати народила, раз і вмирати; раз козі смерть; двом смертям не бути, а однісі не минути”. In the English language one can not find such ironical expressions but the expressions of inevitability: «*death is the grand leveller; death pays all debts; death when it comes will have no denial; a man can die but once; as well be hanged for a sheep as a lamb*».

Sometimes parts of phraseological units are used in speech, which creates the effect of allusion because parts of phraseological units are associated not only with their full variations but also with the situations, with the pragmatic meaning that the units portray in their full versions, e.g.: *Cook arrived with coffee, and put down the tray with the air of a camel exhibiting the last straw* (in the Ukrainian language – *остання крапля, від фрази – остання крапля переповнила чашу терпіння*).

Clichés are phraseological units which have lost their original expressiveness because they are constantly and mechanically repeated: *to break the ice, the arms of Morpheus, the irony of fate*.

From the point of view of extra-linguistic factors clichés are of great interest for a linguistic research as they reflect stereo-types and models of behavior existing in the culture of native speakers and produce certain difficulties in the process of translation. It is impossible to find a fully corresponding variant of translation, so when translating clichés one can only try to change them for an appropriate correlation existing in the contrasted language. There does not seem to exist any permanent border between phraseological units and proverbs, as the former often originate from the latter: *the last straw breaks the camel's neck – the last straw; birds of a feather stick together – birds of a feather; a drowning man catches at a straw – to catch at a straw*.

Some of the proverbs are easily transformed into phraseological units: *don't put all your eggs in one basket – to put all one's eggs in one basket; don't cast pearl before swine- to cast pearls before swine*.

Familiar quotations are different from proverbs in their origin. They originate in the literature but in the course of time they become part of the language.

The Shakespearean quotations have become and remain most numerous. They have greatly contributed to the world languages. Many of them come from *Hamlet*, cf.: *Something is rotten in the state of Denmark, brevity is the soul of wit, the rest is silence, thus conscience does make cowards of us all, there are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio*. These quotations can be found in both English and Ukrainian.

Problems for revision:

1. What is a free word group?
2. What is a phraseological unit?
3. What approaches to word group classifications are there?
4. What is the structure of phraseological units?
5. What ways of forming phraseological units are there?
6. What is the classification of phraseological units according to their semantics?
7. What semantic type of phraseological units is very rich in Ukrainian?
8. Are there any semantically similar groups of phraseological units in the contrasted languages?
9. Give examples of polysemy in phraseological units.
10. How are proverbs and sayings used as phraseologisms?
11. What is a cliché?
12. What's the classification of phraseologisms according to their semantics? Give your examples.
13. What are the richest sources of familiar quotations? Give examples.
14. Which of the contrasted languages is richer in phraseological units?
15. Are there any common sources of phraseological units in the contrasted languages?

EXERCISES

I. State the origin of the italicized words:

1. After all, one's *ego* is all one really has. 2. Would you mind passing me that *rucksack* that's on the bench behind you? 3. What do you want me to listen to? If it is home *karaoke*, I pass. 4. In fact, she seemed more like one of the businesswomen who'd be stopping to buy *a croissant* from him in a few hours. 5. A black Mercedes stood in the courtyard, *a chauffeur* beside it. 6. No *stimuli* worked on them, no voices called them from without, no fragments of their own thought came suddenly from the minds of others. 7. There was *waltz* music from the hall. 8. It stopped raining later in the day and we had supper out on the terrace. 9. I suspect there is a complex and fascinating *enigma* in his brain, but it's beyond reach. 10. It wasn't basketball, but a *hybrid* of rugby, wrestling, *judo*, and basketball.

II. Apply different types of lexicological analyses to the given sentences, word combinations and words:

- a) Baby, infant, child, kid, lad, babe, lass, maiden, guy, brat;
- b) I hate milk, I love cheese, he is happy, she will go mad, we are reading;
- c) A big vase of beautiful flowers, a problem of great importance, a woman of extraordinary beauty, a snowfall in December.

III. Provide the Componential analysis of the following:

Father- in-law / свекор; дядина / aunt; нанашко / God-father.

VI. State the etymology of the italicized words. Comment on their stylistic characteristics.

1. *The Oxford accent exists*, but it defies *definition*. It is not, as the French think, the kind of English which is spoken within *a twenty mile radius* of the city. Indeed, it is not an accent at all, but *a manner* of speaking. In *particular* it is a manner of pausing in your speech, of pausing not at the end of the *sentence*, where you might be *interrupted*, but in the middle of the sentences. Nobody, it is to be hoped, will be so rude as to interrupt you when you are in the middle of

a sentence. So pause there, to *decide* what your next sentence is going to be. Then, having decided, move quickly forward to it without a *moment's* pause as the full stop. Yes, jumping your full stops – that is the Oxford accent. Do it well, and you will be able to talk forever. Nobody will have the *chance* of breaking in and stealing the conversation from you.

V. Trace the origin of the given words:

- I. Violin: a) Greek, b) Latin, c) Italian; d) Russian
- II. Бандура: a) Indo-European, в) Greek, c) Old Slavonic; d) Latin
- III. Star: a) Indo-European, b) Greek, c) Slavonic; d) Turkic
- IV. Major: a) Latin, b) English, c) French; d) Slavonic
- V. Фізика: a) Latin, в) Greek, c) Russian; d) English
- VI. Бавовна: a) German, в) Greek, c) Latin; d) French

VI. Give English equivalents of the following German words. Translate them into Ukrainian.

Hand, Arm, Bar, Fuchs, Kalb, Eiche, Gras, Regen, Frost, Winter, Sommer, See, Land, Haus, Raum, Bank, Boot, Schiff, grim, blau, grau, schmal, dick, alt, gut, sehen, sprechen, machen, geben, antworten, trinken, sagen.

VII. Mind the following Latin roots. Supply words containing these roots.

Porto – носити	Audio- слухати
Scribe - писати	Centum – сто
Specto - дивитися	Circus – круг
Video - бачити	Civilis – цивільний, громадський
Visus- видіння	Lingua – мова, мовлення
Vita - життя	Scriptum – написаний

VIII. Mind the following Greek roots. Supply words containing these roots.

Autos – сам	Logos - вчення
Chronos – час	Онома – ім'я

Bios – життя
Demos – народ
Grapho – писати
homos – однаковий
lexis - слово

Phone – звук
Phos, photos - світло
Scopeo - спостерігати
Tele - далеко
Lexicon – словник

IX. State the Ukrainian equivalents of the English words with the suffix –ist. Find English equivalents of the Ukrainian words with the suffix- ист/ іст.

The *physicist* G. Robinson observes that “strictly speaking, no hypothesis or theory can ever be proven”. 2. Goodrich, a *paleontologist* well known for his skepticism, takes the contrasting views. 3. Another *anthropologist* has put it more plainly. 4. Her husband was a marine *biologist* at the university. 5. I would have a professional *hypnotist* take you through the entire evening. 6. “One cannot hurry these things”, said the old *alchemist*. 7. And for a moment the *psychiatrist* saw the girl. 8. Riley was not a skilled *typist* – having both a secretary and a computer rapidly erodes that skill – and it took him an hour to produce the document he needed. 9. The one thing an *archeologist* is always cognizant of is the long term – especially long-term patterns. 10. The child *psychologist* listens to the daughter and then says, You know, this is the typical story of an abused child.

X. State the function of the first noun in the underlined word combinations. Give their Ukrainian equivalents.

1. He gestured to a figure at the shadows across Chestnut Street, against the stone wall. 2. I saw rows of lamps, splendid wall paintings, hammered with gold, a ceiling veiled in gold. 3. The light of the street lamps filtered softly through the lace curtains. 4. Everywhere when we went we saw children working in the fields with their parents, playing in the village streets. 5. She remained in prayer night and day in that jungle village, taking almost no nourishment. 6. Some day you must journey up the river road and over the Sunshine Bridge and into that land. 7. “Wait and see”, Clarke replied looking at the road map. 8. A waterproof map case with several maps, Captain Ramirez had one also.

9. Later, when he had discovered the theft of the cigarette case and the money, he had sat thinking: I must remember this; I must remember all of this. 10. They were not cigarettes, at least, they were not tobacco cigarettes.

XI. State the type of word building of the underlined words. Give their English equivalents.

1. По «Антарктиці» є 13 постанов прокуратури про вилучення документів, що стосуються фінансово-господарської діяльності. 2. Ми починаємо бізнес-проект, мета якого – розвиток власного виробництва рибопродукції. 3. У жінок менша заробітна плата порівняно з чоловіками через те, що вони працюють переважно у низькооплачуваній сфері. 4. Суспільна думка орієнтована на більш традиційні образи жінки-матері та чоловіка-годувальника. 5. У відставку було відправлено військового міністра генерал-фельдмаршала фон Бломберга і головнокомандувача сухопутних військ генерал-полковника фон Фріча. 6. В Кабінеті Міністрів відбулася нарада за участю голів облдержадміністрації. На тему погіршення розрахунків за спожиті енергоресурси. 7. Філософ В. Соловйов виступив з ідеєю амністії царевбивць – і це коштувало йому кар'єри. 8. Союз з цими державами виник, швидше за все, на психологічно-ідеологічному підґрунті.

XII. Make the morphemic analysis of the given words. Translate them into Ukrainian.

Act, ailment, air, asymmetry, beggarly, chairman, childishness, conclude, democratic, disturbance, drawback, eatable, eliminate, everydayness, expressionless, eyelet, fact, footballer, foretell, gentlemanly, honeymooner, illegal, illumination, illumine, illustrate, immeasurable, immovable, inflammability, innovation, irrelevance, landmark, lovable, marriage, matter-of-factness, monopolize, old-ladyish, outstay, pot, power, prospective, receive, self-praise, serve, troublesome, undernourishment, unsystematic, voyage, warmonger, winter, workmanship, zeal.

XIII. Comment on the structural types and patterns of the following words. Translate them into Ukrainian.

Unforgettable, curio, agro, bookish, sailor, devastate, nothing, fount, heavier-than-air, fine, diplomacy, news-stand, father-in-law, exam, asleep, courage, Anglo-American, snow-capped, anxious, ne'er-do-well, sun-bleached, lady-killer, walking-stick, eye, fridge, telephone, artillery, penny-a-liner, speedometer, fruice, true-to-life, ill-fitting, phone, engage, discover, cupboard, notify, indefatigability, supremacy, snow-white, clumsy, democratic, inhabit, newspaper, impress, wonder, gym, comfy, civic-mindedness, absentmindedness, beautifully, disappointment, disreputable, generalization, lexicological, meaningless, week-end, uncomprehendingly, distrust, extravagant.

XIV. Give English equivalents to the Ukrainian words.

Суперник, носильник, напильник, провідник, заступник, глушник, трудівник, спальник, двірник, мандрівник, наконечник, чарівник, записник, керівник, довідник, вкладник, корівник, купальник, речник.

XV. Comment on the phenomenon of polysemy.

Remember the meaning of the noun *face*. Translate the given sentences into Ukrainian.

1. Do you like the face of this building? 2. Don't make faces in company. 3. The face is the index of the mind. 4. He lost his face. 5. The value of a coin is shown on its face. 6. They disappeared from the face of the earth. 7. A diamond crystal had six faces. 8. Death stared to his face. 9. He was matter-of-fact in the face of the excitement. 10. It was an ugly, amiable, precocious face.

XVI. Remember the meaning of the noun *foot*. Translate the given sentences into Ukrainian.

1. Foot and horse attacked the enemy. 2. I didn't believe he would recover. He had one foot in the grave. 3. George is very tall, about six feet. 4. "How did you get here?" "On foot". 5. I have been on

my feet all day. 6. Dog's feet are called paws. 7. He saw a print of a man's foot on the sand. 8. She stood at the foot of the twisted old bed. 9. Find exercise 5 at the foot of the page. 10. She waited at the foot of the stairs.

XVII. What lexical phenomena have served a basis for the following jocular sentences?

1. The police officer had a fine time with the traffic violator. 2. When the nurse missed the man's artery, she knew that the whole injection was in vein. 3. The percussion player could not understand the sheet music. There were too many different cymbals. 4. The four seasons are salt, pepper, mustard and vinegar. 5. Cows give all milk they can, farmers can all the milk they give. 6. Sign on a baker's shop: Come in, I knead the dough! 7. If you want to get fat, don't eat fast, if you want to get lean – don't eat 'fast'.

XVIII. Single out the inappropriate word:

- I. a) Величезний, b) об'ємний, c) громадський, d) громадський;
II. a) Готський, b) готичний c) романський d) грецький;
III. a) Особовий, b) особистий, c) уособлений, d) особистісний;
IV. a) Професійний, b) професіональний, c) професорський, d) профспілковий;
V. a) Білий, b) білосніжний, c) білявий, d) блискотливий;
VI. a) Пішки, b) верхи, c) швидко, d) возом.

XIX. Pick up the phrases where the nouns are used in the indirect meaning:

1. Вушко голки 2. Вушко дитини 3. Ручка дитини. 4. Ручка дверей. 5. Ніс корабля. 6. Ніс людини. 7. Спинка сільця. 8. Спинка дитини. 9. Глазок дверей. 10. Глазок картоплі 11. To poke the coal. 12. To poke one's nose. 13. The heart of the country. 14. The heart of the man. 15. Man's foot. 16. The foot of a mountain. 17. The mouth of a river. 18. Man's mouth. 19. Man's hand. 20. A hand of a watch.

XXI. Fill in the missing comparisons existing in English and Ukrainian. Give variations, if there are any.

As old as...	Блідий як...
As wise as...	Старий як...
As poor as...	Впертий як...
As cross as...	Жвавий як...
As merry as...	Ясно як...
As sound as...	Солодкий як...
As stubborn as...	Гіркий як...
As fit as...	Верткий як...
As cool as...	Хитрий як...
As quiet as...	Схожий як...

XXII. State if there is a Ukrainian equivalent of the given English phraseological unit and vice versa.

As fussy as a hen with one chick	Вовка ноги годують
Geese with geese and women with women	Ворон ворону око не виклює
The dog that trots finds a bone	Як кіт наплакав
What can you get of the cat but her skin?	Знайся віл з волом., а кінь з конем
Better an egg today than a hen tomorrow	Кому що, а курці просо
A wolf in a sheep's clothing	Купити kota в мішку
As like as an apple to an oyster	На похиле дерево і кози скачуть
As scarce as hen's teeth	Схожий, як свиня на коня
Once bitten twice shy	Між вовками по-вовчому вити
Look before you leap	З поганої вівці хоч вовни жмут

XXIII. Match the pairs of the phraseological units:

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------|
| a) As sober as | 1. judge |
| b) As good as | 2. gold |
| c) Bright as | 3. button |
| d) Cool as | 4. cucumber |
| e) Poor as | 5. a church mouse |
| f) Pale as | 6. death |

XXIV. Translate into Ukrainian. Pay attention to phraseological units.

1. It had taken him just five years to turn Tech-Electric, a failing electronics firm that he'd bought for a song in 1979, into a leading manufacturer of business and personal computer products. 2. Don't make the error of thinking you can wash your hands of this now. 3. I'd never forgive myself if we lost this battle for want of a horseshoe nail. 4. "A pity you turned a deaf ear to Daddy's lectures", said Boudissa. "It would have been in your best interests to have been more attentive". 5. All right. Have it your own way and be a sucker. It cuts no ice with me. 6. Just understand that busting Darnell and whatever bee you have got in your bonnet about that kid are two different things. 7. I'm not going to spend a month going in and out playing cat and mouse with them. 8. Thornberg Kinderling would not say boo to a goose. 9. You have what they call a silver lining. I've never seen so many nice girls in it. 10. I'm usually known as a reserved type, and I've been talking the hind leg off a donkey.

XXV. State which of the given words are false friends of a translator. Give their equivalents in the corresponding languages.

Address, objective, novel, plot, decade, scholar, coupe, complement, figure, data, order, academic, presentation, technique, expression, minister, regular, problem.

Артикул, психічний, спекуляція, акуратний, адвокат, санітар, гриф, кришталь, тренер, команда, прокурор, новела, графік, премія.

Problems for revision.

1. Предмет лексикології. Основні поняття порівняльної лексикології.
2. Методи лексикологічних досліджень.
2. Етимологічний аналіз лексикону. Іншомовні елементи в мовах, що порівнюються.
3. Асиміляція запозичень.
4. Етимологічні дуплети, інтернаціональні слова.
5. Морфологічна структура слова.
6. Продуктивні способи словотвору в англійській мові.
7. Продуктивні способи словотвору в українській мові.
8. Непродуктивні способи словотвору.
9. Класифікація афіксів.
10. Комбіновані способи словотвору.
11. Класифікація складних слів.
12. Семантична характеристика складних слів.
13. Семасіологія як галузь науки. Денотативне й конотативне значення.
14. Полісемія.
15. Шляхи розвитку нових лексичних значень. Звуження (розширення), деградація (елевація) лексичного значення.
16. Метафора. Метонімія.
17. Синонімія, джерела синонімії, класифікація синонімів. Синонімічна домінанта.
18. Антонімія, омонімія, паронімія.
19. Евфемізми.
20. Неологізми. Оказіоналізми.
21. Поняття семантичного поля. Традиційні лексикологічні групи. Гіпоніми, гіпероніми.
22. Словосполучення. Лексичне значення словосполучення. Вільні словосполучення.
23. Стель. Функціональні стилі.
24. Колоквіалізми, сленг. Діалектизми.
25. Фразеологізми. Критерії визначення фразеологізмів.
26. Прислів'я, приказки як різновид фразеологізмів.

Revision Card

1. Comment on the approaches to phraseological units classification.
2. Give the definition of a semantic field.
3. Analyze the given words from the point of view of their origin: mutton, pear, cheese, rucksack.
4. Name 6 words of common Germanic origin belonging to Ukrainian and English word-stock.
5. What language do these words originate from: adore, love, like, kitchen, cup, wine, port, pepper.
6. Analyze the given words from the point of view of their origin: торба, батіг, кайдани, отаман.
7. Analyze the morphological structure of the given words: pan, flat, semester, bench, bear, show.
8. Analyze the morphological structure of the given words: бидло, сніг, тепер, зайшов, переліт, комора.
9. Comment on the semantics of affixes: -ism, -ish, -ов-, -н-. Give examples.
10. Comment on the semantics of affixes: -ly, -ance, -ша, -ота. Give examples
11. Comment on the denotative and connotative meanings of the given words: wolf, вітерець.
12. Comment on the denotative and connotative meanings of the given words: look, лайно.
13. Give as many synonyms to the words below as you can: head, go.
14. Give as many synonyms to the words below as you can: великий, бігти.
15. Think of at least one antonym to the given words: hope, doing.
16. Think of at least one antonym to the given words: правда, білий.
17. Make up sentences demonstrating the direct (indirect) meaning of the word: face.
18. Make up sentences demonstrating the direct and indirect meaning of the word: ручка.
19. Give the hyponymic relation of the word: bird.
20. Give the hyponymic relation of the word: закон.

21. State to what style the word belongs: endeavor, бабло.
22. State to what style the word belongs: alas, зелень.
23. Find a Ukrainian equivalent to the given phraseological unit: to go the way of human flesh.
24. Find an English equivalent to the given phraseological unit: куди Макар телят не ганяв.
25. Give a definition of euphemisms.
26. Classify the following prefixes into: a) native; b) foreign: a- (of, on), a- (not), on-.
27. Form adjectives by adding the negative prefix in- or its allomorphs: attractive, moral.
28. Translate the following words into Ukrainian: non-drinker, insignificant.
29. Fill in the missing parts of the given phraseological units. Give variants if possible: глухий як...
30. Transform the given Ukrainian verbal phrases into simple English verbs if possible: запропонували свою допомогу, підняв правильне питання.
31. Make the IC analysis of the following: discouragement, пробудитися.
32. Translate the words into English, comment on the use of affixes: дитинство, вчитель.
33. Give the corresponding words denoting living beings of female sex: cock, drake.
34. Translate the following into English: богиня, рабиня.
35. Arrange the following adjectives into 2 groups according to their meaning: rainy, steamy.
36. Define the type of word formation: фінансово-економічний, природоохоронний.
37. What inflexion is appropriate for the plural form: phenomenon, focus.
38. Give the English equivalents for the Ukrainian proverb: буде й на нашій вулиці свято.
39. Comment on the formation of abbreviations: G.B.S., AIDS.

40. Comment on the differences in morphological system of the contrasted languages.
41. Comment on the sources of borrowings in the contrasted languages.
42. Make up thematic or ideographic groups to the following: sunshine.
43. Translate the given sentence into Ukrainian: They would miss the school a lot.
44. Pay attention to the underlined words. Translate them into Ukrainian: Why, that's very kind of you.
45. Comment on special terms: лейкемія, landscape.
46. What paronym there can be to the following: соціальний.
47. Give 2 animalistic metaphors: a) in Ukrainian; b) in English.
48. Comment on the meaning of the euphemism: to pass away.
49. Comment on the semantics of the metaphor: Sir Gallahad.
50. Give the English equivalent for the following: амбулаторний.

Individual scientific tasks:

1. Degradation and elevation of semantic meaning in the contrasted languages.
2. Polysemy in the contrasted languages.
3. Synonymy. The synonymic chain. The synonymic dominant in the contrasted languages.
4. Phraseology. Ways of translating phrasological units from Ukrainian into English.
5. Etymology of the contrasted languages. Ways of borrowing.
6. Functional styles in the contrasted languages. Slang in Ukrainian and ways of translating it into English.
7. Dialects in Ukrainian. Phonetic, semantic, morphological peculiarities.
8. Dialects in English. Phonetic, semantic, morphological peculiarities.
9. The notion of the semantic field. Comparison of the semantic fields in the contrasted languages.

10. Types of phraseological units and their correlation in the contrasted languages.
11. Semantics of phraseological units in the contrasted languages.
12. Types of semantic meaning in the contrasted languages.
13. Peculiarities of morphological structures of the contrasted languages.
14. Neologisms and (or) occasionalisms in Ukrainian.
15. Neologisms in English.
16. Euphemisms in the contrasted languages.
17. Ways of changes in the semantic meaning of a word in the contrasted languages.
18. Elevation and degradation of the semantic meaning in the contrasted languages.
19. Narrowing and widening of the semantic meaning of words in the contrasted languages.
20. Comparison of hyponymic and hyperonymic relations in the contrasted languages.
21. The notion of thematic groups. Comparison of the constituents of such groups in the contrasted languages.
22. Antonymy in the contrasted languages.
23. Homonymy in the contrasted languages.
24. English slang.
25. Assimilation of borrowings in the contrasted languages.

Seminars and Practical Tasks

Seminar 1. Lexicology as a science. Etymology of the vocabulary (2 hours)

1. Lexicology as a science. Methods of investigation.
2. Etymology of the vocabulary.
3. Assimilation of borrowings.
4. Etymological dublets.
5. International words.

Exercise I. Rearrange the words according to their origin:

- a) Cattle, cow, horse, ox, sheep, pig, cat, goat.
- b) Meat, beef, calf, mutton, veal.
- c) Baker, butcher, fisherman, painter, shoemaker, tailor, weaver.
- d) Baron, count, lady, lord, duke, madam, sir, monsieur.

Exercise II. Comment on the etymology of the following words:

- a) canoe, chocolate, cigar, cocoa, comrade, maize, mango, negro, tomato, vanilla;
- b) cobalt, leitmotiv, nickel, rucksack, swan-song, waltz, zinc;
- c) ass, clan, Tory, whiskey;
- d) banana, port, veranda(h), zebra;
- e) deck, rabbit, skipper, yacht;
- f) divan, khaki, kiosk, margarine, rice;
- g) mazurka; h) polka; i) silk, tea; j) caftan, coffee.

Exercise III. Analyse the following groups of words from the point of view of their etymology:

- a) Apple, apricot, cherry, grapes, lemon, orange, pear, plum;
- b) Acacia, ash, beech, birch, elm, fir, lime-tree, maple, oak, palm, pine, poplar;
- c) Bear, camel, crocodile, fox, hare, lion, mare, monkey, sable, wolf;
- d) Crow, cuckoo, eagle, lark, pigeon, sparrow;

e) Chicken, cock, duck, goose, hen, turkey.

Exercise IV. State the source of origin of the following Ukrainian words:

- a) Білка, кішка, селезень, собака, коровай, пряник, коржик, гречка, осока, урожай, полова, мельник, селянин;
- b) Бандура, вапно, гаспид, ідея, комора, кутя, любисток, мак, огірок, Севастополь, троянда;
- c) Мати, син, брат, сестра, тітка, дочка.

Exercise V. State the degree of assimilation of the following words:

Пальто, метро, беж, прет-а-порте, от кутюр, метранпаж, кутюр'є, кюре, бланманже, бюро, пюре, soup d'Etat, court, judge, justice, crime, prison, avocado, coca-cola, banana.

Seminar 2. Word-building (2 hours)

- 1. The notion of a morpheme. Types of morphemes.
- 2. Morphological analysis. Allomorphs.
- 3. Productive and non-productive ways of word formation.

Exercise I. Make up some words according to the given pattern (both in Ukrainian and English):

- a) root + inflexion; b) prefix + root + suffix + inflexion, c) root + root + suffix .

Exercise II. Comment on the morphological structure of the following words:

a) Merry-go-round, b) блакитноокий, c) film-goer, d) забудькуватий.

Exercise III. Form the plural of the following:

Datum, erratum, focus, terminus, formula, generous, axis, thesis, appendix, series; madam, analysis, basis, criterion.

Exercise IV. Comment on the meaning of the following inflexions. Give your examples:

-ion, -ment, -ence, -ancy, -ness, -ism, -th, -dom, -ship; -ізм, -ість, -ство, -ання, -ція, - (іт)тя.

Exercise V. State if the given morphemes free or bound. Point out what type they belong to (root, inflexion, stem, prefix, suffix). Provide the missing morphemes to build up a word:

a) arrog-, char-, cour-, cow-, -tort, -volve, not-, leg-, toler-

b) -анти-, -город-, -під-, -об-, -слід-, -чий-, -веш-, -біл-.

Seminar 3. Semantics of affixes (2 hours)

1. Prefixes. Typology of prefixes.
2. Identification of prefixes.
3. Word forming patterns.
4. Inflexions.
5. Non-productive ways of word formation.

Exercise I. Analyse the structure of the following and state the type of word-formation:

Film-star, film-goer, sit-at-home, Jack-of-all-trades, up-coming, daughter-in-law, генерал-майор, вагон-ресторан, зернотрест; дешо, дехто, хтозна-що, казна-що, інженер-технік, хліб-сіть; думати-гадати, говорити-балакати; немов, нібито.

Exercise II. Give your examples of wholophrasing in the contrasted languages.

Exercise III. State the type of word-formation of the following: Горихвістка, варивода, держидерево, люби-мене, мати-й-мачуха, крутивус, перекотиполе, Нечуйвітер, Недайдорщ, Вернидуб, Нетудихата, Панібудьласка, Добривечір, Небаба.

Exercise IV. Analyse the following abbreviations, state the style to which they belong, give your examples of the same pattern:

I.O.Y, AFAIK; BTW; DH; DIY; FUI; HTH; ICBW; ISWYM; SCNR; TIA; TTFN; TWIMC.

Exercise V. Give some examples of onomatopoeia and blending in both languages.

**Seminar 4. Semasiology. Denotative and connotative meaning
(2 hours)**

1. Semasiology as a part of linguistics.
2. Types of word meaning. Polysemy.
3. Connotative and denotative meanings.
4. Degradation and elevation of meaning.
5. Metaphor, metonymy.

Exercise I. Comment on the meaning of the following word combinations:

Tough meat, tough politician, head of cabbage, foot of a mountain, голова колгоспу, ручка дверей, коса.

Exercise II. Give the sentences illustrating the direct and indirect meaning of the words:

Face, foot, head, зуб, горло.

Exercise III. Comment on the meaning of the word combinations: Shop talk, to drop smb. home, to put on airs, медові уста, міцний горішок, голова колгоспу.

Exercise IV. Give Ukrainian equivalents for the following word combination. Use them in the sentences of your own:

Bitter cold, dispute, grief; burning cold, heart, truth; dull book, day; naked body, promise.

Exercise V. Comment on the zoonemy. Say what we mean when we call the person: an ass, a chicken, a dog, an elephant, a lion, a parrot. Compare the meanings of the zoonims in the contrasted languages.

Exercise VI. Comment on the meaning of the word combinations:

A china girl, a Dresden china girl, a Van Gog, a wine, an amper, his face fell, my silver; читати Шевченка, випити склянку, Київ не спить.

Exercise VII. Give as many meanings as you can: stone, земля, поле.

Exercise VIII. Make up a connotative chain for the denotation:

To see, ходити.

Exercise IX. State the meaning of the word combinations formed from nouns:

To carpet the floor, to dust the furniture, to dust the cake with sugar, to skin the apple.

Exercise X. Arrange the following units into 3 semantic fields – feelings, parts of body, education:

Academy, affection, arm, back, brow, calf, calmness, check, chest, classmate, college, love, ear, head, master, jealousy, restlessness, eye, scholar, science, happiness, contempt.

Seminar 5. Synonymy, antonymy, neologisms (2 hours)

1. The notion of synonymy.
2. Classification of synonyms. Sources of synonymy.
3. Antonyms.
4. Homonyms: classification, sources.
5. Euphemisms.
6. The theory of semantic field.

Exercise I. State which is the synonymic dominant:

a) Big, ample, behemoth, bulky, colossal, commodious, gigantic, heavy, huge, humongous, immense, large, massive.

b) Гарний, хороший, красивий, прекрасний, славний, мальований, задовільний, надзвичайний.

Exercise II. Form the synonymic group out of the given words:

a) Travel, pass, go, move, speed, locomote, hurry, change location, stay, move, travel, proceed, get going, force, urge.

b) Добрий, щедрий, лагідний, добросердий, душевний, теплий, багатий, веселий, непоганий, ласкавий.

Exercise III. State for which word the given euphemisms are used:

a) To pass away, to join the majority, to go to heaven, Кіндрат прийшов, піти на той світ, згаснути, піти в інший світ.

b) To have the bun the oven, to be waiting, in a interesting condition, in a delicate condition, in the family way, with a baby coming, (big with child), expecting.

Exercise IV. Write as many synonyms to the given words as you can:

Beautiful, strong, carry, людина, великий, земля, сумувати.

Exercise V. Write the antonyms to the following:

Big, clever, notorious, happy, спокійний, добрий, маленький, сумний.

Exercise VI. Comment on the meaning of the following neologisms, state the types of word formation by which these neologisms were made:

Adultify (v.), Amerenglish (n.), arm-twist (v.), babynap (v.), can-do (adj.), disimprove (v.), eyepint (n.), kissy (adj.), gofer (n.), suspenser (n.), unimpress (v.), quickie (n.).

Exercise VII. State what hyperonym it is possible to state for the

following:

Collie, poodle, haska, bull-dog, grey-hound, laika.

Seminar 6. Stylistically marked and neutral vocabulary (2 hours)

1. Free word groups.
2. Functional styles.
3. Basic vocabulary.
4. Slang.
5. Dialects.

Exercise 1. State if the following phrases are stylistically neutral or not and to what style they belong:

To go aloft, to go behind the eternal cloud, to go into the sunset, to go off the hooks, to go the way of human flesh, to go the way of all the flesh.

Exercise II. Pick out and comment on special terms:

Acute leucaemia is more indolent than has been thought. There is good precedence for it in other haematology disorders.

The word plays such a crucial part in the structure of language that we need a special branch of linguistics to examine it in all its aspects.

A fraction is a part of same thing which is treated as a whole or a unit. In arithmetic, a proper fraction is a number which represents a part, that is, a number which is less than 1.

Exercise III. Comment on archaisms. Substitute them for the modern words:

Aught, agrestic, eke, dost, ere, hast, hath, maiden, naught, quoth, shall, steed, thee, thou, wert, woe.

Фляша, занкель, есаул, шуйця, одесную, пря, живот, верства, пасмо, челядь, шляхта, ланіти, чадо, вартівник.

Exercise IV. Comment on the following slang words. Mind their vulgar, harsh or cynical sounding:

Mug, phiz; attic, brain-pan, upper storey; baby, baggage, chick(en), doll; beans, brass, buttons, dough; boozy, cock-eyed, high.

Чикса, хаза, феня, шнурок, бабки, столярник, капуста, клавиша, бухло, препод, лаба, зависати, туса, тупити.

Exercise V. State what dialect the following words belong to:

а) Жалива, курай, скот, зобува, хвища, довбур, банити, пакіл, квасець, вагани, пшінка.

б) Вуйко, газда, ватра, файний, легінь, ногавиці, біти, мандибурка, чичка, мешти.

Exercise VI. State the type of the following dialectisms:

а) Гуня, кошуля, кобеняк, корсет; дерга, витяжки; крисання, сардак, черес, ванькир, оденок.

б) Берег, вага, вічко, врода, квас, молодиця, невістка, квасок.

Exercise VII. Rewrite the following using neutral vocabulary:

Bob is a great guy. He never blows his sack. He hardly ever flies off handle. Well, of course, he is actually getting on, too. But he always knows how to make up for the lost time by taking it easy. He gets up early, works out and turns in early. He knows how to get away with things. Bob's got it made. This is it for him. He is a cool cat.

Seminar 7. Phraseology (2 hours)

1. Classification of phraseological units.
2. Structure of phraseological units.
3. Semantics of phraseological units.
4. Proverbs, sayings, clichés.

Exercise I. Comment on the type and meaning of the following:

To fly into a temper, to lose one's temper, to keep one's temper, to fall ill, to fall in love with smb., to stick to one's word (promise).

Зірватися на комусь; перейти комусь дорогу, з'їсти собаку на чомусь; ні богу свічка, ні чорту кочерга; обвести круг пальця.

Exercise II. Define the degree of semantic change of the following phrases:

To skate on thin ice, to wear one's heart on one's sleeve, to have one's heart in one's boots; to have one's heart in one's mouth; to have one's heart in the right place.

Накивати п'ятами, як пити дати, на руку ковінька, пекти раків, яси точити, байдики бити, березової каші всипати, скакати в гречку, ряст топтати.

Exercise III. State if the following is a) a combination; b) a fusion; c) a unity:

To be at one's wits' ends; to be good at something; to have a bite; to stick to one's guns; to catch at a straw; to lock the stable door after the horse has been stolen; to come a cropper; to dance attendance on somebody; to set one's cap at somebody.

Розбити горщик (глек), кури не клюють, як кіт наплакав, облизня піймати, замилювати очі, перемивати (перетирати) кістки, півня пускати, рукою подати, свиню підкласти, на ладан дихати, у сорочці родитися.

Exercise IV: Explain the meaning of the following phraseological units:

The land of promise; new wine in old bottles; ask for bread and be given a stone; forbidden fruit is sweet; daily bread; thirty pieces of silver; something rotten in the state of Denmark.

Exercise V. Comment on the degree of semantic changes in the following phrases. Explain their meaning:

Ні пари з уст, вивести на чисту воду, прикусити язика, тримати (держати) камінь за пазухою, кров з молоком, переливати з пустого в порожнє, ні світ ні зоря, п'ятами накивати, молоти (чесати) язиком, танцювати під чийсь дудку, морський вовк, без

ножа різати, сім п'ятниць на тиждень, виносити сміття з хати, чужими руками жар загібати.

Exercise VII. State the source of the following phraseological units:

Як з гуся вода, діло табак. і носа не покажуть, відкладати в довгу шухляду. Апетит приходиться під час їди. Бути не в своїй тарілці. Наша пісня, наша дума не вмре, не загине. Все йде, все минає, і краю немає. Нехай не забувають люди, що дурень всюди дурнем буде. Хіба ревуть воли, як ясла повні. Розрубати гордіїв вузол; Прокрустове ложе; чистити авгієві конюшні; прийшов, побачив, перемиг; крокодилячі сльози.

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