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**Волченко О.М. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов: Навчально-методичний посібник. – Миколаїв, 2017. – 137с.**

У посібнику пропонується теоретичний матеріал за основними темами курсу «Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов», що висвітлюють питання щодо завдання, об’єкта та предмета дослідження порівняльної лексикології, поняття слова як базової лінгвістичної одиниці, етимологічної характеристики та словникового складу сучасної англійської й української мов, способів словотвору та семантичних класів слів в порівнюваних мовах та ін.

До теоретичної частини додаються завдання до планування семінарських занять, самостійної роботи студентів у процесі вивчення курсу. Окремо виносяться також тестові завдання для перевірки рівня знань і вмінь студентів з дисципліни та список рекомендованої літератури.

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**ПЕРЕДМОВА**

Метою викладання навчальної дисципліни «Порівняльна лексикологія іноземної та української мов» є формування в студентів теоретичних основ розуміння мови як інтегрованої сигніфікативної одиниці, що розвивається, зокрема принципів організації та функціонування лексичних систем англійської та української мов у зіставленні.

Запрпонований навчально-методичний посібник «Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов» має на меті:

• ознайомити студентів з категоріальним апаратом та ввести в курс основних понять дисципліни;

• розширити знання студентів про основні напрями досліджень в галузі лексикологічних студій;

• навчити студентів розпізнавати аломорфні та ізоморфні риси у лексичних системах англійської та української мов;

• домогтися від студентів вміння виявляти спільні та відмінні явища лексичних систем англійської та української мов у зіставленні на семасіологічному зрізі;

• сприяти розвитку у студентів вмінь та навичок користування різними видами словників;

• засобами феномена негомогенності і неконгруентності семантичного обсягу лексичних одиниць у зіставлюваних мовах виявляти можливі труднощі при перекладі та вчити студентів пошуку адекватних засобів перекладу.

Опанувавши курс, студенти повинні знати:

• галузі лексикологічних досліджень, провідних вітчизняних і зарубіжних вчених у них;

• етимологічний склад англійської та української мов, поняття, що складають спільнослов’янський та спільногерманський лексичні пласти;

• сучасні джерела поповнення словникового складу української та англійської мов;

• спільні та відмінні риси морфемної будови англійського та українського слова;

• продуктивні та непродуктивні способи словотворення в англійській та українській мовах;

• сучасні словотворчі процеси та тенденції у зіставлюваних мовах;

• основні концепції щодо визначення поняття слова, значення

слова, типів значень, характеру сполучуваності лексичних одиниць;

• принципи будови семантично-функціональних полів та групування слів у семантичні, тематичні класи; характер відношень між елементами

Після практичних занять та самостійного опрацювання тем курсу студенти повинні вміти:

• застосовувати методи семного, трансформаційного, субституційного, конституентного аналізів до досліджуваних лексичних явищ;

• визначити походження слова;

• зробити морфемний аналіз слова, віднайти вільні чи зв’язані морфеми;

• проаналізувати характер деривації, визначити тип словотвору лексеми і її перекладного еквівалента;

• розпізнавати частиномовну приналежність афіксів;

• визначати семантичні процеси у слові;

• визначати характер мотивації значення;

• розпізнавати денотативні / конотативні значення слова;

• визначати характер сполучуваності, виявляти вільні словосполучення та сталі вирази;

• визначати класи фразеологічних одиниць;

• добирати ідеографічні та стилістичні синоніми; семантичні, дериваційні антоніми; доповнювати системи гіпонімами, гіперонімами;

• застосовувати метод семного аналізу для виявлення рівня семантичного обсягу лексичної одиниці у мові оригіналу та у мові перекладу;

• визначати, до якого функціонального пласту належить лексична одиниця;

• розпізнавати архаїзми, історизми, неологізми у порівнюваних мовах;

• відрізняти полісемне слово від омоніма, пароніма; робити правильний переклад паронімів з англійської мови на українську та навпаки;

• визначати характер перенесення значень у лексичних одиницях: метафора, метонімія;

• доречно застосовувати образний ресурс мови при перекладі.

У навчально-методичному посібнику пропонується теоретичний матеріал за основними темами курсу «Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов», що висвітлюють питання щодо завдання, об’єкта та предмета дослідження порівняльної лексикології, поняття слова як базової лінгвістичної одиниці, етимологічної характеристики та словникового складу сучасної англійської й української мов, способів словотвору та семантичних класів слів в порівнюваних мовах та ін.

До теоретичної частини додаються завдання до планування семінарських занять, самостійної роботи студентів у процесі вивчення курсу. У методичних вказівках для проведення практичних занять з дисципліни міститься план занять та перелік питань, які підлягають розгляду за кожною темою, з посиланнями на додаткові навчальні матеріали, які дозволяють вивчити їх глибше. Окрім цього у даних методичних вказівках можна ознайомитися з питаннями, що виносяться на обговорення, та списком літератури, необхідної для цілеспрямованої роботи студента при підготовці до заняття, умовами завдань, які розглядаються на практичних заняттях.

Окремо виносяться також тестові завдання для перевірки рівня знань і вмінь студентів з дисципліни та список рекомендованої літератури.

Під час самостійного опрацювання теоретичного матеріалу студентові необхідно дотримуватись таких правил:

- зосередитися на тому, що він читає;

- виділити головну думку автора;

- виділити основні питання тексту від другорядних;

- зрозуміти думку автора чітко і ясно, що допоможе виробити власну думку;

- уявити ясно те, що читаєш.

У процесі роботи над темою тлумачення незнайомих слів і спеціальних термінів слід знаходити у фаховій літературі, словниках.

Після прочитання тексту необхідно:

- усвідомити зв’язок між теоретичними положеннями і практикою.

- закріпити прочитане у свідомості.

- пов’язати нові знання з попередніми у даній галузі.

- перейти до заключного етапу засвоєння і опрацювання – записам.

Записи необхідно починати з назви теми та посібника, прізвища автора, року видання та назви видавництва. Якщо це журнал, то рік і номер видання, заголовок статті. Після чого скласти план, тобто короткий перелік основних питань тексту в логічній послідовності теми.

Складання плану, або тез логічно закінченого за змістом уривка тексту, сприяє кращому його розумінню. План може бути простий або розгорнутий, тобто більш поглиблений, особливо при опрацюванні додаткової літератури за даною темою. Записи необхідно вести розбірливо і чітко. Вони можуть бути короткі або розгорнуті залежно від рівня знань студента, багатства його літературної і професійної лексики, навичок самостійної роботи з книгою.

Для зручності користування записами необхідно залишати поля для заміток і вільні рядки для доповнень. Записи не повинні бути одноманітними. В них необхідно виділяти важливі місця, головні слова, які акцентуються різним шрифтом або різним кольором шрифтів, підкреслюванням, замітками на полях, рамками, стовпчиками тощо. Записи можуть бути у вигляді конспекту, простих або розгорнутих тез, цитат, виписок, систематизованих таблиць, графіків, діаграм, схем.

Після вивчення літературних джерел доцільно провести порівняльний аналіз з попередньо отриманими знаннями з предмету.

PART 1

LECTURE SYNOPSIS

**OBJECTS AND OBJECTIVES OF COMPARATIVE LEXICOLOGY**

Points for discussion:

1. Subject matter of Lexicology.

2. Lexicology in the system of linguistic sciences.

3. Aims and Tasks of Contrastive Lexicology.

4. Lexicography. Classification of dictionaries.

I. Lexicology (from Gr lexis 'word' and logos 'learning') is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the prop­erties of words as the main units of language. The term “v o c a b u 1 a r y” is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses. The term “word” denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. A wordtherefore is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

Thus, in the word boy the group of sounds [boi ] is associated with the meaning 'a male child up to the age of 17 or 18' (also with some other meanings, but this is the most frequent) and with a definite grammatical employment, i.e. it is a noun and thus has a plural form – boys, it is a personal noun and has the Genitive form boy's (e. g. the boy's mother), it may be used in certain syntactic functions.

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

The morphological structure of the word is its external structure. For example, in the word “*post-impressionists*” the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-, im-,* the root *press*, the noun-forming suffixes *-ion, -ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s.*

The internal structure of the word, or its meaning is referred to as the word’s semantic structure.

Lexicology studies a word in all these aspects i.e. the patterns of semantic relationship of words as also their phonological, morphological and contextual behaviour. Words undergo constant change in their form and meaning and lexicology studies the vocabulary of a language in terms of its origin, development and current use. The study of the interrelationship of lexical units is done in terms of the contrasts and similarities existing between them.

As a word does not occur in isolation, lexicology studies it with its combinative possibilities. And thus the scope of lexicology includes the study of phraseological units, set combinations etc.

Like general linguistics, of which lexicology is a branch, lexicology can be both historical and descriptive, the former dealing with the origin and development of the form and meaning of the lexical units in a particular languages across time and the latter studying the vocabulary of a language as a system at a particular point of time. Initially, all modern linguistics was historical in orientation - even the study of modern dialects involved looking at their origins. But Saussure drew a distinction between synchronic and diachronic linguistics, which is fundamental to the present day organization of the discipline. Primacy is accorded to synchronic linguistics, and diachronic linguistics is defined as the study of successive synchronic stages.

The lexicological studies can be of two types, viz., general and special. General lexicology is concerned with the general features of words common to all languages. It deals with something like universals in language. Special lexicology on the other hand studies the words with reference to one particular language. There are many areas in lexicology, each of them cannot be studied in isolation, without regard to the others.

II. Lexicology fulfills the needs of different branches of applied linguistics, viz., lexicography, stylistics, language teaching, etc.

As the vocabulary or the lexical system of a language forms a system of the language as other systems, its study in lexicology should not be separated from the other constituents of the system. So lexicology is closely related to phonetics and grammar.

The relation between phonetics and lexicology is very important. Words consist of phonemes, which, although not having meaning of their own, serve in formation of morphemes, the level where meaning is expressed. So they serve to distinguish between meanings. Moreover, meaning itself is indispensable for phonemic analysis. The difference of meaning in /pIt/ and /pUt/ helps in the fixation of the phonemes /I/ and /U/. Historical phonetics helps in the study of polysemy, homonymy and synonymy.

The link between lexicology and grammar is also very close. Each word has a relation in the grammatical system of a language and belongs to some parts of speech. Lexicology studies this relationship in terms of the grammatical meanings as also their relationship with the lexical meaning. In the field of word formation, lexicology is still more closely related to grammar. Both study the patterns of word formation.

Language is a social phenomenon. The study of language cannot be divorced from the study of the social system and the development in society. The development and progress in the social, political and technological system is manifest in the vocabulary of a language. New words are introduced and old words die out. New meanings are added to words and old meanings are dropped out. Lexicology studies the vocabulary of a language from the sociological points also.

III. Contrastive Lexicology studies the lexical systems of two languages from a contrastive point of view and based on the method of comparison or contrasting. It is closely connected with Contrastive Typology which aims at establishing the most general structural types of languages on the basis of their dominant or common phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic features. While contrastive typological investigations may be focused on various linguistic phenomena ranging from separate signs of the phonetic, morphological lexical or syntactic plane up to several languages, Contrastive Lexicology focuses upon the study of common and divergent features of lexicons of two or more languages, and finding out correspondences between the vocabulary units of the languages under investigation.

As for Linguistic typology it compares languages in order to classify them by their features. Its ultimate aim is to understand the universals that govern language, and the range of types found in the world's language is respect of any particular feature (word order or vowel system, for example). Typological similarity does not imply a historical relationship. However, typological arguments can be used in comparative linguistics: one reconstruction may be preferred to another as typologically more plausible.

Contrastive lexicology also takes into account data obtained by comparative linguistics, which is being a branch of historical linguistics 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. 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.

Comparative linguistics should be differentiated from Contrastive linguistics which compares languages usually with the aim of assisting language learning by identifying important differences between the learner's native and target languages. Contrastive linguistics deals solely with present-day languages.

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.

IV. The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English/. Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15-th century /Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French , Anglo-German/.

The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for schoolchildren. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.

In 1775 an English scientist compiled a famous explanatory dictionary. Its author was Samuel Johnson. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used. The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with «A» and «B». The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title «The Oxford English Dictionary», because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: «A Shorter Oxford Dictionary» consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature. They also compiled «A Concise Oxford Dictionary» consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active statesman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels, e.g. / a/, /e/, / i/, / o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them,e.g. / a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them, e.g. / a/, /o/ and by the letter «e» with two dots above it for the combinations «er», «ir», «ur» because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds: /u:/ is denoted by /oo/, /y/ is used for the sound /j/ etc.

All dictionaries are divided into linguistic and encyclopedic dictionaries. Encyclopedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some data about them. Linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage. Words are usually given in the alphabetical order.

Linguistic dictionaries are divided into general and specialized . To general dictionries two most widely used dictionaries belong: explanatory and translation dictionaries. Specialized dictionaries include dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, collocations, word-frequency, neologisms, slang, pronouncing, etymological, phraseological and others.

All types of dictionaries can be unilingual ( excepting translation ones) if the explanation is given in the same language, bilingual if the explanation is given in another language and also they can be polilingual.

There are a lot of explanatory dictionaries (NED, SOD, COD, NID, N.G. Wyld’s «Universal Dictionary» and others). In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology. Pronunciation is given either by means of the International Transcription System or in British Phonetic Notation which is different in each large dictionary, e.g. /o:/ can be indicated as / aw/, /or/, /oh/, /o/. etc.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language. There are English-Russian dictionaries by I.R. Galperin, by Y.Apresian and others. Among general dictionaries we can also mention Learner’s dictionaries. They began to appear in the second half of the 20-th century. The most famous is «The Advanced Learner’s Dictionary» by A.S. Hornby. It is a unilingual dictionary based on COD, for advanced foreign learners and language teachers. It gives data about grammatical and lexical valency of words. Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used, one of them is «A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions» by R.Soule. Another famous one is «Webster’s Dictionary of Synonyms». These are unilingual dictionaries. The best known bilingual dictionary of synonyms is «English Synonyms» compiled by Y. Apresian.

In 1981 «The Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English» was compiled, where words are given in 14 semantic groups of everyday nature. Each word is defined in detail, its usage is explained and illustrated, synonyms, antonyms are presented also. It describes 15000 items, and can be referred to dictionaries of synonyms and to explanatory dictionaries.

Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases, proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature. Some lexicographers include not only word-groups but also anomalies among words. In «The Oxford Dicionary of English Proverbs» each proverb is illustrated by a lot of examples, there are stylistic references as well. The dictionary by Vizetelli gives definitions and illustrations, but different meanings of polisemantic units are not given. The most famous bilingual dictionary of phraseology was compiled by A.V. Kunin. It is one of the best phraseological dictionaries.

Etymological dictionaries trace present-day words to the oldest forms of these words and forms of these words in other languages. One of the best etymological dictionaries was compiled by W. Skeat.

Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D. Jones’ s «Pronouncing Dictionary».

**THE WORD AS THE BASIC LANGUAGE UNIT**

Points for discussion:

1. The characteristics of the word.

2. Motivation of the word.

I. A word is the smallest significant unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterized by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninterruptability and semantic integrity. All these cri­teria are necessary because they permit us to create a basis for the opposi­tions between the word and the phrase, the word and the phoneme, and the word and the morpheme: their common feature is that they are all units of the language, their difference lies in the fact that the phoneme is not significant, and a morpheme cannot be used as a complete utterance.

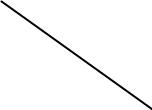
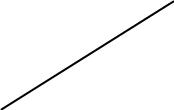
The word is the fundamental unit of lan­guage. It is a dialectical unity of form and content.

There are broadly speaking two schools of thought in present-day linguistics representing the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem: the *referential* approach which seeks to formulate the essence of meaning byestablishing the interdependence between words and things or concepts they denote, and the *functional* approach, which studies the functions of a word in speech and is less concerned with what meaning is than with how it works.

All major works on semantic theory have so far been based on referential concepts of meaning. The essential feature of this approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: the sound form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound form and the referent, i.e. that part or that aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called “basic triangle”.

As can be seen from the diagram the sound form of the linguistic sign, e.g. [teibl], is connected with our concept of the piece of furniture which it denotesand through it with the referent, i.e. the actual table. The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent.

CONCEPT



SOUND FORM –––––––––– REFERENT

The sound form of the word is not identical with its meaning, e.g. [d v] is the sound form used to denote a pearl-grey bird. There are no inherent connections, however, between this particular sound cluster and the meaning of the word *dove.* The connections are conventional and arbitrary. This can be easily proved by comparing the sound forms of different languages conveying the same meaning:

*стіл- стол- table – tisch.*

It can also be proved by comparing almost identical sound forms that possess different meanings in different languages. E.g.: *[ ni:s]* - a daughter of a brother or a sister (English); *ніс* - a part of a face (Ukrainian).

For more convincing evidence of the conventional and arbitrary nature of the connection between sound form and meaning all we have to do is to point to homonyms. The word *case* means something that has happened and *case* also means *a box, a container*.

When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them. Concept is the category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts reflect the most common and typical features of different objects. Being the result of abstraction and generalisation all concepts are thus almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of its historical development.

That is to say, words expressing identical concepts in English and Ukrainian differ considerably.

e.g.: The concept of the physical organism is expressed in English by the word *body*, in Ukrainian by *тіло,* but the semantic range of the English word is not identical with that of Ukrainian. The word *body* is known to have developed a number of secondary meanings and may denote: a number of persons and things, a collective whole (the body of electors) as distinguished from the limbs and the head; hence, the main part as of an army, a structure of a book (the body of a book). As it is known, such concepts are expressed in Ukrainian by other words.

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing the same concepts but possessing a linguistic meaning which is felt as different in each of the units under consideration.

e.g.: *- to fail the exam, to come down, to muff;* *- to be ploughed, plucked, pipped.*

Meaning is linguistic whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. We can denote the same object by more than one word of a different meaning.

e.g.: *a table* can be denoted by the words *table, a piece of furniture,* *something, this* as all these words may have the same referent.

Meaning cannot be equated with the actual properties of the referent. The meaning of the word *water* cannot be regarded as identical with its chemical formula H2O as water means essentially the same to all English speakers including those who have no idea of its chemical composition.

The functional approach maintains that a linguistic study of meaning is the investigation of the relation of sign to sign only. In other words, they hold the view that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to either concept or referent.

e.g.: We know that the meaning of the two words *a step* and *to step* is different because they function in speech differently. *To step* may be followed by an adverb, *a step* cannot, but it may be proceeded by an adjective.

The same is true of the different meanings of the same word. Analysing the function of a word in linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we conclude that meanings are different (or the same): *to take a tram, taxi* as opposed to *to take to somebody*. Hence, meaning can be viewed as the function of distribution.

When comparing the two approaches described above we see that the functional approach should not be considered as alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. There is absolutely no need to set the two approaches against each other; each handles its own side of the problem and neither is complete without the other.

II. The word is characterized by motivation. The term “motivation” is used to denote the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other. Motivation is the way in which a given meaning is represented in the word. It reflects the type of nomination process chosen by the creator of the new word. Some schol­ars of the past used to call the phenomenon the inner word form.

There are three main types of motivation: phonetical motivation, morphological motivation, and semantic moti­vation.

When there is a certain similarity between the sounds that make up the word and those referred to by the sense, the motivation is phonetical. Examples are: *bang, buzz, cuckoo, giggle, gurgle, hiss, purr, whistle,* etc. Here the sounds of a word are imitative of sounds in nature because what is referred to is a sound or at least, produces a character­istic sound *(cuckoo).* Although a certain arbitrary element exists in the resulting phonemic shape of the word, one can see that this type of motivation is determined by the phonological system of each language as shown by the difference of echo-words for the same concept in differ­ent languages.

The morphological motivation may be quite regular. Thus, the prefix *ex-* means 'former' when added to human nouns: *ex- filmstar, ex-president, ex-wife.* Alongside with these cases there is a more general use of *ex-:* in borrowed words it is unstressed and motivation is faded *(expect, export,* etc.).

The derived word *re-think* is motivated inasmuch as its morpholog­ical structure suggests the idea of thinking again. *Re-* is one of the most common prefixes of the English language, it means 'again' and 'back' and is added to verbal stems or abstract deverbal noun stems, as in *re­build, reclaim, resell, resettlement.* Many writers nowadays instead of the term morphological motivation, or parallel to it, introduce the term word-build­ing meaning.

The third type of motivation is called semantic motiva­tion. It is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meanings of the same word within the same synchronous system. *Mouth* continues to denote a part of the human face, and at the same time it can metaphorically apply to any opening or outlet: *the mouth of the river.*

**SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD**

Points for discussion:

1. The problem of meaning.
2. Semantic structure of the word.
3. Changes in meaning. Causes of semantic change.
4. Semantic relationships between words.
5. Polysemy of words.

I. In everyday language the words “meaning” and “sense” are used interchangeably. In linguistics, however, these two words are differentiated. The sense of a word is its cognitive meaning as determined by its place within the semantic system of the language. Thus, the word “comedy” means a funny play (film, story) in contrast with “tragedy” that is a serious play dealing with the bad, violent, or harmful side of human nature, while “opera” refers to a play in which all the words are sung, and “musical” means a play in which singing is combined with dancing and speaking of the actors to tell, as a rule, a romantic story. According to Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners the meaning of a word is defined as the thing, action, feeling, idea that a word represents and according to J.R. Firth, it almost always depends on the perceived situation.

The two main types of meaning are the grammatical and lexical meanings of a word. The gram­matical meaning of a word deals with the expression in speech of relationship between words. The lexical meaning of the word is the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system.

Such word-forms such as “tables, chairs, bushes” though denoting widely different objects of reality have something in common. This common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality. Thus, grammatical meaning may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. e.g.: the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs (asked, spoke) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (the girl’s, the night’s). In modern linguistics it is commonly held that some elements of grammatical meaning can be identified by their distribution. The word-forms “asks, speaks” have the same grammatical meaning as they can all be found in identical distribution (e.g. only after the pronouns he, she but before such adverbs and phrases as yesterday, last month, etc.). It follows that a certain component of the meaning of a word is described when you identify it as a part of speech, since different parts of speech are distributionally different. The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possesses but one form, as prepositions, is observed only in their distribution (cf: to come in (here) and in (on, under) the table).

Unlike the grammatical meaning this component of meaning is identical in all the forms of the word. e.g.: the words “write – writes – wrote – written” possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person but in each of these forms we find the same semantic component denoting the process of putting words on the paper. This is the lexical meaning of the word which may be described as a linguistic unit recurrent in all the forms of the word and in all possible distributions of these forms.

The lexical meaning of the word can be of two types: denotational and connotational.

One of the functions of the words is to denote things, concepts, etc. Users of a language cannot have any knowledge or thought of the objects or phenomena of the real world around them unless this knowledge is ultimately embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language. This is the denotational meaning, i.e. the component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible. The denotative meaning is the notional content of a word. A word’s denotation is its relationship to a substance (or its certain characteristics) of the outer world. The denotative meaning of the word “cat” is a small domestic animal with soft fur kept as a pet or for catching mice.

The connotational meaning of a word is the component which has some stylistic value of the word, its emotive charge is connected the emotive association that a word evokes. It is the expressive part of meaning, though it is not necessarily present in the word.

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 (мавпа) – a mischievous child; serpent (змія)– a treacherous, malicious person.

But different peoples 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 “сокіл” 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.

II. Semantics is the study of meaning, which is a complex matter in that it involves the relationship between words, ideas and things as well as the relationship between words of similar meaning. A distinction is often made in this respect between *reference,* or the relations between language and the world, and *sense,* or the relationship between words of similar meaning. Semantics also examines how sets of words are used to classify our experi­ence. Geoffrey Hughes notes that in English “black” and “blue” designate differ­ent colours, whereas in Old Norse the term *bla* served for both; in Russian, however, there are two distinct terms for “blue” – голубой for light blue and синий for dark blue, like *azure* and *violet.* The prism of colour terms tends to open up with time and cultural contacts: historically *black, white, red, yel­low,* and *green* are Anglo-Saxon in origin, but *blue, brown, orange, azure* mid *violet* entered the vocabulary from Norman French.

The semantic structure of a word is complicated and may include, among others, the following oppositions of its meanings:

* direct meaning :: figurative meaning. The meaning is direct when the word names the thing without the help of context and can be viewed as a certain label for the thing (a “word thing” connection). The mean­ing is figurative when the thing named gets some additional charac­teristics through comparison or confrontation with another thing to make a description more impressive or interesting. For instance, in the sentence *My mother died of stomach cancer* the verb *died* is used in its direct meaning of “to stop being alive”, whereas in the sentence *I laughed until I died* it is used figuratively, meaning that the person laughed a lot.
* main meaning:: secondary meaning. The distinction between the two meanings lies in the frequency rate of a certain meaning of the word. The most frequently used meaning is labeled “main”, whereas the others are thought to be “secondary”. Compare the uses of the adjec­tive “high” in the sentences that follow: (1) *These mountains are too high to climb* and (2) *These socks are a bit high.* In sentence (1) the adjective *high* is used in its main meaning – “large in size from the top to the ground”, whereas in sentence (2) it is used in one of its secondary meanings – “to have an unpleasant smell”.

From the diachronic perspective it is possible to point out the dated (or old-fashioned) and present-day uses of the word. Thus, for instance, the noun “cobbler” in its old-fashioned meaning denotes someone whose job is to repair shoes, whereas at present it is used to refer to a type of food consisting of vegetables or fruit covered with a soft thick layer of pastry.

Stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary makes it possible to speak of stylistically neutral and stylistically coloured uses of the word. The latter include, among others, formal and informal uses, spoken (colloquial), offen­sive and impolite uses, etc. Thus, the verb “to steal something” is more common in speech than in writing and is not used in formal situations, hence its label *informal.* The verb “elucidate” which has the meaning “to clarify, to make something easier to understand by giving more information” is labeled as *formal* since it is not characteristic of ordinary conversation or everyday writing.

Stylistically coloured words are classified into bookish and colloquial, bookish styles in their turn may be general, poetical, scientific or learned, while colloquial styles are subdivided into literary colloquial, familiar colloquial and slang.

III. Language is never static. Nor is society, for any changes of the latter can’t but be reflected in language, precisely in its word-stock. Words may acquire new meanings that usually coexist with the old.

Among causes of semantic change we should list historic changes in the society. Thus, in the feudal system “a knight” was a military servant of his lord; nowadays the word has a new significance: the title “knight” is con­ferred on a man by the British monarch in recognition of personal merit or services to the state.

Technological changes may affect meanings. A vivid example is the word “manufacture”. The etymology of the word (borrowed from Latin) specifies that the work was done by hand, and that was the first use of the word in English, but when it became usual for the production of goods and materials to be performed by machines, the common use of “manufacture” and its derivatives excluded work by hand.

Scientific developments can also be causes of semantic change. Thus, “germ” was used vaguely for something that causes a disease; it now more specifically refers to a micro-organism.

Changes of meaning can occur in two directions: 1) narrowing of meaning, and 2) widening of meaning.

Narrowing of meaning, or special­ization, is the process of meaning change in which a word in the course of time begins to have fewer referents than it used to have. For instance, in Old English the noun “hund” meant a dog, but nowadays “hound” stands for a dog used for hunting other animals or for racing. The verb “starve” originally meant to die by any means, now it has restricted its meaning to die because of a lack of food.

Widening of meaning,or generalization, is the opposite process: a word extends its use and begins to include a wider scope of the new notion.

“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. “Town” once meant fence. Now it denotes a settlement. “Столяр” meant той, що виготовляє столи. Now it means той, хто виготовляє вироби з дерева.

There are two more types of extension of the semantic volume of a word: metaphorical and metonymical.The former is more common and is based on the similarity of the objects compared, e.g. *hand* (of a clock), *face* (the front of a clock). A metonymic extension occurs when a word acquires a new meaning on the basis of contiguity between certain things, e.g *hand* stands for someone who does physical work *(It was a large farm, with over 20 hired hands*, and *face* may be used instead of *person: a new face, a familiar face.*

A shift in social evaluation and emotional tone may also bring about the change of meaning of a word. The process of moving to a less favour­able connotation with the corresponding derogatory emotive tone is called pejoration of meaning.As an example, let’s take the adjective “crafty”. In Old English the word had the favourable sense of skillful, but in Modem English it is used to describe a dishonest action or behaviour of a person. The reverse process is called amelioration (or elevation) of meaning, which consists in moving to a more favourable connotation. Thus, the adjective “wicked”, meaning morally wrong and deliberately intending to hurt, in Modern English is also used (by young people) in the sense “very good”.

IV. Semantic relationships between words are various. Words can be arranged into groups headed by a general term. For instance, the nouns *day­light, moonlight, sunlight, glare, glow* refer to a type of light, so the noun *light* is regarded to be a more general term, called in linguistics hypernym.The words semantically “subordinated” to the hypernym are called *hyponyms.* Thus, the nouns in the above mentioned chain are hyponyms of *light.* In the chain of words *to drink, to sip, to gulp down* the first verb is hypernym whereas the others are hyponyms of it. The nouns *ballet, disco, foxtrot, lambada, tango, twist,* and *waltz* are all hyponyms of a more general *dance.*

However, we should not confuse hypernymic-hyponymic relations between words with those of the part-of-the-whole type. The latter can be illustrated with the following example: *root, trunk, bough, branch, twig, bark, leaf* are words denoting certain parts of the whole – a tree, but these words cannot be considered hyponyms of the noun *tree.* Taken together, they con­stitute a unity, a complete thing. That’s why we say that these words are in the part-of-the-whole relation to the head word.

Words can also be arranged into oppositions. A word which means the opposite of another word is called antonym. For instance, the antonyms of *light* are *dark* and *heavy* depending on the meaning of the adjective *light.* We also may say that *light* and *dark,* on the one hand, and *light* and *heavy,* on the other, make up antonymous pairs of words. Antonymous can be not only adjectives (e.g. *huge* - *tiny; hot - cold; tall - short; shadowy - sunlit; dry - wet; smooth - rough),* but words of other parts of speech, e.g. nouns: *friend- enemy; birth - death;* verbs: *differentiate* - *associate; love - hate; stop -start;* prepositions: *up - down; into - out of; behind- in front (of);* pronouns (quantifiers): *many - few; much - little;* etc.

The opposite meaning in words can be obtained by adding a negative affix to it. There are a number of negative prefixes in Modem English, among them: a- (‘without’): *amoral, apolitical',* anti- (‘against’): *anti-ageing, anti­freeze, anti-cyclone-,* de- (‘opposite’): *decaffeinated, decipher, deform;* il- (‘not’, used before 1): *illegal, illogical, illiteracy;* im- (‘not’, before b, m, p): *imbalance, immature, imperfect',* in- (‘not’): *incapable, incompetence, incorrect',* ir- (‘not’, before r): *irrational, irrelevance',* mis- (‘wrongly’): *misconduct, misunderstand, mislead',* non- (‘not’, used with adjectives and nouns): *non-fiction, nonsense, non-alcoholic,* un- (‘not’): *unaided, unaccus­tomed, unaffected.* The suffixes of opposite meaning are *-ful* and *-less,* as in *careful - careless; useful - useless.*

On the contrary, words associated in meaning, i.e. having almost the same meaning, are called synonyms. For instance, *frightened* and *afraid* are synonymous words. Synonyms are similar but not identical in meaning. Moreover, there are, as a rule, slight differences in connotation, stylistic us­age, semantic valency and/ or distribution of synonymous words; hence, the latter are seldom interchangeable. For instance, the sentences *I’m hot* and *I’m boiling* are synonymous in that they denote a certain (uncomfortable) state of a person, but the latter is more common in spoken English. In an­other situation they can hardly be considered synonyms: *hot water* is not the same as *boiling water.* The adjectives *hungry, starving, ravenous* indicate a person’s need to eat something. They all can fit the predicative position in *I’m* , however, only *hungry* is possible after the adverb *very: I’m very hungry* (not *\*I’m very starving* or *\*I’m very ravenous*!). Since most words in English are polysemantic, i.e. have more than one meaning, they may enter more than one synonymous, as well as antonymous, group. Take adjective “thin” as an example. In its various meanings, it can be used as a synonym to many words, among them: *attenuated, bony, deficient, delicate, dilute, di­luted, emaciated, feeble, filmy, fine, flimsy, gaunt, inadequate, insubstantial, insufficient, lanky, lean, light, meager, narrow, poor, rarefied, runny, scant, scanty, scarce, scattered, see-through, shallow, sheer, skeletal, skimpy, skin­ny, slender, slight, slim, spare, sparse, superficial, translucent, transparent, unconvincing, underweight, unsubstantial, washy, watery, weak*.

The list of antonyms of *thin* includes *broad, dense, fat, solid, strong, thick*. The opposite to the adjective in *a thin person* is *fat,* but in *a thin layer of ice* is *thick.* A *thin explanation* does not sound *con­vincing,* likewise a *thin moustache* does not look *solid,* a *thin smile* implies insincerity, etc. So, we see that in such cases *thin* can hardly be replaced by any word taken at random from the synonymous set given above.

Synonymy in Modem English can be accounted for historically, as a result of mutual influence and interference between native Germanic (English), on the one hand, and Scandinavian dialects, French, Latin, etc., on the other.

Nowadays, if the borrowed words co-exist with their native correlates, they, however, differ stylistically, the native elements being stylistically neutral, the borrowed elements belonging to the formal speech, e.g. *to ask* (Anglo- Saxon,) – *to question* (of French origin) – *to interrogate* (Latin).

V. A word that has more than one meaning in the language is called polysemantic. Its meanings form its semantic structure. It is an organised set of recurrent variants and shades of meaning a given sound complex can assume in different contexts, together with their emotional colouring, stylistic peculiarities and other typical connotations, if any. The semantic structure of the word is a fact of language, not of speech. It is developed and fixed in the course of the history of the language.

Since the number of lexical units is not necessarily increased with the appearance of new ideas and objects it is usually achieved by making an already existing word do this work. Change of meaning is a commonplace and indeed it would appear to be fundamental in the living language.

Examples to illustrate the statement are not far to seek. When watches were invented no new words were invented to denote this object and its parts. The word *face* meaning *front part of a human head* was made to serve as the name of thefront part of the watch where all the changes of time were shown; the word *hand* meaning *part of a human body used to work and indicate things with* was made to serve as the name of the indicator.

Or the Ukrainian word *лінія* – вузька смужка, що тягнеться на якій-небудь поверхні. Closely connected with it are the following meanings: *уявна смужка*

*(лінія горизонту), шлях (трамвайна лінія), послідовний ряд кровно споріднених осіб (по материнській лінії), спосіб дії (лінія поведінки).*

Thus words develop plurality of meanings, or, in other words, become polysemantic.

In polysemantic words we are faced not with the problem of the analysis of different meanings but primarily with the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings in the semantic structure of the same word.

Some questions can arise in this connection.

* Are all meanings equally representative of the semantic structure of the

word?

* Is the order in which the meanings are enumerated in dictionaries purely arbitrary or does it reflect the comparative value of individual meanings, the place they occupy in the semantic structure of the word?

The most objective criterion of the comparative value of individual meanings seems to be the frequency of their occurrence in speech.

Of great importance is the stylistic stratification of meanings of a polysemantic word as not only words but individual meanings too may differ in their stylistic reference. The stylistic status of monosemantic words is easily perceived.

e.g.: *daddy* can be referred to the colloquial stylistic layer, the word *parent* – to bookish.

Polysemantic words as a rule cannot be given any much restrictive labels. There is nothing colloquial or slangy about the word *jerk* in the meaning of *a* *sudden movement or stopping of movement*. But when *jerk* is used in the meaningof *an odd person* it is slangy.

Stylistically neutral words are more frequent.

It should be mentioned that some meanings are representative of the word in isolation, i.e. they invariably occur to us when we hear the word or see it written. Other meanings come to the fore only when the word is used in certain contexts. The meaning or meanings representative of the semantic structure of the word and least dependent on context are described as free or denominative meanings.

By the word *context* we understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word.

The meaning or meanings of polysemantic words observed only in certain contexts may be viewed as determined either by linguistic (lexical and grammatical or verbal) or extra-linguistic (non-verbal) contexts.

In lexical contexts of primary importance are the lexical groups combined with the polysemantic word under consideration.

e.g.: The verb *to take* in isolation has the meaning *to lay hold of with the* *hands, grasp, seize*. When combined with the lexical group of words denotingsome means of transportation *(to take a bus, a train)* it acquires the meaning synonymous with the meaning of the verb *to go*. The meanings determined by lexical contexts are sometimes referred to as lexically or phraseologically bound meanings which implies that such meanings are to be found only in certain lexical contexts.

In *grammatical contexts* it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word.

e.g.: One of the meanings of the verb *to make (to force, to induce)* is found only in the grammatical context possessing the structure *make + N+Infinitive* ( to make somebody do something). Another meaning *to become* is observed when *make* is followed by an adjective or noun (to make a good teacher) . Suchmeanings are sometimes described as grammatically or structurally bound meanings.

In a number of contexts, however, we find that both the lexical and the grammatical aspect should be taken into consideration. If, for example, we compare the contexts of different grammatical structures (to take+N and to take to+N) we can assume that they represent different meanings of the verb *to take*, but it is only when we specify the lexical context, i.e. the lexical group with which the verb is combined in the structure *to take+N* (to take tea, books, a bus) that we can say that the context determines the meaning.

The same pattern *to take+N* may represent different meanings of the verb *to* *take* dependent mainly on the lexical group of the nouns with which it is combined.

There are cases when the meaning of the word is ultimately determined not by linguistic factors but by the actual speech situation in which this word is used. The meaning of the phrase *I’ve got it* is determined not only by the grammatical or lexical context but by the actual speech situation. *To get* may mean *to possess* or *to* *understand.*

Monosemantic words are comparatively rare in the English language. These are pronouns and numerals. The greatest number of monosemantic words can be found among terms, the very nature of which requires precision. But even here we must mention that terms are monosemantic only within one branch of science.

e.g.: *to dress – to bandage a wound (medical terminology);*

*to dress – to prepare the earth for sowing (terminology of agriculture); to dress – to decorate with flags (naval terminology).*

Words belonging to the most active, vitally important and widely used part of the English vocabulary are generally polysemantic.

**WORD-FORMATION IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN**

Points for discussion:

1. The structure of the word. Types of morphemes and their specific features.

2. Ways of word-formation in English and Ukrainian:

* Affixation.
* Conversion.
* Composition.
* Shortening.
* Back-formation.
* Blending.
* Gradation.
* Stress interchange.
* Sound imitation.

I. If viewed structurally, words appear to be divisible into smaller units which are called morphemes. Like a word a morpheme is an association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds. But unlike a word it is not autonomous. Morphemes occur as constituents of words. But there are quite a lot of words which contain only one morpheme.

The word morpheme is of the Greek origin. Morphe- means “form”, the suffix -eme means “the smallest unit”. Morphemes can be divided into two main types: free (those that can occur alone) and bound (those which cannot occur alone).

The word “wool”, for instance, has one free morpheme, the word “woolen” consists of two morphemes: wool (which is free) and -en (which is bound). The word “лісистий” consists of the free morpheme ліс and the bound morpheme –ст.

A word has at least one lexical morpheme represented by a root which is the ultimate constituent element remained after the removal of affixes. It is the common element of words within a word-family. It is the primary element of the word, its basic part conveys its fundamental lexical meaning. There are many root-morphemes which can stand alone as words: table, car chair, room. It is one of the specific features of the English language. Free morphemes can be found only among roots. But not all roots are free morphemes. Only productive roots are free.

Unlike roots affixes are usually bound morphemes. According to their function and meaning prefixes and suffixes are divided into derivational and functional. There are several differences between them. Derivational affixes are those by means of which new words are formed: to teach – a teacher. Functional are those by means of which new forms of words are formed: teach – teaches.

II. **Affixation** is the creation of a word by modifying its root with an affix. It is a very productive type of word formation. In conformity with the division of derivational affixes into suffixes and prefixes affixation is subdivided into suffixation and prefixation. In modern English suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation. Prefixation is typical of verb formation. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of stems to which they are added. A prefixal derivative usually joins the part of speech the unprefixed word belongs to.

e.g.: definite – indefinite; convenient – inconvenient.

In a suffixal derivative the suffix does not only modify the lexical meaning of the stem it is affixed to, but the word itself is usually transferred to another part of speech.

e.g.: care(N) – careless (A), good (A) – goodness (N).

A suffix closely knit together with a stem forms a fusion retaining less of its independence than a prefix which is, as a general rule, more independent semantically.

e.g.: writing – the act of one who writes; the ability to write; to rewrite – to write again.

In the English language there prevails either suffixation or prefixation, in the Ukrainian language they can be used in the same word. English suffixes usually transfer a word from one part of speech into another, Ukrainian affixes never do it.

Derivational morphemes affixed before the stem are called prefixes. They modify the lexical meaning of the stem, but in doing so they seldom affect its basic lexico-grammatical component. Unlike suffixation, which is usually bound up with a paradigm of a certain part of speech, *prefixation* is considered to be neutral in this respect. The only exceptions are the prefixes be-, en-, a-, pre-, post.

e.g.: little (A) – belittle (V); friend (N) – befriend (V); able (A) – enable (V); courage (N) – encourage (V); sleep (N) – asleep (word of the category of state); foot (N) – afoot (Adv); war (N) – prewar (A) ; war (N) – postwar (A).

But usually prefixes do not change a part of speech.

Prefixes can be classified from the point of view of their meanings. Among them we can single out prefixes of the negative meaning: un-, in-, dis-, mis-.

e.g.: comfortable – uncomfortable, convenient – inconvenient, satisfied – dissatisfied, understand – misunderstand.

Prefixes denoting reversal or repetition of an action: un-, dis-, re-, роз-, пере-.

e.g.: lock – unlock, regard – disregard, consider – reconsider, єднати – роз’єднати, писати – переписати.

In the Ukrainian language the most productive is the prefix не-, which is used to form adjectives and nouns, but never verbs: нелегкий, невільний. A very productive prefix is the prefix без-: безпомічний. In the English language this prefix corresponds to the suffix -less: defenceless. The prefixes де-, дис-, а- areused as parts of borrowed words and they are unproductive: децентралізація, дисбаланс, асиметричний.

Prefixes denoting space and time relations: fore-, pre-, post-, over-, super-, до-, перед-, над-, під-, пере-, після-.

e.g.: tell – foretell, war – prewar, war – postwar, spread – overspread, structure – superstructure, історичний – доісторичний, воєнний – післявоєнний, водний – підводний.

Prefixes can be international:

- Anti-/анти- (antifascist, антифашист);

- Counter-/контр (countermarch, контрмарш);

- sub-/суб (submarine, субмарина).

Some prefixes can have a semantic identity only (but no linguistic similarity):

- foresee – передбачити;

- extranatural – надприродний.

There can be semantically alien prefixes pertaining to one of the contrasted languages:

- de- (decamp);

- mis- (misstate);

- по- (по-українському);

- що- (щонайкраще).

A specifically Ukrainian phenomenon is the usage of the prefix по- (попоїсти).

*Suffixation* is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of stems and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes, however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another. A suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different semantic group.

e.g.: A concrete noun becomes an abstract one: child – childhood.

Suffixes can be classified according to their ability to form a new part of speech, to their origin, productivity.

Noun-forming suffixes:

- -er (teacher, worker),

- -ing (living, reading);

- -ness (kindness, tenderness). These suffixes are productive.

- -age (voyage, courage);

- -ard (coward, drunkard);

- -ment (agreement, employment);

- -th (strength, length). These suffixes are non-productive.

In the Ukrainian language these are the following suffixes:

- -ар (шахтар, лікар);

- -ик (історик, радник);

- -ець (гравець, українець);

- -ач (оглядач, наглядач);

- -ак (співак, мастак);

- -нь (учень, здоровань).

Adjective-forming suffixes:

- -able (movable, readable);

- -ful (powerful, delightful);

- -ish (whitish, bookish);

- -less (useless, hopeless);

- -y (noisy, sunny). These are productive suffixes.

- -en (golden, woollen) – non-productive.

In the Ukrainian language these are the following suffixes:

- ов- (зимовий, раптовий)

- н- (хмарний, класний)

- ив- (щасливий, кмітливий)

- ськ-/ цьк- (англійський, німецький).

Some suffixes are homonymous. For example, the suffix ful- can form adjectives and nouns: careful (Adj) – handful (N).

In the Ukrainian language (but not in English) diminutive suffixes are often used:

-ньк (малесенький), -тк (дівчатко), -ець(вітерець).

Numeral-forming suffixes:

- -teen (thirteen, fifteen);

- -ty (sixty, seventy);

- -th (seventh, eighth). These are non-productive suffixes.

Pronoun-forming suffixes:

- -s (ours, yours). The suffix is non-productive.

Verb-forming suffixes:

- - ate (complicate, navigate);

- - en (darken, strengthen);

- - fy (signify, simplify);

- - ute (attribute, execute). These suffixes are non-productive.

In the Ukrainian language these are the suffixes: (ув)ати-, ити-(сушити, головувати).

Adverb-forming suffixes:

- ly (quickly, lately);

- long (sidelong, headlong);

- ward(s) forward, toward(s);

- ways, wise (clockwise, otherwise, crabways). Of all these suffixes only

the suffix -ly is productive.

In the Ukrainian language that is the suffix о-: високо, широко.

From the point of view of semantics suffixes can be classified in the following way:

1. Agent suffixes:

- -ist/ -іст/-ист (journalist, артист) ;

- ar/ -ар/-яр (scholar, школяр);

- ier-/-yer/ -ир (cashier, бригадир).

2. Suffixes denoting abstract notions:

- -ism/ -ізм (socialism, комунізм);

- -tion/ -ац (demonstration, демонстрація);

- -dom/ -ств/-цтв (kingdom, газетярство);

- -hood/ -ств (brotherhood, братство).

3. Evaluative suffixes:

- -ette (kitchenette);

- -y/-ie/-ey (sissy);

- -ling (duckling).

- -атк/ ятк (дівчатко, оленятко)

- -ик (ротик);

- -ечк (донечка);

- -ичк (сестричка);

- -ньк (дівчинонька).

All Ukrainian diminutive suffixes are productive. In English only –ie/ey, -ette are productive.

4. Gender/sex expressing suffixes.

In the Ukrainian language they can express masculine gender:

- -ар/яр (лікар, школяр);

- -ист/іст (бандурист);

- -ій (водій);

- -ант/ент (студент).

Feminine gender can be expressed by means of the following suffixes:

- -к (артистка);

- -их (кравчиха).

Neuter gender is expressed by means of:

- -атк (курчатко);

- -к (вушко);

- -ц (винце).

English gender suffixes are only sex expressing: actor – actress.

5. International suffixes:

- -er/or ор(conductor, кондуктор);

- -ist/іст (socialist, соціаліст);

- -tion/ц (revolution, революція);

- -able/абельн(readable, читабельний).

In both languages there are semi-affixes. In English these are the elements:

- friendly, -something.

In Ukrainian the semi-suffixes are: повно-, ново-, само-, авто-, -вод, -воз

(повноправно, автопілот, водовоз, тепловоз).

**Conversion** (zero derivation, root formation, functional change) is the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element, so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of derived words are homonymous. This phenomenon can be illustrated by the following cases: work – to work, love – to love, water – to water.

If we regard these words from the angle of their morphemic structure, we see that they are root words. On the derivational level, however, one of them should be referred to a derived word, as having the same root morpheme they belong to different parts of speech. When the noun is formed from the verb (or vice versa) without any morphological change, it is clear that the two words differ only in the paradigm. Thus, it is the paradigm that is used as a word-building means. So, conversion may be defined as the formation of a new word through changes in its paradigm. The change of the paradigm is the only word-building means of conversion. As the paradigm is a morphological category, conversion can be described as a morphological way of forming words.

As a type of word-formation conversion exists in many languages. The main reason for the widespread development of conversion in present day English is no doubt the absence of morphological elements serving as classifying signals, or, in other words, of formal signs marking the part of speech to which the word belongs. The fact that the sound pattern does not show to what part of speech the word belongs may be illustrated by the word “back”. It may be a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb.

Many affixes are homonymous and therefore the general sound pattern does not contain any information as to the possible part of speech.

e.g.: maiden (N), darken (V), woollen (A), often (Adv).

O. Jesperson points out that the causes that made conversion so widely spread are to be approached diachronically. The noun and verb have become identical in form firstly as a result of the loss of endings. More rarely it is the prefix that is lost (mind < gemynd). When endings had disappeared phonetical development resulted in the merging of sound forms for both elements of these pairs.

e.g.: OE carian (verb) and caru (noun) merged into care (verb, noun); OE drinkan (verb) and drinca, drinc (noun) merged into drink (verb, noun).

A similar homonymy resulted in the borrowing from French of pairs of words of the same root but belonging in French to different parts of speech. These words lost their affixes and became phonetically identical in the process of assimilation.

Prof. A. Smirnitsky is of the opinion that on a synchronic level there is no difference in correlation between such cases as listed above, i.e. words originally differentiated by affixes and later becoming homonymous after the loss of endings (sleep – noun :: sleep – verb) and those formed by conversion (pencil – noun :: pencil – verb).

The two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are the noun and the verb. Verbs made from nouns are the most numerous among the words produced by conversion: to hand, to face, to nose, to dog, to blackmail. Nouns are frequently made from verbs: catch, cut, walk, move, go. Verbs can also be made from adjectives: to pale, to yellow, to cool.

A word made by conversion has a different meaning from that of the word from which it was made though the two meanings can be associated. There are certain regularities in these associations which can be roughly classified. In the group of verbs made from nouns some regular semantic associations are the following:

- A noun is a name of a tool – a verb denotes an action performed by the tool:

to knife, to brush.

- A noun is a name of an animal – a verb denotes an action or aspect of behaviour typical of the animal: monkey – to monkey, snake – to snake. Yet, to fish does not mean to behave like a fish but to try to catch fish.

- A noun denotes a part of a human body – a verb denotes an action performed by it : hand – to hand, shoulder – to shoulder. However, to face does not imply doing something by or even with one’s face but turning it in a certain direction.

- A noun is a name of some profession or occupation – a verb denotes an activity typical of it : a butcher – to butcher, a father – to father.

- A noun is a name of a place – a verb denotes the process of occupying this place or putting something into it: a bed – to bed, a corner – to corner.

- A noun is the name of a container – a verb denotes an act of putting something within the container: a can – to can, a bottle – to bottle.

- A noun is the name of a meal – a verb denotes the process of taking it: supper – to supper, lunch – to lunch.

Types of Conversion: partial conversion, reconversion, substantivation, verbalization.

Partial conversion is a kind of a double process when firstly a noun is formed by conversion from a verbal stem and then this noun is combined with such verbs as to give, to make, to take to form a separate phrase: to have a look, to take a swim, to give a whistle.

There is a great number of idiomatic prepositional phrases as well: to be in the know, in the long run, to get into a scrape. Sometimes the elements of such expressions have a fixed grammatical form, as, for example, where the noun is always plural: It gives me the creeps (jumps).

Reconversion is the phenomenon when one of the meanings of the converted word is a source for a new meaning of the same stem: cable (металевий провідник) – to cable (телеграфувати) – cable (телеграма); help (допомога) – to help (допомагати, пригощати) – help (порція їжі), deal (кількість) – to deal (роздавати) – deal (роздача карт).

The main patterns of substantivation:

* Adj N: good – the good, rich – the rich, evil – the evil, English – the English;
* Participle N: wounded – the wounded, living – the living, accused – the accused, unemployed – the unemployed;
* V N: to doubt - a doubt, to offer – an offer, to stop – a stop, to find – a find, to drink – a drink.

The main patterns of verbalization are:

* N V: pocket – to pocket, face – to face, wheel – to wheel, name – to name, basing on the following semantic relations as “to produce” (to echo, to knot, to tunnel), “to make into” (to cash, to clone, to orphan), “to locate” (to box, to can, to corner, to pocket, to garage, to shelve), “to provide with” (to water, to butter, to label), “to remove” (to peel, to dust, to skin, to weed), “instrument” (to comb, to hammer, to nail, to bomb), “to transport by” (to ship, to wire, to cart), “to act as” (to mother, to tutor, to dog, to monkey), “result” (to flock, to crowd, to herd);
* Adj V: better – to better, worse – to worse, white – to white, involving the semantic relation of “becoming” (to faint, to idle, to slim, to lame) or “causing to become” (to clean, to calm, to smooth, to empty).

Conversion is not characteristic of the Ukrainian language. The only type of conversion that can be found is substantivation: молодий, хворий.

**Composition** can be defined as the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems, usually the first differentiating, modifying or qualifying and the second identifying. The last element expresses a general meaning, whereas the prefixed element renders it less generally. Any compound word has at least two semantic centres but they are never equal in their semantic value. Thus a compound word is characterised by both structural and semantic unity.

There are three types of compound words:

- сompound words with the solid representation: spacecraft, hardtop, землевласник;

- hyphenated compound words: sit-in, freeze-dry, диван-ліжко;

- compound words represented by a phrase: cold war, free flight.

Compound words can be further classified: from the functional point of view, from the point of view of the way the components of the compounds are linked together, from the point of view of different ways of composition.

Functionally compounds are viewed as words belonging to different parts of speech. The bulk of modern English compounds belong to nouns and adjectives:

hot-dog, slow-coach, worldold. Adverbs and connectives are represented by an insignificant number of words: outside. Composition in verbs is not productive either: to rough-house, to backbite. In the English language compound words can be graded according to frequency in the following way: nouns – adjectives – verbs. In the Ukrainian language the scheme will be the following: adjectives – nouns – verbs.

According to the type of relationship between the components compound words can be coordinative and subordinative. Coordinative are the compounds in which both components are structurally and semantically independent: secretary-stenographer, actor-manager, лікар-кардіолог. The constituent stems belong to the same part of speech. They are divided into three groups: additive, reduplicative and those formed by joining the phonetically variated rhythmic forms. Additive compounds denote a person or an object that is two things at the same time: actor-manager is an actor and a manager at the same time. Лікар-кардіолог is лікар and кардіолог at the same time. Reduplicative compounds are the result of the repetition of the same stem: fifty-fifty, tick-tick. Such words in the Ukrainian language are not considered to be compounds.

Compounds which are formed by joining the phonetically variated rhythmic forms of the same stem are: drip-drop, ding-dong, helter-skelter.

Coordinative compounds of the last two groups are mostly restricted to the colloquial layer and are characterised by a heavy emotive charge.

Subordinative compounds are the words in which the components are not equal either semantically or structurally. The second component is the structural centre, the grammatically dominant part of the word, which imparts its part-of-speech meaning to the whole word: stone-deaf, age-long, wrist-watch, baby-sitter, миротворець, самозахист.

According to the order of components subordinative compounds are divided into syntactic and asyntactic. Syntactic are the words the components of which are placed in the order of words in free phrases: bluebell, slow-coach, know-nothing. Asyntactic are the words whose stems are not placed in the order that resembles the order of words in a free phrase: red-hot, tear-stained, oil-rich.

According to the degree of motivation compound words can be motivated, partially motivated and non-motivated. Motivated compounds are those whose meanings are the sum of meanings of their components: blackboard, classroom. Partially motivated compounds are those in which one of the components has changed its meaning: chatter-box, lady-killer. Non-motivated compounds are those in which neither of the elements preserves itsmeaning: ladybird, tallboy.

Structurally compounds can be classified into neutral, morphological and syntactic. Neutral compounds that are formed without any linking elements are called simple neutral: sun-flower, shop-window, лікар-терапевт, місто-побратим. Neutral-derived compounds are formed by means of some affix: blue-eyed, newcomer. Neutral contracted compounds are those in which one of the parts is contracted: TV-set, V-day. Morphological compounds are formed by means of some linking element: Anglo-Saxon, spokesman, handicraft, жовтоблакитний, доброзичливий. Syntactic compounds are formed from segments of speech: Jackof-all-trades, pick-me-up, go-between, Jack-in-the-box, stay-at-home, не сьогодні-завтра.

In the English language there are many words which were compounds though just now they are not treated as such: window (vind + auga), daisy (day’s eye), always (all+way+s), woman (wif+man), breakfast (break+fast). Such compoundsare called hidden or disguised.

**Shortening.** Word-building processes involve not only qualitative but also quantitative changes. As a type of word-building shortening of spoken words also called clipping, curtailment or contraction, is recorded in the English language as far back as the 15thcentury. It is another fairly productive way of vocabulary enrichment. The moving force behind it is economy of effort expressed in the trend towards monosyllabism that has always been characteristic of the English vocabulary.

Among shortenings distinction should be made between lexical abbreviations and clippings.

Lexical abbreviations are formed by a simultaneous operation of shortening and compounding. Distinction should be made between shortening of words in written speech and in the sphere of oral intercourse. Shortening of words in written speech results in graphical abbreviations which are, in fact, signs representing words and word groups of high frequency in various spheres of human activity: RD for road, St for street on envelopes. English graphical abbreviations include rather numerous shortened variants of Latin and French words and word groups: a.m. (Lat. Ante meridiem) – in the morning, before noon; p.m. (Lat. post meridiem) – in the afternoon; i.e. (Lat. id.est) – that is.

The characteristic feature of graphical abbreviations is that they are restricted in use to written speech, occurring only in various kinds of texts, articles, books. In reading many of them are substituted by the words and phrases that they represent: Mr (Mister), Oct. (October). It is natural that some graphical abbreviations should gradually penetrate into the sphere of oral intercourse : SOS (Save our Souls), MP (Member of Parliament).

The words formed from the initial letters of each of the successive or major parts of a compound term are called acronyms: the USA (United States of America), the NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation), WASP (Women’s Air Force Service Pilots), США (Сполучені Штати Америки), ООН (Організація Об’єднаних Націй). They are used as words and if an abbreviation that has a wide currency is inconvenient for articulation, it is sometimes altered: W.R.N.S. (Women’s Royal Naval Service) was difficult to pronounce, so it was changed to WRENS.

There are two possible ways of reading acronyms in the English language. If the abbreviated written form can be read as though it were an ordinary English word it will be read like one: the NATO, the UNESCO, the UNO. The second way of reading acronyms is reading according to the ABC: BBC (the British Broadcasting Corporation), G.I. (Government Issue).

The second group of shortened words is represented by clippings. Clipping consists in the cutting off one or several syllables of the word. It can be of three types: aphaeresis, syncope, apocope.

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, influenza – flu. Syncopated words used to be popular with poets (e’en – even, ne’er – never) because of purely rhythmical considerations.

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).

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.

Cases of a combination of several shortening devices are also possible: perambulator – pram (syncope + apocope); refrigerator – fridge (aphaeresis +apocope).

Shortening brings new words in the same part of speech. Most lexical units of this type are nouns. Shortened verbs like rev from revolve, tab from tabulate are very rare. Such verbs as to phone, to tot up (to sum up, total), to taxi look like clipped words but are in fact denominal verbs made through conversion. Clipped adjectives are also few in number: comfortable – comfy, awkward – awk, impossible – imposs.

Lexical abbreviations and clipped words possess some peculiarities. They are the following:

- When performing syntactical functions of ordinary words they take on grammatical inflections: exams, MPs.

- They may be used with articles: a bike, the BBC.

- They may be combined with derivational affixes and used in compounding: M.Pess (woman – member of Parliament), hanky from handkerchief

- Clipped words are characteristic of colloquial speech, lexical abbreviations are used in written speech.

**Back formation** or back derivation is a term of diachronistic linguistics. It implies the inferring of a short word from a long one. If we take, for example, the word “speaker” we reasonably connect it with the verb “to speak”. The existence of a derivative “speaker” suggests that the basic word “speak” also exists. Now, if “speaker” is correlated “to speak”, then “editor” must have the basis, “edit”, too. But historically speaking, things are different. There are words in English which owe their origin to one part of a word being mistaken for some derivative suffix or more rarely a prefix. A word of this kind has often been supposed to imply the existence of a primary word from which it has been derived. Similarly, the new verb “to burgle” has been created from “burglar”, evidently through reinterpretation on the analogy to the lie from liar. Further examples of back formation are: to hush from husht, to pettifog from pettifogger, to audit from auditor, to peeve from peevish. These examples show that simple, derived words were formed from other root lexical units by means of splitting the root.

Back formation may be also based on the analogy of inflectional forms as testified by the singular nouns pea and cherry. Pea (Plural peas) is from ME pese < OE pise< Lat. pisa, Plural pesum. The ending s being the most frequent mark of the plural in English, English speakers thought that sweet peas(e) was a plural and turned peas(e)(soup into pea soup.

**Blending** is used to designate the method of merging parts of words (not morphemes) into one new word. The result of it is a blend, also known as a portmanteau word. It was Lewis Carroll , the author of the well-known book “Alice in Wonderland”, who called such creations portmanteau words and described them as words into which two meanings are packed like in a portmanteau.

If, for example, you get up too late for breakfast and too early for lunch you can have brunch. If a state decides to execute a criminal with the aid of electricity it electrocutes him. A telegram sent by cable is a cablegram. The astronaut has a tool, a space hammer, which is known as spammer. News that is broadcast is a newscast. If фрукт is added to йогурт you will get фругурт.

Blending has also been productive in the last few decades. Among such recent coinages linguists list the following:

smog = smoke + fog, transistor = transfer + resistor, slanguage = slang + language, pollutician = pollute + politician, slimnastics= slim + gymnastics, spam = spiced + ham, bit = binary + digit, modem = modular + demodulator, shimmer = shine + glimmer, camcorder = camera + recorder, Frenglish = French + English.

**Sound Interchange** or **gradation** is characteristic of all Indo-European languages. It is an opposition in which words are differentiated due to vowel gradation: sit – sat, fall – fell. Vowel interchange is the most widespread case: food – feed, tooth – teeth, стіл – стола. Consonant interchange is a more rare case: advice – advise, сів – сіла. In other cases both vowel and consonant interchange takes place: bath – to bathe, grass – to graze. Sometimes sound interchange is accompanied by affixation: deep – depth, long – length.

**Stress Interchange** is a word-building pattern which consists in the formation of a new word by means of change of stress position: 'conduct – to con'duct, 'present – to pre'sent, 'export – to ex'port, 'import – to im'port.

Stress interchange is not restricted to pairs of words consisting of a noun and a verb. Adjectives and adverbs can undergo this process: 'frequent - to fre'quent, 'absent – to ab'sent.

Stress distinction is, however, neither productive nor regular. There are many denominal verbs that are forestressed and thus homonymous with the corresponding nouns: 'figure – to 'figure, 'programme – to 'programme.

There is a large group of disyllabic loan words that retain the stress on the second syllable both in nouns and verbs: ac'count – to ac'count, de'feat – to de'feat.

In the Ukrainian language homonyms can also be formed by means of stress interchange: до'рога – доро'га, дере'вина – дереви'на.

**Sound Imitation (onomatopoeia)** is the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it. For instance, words naming sounds and movements of water: babble, blob, bubble, flush, gurgle, gush, splash.

Words coined by this type of word building are made by imitating different kinds of sounds that may be produced by animals, birds, human beings and inanimateobjects.

Dogs bark, cocks cock-a-doodle-doo, ducks quack, frogs croak, cats mew (miaow, meow), cows moo (low). Гав-гав, кукуріку, кря-кря, ква-ква, мяу: промовляють українські тварини та птахи.

**Origin and Etymological Layers**

**of English and Ukrainian**

Points for discussion:

1. Etymology as a branch of the language study.

2. Origin and Etymological layers of English.

3. Causes and Ways of Borrowing into English

4. Origin and Etymological layers of Ukrainian.

I. Etymology is the study of the origins of words. Through old texts and comparison with other languages, etymologists reconstruct the history of words – when they entered a language, from what source, and how their form and meaning have changed. Etymologists apply the methods of comparative linguistics to reconstruct information about languages that are too old for any direct information (such as writing) to be known. By analyzing related languages with the help of the comparative method, linguists can make inferences about their shared parent language and its vocabulary. In this way, word roots have been found which can be traced all the way back to the origin of, for instance, the Indo-European language family.

Etymological theory recognizes that words originate through a limited number of basic mechanisms, the most important of which are the following:

* Borrowing, i.e. the adoption of loanwords from other languages.
* Word formation such as derivation and compounding.
* Onomatopoeia and sound symbolism, i.e. the creation of imitative words.

While the origin of newly emerged words is often more or less transparent, it tends to become obscured through time due to:

* Sound change: for example, it is not obvious at first sight that English *set* is related to *sit* (the former is originally a causative formation of the latter), and even less so that *bless* is related to *blood* (the former was originally a derivative with the meaning "to mark with blood", or the like).
* Semantic change: English *bead* originally meant "prayer", and acquired its modern sense through the practice of counting prayers with beads.

Etymologists apply a number of methods to study the origins of words, some of which are:

* Philological research. Changes in the form and meaning of the word can be traced with the aid of older texts, if such are available.
* Making use of dialectological data. The form or meaning of the word might show variation between dialects, which may yield clues of its earlier history.
* The comparative method. By a systematic comparison of related languages, etymologists can detect which words derive from their common ancestor language and which were instead later borrowed from another language.
* The study of semantic change. Etymologists often have to make hypotheses about changes of meaning of particular words. Such hypotheses are tested against the general knowledge of semantic shifts. For example, the assumption of a particular change of meaning can be substantiated by showing that the same type of change has occurred in many other languages as well.

Both English and Ukrainian belong to the Indo-European family of languages.

II. English is derived from the Anglo-Saxon, a West Germanic variety. The most important force in shaping Old English was its Germanic heritage in its vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar which it shared with its sister languages in continental Europe. Some of these features were specific to the West Germanic language family to which Old English belongs, while some other features were inherited from the Proto-Germanic language from which all Germanic languages are believed to have been derived. The Anglo-Saxon roots can be seen in the similarity of numbers in English and German, particularly *seven/sieben*, *eight/acht*, *nine/neun* and *ten/zehn*. Pronouns are also cognate: *I/ich*; *thou/Du*; *we/wir*; *she/sie*. However, language change has eroded many grammatical elements, such as the noun case system, which is greatly simplified in Modern English; and certain elements of vocabulary.

Current vocabulary of English includes words from many languages. Prior to the Norman Conquest, Latin had been only a minor influence on the English language, mainly through vestiges of the Roman occupation and from the conversion of Britain to Christianity in the seventh century (ecclesiastical terms such as *priest*, *vicar*, and *mass* came into the language this way), but during the period of the Norman Conquest there was a wholesale infusion of Romance (Anglo-Norman) words *beef*, *indict*, *jury*, *verdict,* etc. The influence of French (and Latin, often by way of French) upon the lexicon continued throughout the period from the twelfth century through the fifteenth, the loss of some inflections and the reduction of others accelerated, and many changes took place within the phonological and grammatical systems of the language. Sometimes French words replaced Old English words; *crime* replaced *firen* and *uncle* replaced *eam*. Other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, as the French *gentle* and the Germanic *man* formed *gentleman*. Other times, two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English as the Germanic *doom* and the French *judgment*, or *wish* and *desire*. Although the popularity of French between 1250 and 1500 CE was decreasing, a number of words (around 10,000) were borrowed into English. Many of them were related to government (*sovereign*, *empire*), law (*judge, jury, justice, attorney, felony, larceny*), social life (*fashion, embroidery, cuisine*, *appetite*) and learning (*poet,logic, physician*). Furthermore, the legal system retained parts of French word order (the adjective following the noun) in such terms as *fee simple*, *attorney general* and *accounts payable*. Though more than half of the words in English either come from the French language or have a French cognate, most of the common words used are still of Germanic origin: e.g. the etymology of an English irregular verb is of Germanic origin.

*Characteristic Features of the Native Vocabulary*

1. The words are monosyllabic: sun, wood, break.

2. They are polysemantic: *hand – 1. Part of the human body. 2. Power, possession, by a responsibility.3. Influence. 4. Person from whom news comes. 5. Skill in using one’s hands. 6. Person who does what is indicated by the context, performer. 7. Workman. 8. Share in activity. 9. Pointer, indicator. 10. Position or direction. 11. Handwriting. 12. Signature. 13. Number of cards held by a player. 14. Unit of measurement. 15. Applause by clapping.*

3. They are characterised by high frequency.

4. Native words are usually found in set-expressions.

5. Verbs with post-positions are usually native: to look for, to look after.

6. They are characterised by a wide range of lexical and grammatical valency.

7. If words begin with *wh, wr, tw, dw, sw, sh. th*; if at the end they have *dge,tch,nd, ld*; if the roots have *ng, aw, ew, ee, oo* they are native.

English words of more than two syllables are likely to come from French, often with modified terminations. For example, the French words for *syllable*, *modified*, *terminations* and *example* are *syllabe*, *modifie*, *terminaisons* and *exemple*. In many cases, the English form of the word is more conservative (that is, has changed less) than the French form.

III. Causes and Ways of Borrowing into English.

In its fifteen century long history recorded in written manuscripts the English language happened to come in long and close contact with several other languages, mainly Latin, French, Old Norse. The great influx of borrowings from these sources can be accounted for by a number of historical causes. Due to the great influence of the Roman civilization Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse was the language of the conquerors who brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system – developed feudalism – it was the language of upper classes, of official documents from the middle of the 11th century to the end of the 14th century.

In the study of the borrowed element in English the main emphasis is as a rule placed on the Middle English period. Borrowings of the later periods became the object of investigation only in recent years. These investigations show that the flow of borrowings has been steady and uninterrupted. The greatest number of them has come from French. A large portion of them is scientific and technical terms.

The number and character of borrowings do not only depend on the historical conditions, on the nature and length of contacts but also on the degree of the genetic and structural proximity of the languages concerned. The closer the languages the deeper and more versatile is the influence. Thus under the influence of the Scandinavian languages, which were closely related to Old English, some classes of words were borrowed that could not have been adopted from non-related or distantly related languages. Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral and written speech.

Oral borrowing took place chiefly in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times written borrowing gained importance. Words borrowed orally are usually short and they undergo more changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings preserve their spelling. Borrowings can be borrowed through transcription *(football, trailer, jeans),*transliteration *(cruise, motel, club).* Besides there can be loan words *(blue stocking,collective farm).*

*Criteria of Borrowings in English*

Though borrowed words undergo changes in the adopting language, they preserve some of their former peculiarities for a comparatively long period. This makes it possible to work out some criteria for determining whether the word belongs to the borrowed element.

In some cases the pronunciation of the word, its spelling and the correlation between sounds and letters are an indication of the foreign origin of the word: waltz (German), psychology (Greek). The initial position of the sounds [v], [dz], [z] or of the letters x, j, z is a sure sign that the word has been borrowed : *vase* (French), *jungle* (Hindi), *gesture* (Latin).

The morphological structure of the word and its grammatical forms may also show that the word has been borrowed. The suffixes in the words *neurosis* (Greek), *violoncello* (Italian) betray the foreign origin of the words. The same is true of the irregular plural forms *bacteria, media, phenomena.*

The lexical meaning of the word can show the origin of the word. Thus the concept denoted by the words *pagoda* (Chinese), *kangaroo* (Australian) make us suppose that we deal with borrowings.

These criteria are not always helpful. Some early borrowings have become so thoroughly assimilated that they are unrecognisable as adoptions without a historical analysis: *chalk* (Latin), *ill* (Scandinavian), *car* (French).

Sometimes the form of the word and its meaning in Modern English enable us to tell the immediate source of borrowing. Thus, if the digraph *ch* is sounded as [ ] the word is a late French borrowing (echelon) ; if it is sounded as [k] the word came from the Greek language (archaic); if it is pronounced as [t ] it is either an early borrowing or a word of the Anglo-Saxon origin.

*The Celtic Element in the English Vocabulary*

When the invading Anglo-Saxon tribes came to the British Isles and encountered the aboriginal population, the latter did not influence Anglo-Saxon to any serious extent – these were not more than some 10-12 Celtic words. Besides not all of them were originally Celtic. No historian as yet has explained the reason why the Celtic traces in the English vocabulary have been so slight. One of the explanations may be that before the Anglo-Saxons came Britain had been under Roman oppression for about four centuries and the native Celtic population must have been greatly reduced by the Roman invaders. The Roman legions left Britain to defend their capital from the advancing Goths. At the approach of the new invaders the Britons fled to Wales and Cornwall, the Celtic tribes of Ireland accepted the English language and the Celtic tribes of Scotland were influenced in their speech by the Northern form of English. Now the Celtic tongues exist in the form of Welsh, Irish, Gaelic and Highland Scotch and exercise their influence upon the local dialects.

The Celtic element includes such words as *crag* (rock), *dun* (greyish-brown), *down* (hill). There are some geographical names like *Kent, Avon* (river), *Dover* (water). Celtic elements are found in such place names as *Duncombe, Helcombe* (cum – canyon), *Llandaff* (llan – church), *Inverness* (inver – river mouth). Some of the early Latin, French, Spanish borrowings came through Celtic *(cloak, car, clock, carry).*

On the whole, Celtic borrowings in the English language can be considered of the least importance.

*The Classical Element in the English Language*

By the classical element we mean Latin and Greek. Lexicographers have estimated that approximately a quarter of the Latin vocabulary has been taken over by English. But Latin words are not a homogeneous layer. We must distinguish between those borrowed through the immediate contact at the early stages of the development of the language and those later borrowings that came through writing. The first are mostly monosyllabic and denote things of everyday importance while the latter are mostly polysyllabic bookish words. The first are completely assimilated: pea, wine, cup, line. Borrowings of the 5th century have a military favour about them for the Romans built fortifications, military camps and roads: port, street, wall. All these words got completely assimilated in the English language. Many of the Latin borrowings of this period did not survive but they are sometimes retained in English place-names: *Manchester (*castra – camp), *Greenwich, Harwich* (vicus – village).

Taken together these two periods form the first stratum of Latin borrowings.

The second great stratum of Latin words came into English at the end of the 6th -7th centuries when the people of England were converted to Christianity. Since Latin was the language of the church many Latin words denoting religious concepts came into English: *abbot, bishop, candle, mass, temple.* Some words changed their meanings. Many Latin words borrowed at that period can be referred to other spheres of life, such as things of everyday life *(cap, chest)*, names of vegetables and plants *(beet, plant)*. Since monasteries were also cultural centres where books were written and translations made such words as *school, verse* were borrowed.

Another great influx of Latin words came through French after the Norman Conquest. They are generally referred to as the 3rd stratum of Latin borrowings. Their original source is Latin and their immediate source is French.

The greatest stream of Latin borrowings poured into the English vocabulary during the period of Renaissance. At that time words belonging to the following spheres were borrowed: terms of philosophy, mathematics, physics *(fundamental, vacuum)*, terms of law and government *(alibi, veto)*, terms of botany *(mallow,petal)*, topographical terms *(equator, tropical).*

Nowadays when there appears a need to coin some term it is coined from the existing Latin or Greek elements. Greek borrowings are recognised by their specific spelling *(ch – character,ph - philosophy, pn – pneumonia, rh – rhetoric, ist – socialist, ics – mathematics, osis – neurosis).*

To a certain extent Greek borrowings were latinized in form with the change of the Greek *u* into Latin *y*, the Greek *k* into the Latin *c*. When the Latin *c* changed its pronunciation before *e, i, y* many Greek words were changed beyond recognition *( kuriakon – church, kyklos – cycle).* Some Greek proper names are widely used in Great Britain *(Margaret, Sophia, Irene).* Many Greek words were borrowed during the period of Renaissance. They belong to the following lexico-semantic fields: literature and art *(poet, comedy)*, lexicology *(antonym, dialect*, philosophy and mathematics (theory, thesis, *diagram)*, medicine *(diagnosis, rheumatism)*, physics *(pneumatic, thermometer).*

*The Scandinavian Element in the English Vocabulary*

The Scandinavian invasion of England which proved to be of linguistic importance began in the 8th century. In 1017 the Danes conquered the whole of England and reigned over up to 1042. The Danish settlers intermingled with the native population. The fact of both languages being Germanic facilitated mutual understanding and word borrowings. That is why it is difficult sometimes to say whether a word is native or borrowed from Scandinavian. Words are sometimes considered to be of the Scandinavian origin if they were not met in Anglo-Saxon written documents up to the 11th century. Some examples of Scandinavian borrowings are the following: *anger* (OSc. angr – sorrow); *gate* (OSc. gata); *sky* (OSc. sky – cloud); *want* ( OSc. vant – lacking); *to hit* (OSc. hitta – not to miss); *ill* (OSc. illr – bad); *ugly* (OSc. uggligr – frightful).

In distinguishing Scandinavian words we may sometimes apply the criterion of sound such as [sk] – *skill, scare, scream.* The hard [g] and [k] sounds before *I* and *e* speak for the Scandinavian origin of the word since English words started having the palatalised [j] and [t] sounds before *i* and *e* already in Old English. But these features are not always sufficient because sometimes we find [sk] in words of Latin, Greek or French origin or in Northern dialects.

Some English words changed their meanings taking on the meanings of the corresponding Scandinavian words: OSc. *draurm* – *dream* (OE dream – joy), OSc.– *brauth – bread* (OE bread – crumb, fragment).

Scandinavian settlements in England left their toponymic traces in a great number of place names: OSc. *byr* – village (Derby, Rugby); OSc. *foss* – waterfall (Fossbury, Fossway); OSc. *toft* – cite, plot of land (Brimtoft, Langtoft).

*The Norman-French Element in the English Vocabulary*

The French layer rates second to Latin in bulk. It has been estimated that English owes one fourth of its vocabulary to French. French borrowings penetrated into English in two ways: from the Norman dialect (during the first centuries after the Norman Conquest of 1066) and from the French national literary language beginning with the 15th century. The Normans who conquered England in 1066 were of Scandinavian origin and their French differed somewhat from the central dialect of France. During two centuries after the Norman Conquest the linguistic situation in England was rather complicated; the feudal lords spoke the Norman dialect of the French language, the people spoke English, scientific and theological literature was in Latin, the court literature was in French. Latin and French were used in administration and school teaching. Still English was in common use and therefore the Norman dialect was to a certain extent influenced by English in some phonetical and lexical points.

Gradually English assimilated many French words that either ousted their Saxon equivalents (OE *unhope – despair*; OE *tholemodness – patience*), brought new concepts *(exchequer, parliament)* or became synonyms to native words *(to help =to aid; weak = feeble).*

Before the Norman Conquest only a few words were borrowed: *proud, market.*

French words borrowed during the period of the 12th –16th centuries show the social status of the Norman invaders and their supremacy in economic, cultural and political development. At that time a lot of terms were borrowed into the English language:

- terms of rank: *duke, prince, baron;*

- law terms: *prison, jury, judge;*

- military terms: *army, peace, soldier;*

- religious terms: *pray, faith, saint;*

- terms of art: *art, beauty, paint;*

- terms of architecture: *pillar, palace, castle.*

In most cases such words were completely assimilated.

Later French borrowings can be easily identified by their peculiar form and pronunciation: *garage, technique, machine.*

*Various Other Elements in the English Vocabulary*

Quite a number of words were borrowed from other languages: Dutch, Italian, Spanish. England was in commercial contact with the Netherlands during the Middle ages. There lived and worked many skilful Dutch artisans in England (weavers, shipbuilders). Hence, the terminology of some professions owes much to Dutch and Flemish: *cruise, dock, reef*. Among borrowings there are also weaving terms: *rock, spool*. Dutch art terms came to English as a result of the influence of Dutch art *(landscape, easel).*

The Italian language began to contribute to the English vocabulary in the16th century. Many Italian words such as military terms entered through French. During the period of Renaissance Italian culture greatly influenced the cultural life of England. Many musical terms were borrowed at that time: *piano, opera, sonata*. Among borrowings we find artistic terms *(studio, fresco)*, literary terms *(stanza, canto)*, business terms *(bank, traffic)*, words denoting realities of Italian life *(gondola, macaroni).*

Spanish brought some words as well. Many words belonging to various languages of the native population of America came through Spanish: *banana, canyon, cargo, potato, Negro.*

Some Portuguese words came through French, Spanish and Dutch: *caste, fetish.* There are not many words borrowed immediately from Portuguese: *tank, cobra, port (wine), emu.*

There are borrowings from the German language: *cobalt, quartz, leitmotiv, kindergarten, rucksack.*

Some other languages contributed to the English vocabulary as well. Arabian gave some terms: *algebra, Moslem, mufti, sherbet.*With the beginning of England’s colonial expansion in the 16th – 17th centuries many words penetrated into the English vocabulary from the languages of colonial countries: *cashmere, jungle, rupee* (Hindi), *ginseng, serge* (Chinese), *hara-kiri, rickshaw* (Japanese).

The Russian language also contributed to the English vocabulary: *rouble, kopeck, taiga, sable, sarafan, tsar.*

International words are used in both languages: *organisation, telephone, judo, banana.* Some international words can coincide only in one of the meanings. E.g.: the words *stress, faculty, data.* They are called pseudointernationalisms.

*False Etymology.* The historical development of borrowed words often brings about an indistinctness of the word’s etymological meaning. The words are then wrongly associated with their ultimate source whereas actually the word may have come through some intermediate language. The word *debt* comes not from the Latin word *debit* but from the French *dette* while *doubt* comes not from the Latin word *dubitare* but from the French word *doute.* But scientists wrongly attributed them directly to the Latin source and consequently introduced the missing *b* which never came to be pronounced*.*

In many cases words lose their etymological clarity. The word *buttery (larder)* which came from the Latin word *botaria* (Latin bota – barrel, bottle) was wrongly associated with the English word *butter*. Such instances of the so-called folk etymology are not very rare in the English language.

In some cases folk etymology leads to the appearance of compound words which are tautological. In the word *greyhound* the first element of which comes from the Scandinavian *grey* (собака) was associated with *grey* meaning *colour*. Sometimes under the influence of folk etymology the spelling of the word is changed. The word *hiccough* was written *hicket* but it was associated with the word *cough* and a new spelling was introduced.

IV. Ukrainian is a language of the East Slavic subgroup of the Slavic languages. The Ukrainian language traces its origins to the Old East Slavic language of the medieval state of Kievan Rus'. Ukrainian, along with other East Slavic languages, is a lineal descendant of the colloquial language used in Kievan Rus’ (10th –13th century).

One of the key difficulties in tracing the origin of the Ukrainian language more precisely is that until the end of the 18th century the written language used in Ukraine was quite different from the spoken one. For this reason, there is no direct data on the origin of the Ukrainian language. One has to rely on indirect methods: analysis of typical mistakes in old manuscripts, comparison of linguistic data with historical, anthropological, archaeological ones, etc. Because of the difficulty of the question, several theories of the origin of Ukrainian language exist. Some early theories have been proven wrong by modern linguistics, while others are still being discussed in the academic community.

The first theory of the origin of Ukrainian language was suggested in the Imperial Russia in the middle of the 18th century by Mykhailo Lomonosov. This theory posits the existence of a common language spoken by all East Slavic people in the time of the Kievan Rus’. According to Lomonosov, the differences that subsequently developed between Great Russian and Ukrainian (then called Little Russian) could be explained by the influence of the Polish language on Ukrainian and the influence of Turkic languages on Russian during the period from 13th to 17th century.

The “Polonization” theory was criticized as early as in the first half of the 19th century by Mykhailo Maxymovych. In 1839, Maksymovych published his *History of Old Russian Literature* which dealt with the so-called Kievan period of Russian literature, considered by Ukrainians to be the initial stage of Ukrainian literature as well. Maksymovych saw a definite continuity between the language and literature of Kievan Rus' and that of Cossack and modern Ukraine. Indeed, he seems to have thought that the Old Ukrainian language stood in relation to modern Russian in a way similar to that of Old Czech to modern Polish or modern Slovak; that is, that one influenced but was not the same as the other.

In fact, the most distinctive features of the Ukrainian language are present neither in Russian nor in Polish. Ukrainian and Polish do share a lot of common or similar words, but so do all Slavic languages, since many words are carried over from the Proto-Slavic language, the common ancestor of the modern ones. A much smaller part of their common vocabulary can be attributed to the later interaction of the two languages. The "Polonization" theory has not been taken seriously by the academic community since the beginning of the 20th century.

Another point of view developed during the 19th and 20th centuries by linguists of Imperial Russia and the Soviet Union. Similarly to Lomonosov, they assumed the existence of a common language spoken by East Slavs in the past. But unlike Lomonosov's hypothesis, this theory does not view "Polonization" or any other external influence as the main driving force that led to the formation of three different languages: Russian, Ukrainian and Belarusian from the common Old East Slavic language. This general point of view is one of the most popular, particularly outside Ukraine. The supporters of this theory disagree, however, about the time when the different languages were formed. Soviet scholars tend to admit a difference between Ukrainian and Russian only at later time periods (fourteenth through sixteenth centuries). According to this view, Old East Slavic diverged into Belarusian and Ukrainian to the west, and Old Russian to the north-east, after the political boundaries of Kievan Rus’ were redrawn in the fourteenth century. During the time of the incorporation of Ruthenia (Ukraine and Belarus) into the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, Ukrainian and Belarusian diverged into identifiably separate languages.

Some scholars see a divergence between the language of Halych-Volhynia and the language of Novgorod-Suzdal by the 1100s, assuming that before the 12th century the two languages were practically indistinguishable. This point of view is, however, at variance with some historical data. In fact, several East Slavic tribes,such as Polans, Drevlyans, Severians, Dulebes (that later likely became Volhynians and Buzhans), White Croats, Tiverians and Ulichs lived on the territory of today’s Ukraine long before the 12th century. Notably, some Ukrainian features were recognizable in the southern dialects of Old East Slavic as far back as the language can be documented.

Some researchers, while admitting the differences between the dialects spoken by East Slavic tribes in the 10th and 11th centuries, still consider them as "regional manifestations of a common language" (see, for instance, the article by Vasyl Nimchuk). In contrast, Ahatanhel Krymsky and Alexei Shakhmatov assumed the existence of the common spoken language of Eastern Slavs only in prehistoric times. According to their point of view, the diversification of the Old East Slavic language took place in the 8th or early 9th century. A hypothesis that is now largely discarded, Shakhmatov is best remembered for having pioneered textological research of early Russian chronicles, notably the Primary Chronicle. His studies of Slavic etymology revolved around the idea of close contacts and influences between the ancient Slavs and Celts, a hypothesis that was subsequently discarded in favour of the assumption of language contact between pre-Celtic and pre-Slavic communities. (The concentration of hill-forts and cemeteries shows a density of Celtic population in the Tisza valley of modern-day Vojvodina, Hungary and into Ukraine).

A Ukrainian linguist Stepan Smal-Stocky went even further: he denied the existence of a common Old East Slavic language at any time in the past. Similar points of view were shared by Yevhen Tymchenko, Vsevolod Hantsov, Olena Kurylo, Ivan Ohienko and others. According to this theory, the dialects of East Slavic tribes evolved gradually from the common Proto-Slavic language without any intermediate stages during the 6th through 9th centuries. The Ukrainian language was formed by convergence of tribal dialects, mostly due to an intensive migration of the population within the territory of today's Ukraine in later historical periods. This point of view was also confirmed by phonological studies of Yuri Shevelov and is gaining a number of supporters among Ukrainian scientists.

The circumstances in which Standard Ukrainianevolved have largely determined the peculiarities of its vocabulary. It did not develop in an urban environment; hence, it is based mostly on the peasant vernacular. In the second half of the 19th century many writers modeled their language as a matter of principle on rural folk speech. This ‘populist’ trend accounts for the highly developed vocabulary in Standard Ukrainian of rural life and labor, in which synonyms abound. A great number of locutions are obviously of peasant origin:

e.g. *Мов корова язиком злизала* ‘as if a cow had licked it up with her tongue =disappeared without a trace’.

In the absence of a single urban center whose spoken Ukrainian could serve as a model for the literary language, the intelligentsia relatively frequently absorbed expressions of local and foreign origin into their vernacular. As a result many words with the same meaning as already accepted words passed into the literary language (e.g., *човен* and *лодка* ‘boat’, *місто* and *город* ‘city’, *поїзд* and *потяг* ‘train’). Many such words are considered localisms and are used only to provide local color (e.g., western Ukrainian *газда* for the standard *господар* ‘master of the house’, and *кримінал* for *в’язниця* ‘prison’); many others are accepted as having equal stylistic status (eg, southeastern Ukrainian *лелека*, northeastern *чорногуз*, and western *бусол* and *бузко* ‘stork’).

Many words, including synonyms connected with concepts of urban life, entered Ukrainian standard vocabulary not via peasant dialects but from the languages of nations bordering on or ruling various Ukrainian territories. Thus Ukrainian, which originally showed little social differentiation, has gradually evolved into a language based on the speech of (1) the peasantry, (2) the intelligentsia and professionals, (3) neighboring nations, and (4) various urban social groups (jargon and slang).

The vocabulary and phraseology of modern literary Ukrainian have developed far beyond their rural origins and constitute a rich and complex system derived from various linguistic sources.

Today the vocabulary of Standard Ukrainianhas two characteristic features.

1. It is relatively close to the speech of the people without being confined to the language spoken in any one locality. At first Standard Ukrainian developed mainly from the dialects of the Poltava and southern Kyiv regions. Soon, however, quite a few words from other dialects, particularly those of Galicia via the Galician intelligentsia, were absorbed into it. Hence, its vocabulary ceased to be connected with any one dialect or dialectal group, although Kyiv-Poltava elements still undoubtedly predominate. The Galician dialects have contributed a particularly large number of abstract terms, names of objects, and words associated with urban life (e.g., *засада* ‘principle’, *властивість’* ‘peculiarity’, *зарозумілість’* ‘arrogance’, *відчувати* ‘to feel’).

2. Ukrainian includes many loan words, particularly from German, Turkish, Tatar, and Polish, and in more recent times many Europeanisms, especially with Latin or Greek components (e.g., *konto* ‘account’, *kolit* ‘colitis’, *akcija* ‘action’, *demokratija* ‘democracy’, *pilot* ‘pilot’, and *generator* ‘generator’). In general, the number of borrowings has far exceeded the number of loan translations and neologisms replacing foreign words, a point on which Ukrainian differs significantly from Czech, for example. These words have usually had a nominative function and have gradually undergone the normal course of phonetic, morphological, and other forms of naturalization; hence they, do not have a special stylistic function that would cause them to stand out, even when they have autochthonous synonyms (e.g., *еволюція – розвиток* ‘evolution’, *авіація – літинство* ‘aviation’). In this respect Ukrainian is fundamentally different from such double-layered languages as Russian, with its Church Slavonicelements, and English, with its Latin and French elements. For stylistic expression, it has drawn more on its own resources than on a blend with another literary language. Certain 20th-century poets have introduced Church Slavonicisms into their poetic language (e.g., Mykola Bazhan: *бренний* ‘perishable’, *сущий*‘real’, *ланіта* ‘cheek’, and Mykhailo Orest: *ректи* ‘to speak’, *діва* ‘virgin’, and *стократ* ‘a hundred times’), but few of these have been incorporated into the vernacular. Church Slavonicisms in Ukrainian have had for the most part specifically nominative functions and have been used mainly to express church or religious concepts (e.g., *владика* ‘bishop’, *храм* ‘temple’, *священний* ‘sacred’).

By and large the poetic genres in Modern Standard Ukrainian are distinguished by semantics and imagery rather than by peculiarities of vocabulary. The total number of words in contemporary Ukrainian is about 170,000. Under the influence of the latest social and mainly scientific and technological revolution all languages of developed nations have borrowed an immense number of foreign words originating from different spheres of life and being mostly international. Thus, in Ukrainian apart from the already existing lexical units only during the last two decades there appeared in our mass media and in everyday usage such English words as комп’ютер, дисплей, менеджмент, маркетинг, бартер, імпічмент, інтернет, кліп, дискета, сканер, серфінг, валеологія, грант, офшорний, провайдер, траст, пабліситі, тренінг, фрістайл, боді шилінг, пауерліфтинг, фітнес, кікбоксинг. плеймеркер, топ-шоу, дог-шоу, памперси, etc. The American mass culture, which has become a very influencial element of social life, brought to Ukrainian many hitherto unknown words and notions as гіт/хіт, топ, кліп, шоу, саунд-трек, кантрі (music), etc.

In the Ukrainian language there are borrowings from the Polish language *(в’язень, застава, ліжко, зичити)*, from the Check language *(брама, праця, вагатися).* There also exist Turkic words *(кабан, кайдани)* in the Ukrainian language. Words borrowed from the English language are partially assimilated *(футбол, хокей).* Some borrowings in the Ukrainian language are restricted in word-formation. Such words as *ноу-хау*, *от кутюр* have no derivatives.

**Semantic Classes of the Words**

**in English and Ukrainian**

Points for discussion:

1. Synonyms
2. the definition of synonyms;
3. classifications of synonyms;
4. sources of synonymy;

2. Antonyms

1. the definition of antonyms;
2. classifications of antonyms;

3. Homonyms

1. the definition of homonyms;
2. sources of homonymy;
3. classifications of homonyms.

I. Grouping of words is based upon similarities and contrasts. Taking up similarity of meaning and contrasts of phonetic shape we observe that every language has in its vocabulary a variety of words kindred in meaning but different in morphemic composition, phonemic shape and usage. The more developed the language is, the richer the diversity and therefore the greater the possibilities of lexical choice enhancing the effectiveness and precision of speech.

Synonyms can be defined as two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable at least in some contexts, without any alteration on the denotational meaning, but differing in the morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, affective value, style, valency and idiomatic use.

The words to annoy, to vex, to irk, to bother are synonyms. To annoy, to vex may mean both a non-intentional influence and an intentional one. To irk, to bother presuppose only the intentional influence. To annoy is a neutral word. To vex has a stronger shade. To bother presupposes the slightest reaction. The denotational meaning of all these words is the same: to make somebody a little angry by especially repeated acts. As it is seen from the example the synonymic group comprises a dominant element. This is the synonymic dominant, the most general term of its kind potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group. Or in the Ukrainian language the word бридкий is a synonymic dominant in the synonymic row: бридкий, огидний, гидкий, потворний, осоружний, негарний.

Criteria of synonymy:

Notional criterion: Synonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same notion but differing either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics.

Semantic criterion: In terms of componential analysis synonyms may be defined as words with the same denotation or the same denotative component but differing in connotations or in the connotative component.

The criterion of interchangeability: Synonyms are words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in the denotational meaning.

The majority of English words are polysemantic. The result of it is that one and the same word may belong in its various meanings to several synonymic groups.

e.g.: to appear may have the synonyms, to emerge, to come into sight and to look, to seem.

Absolute synonyms are very rare in the language. They are mostly different names for one and the same plant, animal, disease etc.

e.g.: luce – pike, compounding – composition, castor – beaver, алфавіт – абетка, буква – літера, процент – відсоток, площа – майдан, нагідки – календула.

In the course of time absolute synonyms come to have either a different shade of meaning or different usage. If two words exactly coincide in meaning and use the natural tendency is for one of them to change its meaning or drop out of the language.

Ideographic synonyms differ from each other in shades of meaning. Synonyms of this kind are very numerous in the English language. In such synonyms we can easily find the general and the particular. The general connects such synonyms into one group, makes them representatives of one concept whereas the particular allows every synonym of the group to stress a certain feature of the concept. Thus all the synonyms express the concept in all its many-sided variety and completeness.

Not all ideographic synonyms are of the same kind. We can distinguish between those which are very close in their meanings (horrible – terrible, screech – shriek), synonyms which differ in meaning considerably. Thus, interpreter and translator denote the same concept of a person rendering the expressions of one language into the expressions of another but the oral side of the work is associated with the interpreter whereas the translator is connected with writing. Both ladder and stairs denote a set of parallel bars used for climbing up but ladder is associated with a rope contrivance or a portable device consisting of two beams crossed by a set of parallel bars while stairs represents a permanent arrangement mostly within a building, of blocks of wood or slabs of marble joined to form a long series of steps, stairway or staircase.

Among verbs we find ideographic synonyms which differ in the manner of the action expressed by the verb: to look (the synonymic dominant), to glance (to look quickly), to gaze (to look with surprise, curiosity), to stare (to look fixedly), to regard (to look attentively), to view (to look searchingly), to eye (to look from head to foot), to peep (to look stealthily).

Synonyms can differ in the degree of a given quality, in the intensity of the action performed or the intensity of the emotions: to want – to desire – to long for; to ask – to beg – to pray; to work – to toil – to slave.

Synonyms can also differ in the emotional colouring: big – great; boy – lad.

Synonyms can differ in the volume of the concept they express: border – frontier. Border is wider in meaning than frontier for the latter means mostly a state border whereas border is any limit, edge, etc. Happy is wider than lucky which implies only happy circumstances attending one’s undertakings.

There are synonyms where one expresses continuity of action or state while the other expresses a momentary action of the same nature: to speak – to say; to remember – to memorise.

Ukrainian scholars call such synonyms semantic: хата – дім – будинок, череда – отара – зграя.

Stylistic synonyms do not differ in shades of their common meaning. They differ in usage and style: doctor (official) – doc (familiar); to commence (official) – to begin (neutral). They also show the attitude of the speaker towards the event, object or process described: to die – to depart, to expire – to kick the bucket; говорити – балакати, базікати; ходити – шкандибати, дибати, пхатися, читальний зал – читалка, здібний – кмітливий.

Ukrainian scholars distinguish between semantic-stylistic synonyms: архітектор – зодчий.

Phraseological synonyms are those which do not necessarily differ materially in their meanings or stylistic value. They differ in their combinative power. Thus, in such groups as few – little, many – much we can speak not so much of any immediate difference in the meanings of words as of their difference in application (much time – little water; many children – much air). We say a sunny day, a moonlit night but we should use the solar system, a lunar eclipse.

Phraseological synonyms can replace each other in some combinations but are not interchangeable in others. Use and benefit are synonyms in such expressions as public use, public benefit whereas they are no longer synonyms and cannot replace each other in expressions like I have no use for such books, or He was given the benefit of the doubt. Перед, напередодні cease to be synonyms if they are used in the context: перед мостом, напередодні свята.

Contextual synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. The verbs to bear, to suffer and stand are semantically different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form.

One of the sources of synonymy is borrowings. In Modern English a great number of synonyms serve to differentiate the meanings of words, their colloquial or bookish character. Most of bookish synonyms are of foreign origin, while popular and colloquial words are mostly native. Many native synonyms were either restricted or ousted by foreign terms.

e.g.: The native word heaven has been more and more restricted to the figurative and religious use for the Danish word sky began to be used exclusively in the meaning of the blue above us though originally sky meant only cloud. The Danish word call has ousted the Old English word heitan, the French word army ousted the native word here.

Shifts of meaning can lead to the appearance of synonyms: knave and villain once were not synonyms but their meanings degradated and they became synonyms.

Shortening can result in the appearance of synonyms: advertisement – ad; examination – exam.

Conversion can be a source of synonymy: a corner – to corner.

II.Words with diametrically opposite meanings are called antonyms. We find antonyms among words denoting:

- quality: hard – soft; good – bad; здоровий – кволий;

- state: clean – dirty; wealth – poverty; чистий – брудний;

- manner: quickly – slowly; willingly – unwillingly; швидко – повільно;

- direction: up – down; here – there; тут – там;

- action or feeling: to smile – to frown; to love – to hate; любити – ненавидіти;

- features: tall – short; beautiful – ugly; високий – низький.

Words which do not have relative features do not have antonyms.

Antonyms have traditionally been defined as words of opposite meanings. This definition is not sufficiently accurate, as it only shifts the problem to the question of what words may be regarded as words of opposite meanings. Two words are considered antonyms if they are regularly contrasted in actual speech. A regular and frequent co-occurrence in such contexts is the most important characteristic feature of antonyms.

Another criterion is the possibility of substitution and identical lexical valency. Members of the same antonymic pair reveal nearly identical spheres of collocation.

e.g.: The adjective hot in its figurative meanings angry and excited is chiefly combined with unpleasant emotions (anger, scorn) . Its antonym cold occurs with the same words. But hot and cold are used in combinations with the emotionally neutral words fellow, man, but not with the nouns implying positive evaluation friend, supporter.

Antonyms form binary oppositions, the distinctive feature of which is semantic polarity; its basis is regular co-occurrence in typical contexts combined with approximate sameness of distribution and stylistic and emotional equivalence.

Antonyms can be divided into two groups: those which are formed with the help of negative affixes (derivational) and those which are of different roots. There are affixes in English which impart to the root the meaning of either the presence or the absence of a certain quality, property or state.

The most productive antonym-forming negative prefixes are un- (unhappy, unimportant), mis-(misfortune, misunderstanding). In the Ukrainian language that is the prefix не-(неправда, неволя). The prefix без- is also rather productive: безстрашний, безлад).

Antonym-forming suffixes impart to the word the meaning of the presence or absence of the quality or feature indicated by the root. The most productive antonym-forming suffixes are –ful,-less: fruitful – fruitless; hopeful – hopeless.

The second group (antonyms proper) includes words of different roots: day – night; rich – poor, радість – горе, дружити – ворогувати.

Considered in meaning antonyms can be divided into absolute, phraseological and complex.

Absolute antonyms are diametrically opposite in meaning and remain antonyms in any word-combinations. These are mostly found among negative affix-formed antonyms.

Phraseological antonyms. When they become components of phraseological groups or compound words they sometimes lose their absolutely antonymic nature.

e.g.: to give –to take: to give a book – to take a book but to give way will not have to take way as its antonym.

Phraseological antonyms cannot be used in parallel antonymic expressions indiscriminately. We can say The books are alike - The books are different but we cannot say an alike book though we do say a different book.

Complex antonyms are those polysemantic words that have different antipodes for their various meanings.

e.g.: Soft has such meanings as

- not hard, yielding (soft seat, soft nature);

- not loud, subdued (soft voice, soft colours);

- mild, not severe (soft climate, soft punishment).

Naturally all these meanings will find different words for antipodes:

- hard (hard seat, hard nature);

- loud, harsh (loud voice, harsh colours);

- severe (severe climate, severe punishment).

The Ukrainian word сухий can have the following antonyms: мокрий, м’який, повний, емоційний.

III. Considering the word from the viewpoint of its semantic relations with other words we submit to our examination words having the same form but quite differing in meaning or homonyms. Saying the same form we must add that the identity of form may be complete or partial.

There are perfect homonyms, that is words having entirely different meanings but absolutely identical in spelling and sound: ball – м’яч; ball – тюлень; деркач – птах, деркач – віник; бал – вечір танців, бал - оцінка.

Partial homonyms are of two types: homographs and homophones. Homographs are words identical in spelling but different in sound and meaning: bow [bou] – bow [bau], row [rou] – row [rau], о'бід - 'обід, за'мок -'замок. Homophones are the words identical in sound but different in spelling and meaning: knight – night; piece – peace; цеглина – це глина, потри – по три.

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

Historical homonyms are those which result from the breaking up of polysemy; then one polysemantic word will split up in two or more separate words.

e.g.: plant (рослина) – plant (завод); pupil (учень) – pupil (зрачок).

But sometimes it is difficult to decide whether all connection between the meanings of such words is lost and even the compilers of dictionaries hesitate how to treat such words.

Etymological homonyms are words of different etymology which come to be alike in sound or spelling. Various causes explain their appearance. Among these phonetical changes both in native and borrowed words played a great role.

e.g.: can (могти) - Old English cunnan (знати);

can (банка) – Old English canne (банка);

here (тут) – Old English her (тут);

to hear (чути) – Old English hieran (чути).

Sometimes a native word and a borrowed word coincide in form, thus producing homonyms.

e.g.: to bark (гавкати) – Old English beorcan and bark (кора дерева) from Scandinavian borkr (баркас). Or the Ukrainian word мул (дрібні частинки у водоймах) coincided with мул (назва тварини, which is a Latin word).

In other cases homonyms are a result of borrowing when several different words became identical in sound and/or in spelling.

e.g.: The Latin word vitim (wrong, an immoral habit) has given the English vice (порок), the Latin word vitis (a spiral) has given the English word vice (лещата). The Latin word vice (instead, in place) is found in vice-president.

In the Ukrainian language the word гриф (міфічна істота, which is a borrowing from Greek), гриф (частина струнного музичного інструмента, a borrowing from German), гриф (штемпель на документі,a borrowing from French).

Considering homonyms in their morphological aspect prof. Smirnitsky classifies them into lexical and lexico-grammatical. Lexical homonyms are of two types: perfect and partial. Perfect homonyms belong to the same part of speech with all forms coinciding: case (випадок) – case (сумка). Partial homonyms belong to the same part of speech but coincide only in some of their forms: to lie -–lay – lain; to lie – lied – lied. Lexico-grammatical homonyms are represented by:

a) words belonging to the same part of speech but homonymic in their grammatical forms (excluding their initial forms): bore -to bore (the Past Indefinite of to bear);

b) words belonging to different parts of speech and homonymic only in some of their forms: I – to eye; nose – knows.

**TYPES OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS**

Points for discussion:

1. Definition of phraseological units. Ways of forming phraseological units.

2. Semantic classification of phraseological units (V.V. Vinogradov).

3. Structural classification of phraseological units (A.I. Smirnitskyi).

4. Syntactical classification of phraseological units (I.V. Arnold).

I. The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms». We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith «Words and Idioms», V.Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

Phraseological units can be classified according to the ways they are formed, according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning, according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning.

A.V. Kunin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.

Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group :

a) Most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g. in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is «стартовая площадка» , in its transferred meaning - «отправной пункт», «to link up» - «cтыковаться, стыковать космические корабли» in its tranformed meaning it means -«знакомиться»;

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e.g. «granny farm» - «пансионат для престарелых», «Troyan horse» - «компьюторная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера»;

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration , e.g. «a sad sack» - «несчастный случай», «culture vulture» - «человек, интересующийся искусством», «fudge and nudge» - «уклончивость».

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e.g. «My aunt!», « Hear, hear !» etc

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. «odds and ends» was formed from «odd ends»,

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. «in brown study» means «in gloomy meditation» where both components preserve their archaic meanings,

g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. «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,

h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. «to have butterflies in the stomach» - «испытывать волнение», «to have green fingers» - »преуспевать как садовод-любитель» etc.

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or polititions in everyday life, e.g. «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, e.g. «to vote with one’s feet» was converted into «vote with one’s f eet»;

b) changing the grammar form, e.g. «Make hay while the sun shines» is transferred into a verbal phrase - «to make hay while the sun shines»;

c) analogy, e.g. «Curiosity killed the cat» was transferred into «Care killed the cat»;

d) contrast, e.g. «cold surgery» - «a planned before operation» was formed by contrasting it with «acute surgery», «thin cat» - «a poor person» was formed by contrasting it with «fat cat»;

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings e.g. from the proverb «You can’t make a silk purse out of a sow’s ear» by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit «to make a sow’s ear» was formed with the meaning «ошибаться».

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g. « 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.

II. Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units:

a) fusions where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, e.g. on Shank’s mare - (on foot), at sixes and sevens - (in a mess) etc;

b) unities where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), e.g. to play the first fiddle ( to be a leader in something), old salt (experienced sailor) etc;

c) collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, e.g. cash and carry - (self-service shop), in a big way (in great degree) etc.

III. Prof. A.I. Smirnitskyi worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

Among one-top units he points out three structural types:

a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type), e.g. to art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in etc.;

b) units of the type «to be tired» . Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositons with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions «by» or «with», e.g. to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at etc. There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type «to be young», e.g. to be akin to, to be aware of etc. The difference between them is that the adjective «young» can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar centre and the second component is the semantic centre;

c) prepositional- nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs , that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part, e.g. on the doorstep (quite near), on the nose (exactly), in the course of, on the stroke of, in time, on the point of etc. In the course of time such units can become words, e.g. tomorrow, instead etc.

Among two-top units A.I. Smirnitskyi points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal such as: a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one’s neck and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, e.g. high road, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, e.g. first night. In many cases both components are idiomatic, e.g. red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and many others.

b) verb-nominal phraseological units, e.g. to read between the lines , to speak BBC, to sweep under the carpet etc. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component, e.g. to fall in love. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic centre, e.g. not to know the ropes. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, e.g. to burn one’s boats, to vote with one’s feet, to take to the cleaners’ etc.

Very close to such units are word-groups of the type to have a glance, to have a smoke. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect.

c) phraseological repetitions, such as : now or never, part and parcel , country and western etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, e.g. ups and downs , back and forth; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g cakes and ale, as busy as a bee. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic, e.g. cool as a cucumber (partly), bread and butter (perfectly).

Phraseological units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), e.g. to take a back seat, a peg to hang a thing on, lock, stock and barrel, to be a shaddow of one’s own self, at one’s own sweet will.

IV. Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I.V. Arnold. Here we have the following groups:

a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets;

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. to break the log-jam, to get on somebody’s coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out , to make headlines;

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, e.g. loose as a goose, dull as lead;

d) adverb phraseological units, such as : with a bump, in the soup, like a dream, like a dog with two tails;

e) preposition phraseological units, e.g. in the course of, on the stroke of;

f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. «Catch me!», «Well, I never!» etc.

In I.V.Arnold’s classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quatations, e.g. «The sky is the limit», «What makes him tick», » I am easy». Proverbs are usually metaphorical, e.g. «Too many cooks spoil the broth», while sayings are as a rule non-metaphorical, e.g. «Where there is a will there is a way».

**Socially, Stylistically and Functionally Distinguished Classes of Words**

The social principle is typologically relevant for the systemic arrangement and classification of lexicon. Aaccording to this principle the dialectal layer of lexicon is distinguished. Thus, one of the most characteristic territorial differences in the lexicon of English dialects is the London cockney with its distinguishing use of/h/ in several words with initial vowels as in hopen for open, hup for up, hus for us, etc. In some other words with the initial /h/ this sound is also omitted in speech fcf. am for ham, ill for hill, ‘Arry for Harry). The concluding /g / in cockney is often omitted too as in doin’, readin’, mornin’, etc.

Clearly distinguished is also the Scottish dialect that once had claims, due to Allen Ramsay’s and R. Burns’ poetic works, to functioning for some time as a literary English variety. Besides, the Irish dialect and some others can still be clearly distinguished on the British Isles.

Dialectal differences are also observed in Ukrainian, the most distinguishing of them being Western, Northen and Central regional dialects. In western Hutsul dialects, for instance, дэдя and нянько are used for father, верховина for uplands; in Halych region когут is used for півень, вуйко for uncle (дядько), вуйна for дядина, файний for гарний, etc. Nevertheless, the difference between the Ukrainian dialects and literary standard Ukrainian is never so striking as it is between cockney and Standard English or, for example, between literary German and its dialectal variations. That is why the dialectal lexicon or dialectal phonetics and other aspects of dialectal English, Ukrainian, German and other languages is always in the focus of typologists' attention.

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

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

A disregardingor contemptuous attitude may express also such words as *bike* *велосипед ("велик"), toned up замкнений ("заціпа"), Aussie австралієць ("австралійцик"), mondayish небажання працювати після вихідного ("понеділок* –  *важкий день")* and some other words and expressions.

Often equivalent in English and Ukrainian are also low colloquialisms – vituperative words and phrases (лайливі слова та вирази) like *goddamn, hell, rat,* *swine, cad, pig, skunk, stink-pot* and others. In Ukrainian: *чорт, зараза,прокляття, свиня, гадюка, смердюк/смердючка;* obscene/dirty words(непристойні слова) as *shit, piss and corruption* (expression), *shit,* *лайно*.

Functionally similar to them are vulgarisms which, like the previous group of low colloquialisms, are practically universal by their nature. These are used in oral speech in the main, though vulgarisms may sometimes occur (for stylistic reasons) in written speech as well. Cf. *bum* *зад,* *задниця; punch* *пузо/барило,* *жлукто;* *mug рило/морда; stinkard смердюк/смердючка; cad тварюка; kiss off тягни (свої) ноги (звідси); bastard вилупок, байстрюк; hound собака, негідник,* etc.

Common by nature are jargonisms and argotisms that seem to belong to absolute universals as well. Like all other low colloquialisms, they may sometimes have not only semantic but also stylistic equivalents in different languages. It goes without saying, however, that they are not necessarily of the same structural form as can be seen from the following examples: *beaky* *носатий/* *носач* *(шнобель), lemon негарна дівчина, довічно ув’язнений, to beef скиглити ("скавулити"), governor dambxo (cf. the Ukrainian "предок"), beans (brass, dibs, dough, off) гроші ("лимони"),* etc.

There are some other stylistically distinct subclasses of lexicons in the contrasted languages, such as professional words, scientific, poetic, bookish words, etc. Common in English and Ukrainian are the following professionalisms and terms: *reaping (or harvesting)* *косовиця* *(жнива), threshing* *молотьба, sowing сівба, electrician електрик, electric train електропоїзд/електричка, school practice педагогічна практика, tutorial(n) консультація (зустріч із науковим керівником), translation practice перекладацька практика; to lecture читати лекції, to have workshops (Amer.) проводити семінарські заняття; to take* *exams/examinations складати іспит, a sharing experience lesson показовий урок/заняття з обміну досвідом.*

Professionalisms and terms are also used in both contrasted languages in the same speech styles. Sometimes they may even acquire the same implied meaning in English and Ukrainian. Cf. *an equalizer,забитий у відповідь гол/розквітання* *"зрівняти рахунок", a right-hander (boxing) удар правою рукою/підступний вчинок, to keep one s powder dry тримати порох сухим у порохівниці, to heal the wounds/to repair damage загоїти/"залізати рани".*

Identical by nature though not always of identical lingual form are various scientific, social and political terms used in English and Ukrainian in the same speech styles and representing the same spheres of national economy or state affairs. Cf. *politics* *політика, cybernetics* *кібернетика, finance* *фінанси, but* *proton протон, morpheme морфема, suffix суфікс, bacterial бактеріальний, medical медичний,* etc.

The scientific lexicon implies also several loaninternationalisms as *equation* *рівняння, identity* *тотожність, conductor провідник/громовідвід; summation, підсумування, subtraction, віднімання, outer space міжпланетний простір, living standard/standard of living oжиттєвий рівень,*etc*.*

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

a) bookish words which do not always correlate stylistically in English and Ukrainian. As a result, there are words/word-groups which are bookish only in English or only in Ukrainian. Cf. in the English language: contrariety протилежність/несумісність, disenable робити нездатним/скалічити, forthright чесний, brumal зимовий (сплячка), interagent посередник (агент), licit законний/дозволений, lacerate рвати (калічити, нівечити), maladiction прокляття, malefactor лиходій/злочинець, etc.

Bookish only in Ukrainian are *властолюбство/властолюбний, power ambition/power ambitious, возз’єднання reunification, всесилля unrestricted power, консекветний consequent, конфідеціальний confidential, людомор assassin/man-slayer, etc.*

Many word-groups and words having a bookish nature (both semantic, stylistic and lingual) in the contrasted languages are actually internationalisms originating from one common source language. E.g: *amangation* *еманація, Hellenic еллінський, macaronic макаронічний, macaronism макаронізм*, etc.

b) Poetic words and expressions form a stylistically common, though semantically not always coinciding subgroup of lexicon in English and Ukrainian as well. Poetic words split into two clearly distinguished groups:

1. words/word-groups displaying their poetic nature already at language level, i.e. when singled out;
2. words/word-groups acquiring their poetic tinge in a micro- or macrotext only. Thus, the following English words and word-groups are always poetic: *affright* *(frighten), Albion (England), Caledonia (Scotland), adore (to worship), anarch (leader of an uprising/revolt), babe (baby), harken (hear), shrill (shriek), steed* *(horse), mash (admire), the Bard of Avon (Shakespeare), pass away (die), uncouth (strange), ye (you), the main (ocean), the brow (forehead), the kine (cow),* etc.Similarly in Ukrainian whose poetisms are sometimes distinctly marked by their slightly archaic nature or by their Old Slav origin: *вольний,* *враг,* *злото,дівчинонька, козаченько, кормиг (ярмо), криця (крицевий), лжа (неправда), ліпа (роки), перса, чоло,* etc.

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

Apart from these there are some more common minute groups of stylistically marked words and word-groups in English and Ukrainian lexicons among them is archaisms, i. e. old forms of words/word-groups, which are mainly used in poetic works or in solemn speech: *algazel (gazelle), avaunt (out), batoon (baton), dicacity* *(talkativeness, mockery), eke (also), gyves (fetters), mere (pond, lake), a micle (much), parlous (perilous), peradventure (probably, perhaps), well nigh (almost, nearly), thee (you sing.), thou (you plur.), thy (your), ye (you), yonder (there), hereto (to this matter), therefrom (from that), therein (in that place), thereupon (upon that), whereof (of which).* To this group also belong some participles endingin - en: *a sunken ship, a drunken/drunk man, a shorn lamb; adverbs and set* *expressions as oft (often), all told, i.e. all counted*, etc. The most frequently usedarchaisms in Ukrainian are as follows: *бард* *(Боян,* *поет),* *брань* *(ьитва),* *глас (голос), град (місто), гаківниця (гармата), комоні (коні), пахалок (прислужник), спудей (студент), ланіти (щоки), гостиниця (готель), глагол (слово), рать (військо, битва) пііт (поет), списник (мечник, лучник) колчан (чохол для стріл), and also: ректи зримо, воздвигати, вражий, лжа, много, узріти, очіпок, копа (шістдесят снопів, яєць), півкопи (тридцять), вершок, гони, лікоть (міри довжини); медок (напій), кваша (страва)* and severalothers.

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

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

Most denotitive words are stylistically neutral. The latter may be represented by the whole lexico-grammatical classes such as: pronouns (he, she, we, you) and numerals (five, ten, twenty), most of verbs (be, live, love), nouns (mother, sister, cow, horse), adjectives (blue, white, old, fat, urban, rural, young) and all adverbs (today, soon, well, slowly, then, there) and some others.

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

корова (коровисько), бицюра, вівця, баран, жаба, ворона/ґава.

3. Connotative words/word-groups directly or indirectly correlate with their natural denotata, eg: Albion (poet, for England), the Bard of Avon (Shakespeare); Кобзар (T. Shevchenko), Каменяр (1. Franko), дочка Прометея (Lesia Ukrainka) and some other. Connotative may become poetisms and neologisms.

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

1. ameliorative words: daddy, mummy, sissie, chivalrous, gentleman; мамуся,

татуньо, дідунь, козаченько, серденько, голівонька;

1. pejorative (лайливі) words: bastard, blackguard, clown, knave; байстрюк,

нікчема, негідник, покидько, головоріз, etc;

1. constantly neutral words and word-groups/expressions, eg.: smith, geometry, teacher, love, you, he, all, гімнастика/фізкультура, історія, вчитель, коваль, любити, ненавидіти, я , ти, ми, п’ять, десять, тут, там and a lot others.

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

**PART 2**

**ASSIGNMENTS FOR SEMINARS**

**Topic: Contrastive Lexicology as a Study of the Structure**

**and the Semantics of the Lexical Units in the Contrasted Languages**

**Points for discussion:**

1. The subject-matter and the tasks of contrastive lexicology.
2. Contrastive lexicology in relation to grammar, stylistics, phonetics, sociolinguistics.
3. Branches of lexicological studies: derivational lexicology, neology, phraseology, semaseology, onomastics, lexicography, phonosemantics, dialectology.
4. Methods of the analysis of the lexical units applied in contrastive lexicology.

**Recommended Literature:**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M.: Вища школа, 1986. – C.9-18, 56-59, 81-87.
2. Ginsburg R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology. – M: VS, 1979. – P.7-9.
3. Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – С.6-18.

**Topic: THE WORD AND ITS MEANING**

**Points for discussion:**

1. The notion of the word in contrastive lexicology: functions, the word as a significational sign, semiotic and semantic characteristics of the word.

2. The meaning of the word. Functional and referential approaches to the study of the meaning of the word. The correlation between the notion, the concept, the term, the meaning.

3. Types of the word meanings.

4. Types of the motivation of the word meaning.

**Recommended Literature:**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M.: Вища школа, 1986. – C.27-50.
2. Ginsburg R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology. – M: VS, 1979. – P.13-27.
3. Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – С.18-25.

**Practical assignment:**

1. ***State the type of the motivation of the English words (phonetic, morphological, semantic, syntactical ones):***

hub-hub, event, bluebell, repellant, flip-flap, crime, hide-and-seek, incognito, impracticability, pit-a-pat, why-do-I-know (look), fraternity, plane, fizzle-sizzle, man-of-war, prosperity, cherry-orchard, mud, intricacy, gunfire, kitchenware, likeability, click-clack, cruel-hearted, protagonist, fresh, environmentally-friendly, bleb-blob, head (of the procession), contextual, foot (of a mountain), amoeba, approximately, too-too, traveling-bag, fata morgana, indivisibility, to pop out, winter, ready-made-clothes (department), authoritative, night, delinquency, hiss,

calorie-intensive, unprecedented, moon, fortysomething, luminescent, detergent-free, moan, underestimation, flare, tongue, malnutrition.

***2. State the type of the motivation of the Ukrainian words (phonetic, morphological, semantic, syntactical ones):***

тьохнути, транспортна артерія, лукашенківці, редактор, біло-голубі і помаранчеві, бізнес-інкубація, головоломка, плюх-плюх, реконструкція, ветувати, що-що-кати, анатомічний, рупор правди (людина), світлиця, сичати, ляснути, арт-галерея, нафтопереробний, словоблуддя, гавань (любові), чорнуха (ягоди), повія, ретроград, умиротворення, Єрихонова труба, самозвеличення, снікерсуй, римейк, світотворення, червонолампасник (генерал), хабародавець, діагностика (автомобілів), фермеризувати, роїтися (думки), льотчик-винищувач.

1. ***Do Ex.5 on P.125-126 from the book “Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003.”.***

**Topic: WORD FORMATION IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN (1)**

**Points for discussion:**

1. The structure of the word. Types of morphemes and their specific features. Types of morphemes according to their position in the word. Semantic types of the morphemes: free, bound, functional, derivational ones. Structural types of the morphemes: simple, derived, compound.
2. Derivational word building of the nouns: contrastive analysis of the English and Ukrainian noun-building affixes.

3. Derivational word building of the adjectives: contrastive analysis of the English and Ukrainian adjective-building.

4. Derivational word building of the verbs: contrastive analysis of the English and Ukrainian verb-building affixes.

1. Derivational word building of the adverb: contrastive analysis of the English and Ukrainian adverb-building affixes.

**Recommended Literature:**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M.: Вища школа, 1986. – C.77-106.

2. Ginsburg R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology. – M: VS, 1979. – P.7-8; 9-126.

3. Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – С25-35.

4. Єнікєєва С. Формування відонімної лексики способом афіксації в сучасній англійській мові // Наукові записки Кіровоградського державного пед. ун-та імені В.Винниченка. Серія «Філологічні науки». – 2013. – Випуск 115. – С.450 – 455.

5. Демешко І. Словотвірна система української літературної мови в контексті антропоцентричної парадигми сучасної лінгвістики: морфонологічний аспект // Наукові записки Кіровоградського державного пед. ун-та імені В.Винниченка. Серія «Філологічні науки». – 2013. – Випуск 115. – С.476 – 480.

6. Скляніченко Г. Гібрідні похідні словотвірних типів, утворених за допомогою запозичених препозитивних елементів та питомих основ в англійській та українській мовах // Наукові записки Кіровоградського державного пед. ун-та імені В.Винниченка. Серія «Філологічні науки». – 2013. – Випуск 115. – С. 498 – 504.

**Practical assignment:**

1. Analyze the following lexical units according to their structure. Point out the function of morphemes. Speak about bound morphemes and free morphemes. Point out allomorphs in analyzed words:

accompany unsystematic forget-me-not

computerise expressionless reservation

de-restrict superprivileged moisture

lengthen clannish pleasure

beautify workaholic reconstruction

beflower inwardly counterculture

specialise moneywise three-cornered

round table Green Berets to sandwich in

2. Analyze the following derived words, point out suffixes and prefixes and classify them from different points of view:

to embed nourishment unsystematic

to encourage inwardly to accompany

translatorese dispensable clannishness

to de-restrict workaholic jet-wise

reconstruction to overreach thouroughly

afterthought foundation childishness

transgressor to re-write completenik

gangsterdom pleasure concentration

refusenik counter-culture brinkmanship

allusion self-criticism to computerise

slimster reservation translation

**Topic: WORD FORMATION IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN (2)**

**Points for discussion:**

1. Сonversion.

2. Composition.

3. Shortening, back-formation, blending, stress interchange, sound imitation, gradation.

4. Modern lexical innovations in the systems of Ukrainian and English.

**Recommended Literature:**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M.: Вища школа, 1986. – C.108 – 164.

2. Ginsburg R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology. – M: VS, 1979. – P.127 – 158.

3. Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – С25 – 35.

4. Татаранюк С.П. Основні способи утворення неологізмів сфери екології людини // Науковий вісник Волинського національного університету імені Лесі Українки. Філологічні науки. Мовознавство. – 2011. – № 6. – Частина 2. – С. 206 – 210.

**Practical assignment:**

1. Analyse the following compound words:

note-book speedometer son-in-law

to job-hop brain-gain video-corder

fair-haired forget-me-not Anglo-Russian

teach-in back-grounder biblio-klept

theatre-goer well-dressed bio-engineer

to book-hunt mini-term to baby-sit

blood-thirsty good-for-nothing throw-away

do-gooder skin-head kleptomania

sportsman para-trooper airbus

bus-napper cease-fire three-cornered

tip-top brain-drain bread-and-butter

2. Analyse the following lexical units:

to eye a find to slim

a grown-up to airmail steel helmet

London season resit sleep

a flirt a read handout

to weekend a build-up supersonics

a non-formal to wireless to submarine

to blue-pencil to blind - the blind - blinds

distrust a jerk to radio

news have-nots the English

to co-author to water to winter

a sit-down mother-in-law morning star

undesirables a walk a find

dislike log cabin finals

3. Analyse the following lexical units:

aggro / aggression / Algol /algorythmic language /

apex /eipeks/ - advanced purchased excursion/ payment for an excursion ninety days before the time of excursion/

A-day /announcement Day - day of announcing war/

AID / artifitial insemination by a donor/

AIDS / acquired immunity deficiency syndrome/

Ala / Alabama/ a.s.a.p. /as soon as possible/

bar-B-Q ,barb /barbecue/ to baby-sit / baby-sitter/

A-level /advanced level/ BC /birth certificate/

burger /hamberger/ Camford, Oxbridge

CALL /computer-assisted language learning/

CAT /computer-assisted training/

cauli / cauliflower/ COD / cash on delivery/

E-Day /entrance day //Common Market/ expo/exposition/

edbiz/ educational business/ el-hi / elementary and high

schools/, ex lib/ex libris/ /from the library of/

etc Euratom fax /facsimile/

G-7 / group of seven: GB, Germany, Japan, France, Canada, Italy, Spain/. FORTRAN /formula translation/.

**Topic: Origin and Etymological Layers of English and Ukrainian**

**Points for discussion:**

1. Etymological strata of the Ukrainian vocabulary: Indo-European lexicon, lexis of the primitive Slavonic language, words of Ukrainian proper, borrowings from Turkic languages, classic languages, French, Italian, German, English – periods and spheres of denotation and functioning.
2. Etymological strata of the English vocabulary: Indo-European lexicon, Germanic lexis, words of English proper, early and late borrowings from the Scandinavian languages, classic languages, Spanish, French, Italian, the Oriental languages – periods and spheres of denotation and functioning.
3. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed.
4. Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect: phonetic borrowings, semantic borrowings, translation loans, morphemeic borrowings, hybrids.
5. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation: fully assimilated borrowings, partly assimilated borrowings, barbarisms. Borrowings partly assimilated semantically, grammatically, phonetically and graphically.

**Recommended Literature:**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M.: Вища школа, 1986. – C.32 – 40.

2. Ginsburg R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology. – M: VS, 1979. – P.160 – 175.

3. Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – С. 120 – 124.

4. Воскобойник Г.М. Запозичення як один із пріоритетних шляхів поповнення лексичного фонду латино мовної зоологічної номенклатури // Науковий вісник Волинського національного університету імені Лесі Українки. Філологічні науки. Мовознавство. – 2011. – № 6. – Частина 2. – С.122 – 128.

**Practical assignment:**

1. Do Ex. 43 – 46 *from* Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003.

2. Analyse the following borrowings:

school represent sky-blue

degree rhythm immobility

chandelier the Zoo vase

mot /mou/ hybrid bouffant

illuminate keenly communicative

possessiveness to reproach command

moustache gifted boutique

skipper cache-pot well-scrubbed

nouveau riche emphatic mysteriously

dactyl Nicholas group

to possess chenile psychological

garage guarantee contempt

trait/trei/ triumph stomach

sympathy cynical Philipp

schoolboy Christianity paralyzed

system hotel cyclic

diphtheria kerchief dark-skinned

**Topic: Semantic Classes of the Words in English and Ukrainian**

**Points for discussion:**

1. Definition and classification of synonyms.

2. Definition and classification of antonyms.

3. Definition and classification of homonyms.

**Recommended Literature:**

1. Ginsburg R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology. – M: VS, 1979. – P. 39 – 43.

2. Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – С. 67 – 97.

3. Скорейко-Свірська І.П. Освоення англомовних науково-технічних термінів в українській мові у контексті явищ полісемії та омонімії // Науковий вісник Волинського національного університету імені Лесі Українки. Філологічні науки. Мовознавство. – 2011. – № 6. – Частина 2. – С. 202 – 206.

**Practical assignment:**

1. Analyze the following lexical units applying the above mentioned classifications of homonyms and antonyms:

present – absent, present – to present

like, to like – to dislike – dislike

sympathy – antipathy

progress – to progress, regress – to regress

success – failure, successful – unsuccessful

left – left/to leave/, right adj. – right n.

inflexible – flexible

unsafe – safe adj. – safe n.

fair n. – fair adj. unfair, foul

piece – peace

dark-haired – fair-haired

a row – a row /rou/ – /rau/

superiority – inferiority

different – similar, indifferent, alike, difference – similarity

meaningful– meaningless

after prep. – before –before adv., before conj.

to gossip– a gossip

shapeless - shapy

bright – dim, dull, sad

to fasten – to unfasten

something – nothing

eldest – oldest –youngest

unaccustomed – accustomed

to exclude – to include

to conceal – to reveal

too – too – two

somewhere – nowhere

2. Do Ex. 28 – 30 *from* Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003.

**Topic: PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS**

**Points for discussion:**

1. The problem of phraseological units definitions.
2. Semantic classification of phraseological units (V.V. Vinogradov).
3. Structural classification of phraseological units (A.I. Smirnitskyi).
4. Syntactical classification of phraseological units (I.V. Arnold).

**Recommended Literature:**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M.: Вища школа, 1986. – C.165–179.

2. Ginsburg R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology. – M: VS, 1979. – P.74–86.

3. Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – С.98 –120.

4. Янчук К. Компаратина фразеологічна одиниця як лінгвістичний феномен // Наукові записки Кіровоградського державного пед. ун-та імені В.Винниченка. Серія «Філологічні науки». – 2013. – Випуск 115. – С. 355 – 360.

**Practical assignment:**

1. Analyze the following phraseological units according to their meaning, structure, syntactical function:

When pigs fly /never/. To leap into marriage.

To be a whipping boy. To be behind scenes.

Girl Friday /a man’s assistant/. Fire in the belly.

Man Friday /a true friend/. A dear John.

To be on the beam. Game, set and match.

Country and western. To jump out of one’s skin.

As smart as paint. It’s my cup of tea.

Robin Crusoe and Friday / seats at a theatre divided by a passage/. Fortune favours fools. To be in the dog house.

The green power. Green Berets.

Culture vulture. To get off one’s back.

To make headlines. On the nose.

With a bump. To have a short fuse.

To vote with one’s feet. Nuts and bolts.

Blackboard jungle. The sky is the limit.

Cash and carry. To nose out.

To sandwich in. Berlin wall.

A close mouth catches no flies. To speak BBB.

To sound like a computer. As dull as lead.

Last but not least. On the stroke of.

**Topic: Socially, Stylistically and Functionally Distinguished Classes of Words**

**Points for discussion:**

1. Styles differentiated in Ukrainian and English: formal, neutral, informal, low. Styles of speech and language: debatable issues. Lofty (bombastic) speech register versus bureaucratic ones differentiated in Ukrainian official speech.
2. Lexis of the official style: bookish words, terms, words of official papers, poetic ones, tender ones, high flown ones, archaic ones, folk and epic words in Ukrainian and English. The phenomenon of malapropism.
3. Informal style: colloquial words, words of everyday use, dialectal words, patois in Ukrainian and English. Characteristics of the style according to recurrence and norm criteria.
4. Substandard in a language: social and lingual factors facilitating its functioning. Criteria to differentiate between colloquial and slang words. Slang discourses common to English and Ukrainian: school, youth, newspaper, political, computer ones. Slang and jargon words in comparison in both languages. The spheres of denotation.
5. Cross-cultural etiquette: taboo words, argot words, vulgarisms in correlation to social and language norms. Comparative analysis of the semantics, structure of the words of this stratum and the spheres of their functioning.

6. Dialects as the colloquial variant of a literary language. Dialects versus regional variants of a language.

**Recommended Literature:**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M.: Вища школа, 1986. – C. 240–252, 262 – 272 .

2. Ginsburg R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology. – M: VS, 1979. – P.195–209.

3. Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – С. 54 – 67.

**Practical assignment:**

1. Do Ex. 21 – 22 *from* Верба В.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003.

**Part 3**

**Assignments for students’ self-study work**

**Topic: OBJECTS AND OBJECTIVES OF COMPARATIVE LEXICOLOGY**

**Self-Control Tasks and Exercises:**

1. What is the subject matter of Contrastive Lexicology?
2. What types of lexical investigations can be differentiated?
3. What linguistic sciences does Lexicology contribute to?
4. Give a short prehistory of European contrastive typology.
5. What methods of linguistic research can be used in Contrastive Lexicology? Comment upon the aims of their application.

**Topic: THE WORD AND ITS MEANING**

**Self-Control Tasks and Exercises:**

1 . In what way can one analyse a word a) socially, b) linguistically?

1. What are the structural aspects of the word?
2. What is the external structure of the word *irresistable?* What is the internal structure of this word?
3. Give a brief account of the main characteristics of a word.
4. What are the main problems of lexicology?
5. What are the main differences between studying words syntagmatically and paradigmatically?
6. Point to the correlation of the phonetic/phonological, morphological, and semantic types of motivation in the lexical units of English and Ukrainian.

8. *Explain the motivation of the words in italics. Give their Ukrainian equivalent:.*

1.Harry *hissed* at her to be quiet and beckoned them all forward. (Rowling). 2. Something that should not be in salad, got stuck in my throat. No amount of clearing and *hurrumphing* could get rid of it and I stood up in a slight panic (Binchy). 3.1 was awakened quite suddenly by a kind of mindless *hooting* that sounded almost like laughter. (Eddings). 5. He watched me a lot after that, and he always *giggled* when I winked at him. (Eddings). 6. Even so, he managed some movement, painful though it was - and managed to *croak out* one word in such a way that, if any had been able to hear in that terrible room, there would be no mistaking its intent. (Chalker). 7. "Go away!" *barked* the voice from inside. "I don't want to see anybody! (Chalker). 8. As she made the curve, wheels *squealing,* she came in sight of the object, coming straight in toward her. (Chalker). 9. He drew a deep breath, and Tomas could hear it *rattle* in his throat. (Feist). 10. Whenever one of them thought of something, he *blurted* it out with no regard for what came before or after, or for who was saying what. (Jordan). 11. As dawn came, the silence was broken by the *crowing* of roosters and the *mooing* of cows, barnyard sounds incongruous in an urban setting.(Crichton). 12. She poured a kitten a saucer of milk. "Oh, look at the poor thing, it's starving," she *cooed.* (King). 13.1 think it (the cat) woke her up, *meowing.* (King). 14. No sound in the room but the peaceful *crackle* of the fire and the peaceful *purr* of the cat in his lap (King). 15. He could hear the approaching *wasp-whine* of an engine (King).

9. *Explain the morphological motivation of the words in italics. Give their Ukrainian equivalents:*

1. A man in the raincoat hurried up the walk, hatless. head bowed in the rain (Sandford). 2. "That's what I need," he said. "Some microsleep. Or better yet, some serious macrosleep." "Yes, we all do."(Crichton). 3. Matilda was a real good screamer. (Card). 4. He wasn't old; no, not even for a dog. But at five, he was well past his puppyhood. when even a butterfly had been enough to set off an arduous chase through the woods and meadows behind the house and barn. (King). 5. Something hot and pillowy seized my wrist.(King). 6.1 sat up against the pillows, rubbed my eyes, and saw a dark, shouldery shape standing between me and the window. (King). 7. His hair was a deep brown like his eyes, and his face was lean, hollow-cheeked. (Lumley). 8. He was soon satisfied that those high reaches of his house were untenanted except by spiders and by a small colony of wasps that had constructed a nest in a junction of rafters. (Koontz). 9. His glasses started to unfog then, and he saw the stranger on the couch.(King). 10. Live creatures can outthink a machine any time, if their power and speed is boosted to the machine's level. (Chalker). 11. He glanced down the table and saw the tape 'beginning to unspool in the machine to the right.(Gibson).

10. *Comment on the type of motivation in the names of the flowers:*

waterlilies, seaweed, marigold, primrose, dandelion, snowdrop, carnation, poppy, pansy, buttercup, cowslip, foxglove, meadowsweet, monk’s-hood, old man’s beard, oxlip, speedwell, sunflower, cornflower, sweetbriar, wallflower, wintergreen, yellow-cup;

наперстянка, коров’як, материнка, труйзілля, чарзілля, червона рута, ружа, синьоочка, пижмо, дивосил, чебрець, собачки, золотий вус, розторопша, мати-й-мачуха, грицики, подорожник, барвінок, нігтики, мальва, примула, васильки, череда, любисток, шавлія, тисячолисник, деревій, латаття.

11. *Analyse the transfer of meaning in the following examples:*

* the mouth of a river, Colt, all the town came to the meeting;
* seeds of evil, tongues of flame, mother tongue, bitter thoughts, sandwich, the house applauded;
* fruitful work, London is the heart of England, mackintosh, she is the pride of the family, a sour smile;
* the foot of a hill, in the heat of the argument, the kettle is boiling, boycott, madeira, she is our hope;
* blooming health,the wings of an aeroplane;
* fruitless effort, the neck of a bottle, a touching story, hooligan, bordeau, he succeeded to the crown;
* fading beauty, the leg of a table;
* the mouth of a cave, a sweet temper, she is the pride of the family, silhouette, the coffee-pot is boiling;
* the foot of a bed, thoughts wander, the mouth of a pot, gladstone bag, electricity.

**Topic: WORD-FORMATION IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN**

**Self-Control Tasks and Exercises:**

*1. Suggest all possible derivatives of the following words, determine the root morpheme in each:*

attract, author, breathe, character, civilize, class, consider, consume, construct, debate, decide, decor, develop, difference, effect, equal, examine, fame, hostile, host, image, impress, intend, invest, quality, know, navigate, norm, observe, occupy, oppose, refer, regular, respond, person, probe, produce, present, popular, prophet, sense, sympathetic;

блиск, боліти, бути, верх, віра, вода, возити, вчити, галузь, голод, два, двір, день, жити, звук, згубити, зоря, квітка, крило, кричати, літати, мова, небо, пищати, рана, рід, різати, роса, сам, світ, сипати, сніг, стан, старий, тин, читати, шити, цвіт.

*2. Make compounds or composites with the following combinatory forms:*

auto-, chrono-, demo-, homo-, photo-, tele-, hypo-, video-, ono(ma)-, -graph-, -scope, -phobia, astro-, mono-, cyber-, mega-, super-, -burger, hyper-, -friendly, -speak, -driven, -led, -intensive, -free, -proof, -abuse, -aid, -city, -compatible, -free, -holic, -line, -lout, -mail, -nomics, -person, -something, -size, -style, -watch;

гідро-, страт-, гіпер-, полі-, анти-, антропо-, термо-, гетеро-, хроно-, прото-, екстра-, псевдо-, лого-, гоміо-, нарко-, енерго-, іно-, етно-, еко-, дем-, теле-, арт-, біо-, мульт-, фарм-.

*3. Form nouns denoting agents or doers of the action with the following suffixes, give their Ukrainian or English counterparts, accordingly, and explain the level of semantic congruence between them:*

-er/-or, -ing, -ee, -ice, -ician / -ian, -ist, -ite, -ent, -ant;

-ар/ -яр, -ець/ -єць, -ач/ -яч, -тель, -ник, -ист/ -іст, -ант/ -ент, -ан, -ат, -ес, -ор.

*4. Derive the words with the help of diminutive suffixes:*

дорога, дитина, квітка, тихо, милий, око, дерево, риба, ясний, чемно, рясно, маля, хмара, дощ, чобіт, мама, тато, дочка, кіт, гуска, вікно, нога, серце, голос.

*5. Make words to illustrate the use of the diminutive suffixes in English:*

*-en, -et, -kin(s), -let, -ock.*

*6. Define the types of the word building processes in the following lexical units:*

to baby-sit, unreasonable, torchlight, eatable, merry-go-round, CNN, T-shirt, to buzz, a find, handicraft, lab, cello, fatalism, glamorama, cross-examination, tec, spects, a tune-up, a climb-down;

дендрологія, ойкати, стотридцятитисячний, нене (вигукова форма), неістотний, райрада, тендітненька, біоніка, мотель, прибережний, сш, етноцид, шелест (від: шелестіти), хруст (від: хрустіти), неформал, депи (депутати), спікеріада, мерс, Афган, жебракизація, доінтернетівський, шопінгувати, нафто-халявник.

*7. Define the type of the clipped words:*

ad, cello, maths, fridge, hanky, hi-fi, comfy, ft., V-day, Liz, pop, Kate, prefab, veggies, retro, teeny, chute, flue;

нардеп, євроінтеграція, комп, бус, шелест, начмед, АТС, Донбас, хім., порно, ГЕС.

*8. Refer the shortened words to one of the groups:*

*a) clipping b) blending c) abbreviation*

slimnastics, copter, ft, mo-dem, friuce, glassphalt,, helibus, stagflation, transceiver, spork, transistor, L-driver, A-bomb, Interpol, sci-fic, to vac;

мотель, ОБСЄ, кг, стор., банкомат, універ, нардеп, Укргазпром, гламорама, лаба, ДУСя, етноцид, біоніка, Промбудінвест, смог.

*9. State the way of word formation of the following innovations in English and Ukrainian:*

nanosatellite, nanotech, environmentally-friendly, couplehood, thrillerdom, netiquette, X-press, cradle-to-grave, just-in-time (politics), dot-comer, loadsamoney, nanny state, reporterette, spin-doctor, IT-friendly, ape-diet, salad-dodger, restaurateur, entrepreneur, guestworker, additive-free, twentysomething, market-driven, market-led, e-mail, barfmail, ecospeak psychobabble, milkaholic, eco-efficiency, fattyism, geneism, heterosexism, smokeism, e-school, e-business, T-shaped, CD reader, HIV-infected.

*10. Study the following acronyms and their homoforms functioning in current cyberlanguage:*

GAL (Get А Life); JAM (Just А Minute); HAND (Have А Nice Day); Tips (Terrorism Information and Prevention System); ELF (English as Lingua Franca); NOTE (Not over there, either); BANANA (Build Absolutely Nothing Anywhere Near Anything); CAM (Complementary and Alternative Medicine); SCORE (Special Claim on Residual Equity) also (System on Computerized Order Routing and Execution); STARS (Securities Transferred and Repackaged) also (Short-Term Auction-Rate Stock); CATS (Certificate of Accrual on Treasury Securities) also (Computer Assisted Trading System); BBS (Be Back Soon) also (Bulletin Board System); CU (See You) also (Cracking Up); CUL (See You Later) also (Catch You Later); G (Grin) also (Giggle); WN (What Now?) also (What Next?); WRT (With Respect To) also (With Regard To).

*11. Make the morphemic analysis of the words:*

deterrent, cerography, four-wheeled, encashment, germicide, inevitable, mispronunciation, indubitably, mistreated, misdemeanor, fairyism, faithfully, exaggerative, drapery, inflammability, fashionmonger, kind-heartedness, workmanship;

привселюдний, немічний, статечний, гарцювати, ретроспекція, запродажний, автомобільний, калейдоскоп, безпощадний, неапробо-ваний, відгомін, нездоланний, беззастережно, рекордсмен, прихиль-ний, просторіччя, безкомпромісний, звабливий, крівля, невгамовно, старослов’янський, навмисно, достеменно, прибічник, крадькома.

**Topic: Origin and Etymological Layers of English and Ukrainian**

**Self-Control Tasks and Exercises:**

*1. State the languages these words were borrowed from / into Ukrainian and English:*

sonata, datum, concentrate, macaroni, potato, tobacco, fatigue, gondola, cigar, cocoa, chauffer, rock, diagnosis, sloop, yacht, phenomenon, pogrom, balakaika, Cossack, wonder child, curriculum, autumn, etiquette, garage;

артрит, сонце, Бог, чай, маклер, терція, акваріум, персона нон грата, комюніке, франчайзинг, реінкарнація, фрахтувати, долоня, батько, вуста, інгибіціонізм.

*2. State the languages these words were borrowed from / into Ukrainian and English:*

balalaika, seraphim, tae kwondo, karaoke, Cossack, blitzkrieg, prima donna, tete-a′-tete, khan, bungalow, Ramadan, cliche′, crisis, nirvana, dolce vita, Messiah, amethyst, operetta, kvass;

мазурка, кунфу, маршал, гетьман, ігумен, хан, кенгуру, таксі, рандеву, де-факто, фата-моргана, балетмейстер, портмоне, дебют, тобоган, константа, гашиш, карма, інгибіціонізм.

*3. Determine the origin of the following international words:*

cocaine, epigram, monopolize, monograph, radio, vandal, sprint, ferment, gravity, leitmotif, samizdat, wolfram, pogrom, tweed, appetite, geisha, hidalgo, opossum, condor, Jacuzzi, khaki;

геній, криза, колібрі, монарх, авокадо, макарони, плебісцит, агент, вігвам, балет, тайфун, сквош, порцеляна, ортодоксальний, лейтенант, болеро, портик, томагавк, ікебана, орігамі.

**Topic: Semantic Classes of the Words in English and Ukrainian**

**Self-Control Tasks and Exercises:**

*1. Point to idiographic and stylistic synonyms in the following pairs of words:*

bold, valiant; firm, hard; think, deem; clothes, attire; first-rate, ace; revise, recapitulate; vanish, perish; wrong, faulty; inadequate, not up to scratch; chuckle, giggle, extract, deracinate; achievement, accomplishment; explosive, eruptive; latest, with-it; laugh, be in stitches; narcotic, downer; opinion, viewpoint; generous, lavish; to love, to canoodle; merciless, harsh; confusing, misleading; monastery, abbey; notability, celeb(rity); unbiased, bias-free; exhausting, tiring; inventor, creator; inoffensive, harmless; infinite, boundless; infatuation, calf love; rudeness, disrespect;

сміливий, відважний; анемія, недокрів’я; небосхил, виднокруг; хуртовина, завірюха; бешкетник, урвиголова; мовознавство, лінгвістика.

*2. State whether the underlined words are the synonymic dominant or the generic term in the groups of words:*

cry*,* bellow, roar, scream; complain, grouch, wail, grumble; emotion, anger, boredom, euphoria, joy; smell, aroma, odor, perfume; color, emerald, olive, pink, hazel; red, scarlet, crimson, maroon; enlarge, add, expand, extend, widen;

взуття, мокасини, кросівки, сандалі; просити, прохати, благати, молити; квітка, ружа, мальва, чорнобривець; швидко, хутко, вправно, мерщій; родина, батько, діти, тітка, прабатьки; захоплюватися, милуватися, зачаруватися, любуватися; дієслово, дієслово дії, дієслово процесу, дієслово стану.

*3. The following are the examples of the interlingual homophones that may account for the phenomenon of the false friends of the translator. Suggest proper translation equivalent of each word:*

action/ акція, actual/ актуальний, affair/ афера, aspirant/ аспірант, baton/ батон, billet/ білет, cabinet/ кабінет, camera/ камера (тюремна), complexion/ комплекція, cross/ крос (спорт.), diversion/ диверсія, mode/ мода, novel/ новела, obligation/ облігація, replica/ репліка, scholar/ школа, major/ майор, data/ дата, servant/ сервант, trainers/ тренери, physic/ фізик, capital/ капітальний, magazine/ магазин, fabric/ фабрика, intelligence/ інтелігенція, prospect/ проспект, compositor/ композитор, accurate/ акуратний, rapport/ рапорт, note/ нота, decay/ декада, study/ студія, politics/ політики, cereal/ серіал, objective/ об’єктивний, storm/ шторм, genie/ геній, mascara/ маскарад, topic/ топік (предмет одягу), modal/ модель, palate/ палітра, regiment/ режим, bizarre/ бізе, censure/ цензура, terrier/ терорист.

*4. Classify the following pairs of words into: a)absolute homonyms, b)homophones c) homographs:*

refuse, sole, soul/ sole, wind, rein/ reign, mean, here/hear, fair, wound, sale/ sail, tear, sweet/ suite, firm, row, knew/ new, bore, won/ one, lead, site/ sight, pours/ paws, bar, effect, pale/ pail, primary, quarter;

замок, озера, черговий, дорога, деревина, на березі, гори, коса, лава, рукав, ключ, бі(л)ль, біл(и/і)ти, коти***,*** лист, л(е/и)жи, пікет, качка, гам(м)а.

*5. To each of the words below supply per one derivational and semantic antonym:*

power, important, respect, honorable, distinct, rich, join, establish, organize, limited, used, cloudy, polite, active, creative, attentive, persuade, favourable, practical, concerned, cover, advantage;

спокійний, оцінювати, бруднити, чесний, повага, аристократич-ний, здоров’я, офіційний, покора, помилковий, поінформований, без-печний, відчинений, скасований, відмінно, зіпсований.

**Topic: TYPES OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS**

**Self-Control Tasks and Exercises:**

1. Point out the isomorphic and allomorphic features in the identification, classification, and functioning of international, national and universal types of idiomatic expressions.

2. Expand on the typological classification of idiomatic and stable expressions in the genealogically different languages.

3. Analyse the following groups of phraseological units:

*Strike while the iron is hot, when at Rome do as the Romans do, there is no use rying over spilled milk, scratch my back and I'll scratch yours, a good beginning is half the batle, the iron heel, when pigs fly;*

*To do harm, to make decision, to be in a hurry, to be on the alert, to keep within the law, to make money, to take part, to say the truth, to throw light, to turn smth. upside down, a war of words, what of it? to take measures, to say no/yes, strike the iron while it is hot, never say die;*

*To accept the Chiltern Hundreds, to cut off with a shilling, Hob- son's choice, to dine with Duke Humphrey, to mind one's p's and q's, to treat like a lord, time is money, when Queen Ann was alive, a pretty penny, to carry coals to Newcastle, to fight like Kilkenny cats;*

*Альфа й омега, гордіїв вузол, жереб кинуто, канути в Лету, око за око, зуб за зуб; золотий телець, бути на сьомому небі, Пандорина* *скринька, пригріти гадюку в пазусі, глас волаючого в пустелі, винищення немовлят, блудний син, тридцять срібняків;*

*Кирпу гнути (дерти носа); народитися в сорочці; не знати ні бе, ні ме; що з воза впало, те пропало; скажеш гоп, як перескочиш; не спитавши броду, не лізь у воду; накивати п'ятами; що кому, а курці просо; не вчи вченого; який батько - такий син, яка хата -такий тин; нізащо в світі, загнати туди, де Макар телят не пас;*

*Водити компанію, володіги собою, волосся стає дибки, вразливе місце, грати на нервах, гучна слава, давати дорогу, давати змогу, дивитися здивовано/великими очима, морочити собі голову, поширювати чутки, верзти/молоти нісенітниці, казав пан кожух дам;*

*Збити з пантелику, дурне сало без хліба, пекти раки, скакати в гречку, товкти воду в ступі, ложка дьогтю в бочці меду, наговорити сім кіп/мішків гречаної вовни, на козаку нема знаку; товчеться, як Марко в пеклі, (не довго) ряст топтати, не спіши поперед батька в пекло, як чугуївська верства, ти його хрести, а воно кричить "пусти".*

**Topic: Socially, Stylistically and Functionally Distinguished Classes of Words**

**Self-Control Tasks and Exercises:**

1. Point to the extralingual factors predetermining the birth and functioning of universal lexicon.

2. Characterize the socially predetermined layers of lexicon in the contrasted languages. Expand on the international terminological, professional, literary, colloquial, low colloquial etc. words and expressions in the contrasted languages.

3. Expand on: the common Indo-European stock of words in English and Ukrainian; on nationally specific English vs. Ukrainian lexis.

4. *Refer the below given words to one of the groups: a) bookish words b) neutral words c) colloquial words*

sky, divergent, qui pro quo, birdie, let down, often, behold, bloody, vaunting, beans (for money), hereby, move, house, lone, baby-sit, to sack smb, viscera, rip (for deceive), go into the drunk, boycott, accommodation, horse, chap, deem, morning, naught, labial, maiden, youngsters, bloke, aliment, chap, exhale, female, nutrition, yummy, appetizing, boozy, loo, kidding, posh, delicious;

безпрецедентний, макітра (голова), небеса, розпочинати, теле-пень, баньки (очі), зирити, “до второго пришествія”, зіронька, марець, неволя, курли-курли, журба, ворота, церебральний, співалам би, не-босхил, видноколо, прикрість, рихтувати, яр, гультіпака.

5. Select slang words out of the following:

attic (head), croc (crocodile), dad, damp, deem, retreat, canned (drunk), baron, vector, staccato, provoke, trig (trigonometry), anaemia, nut (mind), squire, grand (1 000), to date smb, grace-note, bully (person), chick (girl), idle, cabbage (money), methinks, rep (repetition material, cook up (invent), recapitulate, teddy-boy maturation, knight, reciprocal, equivocal, seemly, odious, veg (vegetable), to boss, to boost, well-away (drunk), measly, yenep;

електричка, питусеньки, часопис, штука, ноктюрн, гіпотенуза, єврик, заліковка, долина, власниця, шабашна, урожай, хороми, під градусом (п’яний), мамуля, знак, стимул, казанок (голова), концерт, колеса (наркотики), по барабану (байдуже), бабера, розгалуження, нализався (сп’янів), хвіст (академ. заборгованість), бакси, шпора, риба, довбонути, прийдешній, урядник, гризня, пішник, адсорбент, шати, ондечки, уповзання, височінь, керманич, протеже.

**PART 4**

**TESTS ON COTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY**

**OF ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN**

1. Lexicology is …

a) the branch of linguistics dealing with the formation of new words;

b) the general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the spe­cific features of any particular language;

c) the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language;

d) the branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents;

e) the branch of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development.

2. The word is …

a) the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment;

b) a system of morphemes;

c) simultaneously a semantic and grammatical unit;

d) a particular group of sounds;

e) a particular group of sounds associated with the definite meaning.

3. The external structure of the word is ...

a) its morphological structure;

b) its semantic structure;

c) its grammatical structure;

d) phonological structure;

e) a particular group of sounds.

4. The internal structure of the word is …

a) its morphological structure;

b) its semantic structure;

c) its grammatical structure;

d) phonological structure;

e) a particular group of sounds.

5. Etymol­ogy is …

a) the branch of lexicology dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language;

b) the branch of lexicology concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents;

c) the branch of lexicology concerned with the word in its morphological and semantical struc­tures, investigating the interdependence between these two aspects;

d) the branch of linguistics dealing with the formation of new words;

e) the branch of lexicology concerned with the evolution of the vocabulary.

6. Semasiology is the branch of lexicology which deals with the ...

a) borrowings;

b) form of the word;

c) meaning;

d) word-building;

e) phraseological units.

7. If the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms we have ...

a) homonyms;

b) synonyms;

c) borrowings;

d) neologisms;

e) none.

8. A word which has more than one meaning is called ...

a) polysemantic;

b) borrowed;

c) converted;

d) many-aspected;

e) antonym.

9. The word “polysemy” means ……

a) plurality of words;

b) plurality of sounds;

c) plurality of meanings;

d) plurality of tenses;

e) plurality of senses.

10. Such words as *to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo* are characterized by…

a) morphological motivation;

b) phonetical motivation;

c) semantic motivation;

d) lexical motivation;

e) lack of any motivation.

11. Lexicology studies...

a) the development of the grammatical constructions, the origin of words and word-groups, their grammatical relations; the development of their sound form and meaning;

b) the development of the vocabulary, the origin of the sounds, their phonetic relations; the development of their sound form and meaning;

c) none

d) the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their semantic relations; the development of their sound form and meaning;

e) the development of the phonemes, the origin of the diphtongs, their semantic relations; the development of their sound form and meaning.

12. There is a close relationship between...

a) Lexicology and Management;

b) none;

c) Management and Stylistics;

d) Lexicology and Stylistics;

e) Biology and Stylistics.

13. The word *“lexicology”* is ... origin.

a) Latin;

b) German;

c) Greek;

d) Roman;

e) French.

14. Lexicology is concerned with ...

a) the vocabulary;

b) Grammar;

c) texts;

d) Phonetics;

e) none.

15. The word is characterized by…

a) the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element;

b) the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems;

c) mobility and semantic integrity;

d) different meanings;

e) positional mobility, morphological uninterruptability and semantic integrity.

16. Such words as *mew, quack, квакати* are characterized by…

a) morphological motivation;

b) phonetical motivation;

c) semantic motivation;

d) lexical motivation;

e) lack of any motivation.

17. Such words as *re-think, ex-president* are characterized by…

a) morphological motivation;

b) phonetical motivation;

c) semantic motivation;

d) lexical motivation;

e) lack of any motivation.

18. The lexical meaning of the word is …

a) the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

b) the component which has some stylistic value of the word;

c) the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system;

d) the component which has some lexical value of the word;

e) the component of meaning that deals with the expression of relationship between words in speech.

19. The grammatical meaning of the word is …

a) the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

b) the component which has some stylistic value of the word;

c) the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system

d) the component which has some stylistic value of the word;

e) the component of meaning that deals with the expression of relationship between words in speech.

20. The connotative meaning of the word is …

a) the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

b) the component which has some stylistic value of the word;

c) the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system;

d) the component of meaning that deals with the expression of relationship between words in speech;

e) the component which has some lexical value of the word.

21. The denotative meaning of the word is …

a) the component which has some stylistic value of the word;

b) the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

c) the notional content of a word;

d) the component which has some lexical value of the word;

e) the component of meaning that deals with the expression of relationship between words in speech.

22. Such words as read [ri:d] *–* read [red]; lead [li:d] *–* lead [led] are called …

a) homographs;

b) homophones;

c) homonyms;

d) antonyms;

e) synonyms.

23. Such words as *hole – whole ; sea – see; new – knew* are called …

a) homographs;

b) homophones;

c) homonyms;

d) antonyms;

e) synonyms.

24. The words “tables, chairs, bushes” have …in common.

a) the lexical meaning;

b) the grammatical meaning of singularity;

c) denotational meaning;

d) connotational meaning;

e) the grammatical meaning of plurality.

25. The words “write – writes – wrote – written” have …in common.

a) the lexical meaning;

b) the grammatical meaning of singularity;

c) denotational meaning;

d) the tense meaning;

e) the grammatical meaning of plurality.

26. The meaning is direct when

a) the word names the thing without the help of context and can be viewed as a certain label for the thing;

b) the thing named gets some additional charac­teristics through comparison or confrontation with another thing to make a description more impressive or interesting;

c) the component of meaning is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

d) the component of meaning deals with the expression of relationship between words in speech;

e) it expresses the notional content of a word.

27. The mean­ing is figurative when

a) the word names the thing without the help of context and can be viewed as a certain label for the thing;

b) the thing named gets some additional charac­teristics through comparison or confrontation with another thing to make a description more impressive or interesting;

c) the component of meaning is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

d) the component of meaning deals with the expression of relationship between words in speech;

e) it expresses the notional content of a word.

28. The meaning is main when

a) the word names the thing without the help of context and can be viewed as a certain label for the thing;

b) the thing named gets some additional charac­teristics through comparison or confrontation with another thing to make a description more impressive or interesting;

c) the component of meaning is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

d) the component of meaning deals with the expression of relationship between words in speech;

e) it is the most frequently used.

29. Special­ization is …

a) when the word names the thing without the help of context and can be viewed as a certain label for the thing;

b) when the thing named gets some additional charac­teristics through comparison or confrontation with another thing to make a description more impressive or interesting;

c) when the component of meaning is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

d) when a word extends its use and begins to include a wider scope of the new notion;

e) the process of meaning change in which a word in the course of time begins to have fewer referents than it used to have.

30. Generalization is …

a) when the word names the thing without the help of context and can be viewed as a certain label for the thing;

b) when the thing named gets some additional charac­teristics through comparison or confrontation with another thing to make a description more impressive or interesting;

c) when the component of meaning is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words;

d) when a word extends its use and begins to include a wider scope of the new notion;

e) the process of meaning change in which a word in the course of time begins to have fewer referents than it used to have.

31. The words *night – knight; one – won; hair* *–* *hare* are…

a) homographs;

b) homophones;

c) homonyms;

d) antonyms;

e) synonyms.

32. The synonymic dominant is ...

a) the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment;

b) the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group;

c) grouping of words based upon similarities;

d) a particular group of sounds associated with the definite meaning;

e) the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment.

33. Such words as *compounding – composition, алфавіт – абетка, буква – літера* are …

a) ideographic synonyms;

b) absolute synonyms;

c) stylistic synonyms;

d) homophones;

e) homographs .

34. Antonyms are...

a) grouping of words based upon similarities;

b) words having the same form but quite differing in meaning;

c) words with diametrically opposite meanings;

d) words with different names for one object;

e) ) grouping of words based upon similarities.

35. Such groups of words as *to die – to depart – to kick the bucket; ходити – шкандибати – дибати – пхатися, читальний зал – читалка* are …

a) stylistic synonyms;

b) phraseological synonyms;

c) absolute synonyms;

d) ideographic synonyms;

e) antonyms.

36. Ideographic synonyms are words ...

a) with different names for one object;

b) based upon similarities;

c) which differ from each other in shades of meaning;

d) having the same form but quite differing in meaning;

e) ) grouping of words based upon similarities.

37. Such antonyms as *hard – soft; good – bad; здоровий – кволий* denote …

a) feeling;

b) quality;

c) manner

d) direction;

e) a doer of the action.

38. Such antonyms as *willingly – unwillingly; швидко – повільно* denote …

a) feeling;

b) quality;

c) manner;

d) direction;

e) a doer of the action.

39. Morphemes are …

a) constituents of words;

b) parts of the sentence;

c) parts of speech;

d) ) the component that deals with the expression of relationship between words in speech;

e) the component which has some stylistic value of the word.

40. Affixation is …

a) the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element;

b) the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems;

c) the creation of a word by modifying its root with a prefix and a suffix;

d) the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems;

e) the method of merging parts of words into one new word.

41. Conversion is …

a) the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element;

b) the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems;

c) the creation of a word by modifying its root with a prefix and a suffix;

d) the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems;

e) the method of merging parts of words into one new word.

42. Composition is …

a) the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element;

b) the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems;

c) the creation of a word by modifying its root with a prefix and a suffix;

d) the creation of a word by modifying its root with a prefix;

e) the method of merging parts of words into one new word.

43. Blending is …

a) the method of merging parts of words into one new word;

b) the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems;

c) a word-building pattern which presupposes the formation of a new word by means of stress position change;

d) the creation of a word by modifying its root with a prefix and a suffix;

e) the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element.

44. Verbalization presupposes such patterns as …

a) Participle Noun;

b) Noun Verb;

c) Verb Noun;

d) Verb Numeral;

e) Participle Verb.

45. Such English suffixes as - ate (complicate, navigate); - en (darken, strengthen) are …

a) Numeral-forming suffixes;

b) Pronoun-forming suffixes;

c) Verb-forming suffixes;

d) Noun-forming suffixes;

e) Adjective-forming suffixes.

46. Such English suffixes as -er (teacher, worker); -ing (living, reading); -ness (kindness, tenderness) and such Ukrainian suffixes as -ар (шахтар, лікар); -ик (історик, радник); -ець (гравець, українець) are …

a) Noun-forming suffixes;

b) Pronoun-forming suffixes;

c) Verb-forming suffixes;

d) Numeral-forming suffixes;

e) Adjective-forming suffixes.

47. Prefixes: *dis-, re-, роз-, пере-….*

a) have the negative meaning;

b) denote reversal or repetition of an action;

c) have the positive meaning.;

d) have no meaning;

e) denote a doer of the action.

48. Sound imitation is …

a) a word-building pattern which consists in the formation of a new word by means of change of stress position;

b) an opposition in which words are differentiated due to vowel gradation;

c) the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it;

d) a particular group of sounds;

e) a particular group of sounds associated with the definite meaning.

49. A simple wordconsists of...

a) one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion;

b) two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion;

c) two or more root morphemes and an inflexion;

d) one root morpheme and an inflexion;

e) none.

50. A derived wordconsists of ...

a) one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion;

b) two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion;

c) two or more root morphemes and an inflexion;

d) one root morpheme and an inflexion;

e) none.

51. A compound wordconsists of ...

a) two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion;

b) two or more root morphemes and an inflexion;

c) one root morpheme and an inflexion;

d) one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion;

e) none.

52. The stem is…

a) inflexions (endings);

b) the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word;

c) one root morpheme and an inflexion;

d) two or more root morphemes and an inflexion;

e) none.

53. Such English suffixes as *- ness, -ment* are…

a) Numeral-forming suffixes;

b) Pronoun-forming suffixes;

c) Verb-forming suffixes;

d) Noun-forming suffixes;

e) Adjective-forming suffixes.

54. Such English suffixes as *-teen, -ty, -th* are…

a) Numeral-forming suffixes;

b) Pronoun-forming suffixes;

c) Verb-forming suffixes;

d) Noun-forming suffixes;

e) Adjective-forming suffixes.

55. Such English suffixes as *-able, -ful, -ish* are…

a) Numeral-forming suffixes;

b) Pronoun-forming suffixes;

c) Verb-forming suffixes;

d) Noun-forming suffixes;

e) Adjective-forming suffixes.

56. Substantivation presupposes such patterns as …

a) Participle Noun;

b) Noun Verb;

c) Verb Participle;

d) Verb Numeral;

e) Participle Verb.

57. Such words as *“spacecraft, hardtop, землевласник”* are…

a) compound words with the solid representation;

b) hyphenated compound words;

c) compound words represented by a phrase;

d) compound words represented by a sentence;

e) compound words of mixed type.

58. Such words as *“sit-in, freeze-dry, диван-ліжко”* are …

a) compound words with the solid representation;

b) hyphenated compound words;

c) compound words represented by a phrase;

d) compound words represented by a sentence;

e) compound words of mixed type.

59. Such words as *“cold war, free flight”* are …

a) compound words with the solid representation;

b) hyphenated compound words;

c) compound words represented by a phrase;

d) compound words represented by a sentence;

e) compound words of mixed type.

60. V.V. Vinogradov suggested ... classification of phraseological units.

a) structural;

b) semantic;

c) syntactical;

d) lexical;

e) morphological.

61. I.V. Arnold suggested ... classification of phraseological units.

a) structural;

b) semantic;

c) syntactical;

d) lexical;

e) morphological.

62. A.I. Smirnitskyi suggested ... classification of phraseological units.

a) structural;

b) semantic;

c) syntactical;

d) lexical;

e) morphological.

63. Phraseological fusions are the units...

a) where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components;

b) where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred;

c) where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages;

d) that deal with the expression of relationship between words in speech;

e) that merge parts of words into one new word.

64. Phraseological unities are the word combinations ...

a) where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components;

b) where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred;

c) where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages;

d) that deal with the expression of relationship between words in speech;

e) that merge parts of words into one new word.

65. Such units as *bullet train, Green Berets* are ...

a) adjective phraseological units;

b) noun phraseological units;

c) adverb phraseological units;

d) verbal phraseological units;

e) phraseological unities.

66. According to the semantic classification of phraseological units they may be ...

a) adjective phraseological units, noun phraseological units, adverb phraseological units;

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, preposition phraseological units;

c) phraseological fusion, phraseological unities, phraseological collocations.

d) adjective phraseological units, noun phraseological units and adverb phraseological units;

e) simple word combinations and idioms.

67. Such phraseological units as *When pigs fly (never);on Shank’s mare (on foot)* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

68. Such phraseological units as *to play the first fiddle (to be a leader in something), old salt (experienced sailor), to be an open book (to be understandable)* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

69. Such phraseological units as *cash and carry (self-service shop), in a big way (in great degree)* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

70. Such phraseological units as *to come a cropper (to come to disaster);neck and crop (entirely)* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

71. Such phraseological units as *to catch at a straw (to do the best in extreme danger), to look a gift hoarse in the mouth(to examine the present too critically)* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

72. Such phraseological units as *cash and carry (self-service shop), to have a bite* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

73. Such phraseological units as *збити з пантелику, у сірка очі позичати* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

74. Such phraseological units as *міняти шило на мило, мухи не зобидити* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

75. Such phraseological units as *кидати погляд, насупити брови* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

76. Such phraseological units as *to beat about the bush, to rain cats and dogs* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

77. Such phraseological unit as *to be on the seventh heaven of delight* is ...

a) phraseological fusion;

b) phraseological unity;

c) phraseological collocation;

d) word combination;

e) a particular group of sounds.

78. Such phraseological units as *to cast a glance, to shrug one’s shoulders* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

79. Such phraseological units as *to get a sleep, давати пораду* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

80. Such phraseological unit as *мухи не зобидити,* *to be on the seventh heaven of delight* is ...

a) phraseological fusion;

b) phraseological unity;

c) phraseological collocation;

d) word combination;

e) a particular group of sounds.

81. Such phraseological units as *збити з пантелику, to rain cats and dogs* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

82. Such phraseological units as *on Shank’s mare (on foot), at sixes and sevens (in a mess)* are …

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

83. Such phraseological units as *to stick to one’s guns (to be true to one’s convictions), to loose one’s head (not to know what to do)* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

84. Such phraseological units as *to be good at smth, to stick to one’s word* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

85. Such phraseological units as *to set one’s cap at smb (to attract a man), to show the white feather (to betray one’s cowardice)*are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

86. Such phraseological units as *to loose one’s heart to smb (to fall in love), the last drop (the final culminating circumstance)*are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

87. Such phraseological units as *to take smth for granted,* *to lok a sight* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

88. Such phraseological units as *to be all at sea (to be unable to understand), to be on the rocks (to be in strained financial situation)*are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

89. Such phraseological unit as *to know the way the wind is blowing* is ...

a) phraseological fusion;

b) phraseological unity;

c) phraseological collocation;

d) word combination;

e) a particular group of sounds.

90. Such phraseological units as *to meet the necessity, to meet the requirements* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

91. Such phraseological units as *to get a sleep, to meet the demand* are ...

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological collocations;

d) word combinations;

e) a particular group of sounds.

92. Such phraseological unit as *a fish out of water(a person who feels ill at ease)* is ...

a) phraseological fusion;

b) phraseological unity;

c) phraseological collocation;

d) word combination;

e) a particular group of sounds.

93. Such words as “smog, Frenglish, фругурт” are formed by…

a) blending;

b) prefixation;

c) gradation;

d) suffixation;

e) composition.

94. State the type of word-formation of the word “to shop”:

a) gradation;

b) conversion;

c) back-formation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

95. State the type of word-formation of the word “to eye”:

a) gradation;

b) conversion;

c) back-formation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

96. State the type of word-formation of the word “unanswerable”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) conversion.

97. State the type of word-formation of the word “darken”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) conversion;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

98. State the type of word-formation of the word “disobey”:

a) composition;

b) gradation;

c) prefixation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

99. State the type of word-formation of the word “toothbrush”:

a) ) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) gradation.

100. State the type of word-formation of the word “flu”:

a) blending;

b) gradation;

c) shortening;

d) composition;

e) affixation.

101. State the type of word-formation of the word “stony”:

a) composition;

b) prefixation;

c) blending.

d) gradation;

e) suffixation

102. State the type of word-formation of the word “honeymoon”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) composition;

d) shortening;

e) gradation.

103. State the type of word-formation of the word “fridge”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) prefixation.

104. State the type of word-formation of the word “standstill”:

a) blending;

b) prefixation;

c) gradation;

d) suffixation;

e) composition.

105. State the type of word-formation of the word “unclubbable”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) conversion.

106. State the type of word-formation of the word “darkness”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) conversion;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

107. State the type of word-formation of the word “mistrust”:

a) composition;

b) gradation;

c) prefixation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

108. State the type of word-formation of the word “forget-me-not”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) gradation.

109. State the type of word-formation of the word “bike”:

a) blending;

b) gradation;

c) shortening;

d) composition;

e) affixation.

110. State the type of word-formation of the word “dictatorship”:

a) composition;

b) prefixation;

c) blending.

d) gradation;

e) suffixation

111. State the type of word-formation of the word “father-in-law”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) composition;

d) shortening;

e) gradation.

112. State the type of word-formation of the word “phone”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) prefixation.

113. State the type of word-formation of the word “миротворець”:

a) blending;

b) prefixation;

c) gradation;

d) suffixation;

e) composition.

114. State the type of word-formation of the word “to water”:

a) gradation;

b) conversion;

c) back-formation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

115. State the type of word-formation of the word “шахтар”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) conversion.

116. State the type of word-formation of the word “головувати”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) conversion;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

117. State the type of word-formation of the word “ex-president”:

a) composition;

b) gradation;

c) prefixation;

d) blending;

e) shortening.

118. State the type of word-formation of the word “словотвір”:

a) prefixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) gradation.

119. State the type of word-formation of the word “універ”:

a) blending;

b) gradation;

c) shortening;

d) composition;

e) affixation.

120. State the type of word-formation of the word “сушити”:

a) composition;

b) prefixation;

c) blending.

d) gradation;

e) suffixation

121. State the type of word-formation of the word “лікар-терапевт”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) composition;

d) shortening;

e) gradation.

122. State the type of word-formation of the word “матч-реванш”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) prefixation.

123. State the type of word-formation of the word “boyfriend”:

a) blending;

b) prefixation;

c) gradation;

d) suffixation;

e) composition.

124. State the type of word-formation of the word “uneatable”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) conversion.

125. State the type of word-formation of the word “simplify”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) conversion;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

126. State the type of word-formation of the word “enlarge”:

a) composition;

b) gradation;

c) prefixation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

127. State the type of word-formation of the word “birthday”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) gradation.

128. State the type of word-formation of the word “specs”:

a) blending;

b) gradation;

c) shortening;

d) composition;

e) affixation.

129. State the type of word-formation of the word “childish”:

a) composition;

b) prefixation;

c) blending.

d) gradation;

e) suffixation

130. State the type of word-formation of the word “bedroom”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) composition;

d) shortening;

e) gradation.

131. State the type of word-formation of the word “lazybones”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) prefixation.

131. State the type of word-formation of the word “chatterbox”:

a) blending;

b) prefixation;

c) gradation;

d) suffixation;

e) composition.

132. State the type of word-formation of the word “to monkey”:

a) gradation;

b) conversion;

c) back-formation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

133. State the type of word-formation of the word “unbearable”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) conversion.

134. State the type of word-formation of the word “cloudless”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) conversion;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

135. State the type of word-formation of the word “rewrite”:

a) composition;

b) gradation;

c) prefixation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

136. State the type of word-formation of the word “blackboard”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) gradation.

137. State the type of word-formation of the word “exam”:

a) blending;

b) gradation;

c) shortening;

d) composition;

e) affixation.

138. State the type of word-formation of the word “brainy”:

a) composition;

b) prefixation;

c) blending.

d) gradation;

e) suffixation

139. State the type of word-formation of the word “merry-go-round”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) composition;

d) shortening;

e) gradation.

140. State the type of word-formation of the word “lab”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) prefixation.

141. State the type of word-formation of the word “football”:

a) blending;

b) prefixation;

c) gradation;

d) suffixation;

e) composition.

142. State the type of word-formation of the word “blackbird”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) gradation.

143. State the type of word-formation of the word “disappointment”:

a) blending;

b) gradation;

c) shortening;

d) composition;

e) affixation.

144. State the type of word-formation of the word “roomy”:

a) composition;

b) prefixation;

c) blending.

d) gradation;

e) suffixation

145. State the type of word-formation of the word “sister-in-law”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) composition;

d) shortening;

e) gradation.

146. State the type of word-formation of the word “girlfriend”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) prefixation.

147. State the type of word-formation of the word “to doctor”:

a) blending;

b) prefixation;

c) gradation;

d) suffixation;

e) conversion.

148. State the type of word-formation of the word “to honeymoon”:

a) gradation;

b) conversion;

c) back-formation;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

149. State the type of word-formation of the word “unbuttoned”:

a) affixation;

b) shortening;

c) composition;

d) blending;

e) conversion.

150. State the type of word-formation of the word “satisfaction”:

a) blending;

b) suffixation;

c) conversion;

d) affixation;

e) shortening.

**PART 3**

**THE LIST OF RECOMMENDED LITERATURE**

**Basic:**

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1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M.: Высшая школа, 1977.
2. Rayevskaya N.N. English Lexicology. – Київ.: Вища школа,1979.
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1. Верба Л. Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. Посібник для перекладацьких відділень вузів / Л.Г.Верба. – Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2008. – 160 с.

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3. Секрет І.В. Конспект лекцій з порівняльної лексикології англійської та української мов для студентів III курсу факультету соціології та філології спеціальності «Переклад» / І.В.Секрет. – Дніпродзержинськ, 2008. – 125 c.

4. Мірончук Т.А.Методичні рекомендації щодо забезпечення самостійноїроботи студентів з дисципліни “Порівняльна лексикологія (англійська мова та українська мова)” (для бакалаврів спеціальності “Переклад” спеціалізації “Англійська мова” 3-й курс) / Т.А.Мірончук. – К.: МАУП, 2007. – 54 с.