



НАРОДНА УКРАЇНСЬКА АКАДЕМІЯ

O. V. Karpenko

COMPARATIVE LEXICOLOGY
OF THE UKRAINIAN AND ENGLISH LANGUAGES

Видавництво НУА

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У посібнику розглядаються основні концепції сучасної лексикології, етимологічна структура англійського і українського лексиконів, морфологічна і семантична структура англійських та українських слів, засоби словотворення, притаманні англійській та українській мовам, семантичні класифікації англійських та українських слів, англійські та українські фразеологічні одиниці.

Для студентів третього року навчання, які вивчають курс порівняльної лексикології англійської та української мов.

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Abbreviations and symbols

<changed from or derived from

>changed to or becomes

► denotes transformations

AD = Anno Domini

AE = American English

Adj. = adjective

Adv. = adverb

BC = before Christ

Conj. = conjunction

Det. = determinant

etc. = etcetera

Fr. = French

Gk. = Greek

L. = Latin

Mod. E. = Modern English

N. = noun

OE = Old English

O.F. = Old French

Prep. = preposition

Pron. = pronoun

sb. = somebody

sth. = something

V. = verb

Ven = the Participle II

Ving = the Participle I or the Gerund

Vinf = the Infinitive

UK = the United Kingdom

Chapter1

Lexicology as a branch of linguistics.

Units of language.

The lexical-semantic system of a language and its elements

Key words: collocation, context, free phrase, idiom, lexical- semantic system, lexical unit, lexicology, phrase, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships between words, units of language

Plan

1. Lexicology, its subject and sub fields. Lexicology and other linguistic disciplines
2. Units of language
3. Lexical-semantic system and lexical units
4. The word and its nature
5. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships between words
6. Phrases and their types

1. Lexicology, its subject and sub fields. Lexicology and other linguistic disciplines

The word '**lexicology**' consists of two Greek words: '*lexis*', which means 'word, phrase' and '*logos*' which means 'learning'. Consequently, the literal meaning of lexicology is 'the science of words'.

As a branch of linguistics, lexicology has its own aims and methods of scientific research. The *main task of lexicology* is the investigation and systematic description of the **vocabulary system** in respect to its origin, development and current use.

The vocabulary system refers to the total stock of meaningful units in a language, such as affixes, words and idioms.

Lexicology is also concerned with the structure and meaning of affixes, words, and idioms.

Another task of lexicology is the analysis of semantic relationships between words and the influence of various factors upon these relationships.

Lexicology can be subdivided into the following subfields:

- **General lexicology**, which is concerned with the study of the vocabulary system irrespective of the specific features of a particular language.
- **Special lexicology**, which investigates the vocabulary of a particular language, e.g. French, English, German, etc.
- **Diachronic lexicology**, which studies the origin of words and the development of the vocabulary in the course of time.
- **Synchronic lexicology**, which deals with the vocabulary of a language at a particular stage of its development.

The distinction between diachronic and synchronic lexicology is important only from methodological point of view. In language reality, historical and descriptive approaches are interdependent and cannot be understood without one another.

Each word has a certain graphical, sound, morphological and semantic structure and can be studied at different linguistic levels: phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic.

Consequently, lexicology is bound up with such branches of linguistics as **phonetics, morphology, syntax, and semantics.**

Words and expressions are also studied from the point of view of their usage in various social contexts, and in this respect, lexicology cannot do without **pragmatics, stylistics and sociolinguistics.**

- **Morphology** is a branch of grammar, which studies the structure of words.
- **Syntax** is a branch of grammar, which studies the rules governing the ways words are combined to form phrases and sentences.
- **Semantics** studies meaning in affixes, words, phrases, and sentences.
- **Pragmatics** studies meaning which is derived from the context.
- **Stylistics** is a branch of linguistics that studies the expressive potential of language.
- **Sociolinguistics** studies the relationships between language and society.

2. Units of language

The cardinal units of language are as follows:

Phonemes: vowels, consonants, stress

Morphemes: roots, affixes, inflections

Words:

root words / derived words / compound words

mono semantic words / polysemantic words

common words / non-common words (terms, dialect words, slang words, etc.)

obsolete words / nonce words

native words / borrowed words

parts of speech

Phrases: free/ semi-bound/bound

Sentences: simple / complex

Superphrasal unities: monologues, dialogues, polylogues

3. Lexical-semantic system and lexical units

The term 'system' in present-day lexicology denotes **a set of lexical elements associated and functioning together according to certain language laws.**

Lexical elements are also called **lexical units** or **lexical items**. This term is also used in Grammar to refer to sets and classes of words with meanings that are not limited to their grammatical function. In this respect, typical lexical items are words like *table, funny, hardly, see*. They are contrasted with **structural** (or **syntactic**) words

like *this, you, me, is*, the use of which is grammatically defined.

Lexical units include:

affixes words phrases

At each stage of the development of a language, its lexical-semantic system contains **productive elements** typical of this particular period, **obsolete elements** that are dropping out of usage, and **new elements**, which are marks of new trends in this language. In other words, the actual lexical-semantic system of a language is in constant development and change.

The term **the lexical-semantic system** should not be confused with the term **lexicon**, which refers only to the total stock of lexical units in a language.

4. The word and its nature

The main features of the word:

- It possesses an **external** and **internal** structure;
- It is susceptible to a certain **grammatical employment**;
- It has **lexical-grammatical valency**;

The **external structure** of the word is its **sound, graphical and morphological** structure. **Morphological structure** of a word is a system of morphemes, which are realized in **roots and affixes**.

The **internal structure** of the word is its **meaning** that also has a certain structure.

The unity of the external and the internal structure of the word can be illustrated by comparing a word with the phrase consisting of the same components.

Let us compare the word *a blackbird* with the word combination *a black bird*.

The word *blackbird* is characterized by external unity because it possesses a single grammatical *paradigm* (the system of forms of a unit of language): *blackbird, blackbirds, blackbird's, blackbirds'*.

Its first component *black-* does not undergo any grammatical change.

In the phrase *a black bird* each component has its own grammatical paradigm.

For example:

The blackest bird I've ever seen.

The same example can be used to illustrate what is meant by the **internal (semantic)** unity of the word.

The word *blackbird* conveys a single concept: a species of a bird.

In the phrase *a black bird* each of the words conveys a separate concept: *bird* is a kind of a living creature, *black* is a colour.

The **susceptibility** of the word **to a certain grammatical employment** is revealed in the fact that in speech most words are used in different grammatical

forms, which provide their interrelations. The grammatical forms of a word constitute its **grammatical paradigm**.

For instance, the grammatical paradigm of the word *boy* includes four forms:

boy, boys, boy's, boys'

They are the grammatical forms of *number* and *case*.

Words also have **derivational**, **synonymic**, and **antonymic** paradigms.

For instance, the derivational paradigm of the word *girl* is:

girlie, girlish, girlhood

Lexical-grammatical valency of a word is realized in its ability to contact with morphemes and other words.

According to the features mentioned above, **the WORD** may be defined as **the basic unit of language, which has a certain sound and graphical structure associated with a certain meaning, and which is susceptible to a certain grammatical employment**.

This definition is, however, imprecise, because it does not reveal the whole nature of the word. For instance, it does not cover such properties of words as **idiomaticity**, **polysemy**, and **homonymy**.

The exact definition of the word from purely linguistic point of view remains a disputable problem in linguistics.

5. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships between words

The units of language can be characterized by their **combinatorial** and **contrastive** properties, which determine two types of relationships between them: **syntagmatic** and **paradigmatic**.

Syntagmatic relationships between words

Syntagmatic relationships between words condition the **sequence** and **compatibility** of words in a text.

At the semantic level, the syntagmatic relationships between words reveal themselves through the combine-ability of their **meanings**.

When a word enters into syntagmatic relationships with other words, it forms its **context**.

Context is the minimum stretch of speech sufficient to determine which of the possible meanings of a given word is realized in it.

Let us determine the contexts for the word *blue* in the sentences:

Her *blue* eyes were full of tears. She felt *blue*.

When combined with the word *eyes*, *blue* acquires the meaning of a certain colour, and in the combination with the word *felt*, it comes to denote a certain

emotional state. Consequently, the contexts for *blue* in these sentences are *blue eyes* and *felt blue*.

Syntagmatic relationships between words are also called **linear** or **horizontal** relationships.

Paradigmatic relationships between words

Paradigmatic relationships between words reveal themselves through the possibility of their **interchange** or **substitution**.

For instance, in the sentence *my sister has bought a big house*, it is possible to make various changes without destroying its formal structure. The noun *sister* can be replaced by its hyperonym *relative*. In this case the word *sister* will enter into paradigmatic relationships of **hyponymy** with the word *relative*.

The verb *bought* can be replaced by its synonym *purchased*, or by its antonym *sold*, and, thus, it will enter into paradigmatic relationships of **synonymy** and **antonymy** with these words.

We also might replace any of these words by a word of the same grammatical class, which has nothing to do with them in meaning.

For instance, we might change the word *house* into *umbrella* or *computer*. In such cases the word *house* will come into **unrelated** paradigmatic relationships with these words.

Paradigmatic relationships between words are also called **contrastive** or **vertical relationships**.

6. Phrases and their types

Phrase is a syntagmatic combination of two or more words. According to the structural and semantic interdependence between their components, **phrases** usually fall into:

free

fixed (collocations and idioms)

Free phrases

Free phrases consist of elements that are joined in accordance with the general rules of syntax and freely allow substitutions.

For instance, the phrases *I like (juice, to swim, etc.)*, *to ride (a horse, a bicycle, etc.)*, *повернуть (направо, голову, etc.)* give no clue about which word will come next.

Fixed phrases

Other sequences of words are fixed, that is, they allow limited or no changes in their lexical elements. Fixed sequences fall into two groups: **idiomatic sequences** and **non-idiomatic sequences**.

Fixed idiomatic sequences are called **idioms** or **phraseological units**. Fixed non-idiomatic sequences are called **collocations**.

Collocations

Collocations usually have direct meaning and they are easy to understand, but not so easy for a learner to produce correctly.

Collocations fall into two subgroups: **grammatical collocations** and **lexical collocations**. This classification is very general, for it is impossible to draw a clear line of demarcation between the class of collocations and the class of idioms. Many collocations overlap with idioms.

A **grammatical collocation** is a phrase consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective, verb, or adverb) and a preposition or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause.

For instance:

- argument about* (noun + preposition)
- pleasure to do something* (noun + infinitive)
- fond of music* (adjective + preposition + noun)

Lexical collocations consist of combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

For instance, we can think of many adjectives that might be used with the word *smoke* to say that someone smokes a lot: *big, strong, hard, fierce, mad, devoted*. But it collocates only with *heavy* to express the idea correctly.

The examples below illustrate differences between Ukrainian collocations containing the word *різкий* and their English equivalents:

різкий голос	shrill voice
різкий вітер	sharp wind
різкі слова	sharp words
різка зміна	sharp change
різкий запах	strong smell
різка людина	harsh person

Idioms

Fixed sequences of words having transferred or partly transferred meanings are referred to as **idioms** or **phraseological units**.

For instance:

- red tape* = bureaucracy
- гнути бандигу* = to say foolish things

Questions

1. What do linguists mean by a lexical unit and the lexical- semantic system of a language?
2. What are the main differences between syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships between words?
3. What are the main features of the word as the basic unit of language?
4. Speak on the main features of free word-combinations, collocations, and idioms.

Chapter 2

The History of the English Lexicon

Keywords: Angles, assimilation, borrowed word, Common Germanic, English proper words, etymology, Indo-European family, Greek, Jutes, Latin, Middle English, Modern English, native word, Norman Conquest, Old English, oral borrowing, origin of a borrowing, Saxons, Scandinavian, source of a borrowing, written borrowing

Plan

1. The origin and development of the English language
2. The structure of the English present-day lexicon
 - The Native component
 - The Borrowed component
3. The development of the English lexicon
 - The Old English lexicon
 - The Middle English lexicon
 - The Modern English lexicon

1. The origin and development of the English language

The origin and the linguistic history of a language and its vocabulary is usually the subject of **Etymology** (Etymology is a branch of linguistics that investigates the origin and development of languages).

English belongs to the **Indo-European** family of languages and has **Anglo-Saxon** roots.

The gradual fusion of the dialects of the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes that invaded the British Isles in the 5th century resulted in the language, which is now called **Old English**.

Anglo-Saxon was much influenced by other European languages.

The influence of **Latin** began in 597 AD when the Roman missionary St. Augustine arrived in England and converted the kingdom of Kent to Christianity.

Throughout the 8th century, **the Vikings** invaded the British Isles. The Scandinavian tongue merged with the Anglo-Saxon dialects and influenced the phonemic, morphological and semantic structure of Old English.

After **the Norman Conquest**, (in 1066) England became a bilingual country. For about three centuries **Norman French** was the official language in Britain.

The status of French began to change with the beginning of the **Hundred Years' War** between Britain and France(1337-1453).

Around 1200 English emerged again as a literary language. This form is known as **Middle English**. It was Old English changed by French influence and by the transforming power of popular speech.

The most impetuous development of English began during the Renaissance period (1500-1625).

After 1700, the freedom of the Renaissance in English disappeared giving its place to the process of stabilization. It meant the formulation of rules and restrictions. In the 18th century the standard form of English acquired more or less stable form and status.

The romantic period (19thc.) following the conservative 18th century, was a time of liberalism in the English literature and language. Industrial reforms and great advances in science made the British society more democratic. The development of the mass media afforded a means of renewing the language, of approving its informal, colloquial usage, and of bringing the spoken standard closer to the written.

The events mentioned above divide the history of the English language into **three periods**:

- The Old English(Anglo-Saxon) period**- from the 5thto the 11thcentury (600-1100)

- The Middle English (the Norman Conquest) period**- from the 11thto the 15th century (1066-1500)

- The Modern English period**- from the 15thcentury to the present

The English language that functioned within each of the periods is called:

Old English

Middle English

Modern English

2. The structure of the English present-day lexicon.

The standard British English, spoken and written now, was derived from the **London dialect**.

One of the most important features of the English lexicon is its mixed composition: **80%** of English words are **borrowings**. The majority came from **Latin**, and of those, more than half came through **French**. A considerable number was borrowed from **Greek**. A lot of words came from the **Scandinavian** languages. The bulk of the words spoken and written by English-speaking people are native words.

From the point of view of their origin, English words can be subdivided into

two groups:

- **Native words** (the Native component)
- **Borrowed words** (the Borrowed component)

The Native component of the English lexicon

A **native word** is a word, which belongs to the original English stock as known from the Old English earliest manuscripts.

English native words are subdivided into three groups:

- **Words of the Common Indo-European stock**
- **Words of Common Germanic origin**
- **English proper words**

Common Indo-European words are the most ancient words, which were once part of the lexical system of the Common Indo-European language and which have remained in the most languages of the Indo-European family.

Compare:

fæder (Indo-European) - *pater* (Latin) - *pater* (Greek)

twa (Indo-European) - *duo* (Latin) - *два* (Ukrainian)

Words of Common Germanic origin are words, which are found in most Germanic languages.

For instance: *house, ship, sea*

English proper words are words, which have no cognates (words of common origin = of the same etymological root) in other languages whereas for Indo-European and Germanic words such cognates can be found.

For instance, the word *stand* has the following cognates:

stha- from Sanskrit (the ancient language of India belonging to the Indo-European family. The oldest period of Sanskrit is the Vedic (1500-200 BC).)

stare - from Latin

stehen - from Germanic

стояти - from Ukrainian

Examples of English proper words: *bird, boy, daisy, girl, lord, lady, woman*

The English proper element also includes words, which were formed after the 5th century (after the Anglo-Saxon migration to the British Isles) from native and borrowed morphemes according to existing word-building patterns peculiar to English.

Characteristic features of the Native component:

- Native words are mostly root-words
- They are frequently used in speech

- They are polysemantic
- They possess a great word-building power
- They are structurally and semantically stable
- They possess a high lexical and grammatical valency
- They are stylistically neutral
- They have become the basic vocabulary for set expressions
- They form the basic vocabulary for everyday usage

The Borrowed component of the English lexicon

A **borrowed word** is a word taken from another language. A word, introduced into a language from another language, usually undergoes changes in its **phonemic structure, spelling, paradigms** and **meaning**. This process is called **assimilation**. Some borrowed words, however, undergo no changes and remain non-assimilated.

Borrowed words usually come into a language in two ways: through **oral speech** and through **written speech**.

Oral borrowings took place mainly during the Old English period. They have the following features:

- They are mostly **root-words**
- They are **completely assimilated**

Written borrowings appeared in the Middle English period. The features of written borrowings:

- They are words of **two or more** syllables
- Many of them are only **partly assimilated**

Speaking of borrowings it is necessary to differentiate the terms: **the source of a borrowing** and **the origin of a borrowing**.

The term **the source of a borrowing** is applied to the language, from which a borrowed word was taken.

The term **the origin of a borrowing** refers to the language that a borrowed word can be traced to.

For example, the English word *school* was borrowed from Latin (*schola*). Consequently, the source of its borrowing is Latin. This word, however, came into Latin from Greek (*schole*). Consequently, it is of Greek origin.

The main sources of borrowings into the English lexicon are:

- **Greek** (the classical element)
- **Latin** (the classical element)
- **Old French** (also: Norman French)
- **Scandinavian** (also: Old Norwegian)

The classical element

Latin borrowings

Latin borrowings may be divided into three groups:

- **Old Latin borrowings** (before the 7th c. AD)
- **Middle Latin borrowings** (the 7th-15th cc.)
- **Modern Latin borrowings** (from the 15th century to the present day)

Old Latin borrowings are words, which were brought to Britain by the Angles, Saxons and Jutes. They had adopted those words while trading with the Romans.

For example:

ceap = cheapcuppa = cup

The characteristic features of Old Latin borrowings:

- They were one-syllable root words
- They were borrowed through oral speech

Middle Latin borrowings

After the Christianization of England at the end of the 6th century, Latin borrowings usually came through written church Latin. Most of them were connected with religion.

For instance: *alter, bishop, candle, monk, nun, priest*

Many of those words were of Greek origin.

For instance: *bishop, monk, priest*

After the Norman Conquest (in 1066) a lot of Latin words were borrowed through Norman French (In many cases, it is difficult to determine whether a word came directly from Latin or came in through French). Many of them were scientific words and terms.

For instance: *council, education, order*

The majority of the borrowings from Latin and Greek came into English during the Renaissance period (1500-1625). They were mostly **abstract** and **learned** words.

For instance: *nucleus, theory*

Greek borrowings

Greek words usually came into English either through Latin or through French. They were spelt and pronounced like Latin, not like Greek.

For example: *chaos, climax, crisis*

Most of Greek borrowings have now become international scientific and technical terms.

For example: *analysis, botany, metaphor, synonym*

Scandinavian borrowings

Scandinavian words (in dictionaries Scandinavian borrowings are often marked with the letters O. N. - Old Norwegian) were borrowed throughout the 8th – 12th centuries. Among them there were words which now belong to the **fundamental layer** of the English vocabulary. Most of them were root-words.

For instance: *cake, flat, call*

French borrowings

The largest number of borrowings in English came either **from** French (mostly from Old French) or **through** French. French borrowings may be divided into three groups:

- **Old French borrowings**, which came before the 14th century (they are also called Norman French borrowings. In dictionaries, Old French borrowings are often marked with the letters **O. F.**)
- **Middle French borrowings**, which came throughout the 14th- 16th centuries
- **Modern French borrowings**, which came after the 16th century

The earliest French borrowings were one- or two-syllable words. They have undergone substantial changes in spelling and pronunciation, and, consequently, have lost their foreign features. So, they are now felt as native words.

For instance:

Spheres of notion	Middle English spelling	Modern English spelling	Meaning
Architecture and arts	<i>piler</i>	<i>pillar</i>	<i>колона</i>
Cookery	<i>porc</i>	<i>pork</i>	<i>свинина</i>
Education	<i>pupille</i>	<i>pupil</i>	<i>учень</i>

Modern French borrowings were introduced into English beginning from the 16th century. They belonged to various spheres of life.

For instance: *ballet, chic, chauffeur, rouge, soup*

Most of the modern French borrowings in English have retained some of their original features, mostly in pronunciation and spelling.

The minor sources of borrowings into English

Among the **minor sources** of English borrowings are Italian, Spanish, Indian, German, Russian, Ukrainian and other languages. In general, over 120 languages are on record as sources of the English present-day lexicon.

For instance:

Word	Source of borrowing
<i>algebra</i>	Arabic
<i>balcony</i>	Italian
<i>bard, druid</i>	Celtic
<i>buffalo</i>	Portuguese
<i>caviar</i>	Turkish
<i>intelligentsia</i>	Russian
<i>ketchup</i>	Chinese
<i>paprika</i>	Hungarian
<i>safari</i>	Swahili
<i>sauna</i>	Finnish
<i>swastika</i>	Sanskrit
<i>sofa</i>	Persian
<i>tycoon</i>	Japanese
<i>typhoon</i>	Australian
<i>waltz</i>	German
<i>taboo</i>	Tonga

Borrowed affixes

Not only words and expressions were borrowed from other languages, but also affixes. Most of foreign affixes were borrowed from Latin and French. The table below illustrates some of them.

Affix	Source of borrowing	Meaning	Examples
<i>-ion</i>	French from Latin	Denotes act or state	<i>confusion</i>
<i>-or</i>	Latin	Denotes a person or thing performing the action of the verb	<i>generator</i> <i>governor</i>
<i>-ess</i>	French from Latin from Greek	Denotes female nouns	<i>actress</i> <i>tigress</i>
<i>en-</i>	Latin from Greek	Has the meaning of 'in', 'within', 'inside'	<i>encase, enrobe</i>
<i>de-</i>	Latin	Has the meaning of 'away', 'down', 'from'	<i>degas</i>

3. The development of the English lexicon

The Old English lexicon The structure of the Old English lexicon

The Old English lexicon included:

- **Common Indo-European words**
- **Common Germanic words**
- **Borrowings**
- **Words formed on the English ground**

Common Indo-European words

Words denoting kinship: *brother, daughter, father, mother* (compare with the Ukrainian cognates *брат, дочка, батько, мати*)

Plants: *birch, tree* (compare with the Ukrainian cognates *береза, дерево*)

Time of the day: *day, night* (compare with the Ukrainian cognates *день, ніч*)

Adjectives: *new, red* (compare with the Ukrainian cognates *новий, рудий*)

Verbs: *be, eat, sit, stand* (compare with the Ukrainian cognates *бути, їсти, сидіти, стояти*)

Personal pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns: *this, that, these, those*

Most numerals

Common Germanic words

Animals: *bear, calf, fox*

Plants: *fir, grass, oak*

Parts of the human body: *bone, finger, hand, head*

Seasons of the year: *spring, summer, winter*

Adjectives: *blue, good, green, grey, old, white*

Verbs: *answer, drink, hear, say, see, speak, tell*

Borrowings

The most numerous borrowings in the Old English lexicon were nouns from Latin and Scandinavian.

The oldest Latin borrowings came into English during the first centuries AD. Most of them were brought to Britain by the Angles, Saxons and Jutes. The lower table gives some examples of Old Latin borrowings.

Old Latin	Old English	Modern English
<i>molina</i>	<i>myln</i>	<i>mill</i>
<i>planta</i>	<i>plante</i>	<i>plant</i>
<i>vinum</i>	<i>win</i>	<i>wine</i>

Another group of borrowings from Latin appeared in English after the Christianization. Most of them were of Greek origin.

For instance:

Old Latin	Old English	Modern English
<i>altaria</i>	<i>altare</i>	<i>altar</i>
<i>monachus</i>	<i>munuc</i>	<i>monk</i>
<i>schola</i>	<i>scol</i>	<i>school</i>

Scandinavian borrowings

Here are some Scandinavian borrowings of the Old English period:

Nouns: *dove, egg, fellow*

Adjectives: *ill, low, odd*

Verbs: *get, guess*

Pronouns: *they, their, them*

The phonetic structure of the Scandinavian languages was similar to that of the Old English language, so in some cases their lexical contacts resulted in the emergence of doublets.

For instance:

English	Scandinavian
<i>shirt</i>	<i>skirt</i>
<i>whole</i>	<i>hale</i>

Words formed on the English ground

Words on the English ground were formed mainly by affixation, sound alternation, and compounding. Affixation was the most productive way of word-formation in Old English. The examples below illustrate some productive affixes of that period.

-dom, -er, -fuly -hood, -ing, -less, -ness, mis-, -ship, un-:

freedom, spinster, careful, childhood, darling, helpless, darkness, misdeed, unfair

Among Old English compound words were nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

For instance:

neighbour (from O. E. *nēah* = 'near' and *Ʒebur* = 'inhabitant')

holiday (from O. E. *hāliƷ* = 'holy' and *dæƷ* = 'day')

away (from O. E. *on > a* and *weƷ* = 'way')

The Middle English lexicon

The replenishing of the English lexical system went at the expense of new words formed from existing morphemes (words formed on the English ground) and new loan words.

Words formed on the English ground

Words formed on the English ground (or: **English proper words**) constitute the neutral (or: common) part of the English vocabulary.

During the Middle English period, the system of word formation underwent changes due to the reduction of unstressed vowels and the atrophy of grammatical endings in nouns, adjectives, and verbs. The most essential changes were as follows:

1. Changes in sound forms and spelling of most affixes

Compare:

Old English	Middle English
<i>-had</i>	<i>-hood</i>
<i>-scipe</i>	<i>-ship(e)</i>
<i>-sum</i>	<i>-some</i>

2. The way of word-formation through sound alternation became non-productive

3. A new way of word-formation - **conversion**- appeared (at the end of the Middle English period)

Borrowings

The majority of the Middle English borrowings came from or via Old French and also from Latin. Most of them were nouns, which belonged to various spheres of notions. Here are some Middle English words borrowed from Old French.

Government, law, religion, and military affairs: *armour, battle, case*

Cookery, fashion, art, and entertainment: *art, beef, collar, pleasure*

The Modern English lexicon

The following processes can characterize the development of the English lexicon during the Modern period:

1. Formation of new lexical units denoting new realia by **affixation, compounding** and **conversion**:

driver, spelling, drinkable, shortage, disregard, nominee, talkative, amazement, recollect, starvation

New productive patterns developed in compounding during the Modern period:

Adj. + N.

blackboard

Gerund + N.

booking-office, smoking-room

New conversion patterns developed during the Modern period:

Adj. < N

winter (day) < winter

N. < Adj.

a round < round

V. < Adj.

to empty < empty

Adv. < Prep.

about, before, inside

Adv. < Adj.	<i>fast, hard, late</i>
N. < Grammatical words	<i>the how and the why; ups and downs</i>
V. < Grammatical words	<i>to down tools</i>
Adj. < Phrase	<i>down-and-out</i>
V. < Adj.	<i>to dirty < dirty</i>
V. < Adv.	<i>to down < down</i>

2. Re-interpretation of existing lexical units to name new realia, (this process brought to the development of polysemy in words).

For instance:

The word	Initial meaning	New meaning
<i>bulb</i> (from Latin)	цибулина	1.электрична лампа 2.балон
<i>paper</i> (from Old French, from Latin, from Greek)	папір	1.газета 2.документ

3. Borrowings (mainly from French and Latin)

Latin words were usually borrowed through written translations. They constituted adjectives and verbs, while earlier Latin borrowings were mostly nouns.

For instance: *deficient, inferior, comprehend, deduce, distribute*

Not only isolated Latin words were borrowed, but also derivational series:
cordial - cordiality, evident - evidence, indicate - indicator

The majority of French borrowings fall on the end of the 17th, the beginning of the 18th centuries. In dictionaries, they are marked with the letter **F**.

Mass borrowings of adjectives from Latin and French resulted in so called **lexical suppletion**. Linguists use this term to describe the relationships between the words in pairs like:

son - filial town - urban heart - cordial

In such pairs, native nouns semantically correlate with adjectives borrowed either from Latin or from French.

4. Formation of common nouns from proper names: morocco, Chippendale, boycott

5. Mass formation of shortened forms.

Questions

1. Characterize the periods of the development of the English language.
2. Describe the basic processes in the Old English lexicon.
3. Characterize the main processes in the Middle English lexicon.
4. Characterize the main processes in the Modern English lexicon.
5. Analyze the structure of the present-day English lexicon. Supply examples.

Chapter 3

The History of the Ukrainian Lexicon

Key words: analytical system, borrowed element, Church Slavonic, Common Slavonic, disintegration of the USSR, fusive languages, Indo-European family, Kyivan Rus, lexical cognates, Middle Ukrainian, Modern Ukrainian, Moscow period, native element, Old Rus'ian, Old Slavic, Old Ukrainian, Pra-Slavic, Proto-Slavic, Russification, Soviet period, synthetic system, Ukrainian proper words.

Plan

1. Basic differences between English and Ukrainian
2. The origin and development of the Ukrainian language
3. Etymological survey of the Ukrainian lexicon
4. The English element in the Ukrainian lexicon and the Ukrainian element in the English lexicon. Ukrainian-English lexical cognates

1. Basic differences between English and Ukrainian

Ukrainian, as well as English belongs to the Indo-European family of languages. The table below shows the positions of Ukrainian and English in the Indo-European family.



Indo-European languages belong to so called **fusive** languages. In fusive languages, attaching affixal morphemes (affixes or inflections) to stems is followed by changes in their phonemic structure.

The **basic difference** between the Ukrainian and the English languages lies in the fact that in Ukrainian the **synthetic** way of expressing the grammatical meaning dominates, while English is characterized by the prevalence of the **analytical** way.

Synthetic system of a language manifests itself in **grammatical inflections, affixes, sound and stress interchange**, which introduce grammatical meaning directly into the word.

Analytical system is seen in a number of **formal indicators**, such as, **articles, conjunctions, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, word order and intonation** that create the grammatical meaning outside the word.

2. The origin and development of the Ukrainian language

The problem of the origin of the Ukrainian language has not been solved yet.

Some scholars believe that it evolved directly from the Proto-Slavic language, others argue that Proto-Slavic first produced Eastern Slavic or Old Rus'ian, which in its later sub-divisions produced Russian, Ukrainian, and Belorussian. In our further discussion we proceed from the second assumption.

The exact time when Ukrainian became an independent entity is also disputed among linguists. Some ascribe it to the 10th- 11th centuries, others to the 12th century (to the time of the disintegration of the Kyivan State), or to the 14th century.

The prehistoric period

The ancient epoch of the Ukrainian language can be divided into three periods:

The Proto-Slavic period (2500 BC – 1st c. AD)

The Pra-Slavic period (the 1st – 6th cc. AD)

The Common Slavic period (the 6th – 10th cc. AD)

The historic period

Most linguists divide **the historic period** of the development of the Ukrainian language into three sub-periods:

1. **The Old Ukrainian period** (11th – 13th cc.)

2. **The Middle Ukrainian period** (14th – 18th cc.)

3. **The Modern Ukrainian period** (19th c. – the present)

The Old Ukrainian period

The Old Ukrainian period is associated with Kyivan Rus. In Kyivan Rus' there were two co-existing literary languages: **Old Slavonic** and **Old Rus'ian**.

The Old Rus'ian literary language was derived from the **Kyivan koiné**.

The Middle Ukrainian period

The Tatar invasions in the 13th century led to the disintegration of Kyivan Rus'. It resulted in the formation of three ethnolinguistic communities: Russia, Ukraine, and Belorussia.

In 1320 Ukraine suffered Lithuanian and Polish invasions, which resulted in the division of all the Ukrainian lands except Galicia and Transcarpathia between the Kingdom of Poland and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. During that period, the Ukrainian literary language developed two forms: **Galician** and **Volhyno-Polisian**.

The Ukrainian literary language of the 17th c. developed on the Church Slavonic base, with an abundance of polonisms and latinisms in its vocabulary. On the other hand, the Ukrainian literary language of that period showed a gradual increase of popular elements in its structure.

With the 18th century, the number of polonisms began to diminish and there was a movement to bring the literary language closer to the spoken language. But the fall of the Ukrainian Hetman State after the battle of Poltava in 1709 interrupted this process. For the most part, Ukrainian could thenceforth only be used without

hindrance in Galicia. In the central and eastern Ukraine Russification began.

The Modern Ukrainian period

In the 19th century the literary language of the 17th-18th cc. suffered disintegration, and a new literary form came into existence. It was derived from the Kyivan and Poltavan koinés.

By the second half of the 19th century, the Ukrainian language had formed its scientific, journalistic and documentary styles. This development, however, was ended by the prohibition of printing in the Ukrainian language in the Russian Empire in 1863. Up to 1905, the Russian government forbade the public use of Ukrainian beyond belles-lettres, and excluded it from education until 1917. This ban did not extend to Galicia, which was under Austria.

After the Revolution of 1917, the Ukrainian language became the language of administration, public gathering, and of the press on the territory of the Soviet Ukraine. The Ukrainianization began in schools.

There was an impressive upsurge in the linguistic research into the Ukrainian language. Important scientific works were published on the history, structure and on the dialectology of Ukrainian. Mass publication of Ukrainian-Russian and Russian-Ukrainian dictionaries began. For the first time in the history of Ukrainian, the language was normalized. The normalization of pronunciation, spelling, grammar, and vocabulary was conducted, basically, on a scholarly basis (this work was concentrated in the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences).

3. Etymological survey of the Ukrainian lexicon

As well as the English vocabulary system, the Ukrainian lexicon is the product of many epochs, and its formation is closely connected with the history of the Ukrainian language. So, historically, it is possible to divide the Ukrainian lexicon into three layers: **the Old Ukrainian lexicon, the Middle Ukrainian lexicon, and the Modern Ukrainian lexicon.**

The Old Ukrainian lexicon

The Old Ukrainian lexicon consists of the following groups of words:

- **Pra-Slavic words**
- **Common Slavic words**
- **Old Ukrainian words**
- **Words formed on the Ukrainian lexical-semantic ground**

Pra-Slavic words

Pra-Slavic words (about 5,000 lexemes) constitute the nuclear part of the Ukrainian lexicon. They are root-words and words with a lost derivational motivation. The Pra-Slavic element comprises the following groups of words:

- **Words of the Indo-European stock**
- **Pra-Slavic proper words**
- **Borrowings from other languages**

Words of the Indo-European stock:

мати, син, брова, ніс, вода, молоко, сук, кора, день, небо, стояти, малий, білий, рудий

Pra-Slavic proper words

Pra-Slavic proper words developed in the two ways:

•through **morphological derivation** from Pra-Indo-European roots and from Pra-Slavic derived forms: *правда, швець, короткий, молотити, потік, ведмідь*

•through **semantic transformations**:

For instance, the word *берег* appeared as a result of semantic change in the Old Upper Germanic word *berg* that had the meaning ‘mountain’. The present-day meaning of the word *брати* is the result of semantic transformations in the Old Hindi word *bharati* that possessed the meaning ‘bear’.

Borrowings from other languages

A considerable part of Pra-Slavic borrowings came from the **Germanic** languages: *блюдо, колодязь, короп, скло, хліб, холм, холодний*

A lot of borrowings came **via the Germanic languages**.

For instance:

From **Latin**: *дошка, котел*

From **Greek**: *корабель, хрест*

From **Iranian**: *бог, рай, ватра*

Direct borrowings from Latin: *вівтар, вино, кіт*

Of non Indo-European languages, the **Turkic** languages made the greatest contribution to the Pra-Slavic lexicon: *бісер, богатир, боярин, хан, товар*

Most Turkic borrowings have become completely assimilated, so they are not felt as a foreign component.

Common Slavonic words:

оболонь, криниця, сало, мука, блукати, диво, червоний, синій, гіркий, я, ми, він, хто, що, в, за, у, там, тут, далеко, вчора

Old Ukrainian lexicon

The Old Ukrainian lexicon includes Church Slavonic words, Old Russ’ian words, and borrowings which appeared in it during the Kyivan Rus’ period.

The Church Slavonic lexicon

According to their structural and semantic features, Old Slavonic words can be subdivided into three groups:

- **phonetic slavinisms** (words that differ from their Old Rus’ian

equivalents only phonetically: *глас /голос*)

- **lexical slavinisms** (words that appeared as a result of translations from Greek: *мудрість, чистота*)
- **semantic slavinisms** (words that came into existence either at the Common Slavic time or during the Indo-European period, but developed their present-day meanings during the Old Slavonic period: *блуд, гріх*)

The Old Russ'ian lexicon

The Old Russ'ian lexicon consisted of Pra-Slavic and Common Slavic words and expressions, and derivational innovations of that period. Most of them were derived from Pra-Slavic stems. Such innovations are found in the 9th- 13thcc. manuscripts.

For instance:

наставничати, наставление, білка, кішка, щавель, хвоц, мішок, коромисло, пряник, харч, брага, митник, балувати, велич, довірря, дешевий, курносий, спасибі, зовсім, після, поки, тепер, так-сяк

The words given above constituted part of the vocabulary system of the **Kyivan koiné**.

Linguists have recorded the following processes in the development of the Old Ukrainian lexical system:

- **The development of word-formation:** *таити* > *нотаити* (in Modern Ukrainian - *таїти*)
- **Semantic transformations:** *вовна* (= sheep's wool) appeared as a result of semantic transformations in the Old Rus'ian word *въл'на* (= wave)
- **The development of polysemy:** the word *рѣсь* (in Modern Ukrainian - *мова*) acquired at that time such new meanings as 'розмова', 'розповідь', 'посвідчення'
- **The development of synonyms containing Slavic roots:** *рѣци* - *мълвити* (in Modern Ukrainian - *ректи, мовити*)

Borrowings

The most numerous borrowings in Old Ukrainian were of **Greek origin**. They came through written speech (mainly from ecclesiastic literature) and through oral speech. The former contributed to the bookish vocabulary, the latter - to the everyday lexicon.

Bookish vocabulary: *алілуя, астрономія, симфонія, синтаксис*

Everyday vocabulary: *аромат, варвар, кедр, кипарис*

Other sources of borrowings

Latin (usually via **Greek**): *кесар, коляда, фортуна*

Germanic: *якір, стяг*

Turkic: *аркан, аршин, ішак*

Scandinavian: *Ігор, Ольга, варяг*

Persian: *базар, собака, шатер*

The Middle Ukrainian lexicon

Borrowings

During this period the Ukrainian lexical system borrowed words from various sources. A lot of Lithuanian, Polish, and Turkic borrowings came into Ukrainian directly. Borrowings from Greek came via Church Slavonic. New words from Latin, German and Czech usually came via Polish.

For instance:

From **Czech:** *барва, влада, владар*

From **German** (partly **via Polish**): *герб, грати, ґрунт, дах, кошт*

From **Greek** (often **via Church-Slavonic**): *академія, демократія, економія*

From **Latin** (usually **via Polish**): *цибуля, копія, літера, мінута*

From **Lithuanian:** *бурчати, ківш, куль*

From **Polish:** *завжди, зброя, масток, обіцяти, шлюб*

From the **Turkic languages:** *козак, курінь, майдан, отара, табун*

Ukrainian proper words

Among **Ukrainian proper words** registered at that period were:

бандура, борщ, гай, галушка, голубці, гопак, жовтень, капелюх, куліш, млинці, мрія, хист, спідниця, хустка, черевик

The Moscow period

During the Moscow period new Ukrainian words continued to be formed from native and foreign stems mainly through affixation and compounding

For instance: *городина, молодик, перепічка, полумисок*

Throughout the 17th –19th centuries, the Ukrainian lexicon was replenished by borrowings from Russian, French (usually via Russian), and Latin (usually via French and Russian). Many words were borrowed from Polish, German, Hungarian, and Rumanian.

Examples:

автомат – Greek via French and Russian

аналіз – Greek via French and Russian

ангіна – Latin via Russian

алея – French via Polish

алігатор – Spanish via English and Russian

анатомія – Greek via Russian and German

баиштан – from Turkic

бот, гавань – Dutch via Russian

бринза, кукурудза – from Rumanian

камзол – French via Russian

тарілка – from German

фланель– English via Russian

Among **Russian proper** words introduced into Ukrainian during that period were: *дуло, мужик, квартира, кріпость, начальник, руб, чиновник.*

The Modern Ukrainian lexicon

The Soviet period

The most striking features in the development of the Ukrainian vocabulary during the Soviet period are as follows:

1. Ukrainian absorbed a great number of Sovietisms in the areas of administration and ideology. Most of them were **translation loans**.

For instance:

Ukrainian	Russian
антирадянський	антисоветский
держплан	госплан
колгосп	колхоз

2. Alongside translation loans, numerous Russian innovations were directly introduced into Ukrainian: *комсомол, політрук, трудовень, чекіст, цілинник*

3. Foreign borrowings came into Ukrainian via Russian and directly.

The development of the Ukrainian vocabulary during the Post-Soviet period

According to recent studies, the following dynamic processes can be observed in the present-day Ukrainian vocabulary system:

1. The reanimation of Ukrainian proper words

Compare:

Russian borrowings	Ukrainian proper words
доставка	доставлення
зложник	заручник

2. The formation of new lexical units from native and foreign stems through affixation and compounding: *дебюрократизація, посадовець, кіноринок*

3. Semantic re-interpretation of existing words (the derivation of new senses in existing words through metaphoric or metonymic transfer of meaning):

Word	Primary meaning	New meaning
<i>моги́льник</i>	burial ground, sepulchre	burial ground for radioactive waste products
<i>тайм-аут</i>	a pause in a work or other activity	holiday

One of the most striking features of the semantic development in the present-day Ukrainian vocabulary is the process of **determinization**, that is, the use of scientific terms in common speech: *грошова ін'єкція, реанімація економіки, політичний вектор*

4. Mass formation of partly shortened forms: *адмінреформа, євровалюта, інваспорт*

5. Mass borrowings (mainly from American English): *гамбургер, грант, маркетинг*

These borrowings acquire Ukrainian paradigms and become the bases for the derivation of new words: *консалтинговий, ксерокопіювати, пейджинговий*

Other sources of borrowings into the Ukrainian present-day lexicon:

Russian: *бомж, тусовка, законопослушний*

French: *кутюр'є, шарм, фушет*

German: *автобан, полтергейст*

Italian (usually via English): *спагети, папараці*

Japan: *ніндзя, айкідо, бонсай*

Turkic: *йогурт*

Old Greek: *холокост, харизма*

4. The English element in the Ukrainian lexicon and the Ukrainian element in the English lexicon. Ukrainian- English lexical cognates

The beginning of mass borrowings from English into Ukrainian falls on the 19th century. They were words from political, military, technical, economic, commercial, sporting, food, and cultural spheres, which generally came via Russian: *блокада, бокс, бункер, гол, джаз, дрейф, катер, кекс, клоун, клуб, конвейр, лідер, мічман, нокаут, піжама, ром, танк, торт.*

Ukrainian words in the English vocabulary are not numerous. Those registered in English dictionaries usually denote some Ukrainian realia: *starosta, hetman, kuren*

Lexical cognates are words with common etymological, phonetic, and semantic features. In the lower table there are some examples of Ukrainian-English lexical cognates.

English	Ukrainian
<i>brutal</i>	<i>брутальний</i>
<i>ground</i>	<i>грунт</i>
<i>kettle</i>	<i>котел</i>
<i>mill</i>	<i>млин</i>
<i>murder</i>	<i>мордувати</i>

The bulk of Ukrainian-English lexical cognates is estimated at about 6,870 units. They belong to the oldest layers of the English and Ukrainian vocabulary systems.

Questions

1. Speak on the basic distinctions between the English and the Ukrainian languages.
2. Characterize the Ukrainian lexicon at each period of its development.
3. How was Church-Slavonic formed?
4. Give examples of various borrowings in Ukrainian and characterize them.
5. Give examples of Ukrainian-English lexical cognates.
6. Characterize word-formation processes in the present-day Ukrainian lexical system.

Chapter 4

Borrowings: their types and assimilation

Key words: antepenultimate stress, completely assimilated borrowings, degree of assimilation, etymological doublets, grammatical assimilation, morphological assimilation, partly assimilated borrowings, phonetic assimilation, proper borrowings, semantic assimilation, semantic loans, translation loans, unassimilated borrowings

Plan

1. Assimilation of borrowings
2. Degrees of assimilation of borrowed words
3. Types of borrowed words
4. Etymological doublets

1. Assimilation of borrowings

Assimilation is the transformation of a word according to the norms of the adopting language.

The process of assimilation of borrowed words includes changes in their sound-form, spelling, morphological and grammatical paradigms, and in their meaning.

The older the word is, and the more frequently it is used in speech, the more assimilated this word becomes.

Phonetic assimilation

Phonetic assimilation involves changes in sound-forms and stress. It takes place if sounds in borrowed words are strange to the adopting language.

For instance:

[ei] replaced French [é] in *cafe* ['kæfeɪ]

The pronunciation of the combinations [pn], [ps] in Greek words was simplified:

pneumonia [nju'mə uniə]

pseudonym ['sjuɒdɒnim]

In the process of phonetic assimilation the position of the stress often changes.

Compare:

Word	Unassimilated pronunciation	Assimilated pronunciation
<i>ballet</i>	[bæ'leɪ]	['bæleɪ]
<i>жокей</i>	['dʒɔki]	[ʒɔ 'kej]

Differences in the stress position in English native and borrowed words can also be observed in the process of affixation when native words keep the stress on the root syllable and some borrowed words (mostly Latin of the later period) shift the stress.

Compare:

'*friend* – '*friendly* – '*friendship* – '*friendliness* (Native)

'*pure* – *puri*'*fy* – *purifi*'*cation* (Latin)

Grammatical and morphological assimilation

Being introduced into another language, borrowed words usually develop new derivational and grammatical paradigms according to the norms and patterns of the adopting language. This process is called grammatical and morphological assimilation.

For instance:

glasnostian, *perestroikan*, adj. (new derivational paradigms)

sputnik, *sputniks*, *sputnik's*, *sputniks'* (a new grammatical paradigm)

Grammatical and morphological assimilation of borrowings is more complete in Ukrainian than in English. In the English lexical system there are borrowings that have preserved their original paradigms. Most of them are terms of Greek and Latin origin.

For example:

Singular	Plural	Origin
<i>crisis</i>	<i>crises</i>	Latin
<i>fungus</i>	<i>fungi</i>	Latin from Greek
<i>chateau</i>	<i>chateaux</i>	French

Semantic assimilation

Words are usually borrowed only in one or two meanings and retain them in the process of assimilation.

For instance, the French word *matinée* was borrowed only in the meaning ‘an afternoon performance at a cinema or theatre’.

Borrowed words may develop their meanings. For instance, the word *mouvoir*, borrowed from Old French, was transformed into *move* and developed the following new meanings:

to propose / to change one's flat / to mix with people

2. The degrees of assimilation of borrowings

According to **the degree of assimilation**, borrowed words in English and in Ukrainian can be sub-divided into three groups:

- **completely assimilated**
- **partly assimilated**
- **non- assimilated**

Completely assimilated borrowings

The majority of the English completely assimilated borrowings include early Latin and early French borrowings and words borrowed from Scandinavian throughout the 8th – 12th centuries.

Most of Ukrainian completely assimilated borrowings include early Greek, early Germanic, and early Turkic words.

Completely assimilated borrowings have the same features as the native words.

Partly assimilated borrowings

Partly assimilated borrowings have retained some of their foreign features (mostly in pronunciation) like, for instance, late French borrowings in English and in Ukrainian:

buffet, ballet, genre, machine, будуар, десант, жабо, жюри, турне, фасад, екiпаж

Non-assimilated borrowings

Non-assimilated borrowings are words and phrases that have preserved their original spelling, pronunciation, and meaning.

For instance:

bon mot (= a witty saying) – from French

de факто (= in fact) – from Latin

3. Types of borrowed words

English and Ukrainian borrowed words may be subdivided into two classes:

- **proper borrowings**
- **translation loans** (also: **loan translations**)

Proper borrowings are words and expressions that retain their foreign form and meaning.

For example:

modus vivendi (= an agreement establishing a temporary compromise between two groups in conflict) – from Latin

vis-a-vis (= face to face) – from French

Translation loans are words and expressions that are taken from another language through literal translation. Translation loans can be sub-divided into **lexical** and **semantic**.

Lexical translation loans (also **calques**) take place when in the process of the literal translation borrowed expressions preserve their original meaning.

Compare:

Latin	English	
<i>lapsus linguae</i>	<i>a slip of the tongue</i>	
German	English	
<i>ding an sich</i>	<i>thing in itself</i>	
French	English	Ukrainian
<i>la lune de miel</i>	<i>honey moon</i>	медовий місяць

Semantic translation loans appear when a foreign meaning is transferred into a native word. For instance, the word *dream* meant ‘joy’ in Old English. Its present meaning was borrowed from the related Old Scandinavian word *draum*.

4. Etymological doublets

Etymological doublets are words originating from the same etymological root or from the same etymological source, but different in their sound form and meaning. Nevertheless, etymological doublets have preserved some phonetic and semantic features that reflect their common origin.

For instance:

<i>canal</i> – Latin	<i>channel</i> – French
<i>secure</i> – Latin	<i>sure</i> – French
<i>screw</i> – Scandinavian	<i>shrew</i> – English

Etymological doublets may be borrowed from different languages and from

the same language. For instance, the etymological doublets *corpse* and *corps* came from French, but at different periods of time.

Etymological doublets usually come in pairs, though three or even more doublet variants are also possible.

For instance:

<i>capture</i> – Latin	<i>catch</i> – Norman French	<i>chase</i> –French
<i>hospital</i> – Latin	<i>hostel</i> – Norman French	<i>hotel</i> –French

It is important to distinguish between **etymological doublets** and **morphological doublets**. Morphological doublets are pairs consisting of full words and their shortened variants.

For instance:

mod cons < *modern conveniences*

lab < *laboratory*

sis < *sister*

A greater part of etymological doublets in English come from Latin and French.

Questions

1. What are the types of borrowed words? Give examples of such types.
2. What are completely assimilated borrowings?
3. What is the difference between completely and partly assimilated borrowings?
4. What does the process of assimilation of borrowed words mean?
6. Give examples of phonetic, morphological and semantic assimilation of borrowed words.
7. Explain difference between etymological and morphological doublets.

Chapter 5

Morphemic structure of words

Key words: allomorph, bound morpheme, derivational morpheme, free morpheme, inflectional morpheme, pseudomorpheme, root-morpheme, segmentability, semi-bound morpheme, unique morpheme, zero-morpheme

Plan

1. Morphemes. Classifications of morphemes. Zero-morpheme
2. Allomorphs
3. Segmentability of words

1. Morpheme

At the morphemic level, linguists split words into smaller parts called **morphemes**.

Morpheme comes from Greek ‘morphe’ = form, and ‘eme’ = minimal distinctive feature.

A morpheme is the minimal meaningful form of language capable of retaining the same meaning in a variety of linguistic contexts.

For instance, we can divide the word *looking* into two parts, which retain the same meaning in various contexts: *look-* and *-ing*. These parts are called morphemes, and each is composed of phonemes:

look-/l/, /u/, /k/

-ing-/i/, /ŋ/

Words may consist of:

- one morpheme (such words are called **monomorphemic**, or word-morphemes, or root-words): *cat*, *день*
- two morphemes (such words are called **bimorphemic**): *lovely*, *розбуми*
- three or more morphemes (they are called **polymorphemic**): *irresponsible*, *переважний*

Zero-morpheme

In terms of modern linguistics, it is possible to introduce the concept of a zero morpheme, which has a clear meaning, but not formal realization. The noun plural morpheme is a good example to explain this concept.

Compare the following sentences:

*The sheep **is** asleep.*

*The sheep **are** asleep.*

The formal aspect of the ‘invisible’ plural morpheme in the second sentence is seen in the fact that it controls its structure (see the change *is* > *are*). In such cases the plural morpheme is realized as a **zero morpheme** or a **zero allomorph**: {-o}.

Zero morphemes need to be **contextualized** in order for the meaning to be clearly expressed.

Compare:

I usually **cut** meat into small pieces.

Then she **cut** the meat into small pieces.

In these sentences the exact meaning of the verb cut (the simple present or the simple past tense) is signaled by the context (by the words I, usually, she, and the).

Zero morphemes in Ukrainian:

Ukrainian words like *дід*, *кит*, *піс* contain a zero morpheme with the

grammatical meanings of the nominative case and the masculine gender.

Classifications of morphemes

I. According to **the role they play in constructing words**, morphemes fall into two groups:

root

affixal

The **root morpheme** is the **basic component** of a word. It conveys the **lexical** meaning of a word.

For example, in the word *blackness* the part *black-* is a root-morpheme, which possesses the meaning of a certain colour.

Affixal morphemes are subdivided into **inflectional morphemes** or **inflections** and **derivational morphemes** or **affixes**. **Inflections**, as a rule, possess **grammatical** meaning.

For instance, the morpheme *-s* in words *stands, sits, reads* has the grammatical meaning of the 3rd person singular, the Simple Present Tense, Active Voice.

Derivational morphemes possess **lexical-grammatical** meaning.

For instance, the suffix *-less* has the grammatical meaning of an adjective-forming suffix, and the generalized lexical meaning of 'Tack of something'.

II. According to **their position in words**, affixes are subdivided into **prefixes** and **suffixes**.

Prefixes are affixes, which precede the root-morpheme:

unusual, нiдiїти

Suffixes are affixes, which follow the root morpheme:

homeless, свiтлий

English native words are usually monomorphemic, while Ukrainian native words are bimorphemic.

For instance:

get (*get-* is a root morpheme)

лит-о (*лит-* is a root morpheme, *-о* is an inflectional morpheme)

лист (лист – is a root morpheme + zero morpheme with the meaning of the nominative case and the masculine gender)

III. According to **the degree of freedom**, morphemes fall into three types:

free morphemes

bound morphemes

semi-free (also: semi-bound) morphemes

A free morpheme is one that can function independently.

A bound morpheme is one that cannot function independently and needs to be attached to other morphemes. Inflections are naturally bound morphemes. Most affixes are also bound morphemes.

For example, *-ion* (*promotion*), *пере-* (*передавати*)

There are morphemes that occur as both bound and free. They are called **semi-free** or **semi-bound**.

Compare:

less and *fearless*
able and *drinkable*
без and *безглуздя*

There is also a **stress-phoneme**, which functions as a morpheme, because it changes meaning in words.

Compare:

con'duct, v. – '*conduct*, n.
засі'яти – *за'сіяти*

2. Allomorph

One or more variants of a morpheme as conditioned by its position or by neighboring sounds are called the allomorphs of this morpheme.

For instance, the morpheme *in-* in different positions has the following realizations:

il- before **l**: *illegal*
im- before the bilabials **b, m, p**: *imbalance, immoral, impossible*
ir- before **r**: *irresponsible*

Consequently, the morpheme *in-* has three allomorphs:

in- → {*im-*}; {*il-*}; {*ir-*}

Instances of **Ukrainian** allomorphs:

-ськ- {**-зьк-**, **-цьк-**}: *сільський, французький, козацький*
-ащ- {**-ящ-**}: *пропащий, гулящий*

3. Morphemic segmentability of words

As far as the morphemic structure of the word is concerned, all English and Ukrainian words fall into two large classes:

segmentable words

non-segmentable words

The first class includes words in which the segmentation into morphemes is possible.

For instance: *agree/ment, за/їму*

The second class includes words, which do not allow any segmentation into morphemes.

For instance: *house, доу*

There may be **three types** of morphemic segmentation:

complete
conditional
defective

Complete segmentation takes place in words whose morphemes are distinguishable. A morpheme becomes distinguishable if it recurs with the same meaning in a number of words.

For example the English and Ukrainian morphemes *un-* and *не-* recur with the meanings 'not', lack of, and 'opposite' in many words: *unemployment, непродуктивний*.

Consequently, these morphemes are distinguishable.

Conditional morphemic segmentation is characteristic of those words whose segmentation into morphemes is doubtful.

For instance, in words like *receive, deceive, perceive, conceive*, it is possible to single out the part *-ceive*, but it does not possess lexical or grammatical meaning. Such morphemes are called **pseudo morphemes** or **quasi morphemes**. Quasi morphemes often occur in Latin borrowings.

Defective morphemic segmentation takes place in words whose morphemes are distinguishable, but never or seldom recur in other words.

For example, in the words *cranberry, gooseberry, strawberry* the morphemes *cran-*, *goose-*, and *straw-* are **unique morphemes**.

Questions

1. What are the differences between a morpheme, a zero- morpheme, and an allomorph?
2. What are pseudo-morphemes and unique morphemes?
3. What types of meaning do root-morphemes, inflectional and derivational morphemes possess?
4. Characterize the types of morphemic segmentability in words.

Chapter 6

Affixation and conversion in English and Ukrainian

Key words: affix, affixation, conversion, derivation, derivational paradigm, hybrid, prefix, productive, root, stem, suffix

Plan

1. Highly productive and less productive ways of word- formation in English and Ukrainian
2. Affixation
3. Conversion (functional shift)

1. Highly productive and less productive ways of word- formation in English and Ukrainian

Word-formation is the creation of new words from material available in a language after certain structural and semantic patterns.

From the point of view of their productivity, the ways of word-formation fall into two groups: **highly productive** and **less productive**. The highly productive ways of morphological word-formation are:

In English:

affixation
conversion
compounding

In Ukrainian:

affixation (usually combined with **sound interchange**)
compounding

Affixation and conversion are the ways of **morphological derivation**.
Compounding is the way of **morphological** or **syntactic composition**.

The less productive ways of morphological word-formation in English and in Ukrainian include:

back formation
blending
distinctive stress
shortening
sound imitation

2. Affixation

Affixation is the formation of new words by attaching affixes to a stem.

The basic component of a word in this process is its **stem**.

The stem is a part of a word, which remains unchanged throughout the grammatical paradigm of this word.

The root is the basic part of a word, which remains unchanged in the process of morphological derivation.

The root is the transmitter of the **lexical meaning** of a word. **The stem** of a word possesses **lexical** and **part-of-speech meaning**, or, in other words, **lexical-grammatical** meaning.

Types of stems

English and Ukrainian stems maybe subdivided into three types:

simple / derived / compound

Simple stems coincide with the roots of words.

For instance, in the word *changeable*, the part *change*-serves as a stem for the suffix *-able* to create a new word. At the same time, it is the root of the word.

Derived stems contain one or more affixes.

For instance, in the word *restlessness*, *rest-* is a root, and *restless-* is the stem for the suffix *-ness*.

Compound stems are made up of two or more simple stems.

For instance, the word *icebreaker* contains *ice-* and *break-*, which form the stem *icebreak-* for the suffix *-er*.

Examples of **Ukrainian stems**: *лес-ник*(simple stem), *задзюркотати*(derived stem), *судочинство*(compound stem).

Types of English and Ukrainian affixes

There are three possible types of English and Ukrainian affixes:

Prefixes – affixes, which precede the stem.

Suffixes – affixes, which follow the stem.

Infixes – affixes that occur between stems.

Prefixes and suffixes differ in their derivational features. Suffixes usually convert words into other parts of speech, prefixes do not do that.

For instance:

mean, v. > *meaning*, n.

значити, v. > *значення*, n.
sleep, v. > *oversleep*, v.
ходити, v. > *приходити*, v.

There are, however, some prefixes that convert words into other parts of speech.

For instance:

able, adj. > *enable*, v. *case*, n. > *encase*, v.

Classifications of English and Ukrainian suffixes

English and Ukrainian suffixes may be classified according to their **grammatical functions, etymology, productivity, valency and meaning.**

1. The **grammatical function** of suffixes is to convert words into **other parts of speech** and, accordingly, they fall into noun-forming, verb-forming, adjective-forming, and adverb-forming suffixes.

2. According to their **etymology** suffixes fall into native and borrowed. The table below shows some of the English native suffixes.

English native suffixes (of Germanic origin)

Noun-forming	-dom, -er, -hood, -ing, -ness, -ship: <i>freedom, reader, childhood, forgetfulness, friendship</i>
Adjective-forming	-en, -ful, -ish, -less, -some, -y: <i>wooden, fruitful, bookish, listless, tiresome, soapy</i>
Verb-forming	-en, -er, -ish: <i>shorten, twitter, furnish</i>
Adverb-forming	-ly, -ward {wards}: <i>widely, forward</i>

English borrowed suffixes (of non-Germanic origin)

Examples below illustrate some suffixes of Latin, Greek, and French origin:

-able < Fr. < L., *drinkable*
-ance {-ence} < Fr., *significance, difference*
-age < Fr., *coverage*
-al < Fr. < L., *logical*
-ism < Fr. < L. < Gk., *realism*
-ist < Fr. < L. < Gk., *pacifist*

-ize < Fr. < L. < Gk., *modernize*

Some of these suffixes have become international, so they are also found in Ukrainian.

For instance: *популізм, реалізм, прозеліт*

3. According to their **productivity**, suffixes fall into highly productive and less productive.

For instance:

Highly productive suffixes	Less productive suffixes
Noun-forming <i>-er, -ism, -ist, -ness, -ty</i> <i>reader, realism, pacifist, goodness, novelty</i>	<i>-dom</i> <i>boredom</i>
Adjective-forming <i>-al, -ary, -ed{d}, -ic, -ical, -ing, -less, -y</i> <i>natural, secondary, wooded, public, geographical, intertwining, parentless, sunny</i>	<i>-ly, -ous, -some</i> <i>friendly, furious, tiresome</i>

The most productive English suffixes are of Romanic and Greek origin.

There are **suffixes-homonyms**, which have identical graphical and phonetic forms, but different functional meanings.

For instance:

Suffix	Functional meaning	Example
<i>-al</i>	Adjective forming / noun forming	<i>educational, arrival</i>
<i>-an</i>	Adjective forming / noun forming	<i>republican, politician</i>

Ukrainian is much richer in affixational potential than English. In particular, **Ukrainian native suffixes** have more developed functions, polysemy, and productivity than English native suffixes. For instance, the Ukrainian gender-forming suffixes are much more productive than those in English. Ukrainian suffixes of emotional colouring are more numerous than English ones. Some Ukrainian suffixes of emotional colouring may be attached to any part of speech. These suffixes are greatly influenced by context and intonation. They constitute one of the peculiarities of the morphological structure of Ukrainian words.

For instance:

козаченько, молоденький, брехливенький, пізенько, самесенький

It is also characteristic of many Ukrainian suffixes that they cause an alteration of consonants or vowels in the preceding syllable of the stem.

For instance:

гороx- горошok

голова - голівка

сирота - сирітка

The table below illustrates some Ukrainian productive suffixes.

Ukrainian productive suffixes

Noun-forming	<i>-аль, -ак, -ня</i>	<i>коваль, літак, кохання</i>
Adjective-forming	<i>-ав- {-яв-}, -ат-{- 'ят-}, -ач- {-яч-}</i>	<i>ласкавий, чернявий, патлатий, м'ятний, ледачий, коров'ячий</i>
Verb-forming	<i>-ти, -ати{-яти}</i>	<i>бігти, думати, підкоряти</i>
Adverb-forming	<i>-о, -у</i>	<i>високо, зранку</i>

Classifications of prefixes

A large number of prefixes (English and Ukrainian) are **polysemantic**. The meaning of many prefixes is not quite clear.

Prefixes may be classified according to the same criteria as suffixes.

For instance:

Native prefixes (of Germanic origin)	Borrowed prefixes (of non-Germanic origin)
<i>be-: becloud fore-: forerunner mis-: misprint un-: unstable</i>	<i>dis-: to disclaim en-{em-}: to encase, to embattle ex-: ex-service in-{il-, im-, ir-}: innovation, illiterate, impossible, irresponsive post-: post-natal pre-: pre-arranged re-: re-collect</i>

Some English native prefixes were ousted by their homonymous postpositions, such as *in*, *off*, *on*, *out*, *up*, etc.

For instance:

income, offshore, onlooker, outburst, outcast, outplay, uptake, uptight

Etymologically homonymous affixes

They are affixes identical in form, but different in origin and meaning.

For instance:

Native affixes	Borrowed affixes
<p><i>a-</i> the meaning of state: <i>a</i>float, <i>a</i>fire</p>	<p><i>a-</i> from Greek the meaning of opposition: <i>a</i>moral</p>
<p><i>-ly</i> adverb-forming suffix: <i>sadly</i></p>	<p><i>-ly</i> from Old French <i>-lic</i> adjective-forming suffix with the meaning “like”: <i>womanly</i></p>

English highly productive and less productive prefixes

Examples:

English highly productive prefixes	English less productive prefixes
<p><i>dis-</i>, <i>in-</i>{<i>il-</i>, <i>im-</i>, <i>ir-</i>}, <i>mis-</i>, <i>over-</i>, <i>out-</i>, <i>re-</i>, <i>un-</i>, <i>under-</i>: <i>disclose, immigrant, mislead, oversleep,</i> <i>outbreak, rewrite, undress,</i> <i>underestimate</i></p>	<p><i>arch-</i>, <i>ana-</i>, <i>dys-</i>, <i>ex-</i>, <i>per-</i>: <i>archbishop, anafront, dyslectic,</i> <i>exchange, perforce</i></p>

English prefixes of Romanic origin are much more productive than the native ones.

Many prefixes of Latin and Greek origin also function in Ukrainian. They usually occur in international words and terms.

For instance:

антипатія, диспропорція, демарш, екс-тренер, коагуляція, реінтеграція,
субстракт, трансмісія

Semantic functions of English and Ukrainian affixes

As a rule, neither suffixes nor prefixes in English or Ukrainian have completely definite meanings. Moreover, the same affix may convey different meanings to different words.

For instance:

Affix	Function and meaning	Example
-cy	<p>1. Combines with adjectives and occasionally with nouns, to form new nouns. Nouns formed in this way refer to state, quality, or experience described by the adjective.</p> <p>2. Combines with nouns that refer to people with a particular rank, occupation, or position in order to form nouns. Nouns formed in this way refer directly to that rank, occupation or position.</p>	<p><i>fluency,</i> <i>literacy</i></p> <p><i>candidacy,</i> <i>presidency</i></p>
de-	<p>1. Combines with verbs to form new verbs. Verbs formed in this way describe an action, which has the opposite effect of, or reverses, the process described by the original verb.</p> <p>2. Combines with nouns to form verbs, which indicate that the thing referred to by the noun is removed.</p>	<p><i>declassify,</i> <i>decolonize</i></p> <p><i>de-house,</i> <i>defrost</i></p>
пере-	<p>1. Conveys the meaning of repetition</p> <p>2. Modifies the meaning of the stem for degree or size</p> <p>3. Conveys reverse or opposite meaning</p>	<p><i>перечитати,</i> <i>переобрання</i> <i>пересиченість</i> <i>перебільшувати</i> <i>передумати</i></p>

The table below illustrates some English and Ukrainian affixes with similar semantic features.

Affix	Function and meaning	Example
English: -er, -ist, -ee, -ite, -ese, -eer, -ster, -or, -ard, -ant {-ent} Ukrainian: -ар, -ач, -ець, -ник	Form nouns denoting people according to their professional or social status and activities	<i>worker, socialist, employee, steward, applicant</i> <i>друкар, викладач, виборець, текстильник</i>
English: in-, sub-, super-, trans-, under- Ukrainian: нід-, пере-	Modify the meaning of the stem for place, locality, or order	<i>inside, subdivide, superclass, transact, underground</i> <i>нідрозділ, пересадити</i>

Hybrids

Hybrids are words consisting of morphemes of different origin.

Hybrids occur in the following combinations:

- Foreign stem + native affix(es):
faithful (French root and English suffix)
турпистичний (English root and Ukrainian suffix)
- Native stem + foreign affix(es):
refusenik, breakable
- Miscellaneous types:
unmistakable (English prefix, Scandinavian root and Latin suffix)
постперебудова, антирадянський

Derivational paradigm

The sum total of words formed from the same stem through affixation and conversion constitute the derivational paradigm of the given stem.

For instance:

water-: to water, watery, waterish, waterless, watered, watering
чит-: читати, перечитати, дочитати, читець, читач, читачка,
читання, читальня, читальний, читацький

3. Conversion (functional shift)

Conversion is the formation of new words through changes in their grammatical paradigms.

Conversion is one of the most significant features of Modern English. It appeared at the end of the Middle period as a result of the loss of grammatical inflections in nouns and verbs. This process resulted in the morphemic coincidence of verbs and nouns. Since then conversion has become very productive in English word-formation. In Modern English it is found in all parts of speech.

Conversion does not change the sound or graphic forms of new words. Words change only their paradigms.

At **the morphemic level** we can define conversion as the way of word-formation with the help of a zero-morpheme:

butcher, n. + {o} = butcher, v.

The process of conversion is also called **functional shift**, because the derived word passes into a different part of speech and changes its function.

Types of conversion

The types of conversion in present-day English can be subdivided into highly productive and less productive.

Productive types

- Verbs converted from nouns **V. < N.**
*Do you **bottle** your fruit or freeze it?*
- Adjectives converted from nouns **Adj. < N.**
*Do you often do your **morning** exercises?*
- Nouns converted from adjectives or participles **N. < Adj., Part.**
*There are special schools for **the blind**.*
***The wounded** were taken to the hospital.*
- Nouns converted from verbs **N. < V.**
*Don't be such a **bore**!*

Nouns converted from verbs often combine with the verbs **to have, to get, to give, and to take.**

For example:

to look - to have a look

to ring - to give a ring
to walk - to take a walk
to drink - to get a drink

Less productive types

- Nouns converted from adverbs **N. < Adv.**
*She has got **a down** on me.* (informal) = She is very hostile towards me.
- Nouns converted from conjunctions **N. < Conj.**
*There are too many **ifs** and **buts** in her promise.*
- Nouns converted from modal verbs **N. < Mod. V.**
*Her new novel is **a must** for all lovers of crime fiction.*
- Verbs converted from adjectives **V. < Adj.**
*Her love for him **blinded** her to his faults.*
- Verbs converted from adverbs **V. < Adv.**
*We **downed** our beer and left.*
- Adjectives converted from adverbs **Adj. < Adv.**
*The **then** president didn't know about it.*
- Adjectives converted from prepositions **Adj. < Prep.**
*There is a **through** train to London.*
- Adjectives converted from syntactical groups **Adj. < S. G.**
*She looked **down-and-out**.*
- Adverbs and conjunctions converted from prepositions **Adv., Conj. < Prep.**
*Did we meet **before**?*
*She had dinner **before** they arrived.*
- Adverbs converted from adjectives **Adv. < Adj.**
*He came very **late**.*
*It is snowing **hard**.*

Conversion may be combined with other ways of word-formation.

For instance:

Shortening + conversion:

a telephone > a phone > to phone

SOS (= a call for help in distress) > *to SOS* (to call for help in distress or need)

Compounding + conversion:

*He **redpenciled** the text.*

There are not only conversion pairs in English, but also conversion series. The lower table gives several examples of such series.

Pattern of conversion	Examples
Adj. > N > Adv. > Prep. > V.	<p><i>What's your daily round?</i></p> <p><i>The wheel was turning round.</i></p> <p><i>The bar is round the corner.</i></p> <p><i>Sharon rounded the last bend of the canyon and saw a beautiful valley.</i></p>

Conversion is much less developed in **Ukrainian** than in English due to the bimorphemic character of Ukrainian native words. The most productive types of conversion in Ukrainian are:

- **N. < Adj., Participle**

“Були багаті і убогі,

Прямі були і кривоногі,

Були видюці і сліпі...”

І.Котляревський “Енеїда”

The meanings of the converted forms do not always relate to all the meanings of the source form.

For instance, the noun *paper* has several meanings, such as ‘newspaper’, ‘wallpaper’, ‘academic article’, etc. The verb *to paper*, converted from it, relates only to the ‘wallpaper’.

Semantic relationships between the words in a conversion pair

Semantic relationships between **nouns** referred to **concrete objects** and **verbs** converted from them:

V. < N.

Semantic relationships	Examples
Action characteristic of the object	<i>monkey > to monkey</i>
Instrumental use of the object	<i>whip > to whip</i>
Acquisition or addition of the object	<i>fish > to fish</i>
Deprivation of the object	<i>dust > to dust</i>

Semantic relationships between **verbs** referred to **actions** and **nouns** converted from them:

N. < V.

Semantic relationships	Examples
An instant of the action expressed by the verb	<i>to jump > a jump</i>
An agent of the action expressed by the verb	<i>to help > a help</i>
A place of the action expressed by the verb	<i>to drive > a drive</i>

Sometimes, however, it is difficult to establish direct semantic correspondence between the members of a conversion pair, because the meaning of a converted word may undergo metaphorical or metonymic shift.

Questions

1. What are the most productive ways of word-formation English and in Ukrainian?
2. Explain differences between the root and the stem of a word.
3. Give examples of English and Ukrainian native and borrowed affixes.
4. Give examples of English and Ukrainian highly productive and less productive affixes.
5. Give examples of homonymous affixes.
6. Give examples to illustrate that English and Ukrainian affixes have lexical meanings.
7. Give examples of Ukrainian and English hybrids.
8. Give examples of highly productive and less productive patterns of conversion in English and Ukrainian.
9. Give examples of phrasal conversion pairs.

Chapter 7

Compounding in English and Ukrainian

Key words: affixoids, asyntactic compounds, compound words, coordinate compounds, criteria for compounds, determinant, determinatum, endocentric compounds, exocentric compounds, idiomatic meaning, motivated meaning, sources of compounds, “stone wall” problem, subordinate compounds, syntactic compounds, reduplicative compounds

Plan

1. Morphological structure and spelling of compound words
2. Coordinate and subordinate relationships between the stems in compound

words

3. The determinatum and determinant in a compound word. Endocentric and exocentric compounds
4. Syntactic and asyntactic order of stems in compound words
5. Semantic relationships between the stems in compound words
6. Classifications of compounds according to the parts of speech
7. Reduplicative compounds
8. Criteria for compounds
9. The problems of compounds and derivatives. Affixoids (semi-affixes)
10. Sources of compounds

Compounding is the second highly productive way of word-formation in English and in Ukrainian.

Compounding is morphological or syntactic joining of two or more stems into one word.

Compound words (or compounds) are language units formed by joining two or more stems and having **structural-semantic cohesion**. The structural-semantic cohesion in a compound depends on unity of stress, solid or hyphenated spelling, semantic unity, and unity of morphological and syntactic functioning.

Compounding has been common in all periods of English and Ukrainian.

1. Morphological structure and spelling of compound words

There are the following **types of stems** in English and Ukrainian compound words:

- Simple (also: root) stems:** *classmate, хоровод*
Derived stems: *sleeping-bag, малолітка*
Compound stems: *flower-potstand, жук-короїд*
Abbreviated and shortened stems: *V-day* (= Victory day), *хімзавод*

One of the stems may be a **grammatical form** of a word:

beeswax (the first stem is the plural of the noun *bee*)

перекомунію (the first stem is the imperative form of the verb *перекомунію*)

Compound words may have the structure of a **phrase** containing articles, prepositions or conjunctions (such words are called **syntactic** compounds). This type of compounds (most of them are **adjectives**) is characteristic of present-day English:

end-of-the-world atmosphere, face-to-face conversation

The stems in a compound word may be joined by a **vowel** or **consonant**:

speedometer, salesman, землетрус, місяцехід

The regular pattern in English and Ukrainian is a two-stem compound.

The most vivid **distinction** between English and Ukrainian compounds lies in

the types of their stems. Ukrainian compounds usually consist of **bound stems**, while English compounds are normally **free stems** (they can function as independent words with distinct meanings of their own).

Spelling of compounds

Compound words in present-day English and Ukrainian may be hyphenated, run together, or stand alone.

For instance: *sunflower, культтовари, pale-green, стоп-сигнал, a man of science, рука в руці*

The way of spelling depends on style and personal preferences. The tendency in English now is to reduce hyphenation, either by leaving it out altogether or running together words. The hyphen is more likely to be retained with adjectives than it is with nouns and verbs.

2. Coordinate and subordinate relationships between the stems in compound words

According to the degree of interdependence, there are two types of relationships between **the stems** in a compound word: **the relationships of co-ordination** and **the relationships of subordination**, and according to these relationships, compound words may be subdivided into **coordinate** and **subordinate**.

In **coordinate compounds**, the components are structurally and semantically **independent**. Coordinate compounds are close to free word combinations.

For instance: **Adj. + Adj. > Adj.** *black -and-white, жовто-зелений*
 N. + N. > N. *actor-manager, хлопець-богатир*

In **subordinate compounds** one of the stems **dominates**. A subordinate compound word acquires the grammatical category of its dominant stem. Usually, it is the **second** stem.

For example: **N. + A. > A.** *stone-deaf*
 V. + N. > N. *pickpocket, лежешока*

There are, however, compounds, which acquire the grammatical category of their first stem. It takes place if the second stem is a conjunction, preposition or an adverb.

For example: **N. + Adv. > N.** *passer-by, breakdown*

3. The determinatum and determinant in a compound word. Endocentric and exocentric compounds

Some compounds consist of a determining stem (the **determinant**) and a

determined stem (the **determinatum**).

In order to explain these concepts, let us compare the words *sunlight*, *moonlight* and *starlight*. The first stem in each compound word serves to determine a particular type of light. Such stems are called determinants. The second stem *-light* is a determinatum.

Compounds with the clearly expressed determinant and determinatum are called **endocentric**.

The meaning of the determinatum is the semantic centre of an endocentric compound.

For instance, *a blackboard* is a kind of a board and *a breast-pin* is a kind of a pin.

In other compounds the determinatum is not clearly expressed, but only implied.

For instance, *a scarecrow* is not a type of a crow, *pickpocket* is not a type of a pocket, and *лизоблюди* is not a sort of a dish. Such compounds are called **exocentric**.

4. Syntactic and asyntactic order of stems in compound words

If the order of the stems in a compound word conforms to the rules of syntax, it is called **syntactic**. Syntactic order of stems in compounds resembles the order of words in free word combinations. Compare, for instance, the compound *seashore* with the free word combination *a sea shore*.

If the order of the stems in a compound word does not conform to the rules of syntax, it is called **asyntactic**.

For instance: *thread-bare*, *лоботряс*, *бракороб*

5. Semantic relationships between the stems in compound words

The meaning of a compound word is derived not only from the combined lexical meanings of its stems, but also from the meaning signaled by their order.

There are two basic types of semantic relationships between a compound word and its stems: **motivated** and **non-motivated** (or. **idiomatic**).

If the meaning of a compound word is the sum of the meanings of its components, their relationships are called **motivated**.

For instance, the compounds like *flowerpot* and *маловір* have motivated meanings, which are the sum of the meanings of their component-parts.

The degree of motivation varies in different compounds. In general, there are **completely** and **partly motivated** compounds.

Partly motivated compounds possess additional semantic components. For instance, the meaning of the compound *handbag* has an additional semantic component: 'a woman's bag to keep money and cosmetics'.

If the meaning of a compound has nothing in common with the meanings of its stems, their semantic relationships are called **non-motivated** or **idiomatic**.

For instance:

Wall-flower

Motivated meaning	Idiomatic meaning
a garden plant which usually grows near walls (лакфиоль)	a girl who does not dance because not asked

The table below illustrates the most common and frequent types of semantic relationships between the stems in the **N. + N.** type of **English compounds** as compared with the equivalent free word combinations.

N. + N.

The type of relationships between the stems in a compound word	Pattern	Equivalent free word combination
Relationships of purpose: <i>tea-table, pencil-case</i>	N2. for N1	table for having tea, case for keeping pencils
Partitive relationships: <i>bottle-neck, door-handle</i>	N2 of N1	the neck of a bottle, the handle of a door
Appositional relationships: <i>trap-door, woman-doctor</i>	N2 is N1	a door that is a trap, a doctor who is a woman
Adverbial relationships of space and time: <i>country-club, wheel-chair</i>	N2 in, on N1	a club in the country, a chair on wheels
Relationships of resemblance: <i>sword-fish, bowler-hat</i>	N2 like N1	a fish like a sword, a hat like a bowler
Instrumental or agentival relationships: <i>windmill, steamboat</i>	N2 operated by N1	a mill worked by the wind, a boat run by steam

6. Classifications of compounds according to the parts of speech

Almost all parts of speech in English and Ukrainian lend themselves to compounding. The largest groups of compounds in English and Ukrainian are **compound nouns** and **compound adjectives**.

Examples:

Compound nouns

Pattern	Productive in	Examples
Coordinate		
N. + N.	English / Ukrainian	<i>woman-doctor, купівля-продаж</i>
Subordinate		
N. + N.	English / Ukrainian	<i>ash-tray, небосхил</i>
N. + V.	English / Ukrainian	<i>hair-do, листопад</i>
Adj. + N.	English / Ukrainian	<i>greenhouse, нустоцвіт</i>
V. + N.	English / Ukrainian	<i>pickpocket, лежебока</i>

Compound adjectives

Pattern	Productive in	Examples
Coordinate		
Adj. + Adj. (such compounds called additive)	English / Ukrainian	<i>bitter-sweet, жовтоблакитний</i>
Subordinate		
Adj. + Adj.	English / Ukrainian	<i>light-green, ясно-блакитний</i>
N. + Adj.	English / Ukrainian	<i>worldwide, добронпорядний</i>
N. + Participle	English / Ukrainian	<i>peace-loving, світлолюбний</i>
Adj. + Participle	English / Ukrainian	<i>fast-acting, мертвонароджений</i>

Compound verbs

Pattern	Productive in	Examples
N. + V.	English / Ukrainian	<i>to waylay, руководити</i>
Adj. + V.	English	<i>to broadcast</i>
(N. + N.) + conversion	English	<i>to handcuff</i>

Compound adverbs

English and Ukrainian compound adverbs may be formed after morphological or syntactic type of compounding.

For instance:

elsewhere, however, insofar, nonetheless, notwithstanding, nevertheless, otherwise, somewhat, therefore,

більш-мени, понад усе, разом з тим, тим більш

7. Reduplicative compounds (also: reduplicatives)

Reduplicative compounds fall into three groups:

reduplicative compounds proper

ablaut combinations

rhyming combinations

Reduplicative compounds proper contain two similar stems.

For example: *hush-hush, tick-tick, puff-puff* люлі-люлі

Ablaut combinations are twin-forms that differ in vowels. The most typical vowel interchanges in English are: *i/o* and *i/a*.

For instance: *chitchat, criss-cross, dillydally*

Rhyming combinations are twin forms consisting of two assonant stems.

For instance: *helter- skelter, hocus- pocus*

Reduplicative compounds are very expressive and often stylistically marked (they may be either colloquial, or nursery, or slang words).

8. Criteria for compounds

There are the following criteria to distinguish between compound words and free word combinations:

- stress
- spelling
- morphological structure
- meaning

Stress

In speech, compounds are identified by distinctive stress, which differentiates them from homonymous free word combinations, if these exist. English compounds usually have the primary stress on the first stem, and Ukrainian compounds – on the second stem.

For instance: *'care-free, добро'якісний*

In free word combinations all the notional components are stressed.

Compare: *a 'bluestocking and a 'blue 'stocking*

The criterion of stress cannot be applied to all compounds. Some of them (for instance, many English compound adjectives) are double-stressed, others have the stress on the other stem.

For instance: 'brother-' officer, 'темно-' синій

Meaning

The meaning in a compound is often very different from that in the corresponding free word combination, so meaning may serve as a criterion for distinguishing compounds from free word-combinations.

The semantic criterion cannot be applied to all types of compounds. In most cases, while analyzing compounds, it is necessary to combine various criteria mentioned above.

'Stone wall' problem

The '**stone wall**' problem is the problem of the exact status of the word *stone* in the combinations like *stone wall*.

There are several explanations of its status:

- 1) The first component is a noun, not adjective, because it cannot have the degrees of comparison.
- 2) The first component has a double nature: of a noun and of an adjective, because it has the form of a noun, but perform the function of an attribute.
- 3) The first component is an adjective.

9. Problems of compounds and derivatives. Affixoids (semi-affixes)

There may be problems in distinguishing between compounds and derivatives. For instance, in the words like *half-minded*, *ill-treated*, *well-bred*, *self-centered*, *нівстолиття*, *самопочуття*, it is no easy to decide if the first component is a stem or a prefix.

The first components in these words have become frequently used with various stems and acquired a very high valency, similar to that of affixes. On the other hand, in a number of dictionaries they are not treated as affixes. That is why some linguists call them **affixoids** or **semi-affixes**. Semi-affixes fall midway between affixes and stems.

English and Ukrainian affixoids are characterized by a **high productivity** and **valency**.

10. Sources of compounds

English and Ukrainian compounds are formed in the following ways:

- 1) They are built spontaneously according to existing patterns. Patterns productive at a certain period of time may lose their productivity during another period.
- 2) Compounds may come into existence as a result of a gradual process of **semantic isolation** and **structural fusion** of free word combinations, which in the course of

time become isolated in form, specialized in meaning, and turn into inseparable units.

Most English compound nouns of the **Adj. + N.** type are the result of such semantic and structural isolation of free word combinations.

For example: *blackball, madman*

Questions

1. What is compounding?
2. What types of stems do compound words consist of?
3. What are coordinate compounds?
4. What are the features of subordinate compounds?
5. What is the difference between compounds with syntactic and asyntactic order of stems?
6. What are the basic types of semantic relationships between a compound word and its stems?
7. Which types of compounds are productive in present-day English and Ukrainian?
8. What are the criteria for distinguishing between compound words and free word combinations?
9. What are affixoids?
10. What are the main sources of compounding?
11. Give examples of various types of reduplicative compounds.

Chapter8

Minor ways of word-formation in English and Ukrainian

Key words: abbreviation, acronym, back-formation, blending, clipping, ellipsis, name words, onomatopoeia, shortening, sound alteration, stress interchange, syncope

Plan

1. Shortening
2. Sound alternation
3. Stress interchange
4. Back-formation
5. Ellipsis
6. Sound imitation (onomatopoeia)

The minor ways of word-formation are much less productive than affixation, conversion and compounding.

The most known minor ways of word-formation are **shortening, sound interchange, distinctive stress, sound imitation and back-formation.**

1. Shortening

Shortening lies in substituting part of a lexical unit for its full form.

Ways of shortening:

- graphical abbreviation
- clipping
- shortened compounds
- blending

Graphical abbreviation

The use of letters (usually the initial ones) for full words or word combinations is called **graphical abbreviation**.

For instance: *E.* <East *Ft.* <foot

Many abbreviations are made from the first letters of several words. Most of them are stressed on the last letter.

For instance: *BBQ* <barbecue
 МВФ <Міжнародний валютний фонд

Abbreviated forms may be pronounced **alphabetically** and as **ordinary words**. If an abbreviated form is pronounced alphabetically, it is called an **initialism**. If it is pronounced as an ordinary word, it is called an **acronym**.

Abbreviations have become one of the most noticeable of the present-day English and Ukrainian linguistic life.

Clipping (also: curtailment)

Clipping is using part of a word for its full form. According to the position of the clipped part there are the following types of clipping:

- Initial clipping (apheresis): *phone* < *telephone*, *copter* < *helicopter*
- Medial clipping (syncope): *mart* < *market*
- Final clipping (apocope): *lab* < *laboratory*, *sub* < *submarine*
- Combination of initial and final clipping: *flu* < *influenza*, *fridge* < *refrigerator*

The most **productive** type is the **final** clipping. Clipping of single words is not characteristic of Ukrainian.

Clipping of **single words** in English maybe combined with affixation and conversion.

For instance:

Type of word-formation	Example
Clipping + affixation	<i>postie</i> < <i>postman</i> <i>blackie</i> < <i>blacksmith</i>
Clipping + conversion	<i>fancy</i> , n. (from <i>fantasy</i>) > <i>fancy</i> , v. > <i>fancy</i> , adj.

Abbreviation and clipping in **word-combinations** may also be combined with other ways of word-formation.

The process of shortening creates a new morphological structure of a lexical unit while the meaning usually remains unchanged, though there are exceptions. The shortened form of a polysemantic word usually retains only one of its meanings. For instance, the shortened form *tend* of the verb *to attend* is used only in the meaning 'to look after'.

Shortening usually produces new words of the same part of speech. The bulk of English and Ukrainian shortened forms belongs to the category of noun.

Clipped adjectives and verbs are few in English and are not found in Ukrainian.

For instance: *prep* < *preparatory*
to mend < *to amend*

A clipped word may be regarded:

1. Asastylistic variant of its full prototype:

doc(informal style) < *doctor*(common style)

2. As a separate word that has lost the connection with its full prototype:

fan(afanatical supporter) < *fanatic* (a person with excessive enthusiasm)

Stable shortened forms may oust their full prototypes from usage, as in the case with *BBC*, *NATO*, *laser*, *smog* and others.

Homonymy among shortened forms

Mass formation of shortened words has led to the further development of homonymy, which is considered a negative language phenomenon due to its confusing character.

Compare:

sub < *subeditor*

sub < *subject*

sub < *sublimation*

sub < *submarine*

Blending

Blending is compounding of clipped words. It is a particular case of shortening. This process of word-formation is also called **telescoping**. Words formed by blending are called **blends**, **blendings** or **portmanteau words**.

For instance:

hustle < *hurry* + *bustle*

Blending is an English linguistic phenomenon. In Ukrainian there are only occasional instances of blends, like, for instance the neologism *фpyзyпm*.

There are two types of blends: **additive** and **restrictive**. **Additive compounds** can be transformed into phrases consisting of the equivalent full words combined by means of the conjunction *and*:

smog < *smoke and fog*

The **restrictive type** is found in blends that come from phrases in which the first element modifies the second one:

telecast < *television broadcast*

In restrictive blends, it is the second component that controls the meaning of the whole word.

Blends are not very numerous, though they have come to be widely used in English terminology and advertisements.

Shortened forms are used in various spheres: in science, technology, sport, army, etc. They are especially numerous in colloquial speech and various branches of slang.

2. Sound alternation

Sound alternation is word-formation through phonetic changes in roots of words.

The most characteristic types of sound alternation in present-day English are **vowel interchange** and **consonant interchange**.

Vowel interchange

full - fill hot - heat

Vowel alternation may be combined with affixation:

strong - strength long - length

Consonant interchange

The most productive type of the consonant interchange in English is the voiced-voiceless consonant interchange in **verb-noun** pairs:

to believe–belief
to devise–device
to intend–intent

In some cases voiced-voiceless consonant interchange takes place only at the phonetic level (is not observed graphically):

to use [ju:z] –a use[ju:s]
to mouth[mauð] –a mouth [mauθ]

Vowel + consonant alternations:

live [liv] –life[laif]
bath[ba:θ] –bathe[beið]

Sound alternation is a common phenomenon in **Ukrainian**. The most productive type of Ukrainian sound alternation is vowel interchange combined with affixation:

біль–боліти
день–днювати
ніч–ночувати

3. Stress interchange

Stress interchange usually takes place in pairs of English two-syllable nouns and verbs of Romanic origin in combination with inversion:

ex'port, v. –'export, n.
con'duct, v. –'conduct, n.
cont'rast, v.– 'contrast, n.

A similar phenomenon is observed in some pairs of adjectives and verbs:

'perfect, adj. –per'fect, v.
'abstract, adj. –abst'ract, v.

There are no clear cases of stress interchange in Ukrainian.

4. Back-formation

Back-formation(also: **back derivation** or **reversion**) denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting suffixes from words.

In English, at earlier periods, back-derivation was the result of subtracting imagined suffixes or inflections from borrowed words. For instance, in the word *beggar* (from Old French *begart*), the part *-ar* is a syllable. English speakers, however, mistook it for the suffix to create the verb *beg*. This practice led to the development of a new way of word-formation, which was called back-derivation.

Back-derivation in present-day English is not any more the result of misinterpretation of suffixes or inflections in words. It is subtracting real suffixes from words. Most English words created through back-derivation are verbs:

to baby-sit < baby-sitter

to barkeep < barkeeper

Back-derivation is quite developed in **Ukrainian**. It is especially characteristic of nouns derived from verbs. Back derivation in Ukrainian is often combined with soundalternation:

вибір < вибирати

гнів < гнівити

сад < садити

5. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is leaving out a word or words in a phrase or in a sentence when their absence does not affect the meaning.

Ellipsis is used for reasons of economy, emphasis, or style. Ellipsis may be **grammatical** and **lexical**. **Grammatical ellipsis** takes place when grammatical words are omitted.

For instance:

When(I was) a child, I often played in this garden.

Lexical ellipsis may be considered one of the ways of word-formation.

For instance:

weekly < weekly paper

finals < final examinations

мило < мильна опера

поливати < поливати брудом

Lexical ellipsis usually takes place in two-component word-combinations. One of the components is not used, and its meaning is transferred to the other one.

6. Sound imitation (onomatopoeia)

Sound imitation or onomatopoeia (from Greek 'onoma' = name and 'poiein' = to make) **is forming new words through imitation of different sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, human beings and objects.**

Both English and Ukrainian are rich in onomatopoeic words.

For instance: *buzz, giggle, булькати, скрегіт, шуніти*

Onomatopoeic words do not reflect real sounds directly, they are formed according to certain laws, which are different in different languages. That is why English and Ukrainian onomatopoeic words with the same meaning have different sound structure.

Compare:

to bleat – мекати

to honk – гелготіти

to cackle – кудкудакати

Questions

1. What are the minor ways of word-formation in English and Ukrainian?
2. What is the difference between acronyms and initialisms?
3. Give types and examples of English and Ukrainian single clipped words and compound clipped words.
4. Explain what happens in the process of blending.
5. What are the the basic patterns of sound and stress interchange in English and Ukrainian?
6. How are onomatopoeic words formed?
7. What are the main features of the present-day English and Ukrainian back-derivation?

Chapter9

Word-meaning and its structure

Keywords: categorematic words, connotation, connotative meaning, context, cultural connotation, denotative meaning, emotive connotation, emotionally charged word, evaluative connotation, expressive connotation, grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, referent, referential approach, stylistic connotation, syntactical words

Plan

1. Lexical-grammatical nature of word-meaning
2. Correlation between lexical and grammatical meaning in a word
3. Structure of lexical meaning
4. Emotionally charged words
5. Meaning in morphemes

Meaning is studied within the framework of such disciplines as Philosophy, Logic, Psychology and Linguistics. Meaning as a linguistic category is studied within the framework of Semantics. Unfortunately, neither of these disciplines can fully describe the nature of meaning.

1. Lexical-grammatical nature of word-meaning

Meaning as a linguistic category has lexical-grammatical nature.

Grammatical meaning is the meaning of the formal membership of a word expressed by its grammatical forms. Grammatical meaning has **regular** and **abstract** nature. For example, nouns possess the grammatical meaning of substantivity, adjectives possess the grammatical meaning of quality, and verbs

possess the grammatical meaning of action, process or state.

In most cases grammatical meaning reveals itself in context. There are, however, words, which do not acquire grammatical meanings even in context.

Lexical meaning is a material meaning of a word. It reflects the concept the given word expresses and the basic properties of the entity to which this word refers.

2. Correlation between lexical and grammatical meaning

Word meaning depends not only on the form of a word, but also on its **distribution** (on its position in a phrase or in a sentence, its ability to combine with other word). In many cases correlation between the lexical and grammatical meaning in a word is revealed at the syntactic level.

Compare:

to mean + Vinf. = to want, to intend

I didn't mean to offend you. I mean to read this book.

to mean + Ving. = to signify, to result in sth.

That meant changing our plans for summer.

Word-meaning in English is more syntactically conditioned than it is in Ukrainian due to the analytical character of English. Some words in a sentence may lose their lexical meaning and acquire purely grammatical meaning.

For instance, in the sentence *there is a picture on the wall*, the word *there* does not possess any lexical meaning. It is a formal subject.

There are words, which have no grammatical meaning. Furthermore, their lexical meanings contain only a connotative component. Most of such words belong to **interjections** and **expletive words** which convey various emotions (grief, joy, surprise, irritation, disgust, etc.) depending on context.

For instance: *Oh! Ah! Aha! Alas! Damn! Heaven! Чопм!*

The bulk of English and Ukrainian words, however, contain both lexical and grammatical meaning.

In **categorematic words** (nouns, adjectives, numerals, verbs and adverbs), lexical meaning is the basic component, and it is registered in dictionaries.

In **syntactical words** (articles, conjunctions, prepositions, particles, most pronouns), grammatical meaning is the basic component.

3. Structure of lexical meaning

Lexical meaning has a complex structure, which depends on various factors.

Lexical meaning contains two main components:

- **denotative meaning**
- **connotativemeaning**

Denotative meaning

Denotative meaning provides a criterion of the correct use of the word. For instance, the denotative meaning of the word *bird* is ‘feathered creature with two legs and two wings, usually able to fly’. In other words, denotative meaning is associated with its referent.

Referent is an object or phenomenon, which the given word names. Denotative meaning may have:

- One constant referent

For example: *moon, дощ*

- Several referents:

For example, the word *hand* has the following referents:

- part of the human arm
- a pointer on a clock
- a person (workman)

Denotative meaning does not always have a referent. Many English and Ukrainian adjectives and adverbs have diffusive denotative meanings.

For instance:

good, bad, cheap, expensive, slowly, молодий, здоровий, розумний, швидко

Denotative meaning is also called: **cognitive meaning; conceptual meaning; dictionary meaning; literal meaning; logical meaning; referential meaning.**

Denotative meaning is **synchronically stable**, though in some cases, it undergoes diachronic changes.

Example:

Word	Original meaning	Present-day meaning
fond	foolish	affectionate

Connotative meaning

Connotative meaning is an additional, non-criterial component of lexical meaning. It conveys **expressiveness, evaluativeness, emotiveness and stylistic colouring.**

Expressiveness (or **expressive connotation**) is a linguistically expressed image-bearing quality of an object, phenomenon, or event of our world and life.

Expressive connotations include connotations of **duration**, **cause**, **manner**, etc.

Examples:

Word	Denotative meaning	Expressive connotative meaning	Type of connotation
<i>to glance</i>	to look	briefly	connotation of duration
<i>to shiver</i>	to tremble	with cold	connotation of cause
<i>to drag</i>	to go	with difficulty	connotation of manner

Evaluativeness (or **evaluative connotation**) is a linguistically expressed people's attitude towards an object, phenomenon or event.

Evaluative connotations are subdivided into positive and negative, rational and irrational, objective and subjective.

Examples:

Words	Denotative meaning	Connotative meaning	Type of connotation
<i>notorious</i>	widely known	for something bad	negative rational objective evaluation
<i>celebrated</i>	widely known	for special achievements	positive rational objective evaluation

Emotiveness (or **emotive connotation**) is a linguistically expressed emotional state or emotional attitude of a person towards an object, phenomenon, or event.

For instance:

Word	Denotative meaning	Connotative meaning	Type of connotation
<i>to shudder</i>	to tremble	1. briefly 2. with fear 3. with disgust	1. connotation of duration 2. connotation of cause 3. emotive negative connotation

Emotiveness may be attained by attaching special affixes to words.

For instance:

duckling, doggy, roomette, сонечко

Stylistic colouring (or **stylistic connotation**) is a linguistically expressed stylistic quality of a word. A good illustration of stylistic connotations is synonyms.

Examples:

Common word (no stylistic connotation)	Informal word (colloquial)	Formal word (bookish stylistic connotation)
<i>to begin, to start, to get started</i>	<i>to get going, to get cracking</i>	<i>to commence</i>
<i>to continue, to go on, to get on</i>	<i>to stick at</i>	<i>to proceed</i>

In stylistically marked words, expressive, emotive, and evaluative connotations usually merge.

When a word is highly charged with connotations, it is classified as “**loaded**”.

Meanings of words may contain **cultural connotations**. These connotations reflect phenomena peculiar to a particular community, such as people’s world outlook, customs, and habits.

For instance:

tripartitism– sub-division of modern English schools into three types: grammar, technical, and modern.

Cultural connotations are characteristic of idioms. Connotative meaning is relatively unstable and is apt to vary according to culture, world outlook, and historical period.

Connotations may be either permanent or occasional (they appear in context). For instance, the words *pup* and *colt* often occur in the ironic figurative meaning of ‘*a young inexperienced person*’; the word *задюкама* may refer to a mean woman. These meanings are occasional, contextual.

Another approach to the structure of meaning is described by **J. Leech** in his work “Semantics”. J. Leech distinguishes seven types of meaning:

- **Logical** (which is denotative meaning)
- **Connotative** (which conveys the putative features of the referent, due to the viewpoint adopted by an individual, or a group of people, or a whole society)
- **Social** (as realized in various registers and styles of speech, such as slang, jargon, etc.)
- **Affective** (which conveys people’s emotions)
- **Reflected** (can be illustrated by such words as *ejaculation, erection, and cock*, which alongside their direct meanings possess taboo meanings; so, being

used in direct meaning they may automatically provoke sexual associations)

- **Collocative** (is a meaning that a word acquires depending on its environment; observe the change of meaning in the word *heavy* depending on the noun with which it collocates: *heavy beard, heavy bread, heavy eater, heavy fog, heavy layer, heavy rain, heavy smoker, heavy sky, heavy work, heavy wound*)
- **Thematic** (is a meaning depending on the choice between alternative grammatical constructions, as in: *I like fish best and it is fish that I like best*; in these sentences the syntactic organization changes the “thematic force” of the word *fish*).

Social meaning and affective meaning, reflected meaning and collocative meaning can be brought together under the heading of **associative meaning**.

4. Emotionally charged words

Emotionally charged words are words, which not only convey notions, but also express the state of a speaker or his mood. They can be divided into the following groups, though the line of demarcation between them is not always clear:

- **intensifiers**
- **emotive words**
- **interjections**
- **expletive words**

Intensifiers convey special intensity to what is said, indicate the special importance of the thing expressed. The most often used of these are: *ever, even, all, so, mere, absolutely, awfully, terribly, and wonderfully* (and their Ukrainian equivalents).

Interjections and **expletive words** possess only connotative meanings, which convey various emotions depending on context: *Ah! Oh! Alas! Heavens! Hell! Pooh! Щоб тебе!*

Interjections and expletive words possess the following properties:

- they express emotions
- they give an emotional colouring to the whole sentence, in which they occur
- they occupy an optional position

Emotive words indicate not only the presence of emotions, but specify them. In their lexical meaning, the denotative and the emotive components coexist and support each other. Such words can be classified into the following classes:

Diminutive words, which convey endearment and tenderness: *pussy, sonny, дідуць, галявонька, веселесенький, спатоньки*

Elevated words, which convey pathos, solemnity: *blessed, благословений*

Familiar words, which convey excessive familiarity, tactlessness: *to bristle*

ир, братва, задринаний

Humorous words: *tot, карануз, кейфувати*

Ironic words, which convey mockery: *rowdy, talking-shop, буквоед, борзописець*

Pejorative words, which convey scorn: *greedy-guts, sot, вітряган, ледацюга*

Swear words, which convey insult: *idiot, twaddler, базикало, дурень, недотена*

Vulgar words, which convey coarseness, obscenity: *grub, strumpet, жертви*

5. Meaning in morphemes

Morphemes also possess grammatical and lexical meanings. In some morphemes lexical and grammatical components are bound up and it is possible to speak of lexical-grammatical meaning.

1. In most **root morphemes** the **lexical** meaning is the basic component, and it coincides with the lexical meaning of the corresponding word.
2. **Inflectional** morphemes have **grammatical** meanings.
3. Most **derivational** morphemes have **lexical-grammatical** meaning.

For instance:

fruitless

<i>fruit-</i>	<i>-less</i>
lexical meanings: 1. the part of a plant in which the seed is formed; 2. profit; 3. result; 4. reward;	lexical meaning: lack of something + grammatical meaning: an adjective-forming suffix

rooms

<i>room-</i>	<i>-s</i>
lexical meaning: part of a building enclosed by walls and a ceiling	grammatical meaning: plurality

Lexical meaning in morphemes may also contain a connotative component. Let us consider the words:

womanlike

womanly

womanish

In these words the morpheme *woman-* has the denotative meaning ‘a female human being’. The derivational morphemes *-like*, *-ly*, *-ish* have the following meanings:

Morpheme	Denotative meaning	Connotative meaning
<i>-like</i>	similarity	
<i>-ly</i>	similarity	positive evaluation
<i>-ish</i>	similarity	negative evaluation

Ukrainian is much richer in derivational morphemes containing emotive and evaluative connotations. The following examples can prove it:

КОТИК, КОТОК, КОТОЧОК, КОТУСЬ, КОТУСЯ, КОТЯ, КОШЕНЯ, КОТЕНЯ, КІШЕЧКА, КИЦЯ, КИЦЮНЯ, КИЦЮНЬКА, КИЦЮЛЬКА, КИЦЕНЬКА, КИЦЬКА, КОТЯРА, КОТИЩЕ

The denotative and connotative meanings in affixal morphemes tend to blend.

Questions

1. What are the approaches to the problem of meaning?
2. What is the nature of meaning?
3. What are the basic components of the lexical meaning?
4. Which words have no grammatical meaning?
5. What types of meaning do root-morphemes, inflectional morphemes and derivational morphemes possess?
6. Can the lexical meaning in morphemes contain an expressive component? Give some examples.

Chapter 10

Polysemy. Semantic structure of English and Ukrainian polysemantic words and its development

Key words: archaic meaning, contextual meaning, contiguity, degradation of meaning, direct (literal) meaning, elevation of meaning, ellipsis, etymological meaning, extralinguistic context, idiomatic meaning, extension of meaning, grammatical context, lexical context, metaphoric transfer, metonymic transfer, narrowing of meaning, obsolete meaning, polysemy, present-day meaning, primary meaning, rivalry of synonyms, secondary (derived) meaning, similarity

Plan

1. Polysemy (general notions)
2. Semantic structure of a polysemantic word
3. Relationships between the primary and derived meaning(s) in a polysemantic word
4. Types of lexical meanings
5. The development of the word semantic structure through semantic shift

1. Polysemy (general notions)

Words are called polysemantic if they have more than one meaning. The ability of words to have more than one meaning is called **polysemy**.

All the meanings of a word form its semantic structure. In other words, **the semantic structure of a polysemantic word is a structural set of interrelated meanings.**

Polysemy (or: multiple meaning) is more characteristic of the English vocabulary as compared with Ukrainian due to monosyllabic character of the English vocabulary and predominance of root words.

The more frequently the word is used in speech, the more meanings it acquires in the process of the evolution of a language.

Every meaning in a language is signaled either by the form of the word itself or by the context in which it occurs. The meanings in a word develop gradually, over centuries, and in the process of its development the word may change its meanings.

Linguists recognize a case of polysemy if the senses concerned are related. Two meanings are historically related if they can be traced back to the same source, or if one meaning can be derived from the other. The meanings may be psychologically related. In this case it is possible to find a connection between them by **lexical rules**, in most cases, by the rules of **metaphoric** or **metonymic transfer**.

2. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word

The analysis of the semantic structure of a polysemantic word reveals two basic types of relationships between its elements. The examples below illustrate these types:

<i>Fire, n.</i>				
1. a conditioning of burning	2. an instant of destructive burning: <i>a forest fire</i>	3. a fireplace, a stove: <i>There is a fire in the next room.</i>	4. the shooting of a gun: <i>to open fire</i>	5. a strong feeling, passion, enthusiasm: <i>a speech lacking fire</i>

In this scheme, meaning 1 holds a dominance over meanings 2, 3, 4, 5 because it conveys the concept in a most general way. It is called **general meaning, main meaning, primary meaning, or central meaning**. It is the centre of the semantic structure in the word *fire*.

The other meanings are called **secondary** or **derived** meanings. They are associated with one another through the main meaning.

Let us now consider the semantic structure of the word dull. It may have the following meanings:

1. uninteresting: *a dull book*
2. stupid: *a dull student*
3. not bright: *dull weather*
4. not loud: *a dull sound*

The semantic structure of the word *dull* is treated as a set of meanings having a certain common component. All the meanings of the word *dull* have a common component, which denotes the deficiency of some quality:

uninteresting - deficient in interest or excitement
stupid - deficient in intellect
not bright - deficient in light or colour
not loud - deficient in sound

Therefore, the semantic structure of a word can be investigated at two levels:

- at the level of the word's different meanings
- at the level of the semantic components within each separate meaning

3. Relations between the primary and derived meaning(s) in a polysemantic word

From the point of view of the priority of meanings in a polysemantic word, linguists distinguish between the **primary** meaning and the **derived** meaning(s).

Compare:

	Primary meaning	Derived meaning
<i>низький</i>	'low'	'mean', 'base'

The **primary meaning** is the first meaning listed in a dictionary under the entry of a given word. Its features are as follows:

- **It has the most generalized character**
- **It has the highest combine-ability and valency**
- **It is more frequently used in speech**
- **It is less dependent on context**

The **derived meanings** of a word occur in speech less frequently and they are more dependent on context.

The semantic relationships between the primary and the derived meanings are generally based:

- **on similarity** between the entities of the world to which these meanings relate
- **on close relationships** between the entities of the world to which these meanings relate

If a derived meaning appears as a result of the association of **similarity** between entities, it enters into **metaphoric** relations with the primary meaning.

If a derived meaning appears as a result of the association of **close relationships** between entities, it enters into **metonymic** relations with the primary meaning.

The correlation between the primary and the derived meanings in a word undergoes changes in the course of the development of a language, and in some words one of the derived meanings may become the primary one.

4. Types of the lexical meanings

Proceeding from different criteria, it is possible to differentiate the following types of the lexical meanings:

- **Direct nominative** (also: **literal**) **meaning** nominates the referent without the help of context.
- **Idiomatic meaning** is a transferred meaning conditioned by linguistic, mental, and psychological factors.

For instance:

babes and sucklings (= beginners)

back-room boys (= scientists of secret laboratories)

- **Objective meaning** is the cognitive meaning of a word.
- **Subjective meaning** is connected with individual associations. For instance, when people say *bread*, the meaning of this word may be associated with a loaf for one person, and with grain or flour - for another person.

- **Explicit meaning** is a clearly expressed meaning.

For instance: sky, house, сум, ненависть

- **Implicit meaning** is a hidden, potential meaning which reveals itself only in a particular context.

For instance, such words as *honey*, *cat*, *lioness*, *голубка*, *лапша*, *сокіл*, contain implicit connotative meanings, which become obvious when applied to people.

- **Motivated and non-motivated meaning**

The meanings in most English and Ukrainian root words are non-motivated. Indeed, we do not know why *sun* is called 'sun', *wind* is called 'wind', and *сон* is called 'сон'.

The meaning is motivated when the motive of the nomination is clear, as in the words *зłodий*, *вчитель*, *fisherman*.

- **Contextual meaning**

It is a particular meaning of a polysemantic word realized in context.

Context is the minimal stretch of speech necessary to signal an individual meaning of a word.

It is important to distinguish between **linguistic** and **extralinguistic** contexts.

Linguistic contexts include **lexical** and **grammatical** context.

Lexical context is formed by groups of semantically compatible words.

For instance, the combinations *cold weather* and *cold smile* are semantically compatible, whereas the words *cold* and *task* are semantically incompatible.

Lexical and grammatical contexts are usually interdependent. For instance, in the combinations *deadly pale* and *deadly tongue*, the words *pale* (adj.) and *tongue* (n.) condition not only the lexical meaning of the word *deadly*, but also its grammatical category (adverb, adjective).

Meaning in a word also depends on the position of this word in a sentence. The example below illustrates the change in the meaning of the word *well* as determined by its position in a sentence:

Well, he speaks English.

He speaks English **well**.

Extralinguistic context is conditioned by the following factors:

1. the subject matter of communication
2. the purpose of communication
3. the situation of communication (working, teaching, learning, chatting, playing a game, etc.)
4. the status of the participants (their age, sex, mental, cultural, psychological, educational background, social status, occupation)

5. the speakers' attitude to the situation of communication
6. the speakers' emotional state at the moment of communication

Extralinguistic context determines the choice of linguistic means: the way of pronunciation, type of vocabulary and syntactic structure.

- **Occasional meaning**

Words in contexts can acquire additional occasional meanings. For instance, if you say on a rainy and stormy day "*What a wonderful day!*" everybody will understand that you have used the word *wonderful* in the meaning of 'nasty', 'bad'. In other words, you have given this word a negative connotative meaning.

The study of meaning as depended on various contexts is the subject matter of **Pragmatics**.

From the point of view of their 'age', meanings may be classified into **etymological, archaic, obsolete, and present-day**.

The **etymological** meaning of a word is its earliest known meaning.

The **archaic** meaning is the meaning ousted by a newer one, but still remaining in certain collocations.

The **obsolete** meaning is the meaning gone out of usage.

The **present-day** meaning is the meaning most frequent in the present-day language.

5. The development of the word semantic structure through semantic shift

The development of the word semantic structure through semantic shift involves the following processes:

- **extension of meaning**
- **narrowing of meaning**
- **elevation of meaning**
- **degradation of meaning**

The causes of changes in meaning may be **linguistic** (for instance, split of polysemy, influence of borrowings) and **extra-linguistic** (for instance, changes in people's life, discovery and invention of new objects, phenomena, ideas, the emergence of new things).

Extension (also: expanding, or widening) of meaning

Extension of meaning (also: **semantic extension**) is the expansion of the semantic capacity of a word in the course of its development.

In the process of extension of meaning, a word comes to denote more objects, phenomena, qualities or actions than it did earlier. As a result, the word meaning acquires either a higher degree of abstraction or a more generalized character (Speaking of generalization of meaning we shouldn't confuse generalization proper

and generalization combined with the fading of lexical meanings ousted by grammatical or emotional meanings. Good illustrations of these processes are the verbs *do, shall, will, have* in their auxiliary or modal functions, and such adjectives as *awful, terrific, and terrible*, in which the lexical meanings got weakened due to emotional force.). Consequently, extension of meaning involves both quantitative and qualitative changes.

Compare:

Word	The original meaning	The present-day meaning
<i>ready</i>	prepared for a ride	prepared for any action (generalized meaning)
<i>коктейль</i>	a drink of liquor mixed with others or with various flavourings	anything mixed: “Війна - цестрашний коктейль, як кому змішуються, здавалосььб, непорівняннїречї: доброїзло, любовїненависть, відданїстьїзрада”.

Narrowing (also: contraction) of meaning

Narrowing of meaning is the restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the course of its development. In the process of narrowing of meaning, a word comes to denote fewer objects, phenomena, qualities or actions than it did earlier. As a result, the word meaning acquires a more specialized character. Narrowing of meaning also involves **quantitative** and **qualitative** changes.

Compare:

Word	The original meaning	The present-day meaning
<i>garage</i>	any safe place	a building for automobiles
<i>poison</i>	a drink	substance causing death or harm if absorbed by living things
<i>полк</i>	народ, частина, збори, військо, загін, війна, похід, вояцтво, битва	військова частина, що входить до складу дивізій' чи бригади

Elevation (also: amelioration) of meaning

In the process of **elevation**, the meaning undergoes qualitative changes and acquires a greater importance than it used to have.

Examples:

Word	The original meaning
<i>fond</i>	foolish
<i>lord</i>	master of the house, the head of the family

The sources of elevation are sometimes hidden in **hyperbole**, that is, in exaggeration of some qualities, as in the case with the adverbs *awfully*, *dreadfully*, *frightfully* in the expressions like: *awfully beautiful*, *dreadfully interesting*, *frightfully clever*.

Degradation (also: degeneration, or pejoration) of meaning

Degradation of meaning is a process in which the meaning loses its 'respectability', 'drops its status'. Words, once respectable, may become less respectable.

Examples:

Word	The original meaning
<i>silly</i>	blessed, happy
<i>idiot</i> <Fr. < L. < Greek	Gk. idiotēs = layman

Acquisition of meaning

The basic way of the acquisition of new meanings by words is the transfer of the name from one entity to another. This process is called semantic derivation. The most frequent transfer is based on associations of similarity or contiguity between objects, phenomena, qualities, or actions and is called **metaphoric** or **metonymic transfer**. Meanings, which arise in such cases, are called **transferred** meanings.

Metaphoric transfer

If the transfer of the name is based on associations of **similarity** between objects, phenomena, qualities, or actions, it is called **metaphoric transfer**.

Compare:

a neck (part of the human body) - *a neck* (part of a bottle)

зірка (a heavenly body) - *зірка* (famous, prominent, or popular person)

Metaphorically changed meaning is characteristic of **idiomatic compounds** and **idiomatic expressions**. It is also frequent in informal speech, especially in slang.

Metonymic transfer

If the transfer of the name is based on associations of **contiguity** between objects, phenomena, qualities, or actions, it is called **metonymic transfer**.

The major types of the relationships between objects or phenomena, which condition metonymic transfer are as follows:

- **spatial**
- **temporal**
- **causal**
- **symbolic**
- **instrumental**
- **functional**

Examples:

Parliament (the Parliament decided...)- the use of the name of the place for the people occupying it - **spatial** relationships

Груша (= a fruit) - **causal** relationships

Metaphoric and metonymic transfer are also observed in name-words.

Name words are words that come from personal names and place names. If the source of derivation is the name of a person, the derivative is called an **eponym**. If the source of derivation is the name of a place, the derivative is called a **toponym**.

Examples:

Gypsy- after the name of Egypt (a toponym).

Silhouette- after Etienne de Silhouette, French finance minister in the 18th century whose caricature was first made in this style (an eponym).

Loss of meaning

The main semantic causes of the loss of meaning are:

- **split of polysemy**
- **borrowings**
- **homonymy**

Split of polysemy is the process when, for some reason, the semantic structure of a word breaks into several parts. Highly polysemantic words may develop meanings, which in the course of time deviate far from the central one and start their independent linguistic life.

The loss of meaning by words should not be confused with the process of word aging or with archaisms.

Questions

1. Analyze the semantic structure of a polysemantic word. Supply your own examples.
2. What are the types of relationships between the primary and the derived meanings in polysemantic words?
3. What processes can be observed in the development of word meaning?
4. What are the ways of the acquisition of new meanings by words?
5. What are the causes of the loss of meaning by words?

Chapter 11

Semantic classifications of English and Ukrainian words: homonymy, paronymy, hyponymy, ideographic groups of words. The concept of semantic fields

Key words: etymological homonyms, historical homonym, homographs, homonymy, homophones, hypemym, hyponymy, paronymy, paronomasy, partial homonyms, sources of homonyms, split of polysemy

Plan

1. Semantic classifications of words
2. Homonymy
3. Paronyms
4. Hyponymy
5. Semantic fields (general notions)

1. Semantic classifications of words

In English and in Ukrainian, it is possible to classify words according to **semantic relationships** among them. The basic classifications are as follows:

Homonyms - words having different lexical meanings, but identical sound or graphic forms

Hyponyms - words having compatible lexical meanings

Synonyms - words possessing similar lexical meanings

Antonyms - words possessing opposite lexical meanings

2. Homonymy

Homonymy is the coincidence of forms of units of language having different meanings. Homonymy is observed in morphemes, words, phrases, and in sentences.

Homonymy in morphemes:

The morpheme **-er** may acquire:

- the meaning of a comparative degree of monosyllabic adjectives: *warm* - *warmer*
- the meaning of a noun forming suffix: *read-reader*

Homonymy in phrases:

second hand (= part of a watch or a clock) - *second hand* (= previously owned by sb. else)

Homonymy in sentences:

He will give you a ring (= he will present you with a finger ring) - *He will give you a ring* (= he will phone you)

Homonymy in words:

Homonymy in words is more developed in English than in Ukrainian due to the following factors:

1. the analytical structure of the English language;
2. the monosyllabic character of the most frequent words;
3. the predominance of free forms among the most frequent roots;
4. the highly developed polysemantic structure of the most frequent words, which may disintegrate (this linguistic event is called **split of polysemy**);
5. the loss of inflections in verbs and nouns at the end of the Middle English period, which resulted in the development of conversion.

Classifications of homonyms

Homonyms are generally classified as:

perfect homonyms

partial homonyms (also: **heteronyms**)

Perfect homonyms are words identical in sound and graphical forms, but different in meaning:

bear, n. (= animal) - *bear*, v. (= to carry)

білина (= a grass) - *білина* (= an epic song)

Partial homonyms

Partial homonyms are subdivided into **homographs** and **homophones**.

Homographs are words identical in spelling, but different in their sound-forms and meanings:

bow [bau] (= to bend the head or body as a greeting, submission, respect, or to show agreement)

bow [bou] (= a flexible strip of wood curved by a tight string for shooting)

arrows)

ob'iid (= dinner)

'ooid (= the rim of a wheel)

Homophones are words identical in their sound-forms, but different in spelling and meanings:

sew (= to work with a needle and thread) - *sow* (= to put seeds in soil)

гриби (= mushrooms) - *греби* (= the imperative form of the verb гребти)

Sources of homonyms

Homonyms come into existence through the following processes: **phonetic changes, borrowings, word formation, and split of polysemy.**

Phonetic change

OE *gesund* > Modern English *sound* (= healthy)

OE *sund* > Modern English *sound* (= narrow passage of water joining two larger areas of water)

жати (жну, жнеш, from жьнти) - *жати* (жму, жмеш, from жьмти).

Borrowings

For instance, in the pair *peace* - *piece*, the first word originated from Old French *pais*, and the second one came from Old French *pettia*.

In Ukrainian:

кулон (= the unit of electricity, after the name of French physicist Coulomb; a borrowing) - *кулон* (= a pendant; a borrowing)

клуб (= mass of vapor or smoke; a native word) - *клуб* (= an organization; a borrowed word)

Word-formation

In English, pairs of words formed by conversion can be regarded as homonyms:

comb, n. - *comb*, v.

pale, adj. - *pale*, v.

In Ukrainian:

кормовий (from: корм) - *кормовий* (from: кормасудна)

Split of polysemy

The following example illustrates this linguistic event:

The sameness of the homonyms of the group *box* is based on genetic relationships. They are derived from one another and can be traced to the Latin *buxus*. The Concise Oxford dictionary has five separate entries for the word *box*:

1. box, n. = a kind of a small evergreen shrub;
2. box, n. = receptacle made of wood, cardboard, metal, etc. and usually provided with a lid;
3. box, v. = to put into a box;
4. box, n. = slap with the hand on the ear;
5. box, v. = to fight with fists in padded gloves;

When the word *box* acquired a new meaning, different from the previous one, its semantic structure split. The new meaning received a separate existence and started a new semantic structure of its own. Hence the term: **split of polysemy**.

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

Historical homonyms are those, which have resulted from **split of polysemy**.

Etymological homonyms have come into existence as a result of coincidence of forms of borrowed and native words.

Syntagmatic homonymy

Syntagmatic homonymy takes place when two morphologically different segments of speech have the same phonological realization:

Відчаю Катерини не було меж, тому вона відмовилась від чаю.

It is often difficult to distinguish homonymy from polysemy, so similar entries may be regarded as homonyms in some dictionaries, and as the components of a polysemantic word in other dictionaries.

3. Paronyms

Paronyms (from the Greek ‘para’ = beside, and ‘onyma’ = name) are words **alike in form**, but **different in meaning**. There are two groups of paronyms:

1. Words having the same roots but different derivational affixes:

proposition - preposition

popular - populous

адресат - адресант

диктат - диктант

2. Consonant words:

compliment - complement

калина - малина

сумний - смутний

Figures of speech built on comical or metaphorical use of paronyms are called **paronomasy**.

For instance: Сумніваюсь, чи ти **козак**, чи **кізяк**? (М. Стельмах)

4. Hyponymy

Hyponymy (from Greek ‘hypo’ = under and ‘onyma’ = name) is the **overlapping** of meanings of different words.

Hyponymy allows a hierarchical organization of the vocabulary in a language. Let us consider the following hierarchy:

ANIMAL: cat, dog, horse, donkey. In this group the word *ANIMAL* may serve as generalizing for the words *cat, dog, horse, donkey*, and it is called a **hypernym** (from the Greek ‘hyper’ = above). The words *cat, dog, horse, donkey* are its **hyponyms**. Their meanings are partly included in the meaning of the word *ANIMAL*.

With respect to each other, the words *cat, dog, horse, and donkey* are called **co-hyponyms**.

Hyponyms and hypernyms may change their status in other hierarchies.

For instance, the word *horse* is the hypernym for the words *stallion, mare, and colt*. The word *animal* becomes a hyponym in the hierarchy with the hypernym *FAUNA: animal, bird, insect, fish, amphibian*.

All the hyponyms and the hypernym in each hierarchy belong to the same part of speech. Such hierarchies are also called **thematic groups of words**, or **thematic systems**.

5. Semantic fields. General notions

Semantic or **lexical field** is an area of meaning, in which lexemes interrelate and define each other in specific ways.

For instance, the words *mother, father, brother, cousin* are the members of the semantic field of **kinship terms**, and the words *grief, sorrow, sadness, downbeat* belong to the field of **negative emotions**.

Some lexemes, such as *easy, silence* belong to fields, which are difficult to define.

The members of the semantic fields are joined together by the same concept, which is often called **the common denominator of meaning**.

For instance, in the semantic field of the word *space* we find nouns, adjectives and verbs: *surface, to expand, to spread, to span, roomy, long, wide, far*.

As seen from these examples, words making up semantic fields may belong to different parts of speech. Any component of a word semantic structure may be chosen to represent the group.

For instance, the word *salesman* may be analyzed into the following semantic components: **human, male, professional**. Consequently, this word may be included in different semantic fields, such as:

man, woman, boy, girl, etc. - the semantic field with the common denominator **human**

boy, man, husband, etc. - the semantic field with the common denominator **male**

sailor, pilot, teacher, etc. - the semantic field with the common denominator **professional**

Polysemantic words belong to different semantic fields. Some lexemes seem to fall midway between two fields. For instance, the word *tomato* can be attributed to the semantic field of 'fruit' and to the semantic field of 'vegetable'.

Questions

1. Which words are called homonyms?
2. What is the traditional classification of homonyms? Illustrate your answer with English and Ukrainian examples.
3. What are the main sources of homonymy? Illustrate your answer with English and Ukrainian examples.
4. What is the difference between etymological and historical homonyms?
5. What are paronyms? Explain their difference from homonyms.
6. What is hyponymy?
7. What is the common denominator of meaning?

Chapter 12

Semantic classifications of English and Ukrainian words: synonymy and antonymy

Key words: absolute synonym, antonymy, disphemism, dominant synonym, euphemism, lexical doublet, oppositeness, oxymoron, periphrasis, semantic synonym, semantical-stylistic synonym, stylistic synonym, synonymy.

Plan

1. Synonymy
2. Periphrases, euphemisms and disphemisms as subtypes of synonyms
3. Antonymy

1. Synonymy

Synonymy is the ability of language to produce linguistic units with similar meanings. Synonymy is found in morphemes, words, phrases, grammatical constructions, and in sentences. The subject of lexicology is the synonymy in words.

Synonyms are words having similar denotative meanings and different in their connotative meanings.

Classifications of synonyms

According to their **morphological structure** synonyms may be classified into the following groups:

- **Synonyms having the same roots:**
unarmed - armless
галява - галявина
- **Synonyms having different roots (the most frequent cases):**
forest - wood(s)
ліс - гай
- **Synonymous expressions (usually idiomatic):**
to glance - to take a look
знищити - стерти з лиця землі

According to their **semantic features**, synonyms are usually classified as:

- **semantic**
- **stylistic**
- **semantico-stylistic**
- **absolute** (also: **lexical doublets**)

- **Semantic synonyms**

Semantic synonyms are words conveying the **same notion**, but having different **shades** of meaning (or: different connotations). Some of these connotations are considered in the table:

Type of connotation	Example
Connotation of manner and degree of force	<i>to elicit</i> (to draw or coax out with craftiness: <u>the mildest degree</u>) - <i>to extract</i> (to draw or coax out, sometimes with threats or importuning: <u>a stronger degree</u>) - <i>to extort</i> (to draw or coax out with clear threats of violence or physical harm: <u>the strongest degree</u>) <i>гнів</i> (<u>a milder degree</u>) - <i>лють</i> (<u>a stronger degree</u>)
Connotation of attendant circumstances	<i>to peep</i> (to look at someone/ something through a hole, crack, opening, from behind a screen, a newspaper, a curtain) } <i>to peer</i> (to look at someone / something in the darkness, through the fog, dimmed glasses, windows, from a great distance) <i>спостерігати</i> (to notice, to pay attention)- <i>стежити</i> (to keep an eye on sb./sth.)
Evaluative connotations	<i>notorious</i> (for something infamous) <i>celebrated</i> (for something useful, fine, noble) <i>франт, модник</i> (positive evaluation)- <i>ферт, хлюст,</i>

	<i>стіляга, піжон</i> (negative evaluation)
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- **Stylistic synonyms**

Stylistic synonyms are words having similar denotative meanings, but different stylistic applications.

Compare:

horse, hack- used in common speech

steed- used in poetic speech

jade- used in slang

gee-gee- used in baby language

Stylistic synonyms can be subdivided into synonyms of the higher stylistic rank and synonyms of the lower stylistic rank.

For instance:

Synonyms of the higher stylistic rank (formal, elevated style)	Neutral words (common style)	Synonyms of the lower stylistic rank (informal style)
<i>countenance</i>	<i>face</i>	<i>phiz</i>
	<i>stomach</i>	<i>paunch</i>
	<i>modern, fashionable</i>	<i>with-it</i>
<i>обличчя</i>	<i>лице</i>	<i>ника</i>
	<i>болтун</i>	<i>балаболка</i>
	<i>вигадки</i>	<i>витребеньки</i>
<i>благоліпний, преподобний,</i>	<i>гарний, красивий</i>	<i>файний, хосний, ху'навий</i>
<i>премудрий</i>	<i>мудрий, розумний</i>	<i>толковий, мізковитий, кебетний</i>
	<i>обман</i>	<i>обдурювання, плутня</i>

As seen from this table, stylistic synonyms differ in their evaluative, emotional and expressive connotations.

Words of higher stylistic rank are usually stable. They seldom lose their stylistic coloring and very rarely pass into the neutral category. Words of the lower rank, on the contrary, may obtain a higher status.

The majority of the English borrowings from Latin, Greek, and French usually belong to the higher stylistic rank. Being compared with Anglo-Saxon words (which usually belong to the common style), Greek, Latin, and French borrowings are more formal, careful, bookish and polite.

Affixes play a very important part in the creation of connotations in Ukrainian stylistic synonyms.

For instance:

прегарний, прекрасний, преславний, прехороший, чарівний, чарівничий, чаруючий

- **Semantico-stylistic synonyms**

There is no rigid line of demarcation between semantic and stylistic synonyms. There are numerous cases when words having the same denotative meaning differ in shades of meaning as well as in stylistic colouring.

For instance, *to go* and *to drag oneself* denote different degrees of the same action: *to drag oneself* means 'to go very slowly'. Besides, the expression *to drag oneself* possesses the emotive connotation of **derogation** and is used in informal speech. Some linguists classify such synonyms as **semantical-stylistic**.

- **Absolute synonyms (lexical doublets)**

Absolute synonyms are supposed to have identical denotative and connotative meanings and replace each other in any context.

For instance:

noun - substantive

губно-губний - білабіальний

Most linguists think that there cannot be such a language event as a pair of synonyms which could substitute for each other in all possible contexts. So, they avoid the term 'absolute' and prefer to call such pairs of words '**lexical doublets**'. Lexical doublets usually come from borrowings.

Classification of synonyms according to their interchangeability in the context

According to their interchangeability in the context synonyms may be subdivided into:

- **contextual**
- **relative**

Contextual synonyms are words, which can replace each other only in contexts.

For instance, the pairs *to buy* - *to get* and *strong* - *high* are not synonyms. However, they become synonyms in the following sentences:

*I'll go and **buy** some bread. - I'll go and **get** some bread.*

*It's a **strong** wind today. - It's a **high** wind today.*

In Ukrainian:

кипучий порив - палкий порив

Contextual synonyms can also be called **quasi-synonyms**.

Relative synonyms are words, which can replace each other in various contexts. In fact, most synonyms are relative.

For example:

dull - boring

мужній - відважний

The dominant synonym and its features

A group of synonyms may have a word with the meaning of the most general character, which potentially contains the main features of the other members of the series. This word is called **the dominant synonym**. The dominant synonym is the centre of the synonymous series. The dominant synonym possesses the following features:

- **the highest frequency of use**
- **the highest combineability**
- **broad general meaning**
- **lack of connotations**

For instance, in the series: *to leave - to abandon - to desert - to forsake*, the verb *to leave* possesses the most generalized meaning relatively free of connotations that cling to the other words. It is often used to indicate a straightforward physical departure. The other words are more freighted. *Abandon* denotes a complete giving up, especially of what one has previously been interested in or responsible for. *Desert* adds to *abandon* the idea that a legal or moral obligation or trust is being violated. *Leave*, *abandon* and *desert* are applied to marital or family relationships, but differ in their implications. *Forsake* implies the breaking off a close personal attachment.

There are, however, groups of synonyms, which do not possess the dominant synonym. Such groups usually consist of adjectives or adverbs.

For instance:

quickly - rapidly - swiftly

смільвий - хоробрий - відважний - безстрашний

The most developed synonymy in English and Ukrainian is found among adjectives, adverbs, and verbs. Nouns denoting concrete objects do not normally have synonyms with the exception of metaphorical ones.

For instance:

head - attic

голова - гарбуз

Sources of synonyms

Synonyms (English and Ukrainian) generally come through:

- borrowings
- dialects
- word-formation
- phraseology

The use of synonyms

Synonyms are used for the following purposes:

- To introduce clarity into an utterance

- To impart expressiveness into an utterance
- To variegate an utterance
- To attract the listener's or the reader's attention to the specific features of an object, phenomenon, or idea
- To give an utterance a definite stylistic shade.

2. Euphemisms and periphrases

Euphemisms and periphrases may also be sources of synonymy.

Periphrasis ('peri' is the Greek for 'near') is a transferred, descriptive, imaginary denomination of an object.

For instance:

the king of animals for the lion

чорне золото for coal

коричнева чума for fascism

Periphrasis is close to metaphor and metonymy and is used to make speech more expressive.

Euphemisms (from Greek = 'good' + 'speak') are words or expressions which indirectly, politely name objects or phenomena that are considered to be obscene, indecent, rude, too direct or impolite. So, euphemisms spring from sense of tact.

For instance:

to pass away - to sleep

навіки спочити - померти

Euphemisms are probably the oldest type of synonyms in language.

In the 20th century there appeared a new language phenomenon: **disphemism**.

Disphemisms are words or expressions used for the same purposes as euphemisms, but having coarse, ironical meanings.

For instance:

to pass away is the euphemism for the verb *to die*, and *to kick the bucket* or *to croak* are its disphemisms.

3. Antonymy

Antonymy is the opposition of lexical meanings in words.

Antonyms (from the Greek 'anto' = opposite and 'onyma' = name) are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style and having opposite denotative meanings.

Antonyms are usually believed to appear in pairs. Yet, this is not quite true in reality.

For instance, the adjective *cold* has two antonyms: *warm* and *hot*, and the noun *sorrow* may be contrasted not only with *joy*, but also with *gaiety*.

In a polysemantic word each meaning may have its own antonym or even several antonyms.

Instances:

dull may have the following antonyms:

interesting, amusing, entertaining for 'deficient in interest'

clever, bright, capable for 'deficient in intellect'

active for 'deficient in activity'

In Ukrainian:

тривожний (about sleep)

спокійний *гарячий* (about a person)

бурхливий (about ocean)

Classifications of antonyms

Antonym pairs are usually formed by words possessing qualitative, quantitative, spatial, and temporal meanings.

For example:

happiness - sorrow (qualitative)

мало - багато (quantitative)

up - down (spatial)

рано - пізно (temporal)

Classification according to the parts of speech

Most English and Ukrainian antonyms are **adjectives** and **adverbs**, because of their qualitative and quantitative character.

Antonyms - adverbs can be subdivided into two groups:

- Adverbs proper: *now - then*
завжди - ніколи
- Adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly - coldly*

Noun and **verb antonyms** take the second place after adjective and adverb antonyms.

For example:

to lose - to find

любити - ненавидіти

добро - зло

війна - мир

Structural classification of antonyms

According to their **morphological structure** antonyms maybe classified as follows:

- **Root antonyms** (with different roots):
long - short *зустріч - розлука*

- **Derivational antonyms** (with the same roots but different derivational affixes):
regular - irregular
дыхати - ВИДИХАТ И
- **Phrasological antonyms**:
far - a stone's throw away
далеко - РУКОЮ ПОДАТ И

Semantic classification of antonyms

The basic criterion for the most general semantic classification is **the type of oppositeness**. There are three types of oppositeness realized in antonyms: **qualitative oppositeness, complementary oppositeness, and opposite orientation**.

Antonyms, which realize **qualitative oppositeness** are called **gradable**, and they allow comparison.

For instance, *hot* and *cold* allow the gradation *hot - warm - cool - cold*.

Antonyms, which realize **complementary oppositeness** semantically complete each other. Such antonyms are called **complementary** or **binary antonyms**.

For instance, in the pairs *married - single, dead - alive* the meanings semantically complete each other.

This problem is however quite ambiguous. As a matter of fact, the antonyms *married* and *single* are the extreme points on the axis *single - divorced - widowed - engaged - married*, and between *dead* and *alive* it is possible to put in *comatose*.

Antonyms, which realize **the opposite orientation** or **opposite direction** of actions or properties are called **converse forms**:

to give - to receive

to turn on - to turn off

дати - взяти

It is important to distinguish antonymy from other types of oppositeness in language, where the concept may be opposed, but the lexemes are not. For instance, *big* and *large* are similar in meaning, as are *little* and *small*, but the antonym of *little* is *big*, and of *large* is *small*. *Large* is not the antonym of *little*, even though they are conceptually opposed.

Criteria for antonyms

There are criteria according to which it is possible to distinguish antonyms. The most important of them are:

- **contextual criterion**
- **the possibility of substitution**
- **identical lexical valency**

According to the **contextual criterion**, two words are considered to be antonyms if they are regularly contrasted in actual speech, or if the contrast of their meanings is proved by definite contexts.

The use of antonyms in the same contexts has produced fixed antonym patterns.

For instance:

A and B: *bright and stupid*

A not B: *damp not dry*

A or B: *good or evil*

English words with the negative prefix *non-* and Ukrainian words with the negative prefix *не-* are not considered to be antonyms. Nevertheless, if these prefixes form words with new shades of meaning, these words can be antonyms.

Compare:

друг - ~~*недруг*~~ (ворог)

воля - ~~*неволя*~~

правда - ~~*неправда*~~ (брехня)

The basic characteristics of antonyms:

- **antonyms usually occur in pairs**
- **antonyms do not differ stylistically**
- **antonyms are not interchangeable in any context**

Antonyms are used to provide contrastive features of objects, phenomena, or processes. A number of English and

Ukrainian idioms, proverbs and sayings are based on obvious or hidden antonymy:

Hi thud, ni syudu (obvious antonymy)

As good, as dead (hidden antonymy)

Antonymy is also used to create **oxymoron**. It is a stylistic figure, which unites two incompatible, opposite notions, like in the following line from a poem by Maxim Rylsky:

Невільниківна вільне свято скличе.

Questions

1. Which words are defined as synonyms?
2. Which word in a synonymous series is the dominant synonym? What are its features?
3. Classify synonyms according to various criteria.
4. Which words are called euphemisms? Show that euphemisms may be regarded as a subtype of synonyms.
5. Which words are classified as antonyms?

6. Classify antonyms according to various criteria.

Chapter 13

English and Ukrainian idioms (phraseological units)

Key words: cliché, collocation, contextual criterion, discourse marker, idiom, phrasal verb, phraseological antonymy, phraseological combination, phraseological fusion, phraseological homonymy, phraseological polysemy, phraseological synonymy, phraseological unit, phraseological unity, proverb, quotation, semantic criterion, stability, structural criterion, phraseological synonymy

Plan

1. The concept of idioms
2. Stability of English and Ukrainian idioms
3. Classifications of English and Ukrainian idioms
4. Semantic structure of English and Ukrainian idioms
5. Phraseological polysemy
6. Phraseological homonymy
7. Phraseological synonymy
8. Phraseological antonymy
9. Idioms and free word-groups: criteria for distinguishing
10. Sources of English and Ukrainian idioms
11. English and Ukrainian proverbs, quotations, clichés

1. The concept of idioms

An idiom (or: **a phraseological unit**) is a conventionalized expression which is semantically and often syntactically restricted, so that it functions as a single unit.

Idioms, no matter how many words they contain, can be potentially associated with words.

The forefather of the theory of phraseology is the Swiss linguist Charles Bailey who, in 1905, introduced a chapter about phraseology into his book “French Stylistics”.

Basic features of idioms

- **Compositeness:** idioms are commonly multiword expressions; the number of the components in them can vary from a two-word combination to a sentence in proverbs and sayings (Some idioms do consist of only one word, as, for instance, *to pan* = задати жару.)
- **Institutionalization:** idioms are conventionalized expressions
- **Semantic opacity:** the meaning of an idiom is not the sum of the meanings of

its constituents

Types of idioms

Such types of expressions as **allusions**, **clichés**, **hyperbole** (*he didn't even lift a finger*), **phrasal compounds** (*close-fisted*), **phrasal verbs** (*to put up with sth.*)², **proverbs** (*still waters run deep*), **similes** (*like the devil, as cold as cucumber*), **quotations**, **slang expressions**, **social formulae** (*how do you do*), are identified as idioms. Consequently, idioms are usually markers of style.

Phrasal verbs are a purely English phenomenon. Not all, but many phrasal verbs are idiomatic.

2. Stability of English and Ukrainian idioms

Structural stability

Structural stability of idioms is their morphological and syntactic stability. Idioms have different degrees of structural stability. The most stable of them do not allow any transformations - it is not possible to change the grammatical forms of the words in the phrase, or substitute synonyms for any word, or modify the arrangement of words. For instance, the expression *How do you do* does not allow any alterations. We cannot say: *How does he /she do*, instead, we say: *How is he /she?*

The highest stability is found in the following types of idioms:

1. In **adverbial** units: *after all, by heart, once upon a time, з горем пополам* (= with great difficulties), *ні тпру ні ну* (= impossibility of completing sth.)

2. In **substantival** units with coordinate structures:

Jack and Jill = a boy and a girl

І в хвіст і в гриву = with full force

3. In **intensifiers** (phrases that make speech more intense):

as they come = uncommonly

Structural transformations in idioms

Other idioms may be subjected to alterations.

Instances:

Off and on / on and off бити байдюки / байдюки бити (**transposition of the elements**)

Всячину плещуть from 'плескати язиком' (**reduction of an element**)

At a complete loss from 'at a loss', *показувати прокурени зуби* from 'показувати зуби' (**insertion**)

Though he stepped on the thin ice, he was brave enough to skate over it from 'to skate on the thin ice' (**breaking the structure**)

Such transformations are especially frequent in fiction when authors want to achieve certain stylistic purposes.

Semantic stability

Semantic stability of idioms depends on their structural stability. If we destroy the formal structure of an idiom, its semantic structure will also be destroyed.

3. Classifications of idioms

Idioms may be classified according to various criteria: according to their morphological, syntactic, and semantic structure, according to the degree of their stability, according to their functions and origin.

Russian linguist Academician V. V. Vinogradov suggested the first classification of idioms, or phraseological units as he preferred to call them, based on the degree of idiomacity:

- **Phraseological combinations** (фразеологічні сполучення)
- **Phraseological unities** (фразеологічні єдності)
- **Phraseological fusions** (фразеологічні зрощення)

• **Phraseological combination** is a stable word-combination in which one of the components (it is called the central component) is semantically conditioned by the other components, and the meaning of the whole unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its components.

In other words, the central component of a phraseological combination is used in its direct meaning, while the others are used metaphorically.

Compare the following English and Ukrainian phraseological combinations:

to take (part, into consideration)- *брати (участь, до уваги)*

point of view - *точка зору*

• **Phraseological unity** is a word-combination having integrated motivated meaning, which results from the blending of the meanings of its components. Its emotional quality is based on the metaphorical image created by the whole expression.

For instance:

to hold one 's tongue - *прикусити язика*

to eat out of someone 's hand - *танцювати під чийсь дудку*

As seen from these examples, English phraseological unities may have Ukrainian literal equivalents, so they are easily translated.

Among English and Ukrainian phraseological unities there are the same international set phrases, especially those from the Bible and mythology.

For instance:

Ariadne's thread - *Ариаднина нитка*

curse of Cain - *прокляття Каїна* = continual wandering

• **Phraseological fusion** is a stable, indissoluble word- combination having integrated non-motivated meaning. In other words, the meaning of the whole unit cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components, because the transference of meaning depends on mental and cultural peculiarities of a given speech community. These peculiarities include traditions, habits, world outlook, prejudices, etc. peculiar to a particular speech community. They form, so called, **cultural connotations** in the semantic structure of phraseological fusions.

For instance:

to show the white feather = to betray one's cowardice (the cultural connotation in this idiom refers to cock fighting - a white feather in a cock's plumage denoted a bad fighter)

дату зарбуза = to reject a suitor (Ukrainian girls gave their suitors a pumpkin that symbolized their refusal to marry them and was considered very humiliating)

So, phraseological fusions are specific for every language and do not allow word-by-word translation into other languages.

Compare the following English and Ukrainian phraseological fusions having the same meanings:

to kick the bucket - *врізати дуба*

to be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth - *родитися у соро чці*

It is necessary to remember that stability and indissolubility of phraseological fusions is more or less conditional. In individual language situations, such as, for instance, poetry and writing, authors change the structure of stable idioms to achieve a peculiar stylistic effect.

Structural types of idioms

Idioms show a variety of structural types.

For instance:

Compounds: *happy-go-lucky, лисичка-сестричка* (= a clever and sly person)

Phrases: *тугий на вухо, to spill the beans*

Clauses: *the coast is clear, цей номер не пройде*

In a sentence, idioms, like words, may perform different functions. According to these functions it is possible to classify English and Ukrainian idioms into various types.

For instance:

Substantival: *white lie, притча во язицех*

Adjectival: *safe and sound, не ликом шитий*

Verbal: *to have the upper hand, співати лазаря*

Adverbial: *high and low, рукою подати*

Interjectional: *tu god, в добрий час*

The most common patterns of English and Ukrainian idioms are:

Adj. + N. *white elephant, біла ворона*

V. + Det. + N. *topullsb'sleg, вставати не на ту ногу*

4. Semantic structure of idioms

Semantic structure of idioms has much in common with that of words. Its basic components are the denotative and the connotative meaning. The connotative component plays much greater a part in the meaning of idioms than it does in words.

5. Phraseological polysemy

The polysemy of idioms is not as developed as that of words. Phraseological polysemy is usually the result of metaphorical re-interpretation of the meaning of a phrase. Consider the following examples of polysemantic idioms:

Ні живий, ні мертвий:

1. дуже наляканий
2. схвильований
3. засмучений
4. дуже ослаблений фізично

To come round:

1. to come by an indirect route
2. to pay an informal visit
3. to occur again
4. to change views
5. to regain consciousness

6. Phraseological homonymy

Homonymy is not as developed among idioms as it is among words. Phraseological homonyms are much fewer in number than lexical homonyms. This phenomenon has not been studied thoroughly yet.

Instances:

to brake down (= to stop hurrying) - *to break down* (= to fall apart, to stop operating, to lose control of one's emotions)

пустити півня (= підпалити) - *пустити півня* (= зірватися на високій ноті)

In many cases, it is difficult to distinguish between phraseological polysemy and homonymy.

7. Phraseological synonymy

Phraseological synonyms are idioms belonging to the same grammatical class and having coinciding denotative meanings. The coincidence of meanings is provided by the meanings of whole phrases or by the meanings of their particular components.

Examples:

to cast lots - to throw lots

точити ляси - підпускати ляси

8. Phraseological antonymy

Phraseological antonyms are idioms having opposite denotative meanings and belonging to the same grammatical category. Phraseological antonyms usually have different grammatical structure. The oppositeness of meanings is provided by the meanings of whole phrases or by the meanings of their particular components.

Instances:

to put / set sth. on foot - to put an end / a period to sth.

to play one's cards well - to play one's cards badly

кури не клюють - як кіт наплакав

9. Idioms and free word-groups: criteria for distinguishing

Problems in distinguishing between free word groups and idioms are complicated by marginal cases, that is, by so-called semi-fixed /semi-free word-groups. There are three major criteria for distinguishing between idioms and free word-groups: **contextual**, **semantic**, and **structural**.

Contextual criterion: free word-groups usually make up **variable contexts**, whereas the essential feature of idioms is **a fixed context**.

Semantic criterion: non-literalness of idioms is another criterion for their distinguishing.

Structural criterion: free combinations show a relatively high degree of variability, while idioms are fixed expressions. The fixity of idioms reveals itself in a number of restrictions:

- Restriction in substitution
- Restriction in introducing additional components
- Grammatical stability , etc.

10. Sources of English and Ukrainian idioms

According to their origin, English and Ukrainian idioms can be subdivided into **native** and **borrowed**.

Native idioms

Native idioms are derived from native proverbs, sayings, winged words, legends, traditions, and literary works.

Instances:

to put sb. in the cart (= to put sb. in a difficult position, the allusion to the old English tradition according to which carts were used to take criminals to the spot of

execution)

king's Charles's head (= a fixed idea, an obsession, the expression from the novel "David Copperfield" by Charles Dickens connected with Mr. Dick's passion for Charles the First)

black sheep (= a person who disgraces his family; according to an old legend a black sheep bears the devil's seal)

a fool's paradise (= illusory happiness, from "Romeo and Juliet" by W. Shakespeare)

дату зарбуза (= to reject a suitor, girls in Ukrainian rural areas used to give pumpkins to the matchmakers of a suitor if they didn't want to marry him).

Borrowed idioms

A considerable number of English and Ukrainian borrowed idiomatic expressions come from the Bible and from the classical mythology. Many of them have similar syntactic and semantic structure.

Compare:

to cast pearls before swine - метати бісер перед свинями (from the Bible)

Other English and Ukrainian idioms come from various languages.

For instance:

through thick and thin (from the German: *durch dick und dünn*)

голуба кров (from French through Russian: *aristocratic descent*)

The ways of borrowing of idioms

These ways are as follows:

Loan translation:

common sense < *sens commun*, Fr. < *sensus communis*, L.

Partial loan translation:

à propos of nothing < *à propos de rien*, Fr.

Direct borrowing in a foreign form:

corpus delicti, L. - the juridical term used in Britain and Ukraine

11. English and Ukrainian proverbs, quotations, and clichés

A **proverb** is a short epigrammatic saying expressing people's wisdom, wit, or morality in a concise and imaginative way.

For instance:

every cloud has a silver lining

своя сорочка ближче до тіла

Some proverbs are simple folk sayings, having literal meaning, others are metaphorical and philosophical.

Compare:

better be alone than in bad company (literal meaning)

every bird loves to hear himself sing (metaphorical)

під лежачий камінь вода не тече (metaphorical)

corruption of the best becomes the worst (philosophical)

Proverbs have much in common with idioms. Their meanings are usually figurative, and their structure is more or less stable.

Quotations come from literature and by and by become part and parcel of the language. The most numerous quotations in English come from the Bible, the classical mythology, and from Shakespeare's works.

Instances:

Only cowards insult dying majesty. (Aesop "The Sick Lion")

There's small choice in rotten apples. (W. Shakespeare "The Taming of the Shrew")

Some quotations are so often mechanically used in speech, that they lose their original expressiveness and become hackneyed and stale. Such expressions turn into **clichés**.

For instance: *to break the ice, іронія долі*

Questions

1. What are the main criteria for distinguishing idioms from free word-combinations?
2. Analyze the classification of idioms suggested by Academician V. V. Vinogradov,
3. What are the sources of English and Ukrainian idioms?
4. Give examples of English and Ukrainian polysemantic idioms.
5. Give examples of English and Ukrainian idiomatic synonyms and antonyms.
6. What are differences between proverbs, quotations, and clichés?

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