CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY
OF THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LANGUAGES

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The textbook outlines the trends, goals and targets of Contrastive Linguistics, determines the principles, parameters and aspects of Contrastive Lexicology, provides with the methods for lexical contrastive analysis in English and Ukrainian. It is intended for student philologists and translators, as well as for Contrastive and Typological Linguistics admirers.
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The present-day research in linguistics, reverting to the theoretical prerequisites of comparative and historical studies, suggests a new methodology for comparing languages, determining the priority of a contrastive approach towards the analysis of lexical items. The purpose of the approach is to reveal and establish correspondences (similarities and differences) of those items within the lexico-semantic systems of related and non-related languages.

The contrastive analysis of lexico-semantic systems of non-related languages such as English and Ukrainian is characterized by significance and topicality, as it contributes to profound understanding of each nation’s worldview, aiming to reveal similarities and differences in the ways the world of discourse is construed in their lexicons.

The course of “Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Ukrainian Languages” is intended for student philologists and translators, and its objective is to:

a) acquaint with a newly-developed branch of linguistics – Contrastive Linguistics and its part Contrastive Lexicology;

b) provide with the basic notions of Contrastive Lexicology;

c) supply with the methods of contrastive analysis;

d) present the fundamental aspects of contrastive description of lexical items in English and Ukrainian;

e) form the conception of similarities and differences, i.e. isomorphic and allomorphic features of lexico-semantic systems of the contrasted languages.

The aim, having been raised, provides for students’ mastering the complex of knowledge and skills. That will allow them to:

- study the trends, goals and targets of Contrastive Linguistics;
- master the principles, parameters and aspects of Contrastive Lexicology;
- acquire competency in the theoretical prerequisites of Contrastive Lexicology;
- make practical use of the gained knowledge at contrastive analysis of the English and Ukrainian lexicons, revealing similarities and differences in the lexico-semantic systems of the contrasted languages.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

анат. – анатомія
букв. – буквально
геол. – геологія
грам. – граматика
заст. – застаріле слово
зневажж. – зневажливое слово, вираз
мат. – математика
перен. – переносне значення
прийм. – прийменник
розм. – розмовне слово, вираз
спец. – спеціальне слово
фіз. – фізика
фін. – фінансова справа

adj. – adjective
adv. – adverb
Am. – American
anat. – anatomy
archit. – architecture
Brit. – British
cf. – confer
e.g. – for example
Eng. – English
esp. – especially
etc. – et cetera
fml. – formal
fr. – from
geol. – geology
Ger. – German
i.e. – that is
inf. – infinitive
lit. – literally
n. – noun
Skr. – Sanskrit
Ukr. – Ukrainian
usu. – usually
v. – verb
vs. – versus
CHAPTER 1
FUNDAMENTALS OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY RESEARCH

1.1. Contrastive Linguistics: A General Outline
1.2. Contrastive Lexicology as a Cross-Linguistic Discipline
1.3. Aspects of Contrastive Lexicology
1.4. Units of Contrastive Lexicology
1.5. Parameters for Contrastive Analysis
1.6. Word as a Primary Unit of Contrastive Analysis
1.7. Correspondences of Words in English and Ukrainian
1.8. Methods in Contrastive Lexicology

1.1. Contrastive Linguistics: A General Outline

Go to, let us go down, and there confound their language, that they may not understand one another’s speech

(Genesis 11: 7)

The implication of this famous verse from Holy Scripture is that languages are likely to have been compared just after Babel, though this fact having rather a figurative background than bidding for a scientific explanation.

Having their feet on the ground, contemporary researchers acknowledge the linguistic conditionality of contrastive description of languages, considering Panini’s grammar to have already had some elements of comparison between Sanskrit and the colloquial Prakrit languages.

It should be borne in mind that the idea of comparison of languages was regarded to be alien to most linguistic traditions. Such an approach goes back to extreme antiquity, when every culture believed their language to be unique, of full value and superior to other languages. On this basis, the ascertainment of isomorphic features of various languages was very often or even totally ignored, with some of the
differences having been distinguished only in the linguistic realm inside a particular ethnic group. The ancient Greeks, for example, ignoring barbarian languages, drew much attention to numerous differences within their own language, trying to draw the line of demarcation between its various dialects. Only in the late ancient period was observed an attempt to systematically compare languages such as Greek and Latin. In medieval Spain there even emerged *Contrastive Grammar of Hebrew and Spanish*.

The tendency for comparison continued with European grammars of the Renaissance period – the first grammars of modern languages – that were written as if being compared to those of Greek and Latin. However, such findings were rare and one-sided, considering the comparison of two or more languages in the light of a native language, which was believed to be the only human or even divine one. Changes to such an approach started to be observed only in the transition from the Middle Ages to the New Time – the latter being considered the period of Comparative (in a broad sense) Linguistics forming and developing.

According to the *aim* and *object* of investigation there are three branches of Linguistics that deal with comparison:

A. *Comparative-Historical Linguistics* the aim of which is to study phylogenic relations of languages in their development.

B. *Areal Linguistics* that focuses on a secondary affinity of languages, linguistic unions, relationship of linguistic phenomena, irrespective of the degree of their phylogenic relations.

C. *Contrastive Linguistics* and *Typological Linguistics* (or *Linguistic Typology*) that try to establish similarities and differences between languages, irrespective of the degree of their phylogenic relations.

It should be borne in mind that the difference between Contrastive and Typological Linguistics wholly depends on the targets each of the disciplines aims at. The main task of Linguistic Typology is to determine the linguistic similarity, or typical phenomena that can be observed mainly in the related languages, whereas Contrastive Linguistics aims to determine and explain linguistic contrasts, or rather different features against available similarities. Generally speaking, Linguistic Typology takes as basis for comparison the discrete components of a language system (phonemes, morphemes, words etc.), and studies them in a large number of languages, whilst Contrastive Linguistics compares, as a rule, two languages by all components.
In that way, Contrastive Linguistics compares language systems at all levels, irrespective of the phylogenetic and typological relationships that occur between the systems, aiming to establish structural and functional characteristics of languages that are compared in the light of their sameness and difference.

Contrastive Linguistics as a subject of scientific research dates back to the 60-s of the XXth century. Its emergence is connected with the publication of the book “Linguistics Across Cultures” (1957) by R. Lado, though the fundamentals of Contrastive Linguistics at a synchronous level are supposed to have been laid by W. von Humboldt. Some researches within Contrastive Linguistics studies have been carried out by Ch. Bally, E. Sapir and B. Whorf, as well as by the representatives of the Prague School – V. Mathesius, J. Vachek and V. Skalićka. In the Soviet linguistic tradition under the title of Comparison of Languages and Contrastive Grammar the investigations on the problems of Contrastive Linguistics were pursued by L.V. Shcherba, Ye.D. Polivanov, A.I. Smirnitskiy, V.N. Yartseva, V.D. Arakin, V.G. Gak and others. In Ukraine the problems of Contrastive Linguistics were tackled by O.O. Potebenja, Yu.O. Zhlukenko, M.P. Kocherhan, V.M. Manakin, L.V. Bubleynyk, O.O. Selivano and others.

In the last decade, there has been outlined convergence and overlap of Contrastive Linguistics problems with researches conducted within a Cognitive Linguistics approach (A. Wierzbicka, C. Goddard, R. Langacker, G. Lakoff, R. Jackendoff, L. Talmy, G. Fauconnier and others). The ultimate goal of such researches is to reveal the conceptual entities that represent the national worldview, the specificities of ethnic mentality, and the characteristics of cognitive abilities which belong to different linguistic communities.

As a branch of General Linguistics, Contrastive Linguistics intends to reveal the features of language bringing it into correlation with other languages. The specificity of this correlation is based on the comparison principle, the essence of which is to lay open the “inner” nature of languages that are compared, without establishing the priority of one language over the other.

The object of Contrastive Linguistics investigations is a parallel comparison of two or more linguistic systems at a synchronous level. The main maxim of comparison is keeping to denotative equivalence of linguistic items. The equivalence, being established on the basis of bilingual dictionaries, serves the foundation for establishing
correspondence of linguistic items in the contrasted languages. The correspondence is viewed as a relation that reveals the degree of coincidence of linguistic items in the contrasted languages.

The general **tasks** of Contrastive Linguistics that to some extent determine the **subject** of its research may be defined as follows:

- to establish similarities and differences (contrasts) in using language means by the contrasted languages;
- to reveal the “inner” features (characteristics) of each language that is compared;
- to supply Linguistic Typology with the material for universal linguistic features to be found;
- to connect contrastive studies with various branches of Applied Linguistics and Theory of Translation;

The tasks above provide for five trends of Contrastive Linguistics, which according to Yu.O. Zhluktenko, determine various approaches to the object of investigation. There are the following **trends**:

A. **Characterological** – initiated in the works by I.O. Baudouin de Courtenay and the linguists of the Prague School (the so-called “analytical comparison of languages”). The target of these investigations is to reveal the systemic features of language by comparing it with other synchronous linguistic systems and on this basis to provide it with a detailed linguistic description.

B. **Typological** – aims at revealing in the contrasted languages isomorphic (common) features that are essential for establishing a language type.

C. **Translational** – establishes functional correspondence and the degree of linguistic items’ equivalence and congruence in the contrasted languages. The specificity of this approach consists in reducing the comparison to only two languages, the analysis of which is unidirectional – from source to target language.

D. **Didactic (Pedagogical)** – lays foundation for methods of teaching a foreign language, and reveals correspondences in native and foreign languages. It provides with elaborating an effective strategy for teaching a foreign language and working out preventive measures to avoid L1 interference with L2 learning.

E. **Bilingual** – investigates the mutual relationships of languages in linguistic contacts and bilingualism.

In that way, the general **target** of Contrastive Linguistics is to establish the most essential convergences and divergences (contrasts) in
language as a whole and at its discrete levels, their classification, systematization and, as the result, the elaboration of optimal recommendations as to the practical mastering of language (typological investigations, rendering from source into target language, language teaching, etc.).

Language as a system traditionally includes the following main levels: phonological, morphological, lexico-semantic and syntactical. The contrastive analysis of languages at those levels is accomplished based on two independent approaches: 1) microlinguistic contrastive analysis, aiming to proceed with investigations at the levels of phonology, grammar and lexicon, and 2) macrolinguistic contrastive analysis, intending to carry out a complex study at the level of text.

In a broader sense, contrastive studies are associated not only with the structural (level) categories of contrastivity, but also with the semantic and functional categories, which correlate with the semasiological and onomasiological aspects, the latter being chiefly considered within the discipline of Contrastive Lexicology.

1.2. Contrastive Lexicology as a Cross-Linguistic Discipline

Contrastive Lexicology is a new branch of Contrastive Linguistics that aims to perform a contrastive description of lexico-semantic systems of languages that are compared. A complete contrastive analysis includes the comparison at all levels of the lexico-semantic system (the level of meanings, designations, lexico-semantic groups, lexico-semantic fields, etc.). The analysis is considered to be based on a “taxonomy” principle, i.e. the principle that takes into account the relations occurring between lexical units of the contrasted languages: paradigmatic relations (relations between words and groups of words based on the similarities and differences of their meanings); syntagmatic relations (linear, contextual relations of words); epidigmatic relations (relations within a word, or between its formal characteristics).

Taking into consideration the relations contrastive analysis is based on, the following stages might be singled out:

a) ways of designation in the contrasted languages (words’ innerforms and onomasiological structures);

b) characteristics of semantic structures of words in the contrasted languages (denotative and significative meanings);

c) stylistic and associative features of words in the contrasted languages (expressive, evaluative, conceptual, etc. connotations);
d) intrafield (synonymic, antonymic, hyponymic, etc.) relations of words in the contrasted languages;

e) interfield relations (semantic shifts) of words in the contrasted languages;

f) linear, contextual relations of words in the contrasted languages (distribution, context, valence).

In that way, the ultimate target of contrastive analysis of lexico-semantic systems reduces to establishing similar and different features in vocabulary and semantics of the contrasted languages.

Contrastive Lexicology is based on the existent linguistic aspects of modern lexicology, the essence of which results in establishing certain relations between a certain object of the outer world, its concept and symbol. The nature of these relations is traditionally represented in C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards’ “semiotic triangle” (Fig. 1.1.), whose summits stand for denotatum or referent (i.e. an object referred to by a sign), concept or designate (i.e. an abstract or generic idea of a denotatum or class of denotata), and sign or symbol (i.e. a fundamental linguistic item that represents a denoted object):

```
          Concept
             |
             |
             |
           Sign  Denotatum
```

**Fig. 1.1. Semiotic triangle**

Depending on the element (of the triangle), being brought to a focus of contrastive analysis, the following aspects of Contrastive Lexicology are singled out: onomasiological, semasiological, epidigmatic, paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

**1.3. Aspects of Contrastive Lexicology**

**The onomasiological aspect** aims at establishing formal and structural similarities and differences of lexical units in the contrasted languages. The procedure of such a comparison provides for sorting out words that denote the same object in the contrasted languages. The ultimate purpose of the study is to establish congruence of words from the
viewpoint of their performing a designative function. It should be borne in mind that congruence of lexical items provides for establishing the degree of their coincidence by designates. For example, the word *table* in English vs. *стіл* in Ukrainian, denoting the same object, represent different designates, i.e. they differ in their inner-form, cf.: *table* “board, slab, plate” from Old French *table* “board, square panel, plank”, from Latin *tabula* “a board, plank; writing table; list, schedule; picture, painted panel” originally “small flat slab or piece” usually for inscriptions or for games vs. *стіл* from IE *st(h)ā- “ставить, класти (to lay)”, from Proto-Slavic styllati “росстилати (lay out)”.

**The semasiological aspect** aims at establishing similarities and differences in the semantics of the contrasted words. It provides for the equivalence at the level of words’ contents, i.e. their denotative and significative meanings, stylistic functions, connotations, etc. For example, the words *table* vs. *стіл* are equivalent in the meanings: 1. “a piece of furniture consisting of a smooth flat slab of wood, etc. supported by legs or a pedestal, and is used to sit at for meal, for working, for playing games etc.” vs. “вид меблів у вигляді горизонтально укріпленої на ніжках широкої дошки (іноді з ящиками, тумбочками), на яких розміщують різні предмети”; 2. “the food served at a meal” vs. “їжа, харчування”. However, the English equivalent reveals a broader extension of its semantic structure, as it includes into its scope entities from other conceptual fields, cf.: “a) geol. a tableland; b) archit. a stringcourse; c) anat. the internal or external layer of the bony tissue of the skull; d) an orderly arrangement of facts set out for easy reference (a table of contents); e) an arrangement of numerical values etc. in vertical columns (logarithmic tables)”. The Ukrainian equivalent reveals the meaning that is not found in its English counterpart, cf.: “відділ в установі або установа, що займається вузьким колом справ (адресний, довідковий, паспортний стіл; стіл замовлень, знахідок)”. In that way, the semasiological approach towards comparison shows the equivalence asymmetry of the words *table* and *стіл*, that being provided for the inconsistencies in their semantic structures.

**The epidigmatic aspect** aims at establishing similarities and differences at the level of inner structures of words (intra-word relations) in the contrasted languages. The contrastive analysis within the epidigmatic approach aims to ascertain correspondences in relations that determine the semantic structure of a polysemous word, i.e. semantic shifts that occur between the lexico-semantic variants of the contrasted
words. The epidigmatic aspect is considered in terms of *semantic derivation* – phenomenon that represents “variation of meaning of a given word, be it synchronic or diachronic, i.e., the relation between two different meanings of a polysemous word or the relation between two meanings of a word in the course of semantic evolution” (Zalizniak 2008: 217). For example, in the English word *mouth* 1. “the opening through which food passes” the meanings are related both metaphorically, cf.: 2. “a) the place where a river enters a sea, lake; b) the opening of a cave, volcano, harbour; c) the opening of a container”, and metonymically, cf.: 3. “an individual requiring food”, whilst the Ukrainian counterpart’s meanings imply only metonymic relations, cf.: рот “1. порожнина між верхньою і нижньою щелепами з отвором у нижній частині обличчя; 2. перен. розм. кожна окрема людина (при розподілі витрат, харчових запасів і т. ін.; ідеться”.

**The paradigmatic aspect** reveals similarities and differences within different kinds of verbal microsystems, i.e. thematic or lexico-semantic groups, lexico-semantic categories (synonyms, antonyms, and hyponyms), word-building paradigms, etc. For example, the micro-field with the archeseeme of ‘highland – нагір’я’ includes such words as: *mountain* (гора), *hill* (пагорб, угір’я), *hillock* (горбик, пагорок, купина), *cliff* (стрімчак, круча), *plateau* (плоскогір’я, плато), *precipice* (урвище, крутояр), *promontary* (мис), *range* (гірське пасмо), *tableland* (плоскогір’я, плато) and others. In the contrasted languages those words form a hierarchical cluster with a distinct core and periphery delimited to minor subgroups.

Within those subgroups words are related to each other and one another: synonymically, cf.: *plateau* “a large flat area of land that is high above sea level” and *tableland* “a plateau” vs. *плоскогір’я* “місцевість, що лежить високо над рівнем моря, з рівниною або горбкуватою поверхнею” and *плато* “підвищена рівнина, що підноситься над рівнем моря більш як на 200 метрів”; *плоскогір’я*; antonymically in English, cf.: *promontary* “a narrow area of high land that sticks out into the sea” and *tableland* “a broad level area of land elevated on all sides”, whereas in Ukrainian the two words belong to different lexico-semantic fields: *плоскогір’я* belongs to the semantic field of highland, whereas the word *мис* “частина суші, яка гострим кутом входить у водний простір” is the element of the lexico-semantic field of land, rather manifesting hyponymic relations; meronymically (‘the part for the whole’ relations) in both languages, cf.: *cliff* “a high area of rock with a very steep side” and
precipice “a very steep side of a cliff” vs. стрімчак “прямовисна стрімка скеля” and урвище “стрімкий, прямовисний схил чого-небудь, глибоке провалля, звичайно між горами”, though the word урвище has a broader extension (vide infra 3.3.1).

The syntagmatic aspect aims at establishing similarities and differences in the words’ collocations, i.e. relations words reveal within a certain speech segment – word-combination or sentence. For example, the English word long is equivalent to the Ukrainian word довгий, however, when collocating with the word face in long face, it conforms to a different word in Ukrainian, cf: похмуре обличчя. On the other hand, the Ukrainian adjective is used in the collocation за довгим карбованицем, its English counterpart being after a big pay-packet. The syntagmatic approach studies different types of contexts (lexical, grammatical, extra-linguistic), contextual associations, semantic and syntactic valences in the contrasted languages.

The aspects described above do not exhaust all varieties of contrastive description of vocabulary. Of a paramount importance are also contrastive investigations of cross-linguistic correspondences between derived and compound words, phraseological units, sayings and proverbs and many others.

1.4. Units of Contrastive Lexicology
The key notion of Contrastive Lexicology in general is a notion of language contrast (V.P. Neroznak) or category of contrastivity (V.G. Gak). Language contrast is a specific feature of the structure of language A in comparison to the one of language B. In other words, the same phenomenon may be represented as a specifically contrastive category at comparing one language with the other, however, when being confronted with another language (a third one), the source language may lose its contrastivity. For example, the English word coup d’etat reveals contrastive features within the lexico-semantic systems of English and Ukrainian, however, it loses its contrastivity at comparing English and French, the language from which the word was borrowed. In that way, language contrast is considered as a linguistic variable that changes, depending on a linguistic pair chosen for the analysis. The choice of the pair grounds in selecting proper lexical items for a reliable comparison.

The units of Contrastive Lexicology are determined by the aspect of comparison, namely by the parameters, those aspects are based on. In that way, within the onomasiological aspect there might be such items as
inner-form and onomasiological structure (for derivatives and compounds), both representing the ways the objects of the reality are designated in the contrasted languages; within the semasiological approach it could be seme or sememe (or lexisemic variant), which being correlative with a concept, reveal the characteristics of words’ semantic structures; the epidigmatic approach might reveal associative and derivational relations of meanings, which constituting the inner structure of polysemous words in the contrasted languages, represent a hierarchy of lexi-co-semantic variants and a degree of their dependence; within the paradigmatic approach there might be semantic (conceptual) fields, thematic, or lexico-semantic groups that reveal similarities and differences between the lexi-co-semantic microsystems of the contrasted languages; within the syntagmatic aspect it could be collocatability that provides for establishing correspondences based on words’ distributions, contexts and valences.

1.5. Parameters for Contrastive Analysis

The parameters for contrastive description of lexicons are values that provide for establishing correspondences between lexi-co-semantic systems of the contrasted languages. There might be: a) languages; b) spelling of the word; c) accent in the word; d) parts of speech; e) word-building means; f) grammatical gender and many other parameters. However, not all those features might be necessary for contrastive analysis. The characteristics relevant for Contrastive Lexicology research are grouped within the mentioned above five aspects. Hence, we might differentiate between the onomasiological, semasiological, paradigmatic, syntagmatic and epidigmatic parameters.

1. The onomasiological parameters:
   a) contrasts in the designation:
      – source of designation (native / borrowed words);
      – motivation (phonetical / morphological / semantic);
      – word-building type (affixation / compounding / conversion, etc.);
   b) contrasts in the inner-form;
   c) contrasts in the onomasiological structure (total congruence / partial congruence / total incongruence / incongruence).

2. The semasiological parameters:
   a) contrasts in the cognitive meaning (extension / contension);
   b) contrasts in the pragmatic meaning (emotive / evaluative / expressive / stylistic components);
c) contrasts in the semantic marks (semes);  
d) contrasts in the semantic equivalence (coincidence / inclusion / overlap / exclusion);

3. The **epidigmatic** parameters:  
a) contrasts in the words’ semantic shifts (direct / transferred meanings);  
b) contrasts in the hierarchy of lexico-semantic variants of polysemous words;  
c) contrasts in the type of semantic change (metaphor / metonymy);  
d) contrasts in the type of polysemy (concatenation / radiation / mixed);  
e) contrasts in the semantic developments of a denotatum (generalization / specialization) and connotation (elevation / degradation);  
f) contrasts in the type of homonymy (absolute / etymological / word-building / semantic);  
g) contrasts in the type of paronyms (synonymic / antonymic / semantically close / thematic).

4. The **paradigmatic** parameters:  
a) contrasts in discrete microsystems (lexico-semantic field / lexico-semantic group / thematic group);  
b) contrasts in fundamental paradigmatic relations:  
   – hyponymy (taxonomic depth);  
   – synonymy (synonymic connotations / synonymic groups);  
   – antonymy (semantic / derivational).

5. The **syntagmatic** parameters:  
a) contrasts in the collocability (distribution / context / valency);  
b) contrasts at the level of phraseological units (phraseological equivalents / phraseological analogues / phraseological non-equivalents).

**1.6. Word as a Primary Unit of Contrastive Analysis**

The element intrinsic to all linguistic levels according to its symbolic status is a word. Consisting of phonemes and morphemes, a word is also a constituent of word-combinations, sentences and texts. The central role of a word considers the lexico-semantic level to be of paramount importance for contrastive analysis.

A word may be defined as a sign that represents the interrelations of denotatum, concept and symbol in language (system) and speech (communication).
A word is a versatile and multidimensional unit. There intersect, forming the whole, however, not coinciding with each other and one another phonological, grammatical and semantic features in it. Those features not only determine the criteria, underlying a word identification, but also pretend to be basic characteristics for contrastive analysis of the English and Ukrainian lexicons.

It should be pointed out that the contrasted words, even being characterized by the same criteria, might possess different features, constituting the category of contrastivity of languages that are compared.

In this way, the phonological criterion manifests itself in the accentuation differences, the accent being a feature that stands for the category of contrastivity. English and Ukrainian words, though being identical in form, may reveal contrasts in meaning because of the word-stress, cf.: `лікарський` – medical, doctor’s vs. `лікарський` – medicinal (herb, plant); `present` – подарунок vs. pre`sent – дарувати.

The feature that determines the morphological criterion of a word in the contrasted languages is its formal unity. From this viewpoint, the category of contrastivity manifests itself in the word’s orthography. It should be borne, however, in mind that a Ukrainian word is characterized by a lexicogrammatical reference, unlike the English word, where, with its scarce morphology, the lexicogrammatical reference is considered a secondary feature, cf.: red-eye vs. червоноперка; самогон, сивуха; гострий томатний соус; міцне дешеве віскі and red eye vs. червоний колір семафора; сивобородий vs. grey-bearded (“having a grey beard”) and сива борода vs. a wise, much experienced man (“greybeard”). However, in English, unlike the Ukrainian language, the orthographic form of a word very often is not a relevant feature, cf.: looking-glass, lookingglass and looking glass – though having different orthography, the three words possess the identical meaning “mirror”. The Ukrainian language, in this case, is characterized by a fixed spelling of compounds.

Another manifestation of the category of contrastivity within the morphological criterion is observed at the level of the grammatical context. Being defined as a minimal stretch of speech, the grammatical context determines the individual meanings of the contrasted words according to a certain grammatical structure (distributional pattern). For example, the English word stop, depending on the grammatical structure of the context (it may be followed either by the gerund or the infinitive), reveals different meanings, and therefore correlates with different Ukrainian words, either припинати (stop doing smth.) or зупинятися (stop to do smth.).
The **semantic** criterion takes into account a word’s two-facedness (the expression plane and the content plane), the latter standing for the word’s onomasiological and semasiological criteria.

Within the onomasiological criterion, it is the inner-form of a word that counts as the category of contrastivity. Being “the image of a name”, the inner-form represents the way the reality object is designated in the contrasted languages, cf.: мати-їй-мачуха (lit. ‘mother and stepmother’) “багаторічна трав’яниста рослина з листям, знизу м’яким, пухнатим (hence the co-association with a mother), а зверху зеленим і холодним на дотик (hence the co-association with a stepmother)” vs. *coltsfoot* (lit. ‘копитце лошати’) “a common weed in waste or clayey ground, with large spreading cordate leaves downy beneath, and yellow flowers appearing in early spring before the leaves”.

The semantic components (sememes and semes) constitute the category of contrastivity within the semasiological criterion. A sememe as an elementary unit of word meaning manifests itself at the communicational level, and corresponds to a lexico-semantic variant in speech, cf.: in the Ukrainian word-combination жовто-блакитний прапор, the word жовто-блакитний may foreground either of the two meanings: 1. “який поєднує в собі жовтий і блакитний кольори; 2. національний, державний, який є символом українського народу” independently, whereas its English counterpart *yellow-and-blue (flag)* foregrounds the transferred meaning only within the reference to the Ukrainian nation, cf.: *The yellow and blue republican flag of Ukraine was raised over the Supreme Soviet building in place of the Ukrainian Soviet flag, to the delight of demonstrators outside* (BNC). The category of contrastivity of the above-mentioned equivalents also manifests itself at the level of a seme. Being the smallest, ultimate unit of the meaning, and the simplest constituent of a sememe, the seme is a feature that differentiates between words’ meanings. In that way, the potential seme ‘symbolic (of a colour)’ changes for the differential seme ‘pertaining to the Ukrainian state, or nation’ (vide infra “typology of semes” in 1.8.).

### 1.7. Correspondences of Words in English and Ukrainian

Words in English and Ukrainian reveal the following correspondences:

1) congruous both in form and meaning, cf.: (international words) **taxi** vs. ***таксі***; (terms) **electron** vs. ***електрон***; (borrowed words) **hot-dog** vs. ***хом-дог***;
2) congruous in form, but incongruous in meaning, cf.: *aspirant* “a candidate” (“кандидат, претендент на щось; учасник змагання”) vs. *аспірант* “особа, що готується до педагогічної або наукової діяльності при вузі чи науковій установі” (“post-graduate”);

3) congruous in meaning, but incongruous in form, cf.: *hard-hearted* (compounding) vs. *бездушний* (affixation);

4) incongruous both in form and meaning, cf.: *black book* “a book listing persons that have committed offenses against morality, law, or any set of regulations” vs. *чорнокнижництво* “чаклування за допомогою книг, що мають нібито магічну силу”;

5) incongruous in a structure type, cf.: *blood-bank* (compound) vs. *схожість крові та плазми* (для переливання) (word-combination);

6) incongruous in connotations, cf.: *blobber-lipped* (expressively charged) vs. *товстогубий* (neutral);

7) congruous in meaning, though being a variety, characteristic of a particular group of the language’s speakers, cf.: *rooster* (American and Australian English for *cock*) vs. *когут* (dialectal variation for *півень* in Halychyna, Transcarpathia, Bukovyna, etc.).

### 1.8. Methods in Contrastive Lexicology

Contrastive Lexicology resorts to numerous methods, apt to provide with contrastive analysis of words in the English and Ukrainian languages. Of a paramount importance are contrastive and structural, or formalized (distributional, transformational, componential and immediate constituents) methods of vocabulary analysis.

**Contrastive Analysis.** Its goal is supposed to establish similarities and differences in the lexicons of the English and Ukrainian languages. This type of analysis is considered the main one, as it reveals the conceptual entities that underlie the contents of lexical items, and those areas of language cognition that represent the national worldview, the specificities of ethnic mentality, and the characteristics of cognitive abilities which belong to different linguistic communities.

**Distributional Analysis.** By term *distribution* is understood the occurrence of a lexical item, relative to other lexical items within the same level (words relative to words / morphemes relative to morphemes). In other words, this method of analysis establishes the characteristics of the positions that lexical items occupy in a text. As one of the methods of Contrastive Lexicology research, it determines the contextual meaning of a word due to its collocability. The analysis results are considered in
terms of the distributional patterns – abstract structures, realized at a syntagmatic level, cf.: *I treated him to an ice-cream* (verb + pronoun + preposition *to* + noun) – *to treat somebody to something* vs. *Я пригостив його морозивом* (verb + pronoun + noun) – *частувати когось чимось*; *We treat them kindly* (verb + pronoun + adverb) – *to treat somebody in some manner* vs. *Ми ставимося до них добре* (verb + preposition *до* + pronoun + adverb) – *ставитися до когось якимось чином*.

**Immediate Constituents Analysis.** This type of analysis is based on a binary division of a word into its constituents, aiming to discover the word’s ultimate constituents. Within Contrastive Lexicology research the immediate constituents (ICs) analysis attempts to determine morphemic or derivational structures of words in the contrasted languages, cf.: *incorruptibility* > *incorrupt* > *in* (prefix) + *corruptibility* > *corruptible* (adjective) + *ity* (suffix) > *corrupt* (verb) + *ible* (suffix) vs. *непідкупність* > *непідкуп* > *не* (prefix) + *підкупність* > *підкупний* (adjective) + *ість* (suffix) > *підкуп* (noun) + *н* (suffix) > *нід* (prefix) + *куп* (the root of the verb “купувати”).

**Transformational Analysis** provides for a re-patterning of distributional structures to establish similarities and differences between the meanings of practically identical distributional patterns. Within Contrastive Lexicology research this type of analysis is very often used to establish the syntactic and semantic relations between the components of the contrasted compound words, cf.: *червоноголовий* > *який має червону голову* vs. *red-headed* > *having a red head*, or the constituents of the contrasted derived words, cf.: *submissive* > *inclined to submit* vs. *покірний* > *який підкоряється в усьому*.

**Componential Analysis.** The essence of this method of analysis consists in splitting or decomposing the meaning into its elementary senses that are called *semantic features* – basic conceptual components of meaning characteristic of any lexical item. Contrastive Lexicology resorts to this kind of analysis in order to establish similarities and differences at the level of semantic fields, lexico-semantic and thematic groups, synonymic, antonymic, hyponymic and other semantic relations in the contrasted languages. Very often, in this respect, componential analysis is used to find a translational equivalent in the target language.

The procedure of componential analysis within cross-linguistic investigations is based on singling out and arranging semantic features of the contrasted words, with further determining the contrasts between their meanings.
The meaning of the word may comprise the following varieties of semantic features:

a) **classeme**, or **categorical seme** is the most generalizing semantic feature that corresponds to the meaning of a certain part of speech, cf.: the seme of ‘substance’, as in the nouns: *door* vs. *двері*; of ‘quality’, as in the adjectives: *deep* vs. *глибокий*; of ‘action’, as in the verbs: *go* vs. *йти*, etc.;

b) **archeseme** is a generic integrating semantic feature common for the lexical items belonging to a certain class, i.e. semantic field or thematic group, cf.: *go, walk, step, run* vs. *йти, ходити, крокувати, бігти*, etc. – the archeseme of ‘movement’;

c) **differential seme**, or **distinguisher** is a semantic feature, which is not found in the meaning of other words, i.e. the feature that distinguishes the words’ meanings, cf.: *walk* “to move along (along – “forward”) by putting one foot in front of the other, allowing each foot to touch the ground before lifting the next” vs. *ходити* “(про людей і тварин) ступаючи (ступати “ставити ногу куди-небудь, на що-небудь”), рухатися, переміщатися в різних напрямках” – the differential semes of ‘surface’ and ‘direction’. In English the seme of ‘surface’ correlates with the semantic component of ‘ground’, which represents the idea of the earth surface, whereas in Ukrainian the concept of surface is characterized by a much broader extension. Respectively, the seme of ‘direction’ correlates with the idea of a forward movement in English, and a multi-directional movement in Ukrainian. Hence, we may say in Ukrainian: *ходив за три моря; моряки ходять у плавання; гроші ходять в обігу; ходять чутки*, etc.;

d) **integral seme** is a semantic feature common for two or more meanings, cf.: *ходити* “(про людей і тварин) ступаючи, рухатися, переміщатися в різних напрямках” and *бігти* “швидко пересуватися на ногах у якому-небудь напрямку, поспішно йти” – the integral seme of ‘direction’ vs. *walk* “to move along by putting one foot in front of the other, allowing each foot to touch the ground before lifting the next” and *run* “to go at a speed faster than a walk, with only one foot on the ground at any time” – the integral seme of ‘regularity of touching the ground with a foot’;

e) **potential seme** is a semantic feature which manifests itself in a certain context. For example, the contrastive ethno-psycholinguistic analysis on national semantic idiosyncrasies of Ukrainian and English phytonyms (I.E. Podolian) showed that the English word *thorn* is
associated with such semantic features as ‘Jesus’, ‘trial’, ‘pain’: A relentless campaigner, he was a thorn in the government’s side for a number of years, whilst its Ukrainian counterpart терен reveals the components of ‘розп’яття’, ‘біль’, ‘труднощі’: Та ж, що коханням братернім Шлях мій, устелений тереном, Легко б могла озарити (П. Грабовський); the Ukrainian word бузок reveals such symbolic associations as ‘радість’, ‘бажання’, ‘сила’, whereas the English word lilac – that one of ‘Easter’;

f) **gradual seme** is a semantic feature that reveals the idea of some degree, or intensity in the meaning of the word, cf.: breeze > wind > gale > hurricane vs. бриз > вітер > сильний вітер > ураган. Being opposed to each other in the feature of ‘intensity of wind blowing’, the English words are distinguished by the gradual seme, unlike their Ukrainian counterparts, which (in case of сильний вітер) represent the idea of intensity by lexical means.

**ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL**

1. Characterize the trends of Contrastive Linguistics.
2. Give the characteristics of Contrastive Lexicology aspects.
3. Describe units and parameters of Contrastive Lexicology.
4. Represent the criteria that underlie a word identification.
5. Give the examples of the English-Ukrainian correspondences.
6. Characterize the methods of Contrastive Lexicology.
CHAPTER 2

ONOMASIOLOGICAL ASPECT
OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

2.1. Onomasiological Approach to Contrastive Analysis

From the viewpoint of onomasiology, lexicons of the contrasted languages represent different divisions of the reality, revealing different worldviews of nations on it.

The onomasiological aspect of Contrastive Lexicology aims at studying formal and structural differences of lexical items in the contrasted languages. In a broader sense, the onomasiological parameters of comparison are those features of contrast that represent various ways of designation of the same objects in the contrasted languages. In English and Ukrainian, one may mark differences in:

- sound-imitation, cf.: bow-wow vs. гав-гав, cock-a-doodle-do vs. кукурику, quack-quack vs. кря-кря;
• functionality, cf.: bedroom > the room with beds vs. спальня > кімната для спання, sailor > somebody who sails (travels by the action of wind on sails) a ship vs. моряк, мореплавець > який плаває морем.

There might also be arbitrary features of the object selected for designation, cf.: the eye of a needle vs. вушко голки; bluegrass vs. тонконіг; soft music vs. тиха (ніжна) музика.

2.2. Motivation of Lexical Items in English and Ukrainian

The interrelation between the structural pattern of a word and its lexical meaning is called motivation.

According to the way the structural pattern correlates with the content, all words may be divided into motivated and non-motivated (or etymologically motivated). In non-motivated words the connection between form and meaning is arbitrary, cf.: swan vs. лебідь. One can trace their motivation only etymologically, cf.: swan from Middle High German swan, akin to Latin sonus “sound” vs. лебідь from Latin albus “white” akin to the Indo-European root *elb “white”. In motivated words the connection between form and meaning is not arbitrary, but determined: betrayer – somebody who betrays vs. зрадник – людина, що вчинила зраду.

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

A. Phonetical motivation (lexical onomatopoeia) is observed in words, whose sound-clusters imitate the sounds they denote, cf.: hiss vs. шуниму, bubble vs. булькати, buzz vs. дзижчати. This type of motivation in both languages is comparatively small and is reduced, according to I.V. Korunets’, to about 1,08% of words in English and to only 0,8% in Ukrainian. The most characteristic contrastive feature of onomatopoeic words in the languages is a frequent use of the sound [p] in Ukrainian, cf.: гриміти, крякати, воркувати, цвірінчати, unlike English, where sibilants prevail, cf.: splash, shuffle, whiz, jingle, etc.

B. Morphological motivation is marked in derived words and non-idiomatic compounds, whose components “prompt” the meaning of a lexical item within a word-formation pattern, cf.: worker vs. робітник; chairbed vs. крісло-ліжко. There are about 88,5% of such words in English vs. 91,8% in Ukrainian.

C. Semantic motivation is the relationship between the direct and transferred meanings of a word, cf.: green “1. colour of grass; 2. inexperienced (cf.: greenhorn)” vs. зелений “1. кольору трави, листя;
2. недосвідчений (cf.: молодий та зелений”) . There are approx. 10% of such words in English vs. 7.4% in Ukrainian.

2.2.1. Inner-Form of the Word

The essential notion for determining the ways and means of designation within the form and meaning relations is the inner-form of the word. Being a feature that underlies a name, the inner-form represents the property by which an object was designated. The inner-form motivates a sound shape of the word, indicating the reason for which the meaning is expressed by it, cf.: сміли (стелити, застиляти, перестилати) vs. table (from Latin tabula “board, tablet, list”).

2.2.2. Demotivation of Lexical Items

In functioning, the inner-form of the word may totally or partially be lost, this process being called demotivation. The reasons for losing the inner-form are various:

a) phonetical changes, cf.: ведмідь < Old Slavonic медведь < primitive Slavonic medvĕdь < *medu – *ĕd – медоїд vs. bear < Middle English bere fr. Old English bera akin to Old Eglish brun “brown”;

b) loss of the feature by which the object was designated: чорнило < чорний, however, червоне, зелене, синє тощо чорнило. In English the word ink originates from the Greek word enkaustos “burned in”, cf.: encaustic “a paint made from pigment mixed with melted beeswax and fixed by heat after application”, however, ink “a coloured liquid”;

c) loss or complete change of the meaning, cf.: жінка < ген, генеза, генетив – motivated with the meaning of “та, яка народжує” vs. woman < Old English wifman < wif “wife” + man “human being, man”.

2.2.3. Pseudomotivation of Lexical Items

Pseudomotivation, or folk etymology is the mistaken motivation due to the fancied analogy of borrowings with well-known native words. In Theory of Translation such words are called pseudo-internationalisms, or “translator’s false friends”.

Pseudomotivation is a motivation by a first arbitrary consonance, without the phonetical laws, morphological structure or its changes being taken into account. It is the reinterpretation of an unknown or little known word with the known one by a random similarity, this leading to the false establishment of the inner-form and very often to the phonetical “disfiguration” of the word, cf.: red-shortness < red-short
“(by folk etymology fr. Swidish rödskört, fr. röd red + skör brittle) the quality or state of being brittle (“easily broken or cracked”) when red-hot” vs. оковита “міцна горілка високого гатунку (by folk etymology fr. Latin aqua vita ‘вода життя’)”.

2.3. Onomasiological Structure as a Criterion for Contrastive Analysis

The criterion that conforms to the targets of contrastive analysis within the onomasiological aspect is the onomasiological structure of the word. The onomasiological structure represents the structure of a derived or compound word as the process and result of naming. In other words, it motivates the choice of name, fixing its connection with the whole complex about the denotatum, lexical meaning, and grammatical structure. According to P. Štekauer, the onomasiological structure represents the conceptual basis of the process of naming within three constituents: onomasiological base, onomasiological mark, and onomasiological connective. The onomasiological base denotes a class, gender, species, etc., to which the object belongs. The onomasiological mark functions as a specifier of the base. The onomasiological connective represents the logical-semantic relations between the onomasiological base and the onomasiological mark.

The onomasiological structure is the result of motivation that represents a concept by correlating it with the form and meaning of a motivator (onomasiological mark) and a word-building affix (onomasiological base) of a derived or compound word, they being mediated by a logical-semantic relation (onomasiological connective), cf.: printer “a person whose job it is to print books, newspapers and magazines” > ‘person’ (onomasiological base – word-building suffix -er) who ‘does’ (onomasiological connective) ‘printing’ (onomasiological mark) vs. друкар “фахівець друкарської справи, поліграфічного виробництва” > ‘особа’ (onomasiological base – word-building suffix -ap), яка ‘виконує’ (onomasiological connective) ‘друк’ (onomasiological mark).

The comparison at the level of the onomasiological structure provides for the following parameters:

a) the order of the onomasiological marks, cf.: snow-white vs. білосніжний;

b) onomasiological bases and their semantics, cf.: призовник (- ник ‘той, хто перебуває в певному стані’) vs. draftee (- ee ‘a person who is in a certain condition or state’);
c) onomasiological marks and their semantics, cf.: біловолосий “який має світле волосся” vs. white-haired “having white hair”;

d) associative connections between the onomasiological marks (for compounds), cf.: ‘use’ – handwriting vs. рукопис; ‘be’ – blue-eyed vs. блакитноокий; ‘resemble’ – sword-fish vs. меч-риба; ‘for’ – hay-drier vs. сіносушарка.

e) onomasiological connectives and their semantics, cf.: лижник “той, хто ходить на лижах або займається лижним спортом” vs. skier “one who uses or travels on skis”.

The interpretation of the onomasiological structure provides for the semantics identification of congruous words that differ in their designation.

2.4. Types of Onomasiological Congruence in English and Ukrainian

The onomasiological structure as a criterion for contrastive analysis is considered from the viewpoint of designation strategies the contrasted lexical items reveal. The strategies determine a certain type of onomasiological congruence – correspondence established between the constituents of the onomasiological structures of the contrasted lexical items. There are three main types of onomasiological congruence: total congruence, partial congruence and total incongruence. Besides, there are non-equivalent lexical items in both languages, they forming the so-called onomasiological lacunas, i.e. lack of designative means for naming an object.

**Total congruence** is characterized by a complete identification of semantically identical components of the onomasiological structures in the contrasted languages, cf.: blackshirt vs. чорносорочечник, neighbourhood vs. сусідство, grey-eyed vs. сіроокий, etc. Totally congruous words are usually borrowings, cf.: хот-дог vs. hot-dog, or international words, cf.: Ger. Braunhemd, Eng. brownshirt, Ukr. коричневосорочечник, etc.

**Partial congruence** of the onomasiological structures is characterized by:

- a) the identity of an onomasiological mark and non-identity of the other in the couples: “compound – derivative”, cf.: purplefish vs. багрянка; “compound – compound”, cf.: orange-root vs. жовтокорінь (канадський), жовторотий vs. yellow-beaked; “compound – word combination”, cf.: black-beetle vs. чорний тарган, білорибиця vs. white
Onomasiological Aspect of Contrastive Lexicology

fish; b) the inversion of the onomasiological marks, cf.: golden-yellow vs. жовто-золотий; білосніжний vs. snow-white.

Total incongruence is characterized by a complete incongruity of all components of the onomasiological structure in the couples: “compound – compound”, cf.: blacksnake vs. полоз-удав, червонодеревець vs. cabinetmaker; “compound – derivative”, cf.: brown-nose vs. підлиза, білосніжний vs. incandescent; “compound – word combination”, cf.: yellow-boy vs. золота монета, whitebeam vs. горобина арія, чорнобривці vs. French merigold.

Non-equivalent words are lexical items that are characterized by the absence of equivalents in the other language. Non-equivalence is determined by:

a) worldview each ethnic group reveals in naming an object, phenomenon or process. The choice of a motivator, in this case, wholly depends on a designator’s mentality, psyche, spirits, etc., cf.: blackbirds “amphetamine capsules”, нерозлийвода “розм. завжди бувають разом, ніколи не розлучаються”;

b) historical events, cf.: bluecoat “a soldier esp. of the U.S. during the Civil War”, білопідкладочник “студент аристократичного походження, що зневажливо ставиться до рядового студентства”;

c) social practices or cultural phenomena that occur within a certain ethnic group, cf.: brown-bag “to have a meal in the middle of the day esp. with other people, to which you take your own food”, greenmail “the practice of purchasing enough shares in a firm or trading company to threaten a take-over, thereby forcing the owners to buy them back at a premium in order to retain control of the business”, веснянка “хорова народнообрядова пісня, в якій оспівується пробудження природи, кохання, надії на врожай”, чорнобривець “діал. чобіт, що має кольорову халяву і чорний передою”;

d) natural phenomena typical for a certain region, cf.: whitetop “a grass of northwestern North America that is an important source of food for wild birds, чорнотроп “(мисливське) осінній холодний період до випадання снігу”.

2.5. Onomasiological Category and its Contrastive Representation

One of the basic notions of onomasiology, on a par with the onomasiological structure, is the notion of onomasiological category. Onomasiological categories are defined as different types of structuring
the concept in view of its expression in the given language, i.e., the essential conceptual structures establishing the basis for the act of naming (M. Dokulil).

The conceptual structure may manifest itself within the so-called predicate-and-actant structure, the latter being a pre-lexical structure that represents the connection of a predicate with one of its actants (participants) which is attributed to a certain semantic role, i.e.: Agent (the ‘doer’ or instigator of the action denoted by the predicate), Patient (the ‘undergoer’ of the action or event denoted by the predicate), Theme (the entity that is moved by the action or event denoted by the predicate), Experiencer (the living entity that experiences the action or event denoted by the predicate), Goal (the location or entity in the direction of which something moves), Benefactive (the entity that benefits from the action or event denoted by the predicate), Source (the location or entity from which something moves), Instrument (the medium by which the action or event denoted by the predicate is carried out), Locative (the specification of the place where the action or event denoted by the predicate in situated), and others.

The contrastive analysis may reveal differences and similarities in the ways the onomasiological category is represented at the level of the predicate-and-actant structure. For example, the representation of the onomasiological category of CAREER (OCCUPATION) reveals both similar and different configurations of the predicate-and-actant structures, cf.: орґанізатор “той, хто організовує” (Agent) vs. organizer “one who organizes” (Agent); піаніст “музикант, який грає на фортепіано” (Instrument) vs. pianist “a person who plays the piano” (Instrument); мореплавець “той, хто подорожує морями” (Locative) vs. seaman “one whose occupation or business is on the sea” (Locative), but, аптекар “працівник аптеки” (Locative) vs. druggist “somebody who deals in or dispenses drugs and medicines” (Object).

The onomasiological category may also reveal correspondences at the level of the associative (either metaphorical or metonymical) relations, as these types of relations are considered to determine the connections between various concepts (vide 4.6.2.), cf.: structural metaphor (a concept is metaphorically structured in terms of the other concept), cf.: змійовик “зігнута у вигляді спіралі або подібних витків труба, призначена для поверхневого теплообміну” vs. worm-pipe “something helical, e.g. a spiral pipe”; diffusive metaphor (diffusive integration of concepts, when it is difficult to establish the essence of
the connections between the concepts), cf. хмарочос “дуже високий багатоповерховий будинок” vs. skyscraper “a very tall many-storeyed building”; Gestalt (the connection of concepts is based on some perception images, ideas, sensations, etc.), cf.: дзвоники “трав’яниста або напівкущова рослина з блакитними, синіми, ліловими, фіолетовими та іншими квітками, що формою нагадують маленькі дзвони” vs. bluebell(s) “a plant of the lily family bearing blue bell-shaped flowers”.

2.6. Borrowings in English and Ukrainian

A specific layer of vocabulary from the viewpoint of designation is constituted by the so-called borrowed words. Having been taken from the source language, borrowings fill in designative lacunas in the target language.

The linguistic factors that stimulate the emergence of borrowings in the target language are the following:

- to avoid polysemy, with fixing different meanings in the native and borrowed words, cf.: варення “варені в цукровому сиропі, меді чи патоці ягоди або фрукти” vs. джем (Eng. jam) “желеподібне варення”; подорож “поїздка або пересування пішки місцями, віддаленими від постійного місця проживання” vs. круїз (англ. cruise) “подорож по воді”.
- to use a single word instead of a word combination, cf.: вправний стрілець vs. снайпер (Eng. “sniper”); біг на короткі дистанції vs. спринт (Eng. “sprint”).

There are the following types of borrowings: lexical borrowings, calques (translation-loans) and semantic borrowings.

Lexical borrowings are foreign words that penetrate into the native language without changing their meaning and form, cf.: meeting vs. мітинг, гривня vs. hryvna.

Translation-loans (calques) are borrowings which do not retain their original form, but undergo the process of translation, cf: surplus value vs. додана вартість. Beside calques there are semi-calques, in which one part of the word is borrowed and the other one is translated, cf.: television vs. телебачення.

Semantic borrowings are borrowed meanings from a foreign word. E.g. the English word red is likely to have acquired the meaning of “communist” from the word червоний with the meaning of “який стосується революційної діяльності; пов’язаний із радянським соціалістичним ладом”, cf.: red “Bolshevik, communist; pertaining to
the U.S.S.R.; red revolution, a socialist or communist revolution”. The Ukrainian word зелений is likely to have acquired the meaning “який є захисником природного середовища” (cf.: Партія Зелених) under the influence of the English counterpart green “relating to or beneficial to the natural environment; concerned about environmental issues and supporting policies aimed at protecting the environment”.

2.7. Word-Formation in English and Ukrainian

Word-formation, or word-building is the process of constructing new words from the existing resources of language. Being a part of onomasiology in providing with the process of designation, word-formation focuses on derivative words and the process of creating new words from the material available in language following certain structural and semantic patterns. The task of contrastive word-formation is to reveal correspondences between the contrasted words in the aspect of the following criteria:

a) derivativeness / non-derivativeness, cf.: motel > mot(or) + (hot)el (blending) vs. мотель (borrowing); унікальний (affixation) vs. unique (simple word);

b) derivational affix correspondences, cf.: teach + -er, work + -er, read + -er vs. вчи + -теб’я, робіт + -ник, чит + -ач.

c) availability / unavailability of a morphemic linking element, cf.: black-a-vised vs. темношкірий; листоподібний vs. leaf-like;

d) correspondences in a word-building type, cf.: greenfinch, yellow-cup (compounding) > N = Adj + N vs. зеленяк, жовтець (suffixation) > N = Adj + Suf.

2.8. Types of Word-Formation and their Contrastive Description

The main units of word-building are derived words, or derivatives. Derived words are secondary linguistic units that are structurally and semantically dependent on some other simpler lexical units (derivational words) that motivate them, cf.: use > useful vs. користь > корисний. Both derived and derivational words are not totally identical. There exist structural similarities and differences between them. The relations between these units are called the relations of word-building derivativeness.

The trace of the derivational word preserved by any form in the derived word is called the derivational base, cf.: UNO < United Nations Organization vs. ООН < Організація Об’єднаних Націй; унів. <
university vs. ун-т < університет. Besides, there are derived words that preserve the so-called derivational affixes, the latter performing the function of repatterning a derivational base and building a lexical unit different from a source one, cf.: неpe + робимy vs. re + make.

The major types of word-formation are the following: derivation, compounding, conversion, clipping, abbreviation, back-formation, blending, and reduplication.

2.8.1. Derivation in English and Ukrainian

Derivation is a type of word-formation in which a word is derived from another word by adding an affix. Derivation includes suffixation and prefixation.

Suffixation underlies the formation of new words with the help of suffixes, the latter being affixes which follow the material (root morpheme) they are added to, cf.: нов + -ач + -ок vs. green + -er; trick + -ery vs. шахрай + -ство.

In English and Ukrainian, suffixes may be compared based on their origin and meaning.

By origin, the contrasted suffixes are divided into native and borrowed ones. In English, native suffixes are primarily Germanic in origin, cf.: noun-suffixes: -er (rider), -ling (firstling), -ness (goodness), -ie (birdie), -hood (manhood), -ship (friendship), -ier (cashier), -yer (lawyer), -ster (roadster), -th (breadth), -dom (dukedom), -ing (feeling), -у (aunty); adjective-suffixes: -fold (twofold), -ful (hopeful), -less (powerless), -ish (greyish), -like (warlike), -ly (womanly); -some (troublesome), -у (mighty); adverb-suffixes: -ly (newly), -long (headlong), -wise (crosswise); -ward(s) (backwards); verb-suffixes: -en (blacken). In Ukrainian, native suffixes are primarily of Proto-Slavic origin, cf.: noun-suffixes: -ин(я) (гордина), -ич (панич), -нь (приязнь), -ств(о) (багатство), -тай (глашатай), -тв(а) (бітва), -тель (мислитель), -ур-а (замазура); adjective-suffixes: -ав (кульгавий), -яв (кучерный), -ез-н(ий) (величезний); participial-suffixes: -ящ (роботящий), -м(ий) (рукомий), -уш (градущий).

Both English and Ukrainian borrowed suffixes are mainly of Romanic and Greek origins:

A. English: a) noun-suffixes of Romanic origin: -ee, -ey, -ess, -let, -ry, -ery, -tion, -ade (blockade), -age (passage), -ence (obedience), -ance (guidance), -ancy (vacancy), -ency (emergency), -ant (merchant), -cy (curacy), ent (student), -ard (coward), -art (braggart), -ice (service), -in
(bulletin), -ion (union), -ence (existence), -ment (amazement), -mony (ceremony), -or (actor), -eur (amateur), -ory (dormitory), -eer (engineer), -o(u)r (behaviour), -tude (attitude), -ty (liberty), -ure (culture), -an (dean), -ate (curate), -at (diplomat), -ian (guardian); of Greek origin: -ic (cleric), -ist (artist), -oid (colloid), -asm (enthusiasm), -ast (gymnast), -ics (physics), -ine (heroine), -y (academy); b) adjective-suffixes of Romanic origin: -able (eatable), -al (comical), -an (Roman), -an (European), -ary (contrary), -ese (Japanese), -ic (Celtic), -ine (infantine), -ive (native), -ous (glorious); c) verb-suffixes of Romanic origin: -ate (graduate), -fy (terrify); of Greek origin: -ize, -ise (organize).

B. Ukrainian: a) noun suffixes of Greek origin: -ад(а) (олімпіада), -ид(а) (панахида), -ид(а) (піраміда), -иск (обеліск), -им(ят) (соломіт); of Romanic origin: -аж (акіотаж), -ант (лейтенант), -анс (реверанс), -ат (дериват), -ація (інформація), -ент (студент), -ар (шофер), -ій (мораторій), -ист/-іст (медаліст), -изм/-ізм/-іzm (нігілізм), -он (батальйон), -тор (диктор), -тур(а) (аспірантура), -ум (акваріум), -ус (вірус); of Turkic origin: -ак (козак), -як (маяк), -ан (отаман), -лик (ярлик), -ук (гадяк), -ун (кавун), -ча (саранча); b) adjective suffixes of Romanic origin: -аль(ний) (універсальний).

The correspondence of the suffixes is established due to the source they originate from. The suffixes borrowed from the same source are supposed to establish the reciprocal correspondence. Those which originate from different sources are supposed to establish the one-sided correspondence.

The reciprocal correspondence of suffixes in English and Ukrainian:
  a) Greek origin, cf.: -ид (pyramid) vs. -ид (піраміда); -иск (obelisk) vs. -иск (обеліск);
  b) Romanic origin, cf.: -изм (Hinduism) vs. -изм (індуїзм); -ист (journalist) vs. -ист (journalіst); -ал (nominal) vs. -аль(ний) (номінальний); -ате (nitrate) vs. -ат (нітрат); -іон (information) vs. -ація (інформація); -ент (incident) vs. -ент (інцидент); -ер (режисер) vs. -ор (director).

The one-sided correspondence of suffixes in English and Ukrainian:
  a) Polish origin vs. Germanic origin, cf.: -изн(а) (білизна) vs. -несс (whiteness);
  b) Romanic origin vs. Germanic origin, cf.: -ант (десант) vs. -инг (landing); -ар (шофер) vs. -ер (driver);
  c) Romanic origin vs. Slavic origin, cf.: -ацe (arrogance) vs. -ин(я) (гордина).
In the contrasted languages suffixes may also be compared by their meanings, i.e. from the viewpoint of the functions they perform in repatterning the derivational bases of the words. Considering the onomasiological aspect of comparison, the correspondence between suffixes is established in the aspect of their representing a certain concept. It should be borne in mind that suffixal designation is usually realized in one-to-many correspondence, i.e. a suffix in the source language may have several equivalents in the target one and vice versa. The list of suffixes in both languages is quite numerous; therefore, we shall focus on those, correlating with some major concepts:

- agent suffixes, cf.: -er (farmer, miner, teacher, singer, milker) vs. -ep (фермер), -ник (гірник), -тьель (вчитель), -ак (співак), -яр (дояр); -or (actor, director) vs. -op (актор), -ep (режисер); -ent (student) vs. -ент (студент); -ant (claimant, merchant, pedant) vs. -ац (позивач), -ець (купець, торговець), -еп (докірнік); -eer (auctioneer) vs. -ep (аукціонер), etc.;
- suffixes, denoting abstract notions, cf.: -ness (goodness) vs. -m(a) (доброс); -ty (fraternity, cruelty) vs. -ство (братерство), -ість (жортокість);
- suffixes, denoting the object of an action (the one to whom the action is done), cf.: -ee (employee, refugee, trustee, assignee) vs. -ець (службовець), -ач (утікач), -ун (опікун), -ник (правонаступник);
- diminutive suffixes, cf.: -et (eaglet, booklet, kinglet) vs. -ятк (орлятко), -ечк (книжечка), -ок (царок); -ette (kitchenette) vs. -оньк (кухонька); -y/-ie (sissy, birdie, auntie) vs. -ичк (сестричка), -чк (пташечка), -оньк (тігонька); -ling (ducking, firstling, underling) vs. -еня (каченя), -ок (первісток), -ом (дрібнота); -ок (hillock) -ик (горбик);
- gender suffixes (feminine), cf.: -ess (actress, tigress, poetess, goddess) vs. -ис (актриса), -цц (тигриця), -єс (поетеса), -ин (богиня); -ine (heroine) vs. -ин (героїня).

The contrastive analysis of suffixes according to their meaning reveals the following types of correspondence in English and Ukrainian:

a) totally equivalent suffixes, cf.: goatling vs. козенятко – the meaning of “diminutiveness”; ignorance vs. нецтво – the meaning of “quality”; reading vs. читання – the meaning of “act, art of doing”;

b) partially equivalent suffixes, cf.: -ish (greyish) – the meaning of “to some degree; partly; quite” vs. -уват (сироватий) – the meaning of “deficient degree of manifestation (of a feature)”;

c) non-equivalent suffixes, cf.: hopeless vs. безнадійний; каменюка vs. large stone.
**Prefixation** underlies the formation of new words with the help of prefixes, the latter being affixes which precede the material (root morpheme) they are added to, cf.: *post-* + war vs. *після-* + воєнний; *пере-* + витрата vs. *over-* + expenditure.

In English and Ukrainian, prefixes, like the suffixes, may be compared based on their origin (native or borrowed) and meaning.

The native prefixes of Germanic origin found in English are: *a-* (arise), *be-* (beflag), *after-* (afternoon), *all-* (always), *by-* (byroad), *for-* (forsay), *fore-* (forehead), *forth-* (forthright), *in-* (insight), *mis-* (miscarry), *off-* (offspring), *on-* (onset), *out-* (outside), *over-* (overtake), *un-* (unable), *under-* (undertake), *up-* (upshot), *with-* (withdraw). In Ukrainian we find the native prefixes of Old Slavic origin: *воз-* (воздвигнути), *пре-* (премудрий), *пред-* (предтеча), *со-* (сопатник). The correlations between these prefixes are not numerous, cf.: *предтеча* vs. *forerunner; forefather* vs. *предок.*

The borrowed prefixes:


The reciprocal correspondence of prefixes in English and Ukrainian:

a) Greek origin, cf.: *anti-* (antiseptics) vs. *анти-* (антисептика); *а-* (apathy) vs. *а-* (апатія);
b) Romanic origin, cf.: vice- (vice-admiral) vs. віце- (віце-адмірал); ex- (ex-champion) vs. екс- (екс-чемпіон); im- (immigration) vs. ім- (іміграція).

The one-sided correspondence of prefixes in English and Ukrainian:

a) Romanic origin vs. Germanic origin, cf.: суб- (суборенда) vs. under- (under-lease);

b) Romanic origin vs. Slavic origin, cf.: re- (reunion) vs. воз- (возз’єднання); sub- (subspecies) vs. під- (підвид); ab- (abnormal) vs. не- (ненормальний).

Considering the onomasiological aspect of comparison, the prefixes in English and Ukrainian are used to denote:

• closeness, proximity, cf.: су- (сузір’я) vs. con- (constellation); ad- (admixture) vs. су- (суміш);

• priority, cf.: перед- (передмова, передвісник) vs. fore- (foreword, forerunner); ante- (antechamber) vs. перед- (передпокій); pre- (pre-war) vs. перед- (передвоєнний);

• negation and opposition, cf.: non- (non-believer) vs. не- (невірячий); не- (нездатний) vs. in- (incapable); counter- (counter-attack) vs. контр- (контратака); anti- (antipersonnel) vs. проти- (протипіхотний); dis- (disconnect) vs. роз- (роз’єднувати);

• failure, cf.: mis- (miscount) vs. про- (прорахунок).

The contrastive analysis of prefixes according to their meaning reveals the following types of correspondence in English and Ukrainian:

a) totally equivalent prefixes, cf.: foresee vs. передбачати – the meaning of “before”; intergalactic vs. міжзоряний – the meaning of “between”; sub-species vs. підвид – the meaning of “a smaller part of a larger whole”;

b) partially equivalent prefixes, cf.: су- (супротивник) – the meaning of “closeness; proximity” vs. оп- (opponent) – the meaning of “against”; перед- (передполярний) – the meaning of “before” vs. sub- (subarctic) – the meaning of “below”;

c) non-equivalent prefixes, cf.: безмежний vs. boundless; поверх vs. floor.

**Suffixation-and-Prefixation** is the formation of new words by means of both prefixes and suffixes, cf.: in-sensibil-ity vs. не-чутлив-ість. There are three varieties of this phenomenon in English and Ukrainian. All of them are based on a number of prefixes or suffixes, constituting the derivational pattern of the contrasted words:
a) prefix + root morpheme + suffix, cf.: un-employ-ment vs. без-робіт-т-я;
   b) two or more prefixes + root morpheme + suffix, cf.: re-in-carnation vs. пере-в-тіл-енн-я;
   c) prefix + root morpheme + two or more suffixes, cf.: pro-portion-ate-ly vs. про-порц-ій-н-о.

2.8.2. Compounding in English and Ukrainian

**Compounding**, or **word-composition** underlies the formation of new words by combining two or more existing words.

Compound words in English and Ukrainian may be compared on the basis of their structure and semantics.

Structurally, compounds are considered within their immediate constituents (ICs). There are two major types of compound words according to the structure of their immediate constituents in English and Ukrainian: **compounds proper**, formed by ICs, occurring in language as free forms, cf.: ear-pick vs. вухочистка, важкоатлет vs. heavy-weight, and **derivational compounds**, formed by a (derivational) suffix added to a phrase, the second component not occurring as a free form, cf.: honey-mouthed > (noun “honey” + noun “mouth”) + ed and медоточивий > (noun “мед” + verb “точити”) + ів(ий). However, sometimes derivational compounds in Ukrainian may have no derivational suffix. In this case, the onomasiological base is determined grammatically, i.e. by a compound belonging to a certain part of speech, cf.: broad-shouldered > (adjective “broad” + noun “shoulders”) + ed – the onomasiological base is set by a suffix, and широкоплечий > (adjective “широкі” + noun “плечі”) + ій – the onomasiological base is set by the adjectival paradigm.

Both compounds proper and derivational compounds’ structures may be considered within their ICs links. Compounds in both languages may be linked:

   a) by juxtaposition, cf.: dining-car vs. вагон-ресторан; сережка-підвіска vs. ear-drop; major-general vs. генерал-майор;
   b) morphologically (with a linking element), cf.: black-a-vised vs. темношкірий; китайсько-тибетський vs. Sino-Tibetan;
   c) syntactically (whole phrases with prepositions or conjunctions), cf.: Frankfurt-on-the-Main vs. Франкфурт-на-Майні; мати-й-мачуха vs. coltsfoot.
From the viewpoint of semantics compound words in English and Ukrainian are compared on the basis of correlations of the compounds' meanings and the meanings of their ICs. If the meaning of a compound is inferred from the meanings of its ICs, it is a case of non-idiomatic compounds, cf.: snow-white “white as snow” vs. білосніжний “білий, як сніг”; блакитноокий “який має блакитні очі” vs. blue-eyed “having blue eyes”. If the meaning of a compound is not inferred from the meanings of its ICs, then it is a case of idiomatic compounds, cf.: greenhorn “an inexperienced or unsophisticated person” vs. молокосос “дуже молодя, недосвідчена людина”; серцеїд “той, хто легко закохує у себе” vs. lady-killer “a man who captivates women”.

Compounds in English and Ukrainian can also be differentiated on the basis of their meaning, being identified with one of its ICs. Depending on an immediate constituent being or not being the head (the element which determines the nature of a lexical item) of a compound, endocentric and exocentric compounds are singled out.

The endocentric compound denotes a particular type of what is denoted by its head, cf.: dark-yellow vs. темно-жовтий – it is the type of the yellow colour; художник-декоратор vs. scene-painter – it is the type of a painter.

The exocentric compound, or headless compound is a type of a compound word in which neither element is a head, cf.: blackshirt “a member of a fascist organization having a black shirt as a distinctive part of its uniform” vs. чорносорочник “італійський фашист, якого називали так тому, що він носив сорочку чорного кольору”; червоноперка “річкова риба родини коропових, яка має червонуваті плавники” vs. red-eye “a European fish, the rudd, *Leuciscus erythrophthalmus*. Compounds that denote a human being or creature by a conspicuous feature or features that are expressed by a compound’s ICs are called bahuvrihi [Skr., lit. having much rice, fr. *bahú* ‘much’ + *vṛīhī* ‘rice’].

2.8.3. Conversion in English and Ukrainian

Conversion, or zero-derivation is a type of word-formation in which the word is shifted from one part of speech onto another without any morphological additions or changes. It is the word’s paradigm that changes.
Conversion is a very productive way of word-formation in English. Widely distributed patterns of conversion in English are: n > v (a chairman > to chairman), v > n (to look > a look), adj. > n (Ukrainian > Ukrainian), n > adj. (maiden > maiden), adv. > v (down > to down). In Ukrainian very close to conversion is substantivization – the process in which adjectives (or participles) acquire the paradigm and syntactic functions of nouns, cf.: поранений (adjective): Ясногорська, повзуючи в прибережних росяних шелюгах, перев'язує поранених піхотинців > поранений (noun): Він неподівано наткнувся на двох бійців з носилками в руках. Вони несли поранену vs. wounded (adjective): A wounded soldier was carried away from the battle zone with blood streaming from his head > wounded (noun): There was a temporary ceasefire to evacuate the wounded.

It should be borne in mind that substantivization from other parts of speech in Ukrainian is often collocationally and grammatically restricted, cf.: adverbs: одержати «відмінно»; завтра починається сьогодні; по саме нікуди, functional words and interjections: зажити всі за і проти; все було б добре, якби не одне але; охи та ахи; голосне але, syntactical constructions: Буде хліб і до хліба; Вивчити, як «Отче наш»; З вулиці чулося «Розпрягайте, хлопці, коні».

2.8.4. Abbreviation in English and Ukrainian

**Abbreviation**, or **initial shortening** is a brief way of writing a word or a phrase that could also be written out in full, using only the letters of the alphabet and possibly full stops. In English and Ukrainian, this type of word-formation is very productive, cf.: Prof. for Professor vs. проф. for професор; e.g. for for example vs. напр. for наприклад; VAT for value-added tax vs. ПДВ for податок на додану вартість. It should be pointed out that the so-called compound abbreviations, which are sometimes referred to as contracted compounds, are characteristic of English, cf.: V-type vs. клиноподібний; L-square vs. косинець; D-day vs. день початку операції;

The term *abbreviation* is extended to include acronyms and initialisms.

**Acronym** is a word, constructed by combining the initial letters of the principle words in a phrase to produce something which can be pronounced as a word and which has the same meaning as the original
phrase, cf.: AIDS [eizd] vs. ЧНІД; NATO ['neitou] vs. HATO; UNO ['ju:nou] vs. ООН.

**Initialism** is a word, constructed by taking the initial letters in a phrase, producing something which cannot be pronounced as a word, but must be spelled out letter by letter, cf.: FBI (Federal Bureau of Investigation) vs. ФБР (Федеральне бюро розслідувань); IMF (International Monetary Fund) vs. МВФ (Міжнародний валютний фонд); СБУ (Служба безпеки України) vs. SBU (Security Service of Ukraine); ВНП (Валовий національний продукт) vs. GNP (Gross National Product).

The contrastive analysis reveals some incongruence between these types of abbreviation in English and Ukrainian, cf.: США (acronym) vs. USA (initialism); SDI (initialism) vs. COI (acronym); ЧАЕС (acronym) vs. ChNPP (initialism).

**2.8.5. Clipping in English and Ukrainian**

**Clipping**, or **contraction** is a type of word-formation in which a short piece is extracted from a longer word and given the same meaning. A word formed in this way is a clipped form, cf.: blog, from Web log – a personal Web site-based log of events, comments, and links.

A clipped form is a real word, but not an abbreviation. There are the following types of clipping:

a) initial clipping (apheresis) – the omission of the fore part of the word, cf.: telephone > phone; airplane > plane. In Ukrainian this type of contraction is characteristic of dialectal words, cf.: історія > сторійа, емігрант > мігрант. Apheresis is typical of a dialectal speech, cf.: Нема мені одрадоньки ні д’отця, ні д’еньки.

b) medial clipping (syncope) – the omission of the middle part of the word, cf.: ра[діостан]ція > рація; math[ematic]s > maths. The contrastive analysis also reveals some incongruence in the use of syncope, cf.: літра (clipping) vs. lit. (abbreviation); фізра (clipping) vs. phys-ed (clipping) vs. PT or PE (abbreviation). In Ukrainian, this type of contraction frequently occurs in a jargonic talk, cf.: Останнім уроком фізра, на неї і так ніхто не піде, – тим самим вихолощеним, приятельським тоном умовляв Єгор.

c) final clipping (apocope) – the omission of the final part of the word, cf.: автомобiшна > авто vs. automobile > auto, титу > тит vs. мама > ма. The contrastive analysis also reveals some incongruence in the use of apocope, cf.: зав’ядувач > зав (clipping) vs. principal >
princ. (shortening); університет > універ (clipping) vs. university > uni. (shortening). In Ukrainian this type of contraction frequently occurs in a jargonic speech, cf.: Тільки я не второпаю, нашо було мені мутиться, яких ти все одно в універ ходила.

d) mixed clipping – where the fore and the final parts of the word are clipped (the conformity is observed only in some proper names), cf.: Elisabeth > Liz vs. Єлизавета > Ліза, however, flu vs. грип; tec vs. детектив.

2.8.6. Blending in English and Ukrainian

**Blending** is a kind of word-formation in which a word is constructed by combining arbitrary parts of two or more existing words. A word constructed in such a way is a blend or portmanteau, cf.: Ukr. пірамеїн – пірамідон + кофеїн; аспірен – аспірин + кофеїн; Eng. paramedic – parachute + medic; spam – spiced + ham; chunnel (for the underwater link between Britain and the continent) – channel + tunnel.

Being very productive in English, blending has become “popular” in Ukrainian only in the last decade, cf.: франглійська (французька мова, яка містить велику кількість англійських слів і виразів) from franglais (français “French” + anglais “English”); Оксбридж (привілейований вищий учбовий заклад) from Oxbridge (Oxford + Cambridge); сексплуатація (використання відвертих сцен у всіх видах мистецтва та у рекламі) from sexploitation (sex + exploitation). It should be pointed out that blending in English might have another type of word-formation equivalent in Ukrainian, cf.: brunch (breakfast + lunch) vs. сніданок-обід (compounding).

2.8.7. Back-Formation in English and Ukrainian

**Back-formation,** or **reversion** is the derivation of new words by means of removing a suffix or other element resembling it. In back-formation we take an existing word and remove from it a piece that “looks” like an affix, but really is not, in order to obtain a new word. For example, the English words burglar “one who is guilty of burglary”, sculptor “one who practises the art of sculpture; chiefly, an artist who produces works of statuary in stone (esp. marble) or bronze”, and editor “one who prepares the literary work of another person, or number of persons for publication, by selecting, revising, and arranging the material; also, one who prepares an edition of any literary work”, borrowed from Old French or Latin, “sound” as though they contained
the familiar agent suffix -er(-or), as in writer, singer or actor, and so this apparent suffix has been removed to obtain the previously non-existent verbs burgle “to steal (goods) or rob (a place) as a burglar; to commit a burglary”; sculpt “to practise the art of sculpture” and edit “to prepare an edition of (a literary work or works by an earlier author)”.

In Ukrainian back-formation is a non-productive type of word-formation and is reduced to the cases of gender differentiations, occurring within the same part of speech, cf.: доярка vs. дояр, and is usually traced back to word-forming phenomena at the diachronic approach: historically, cf.: зонтик > зонт; дрейфувати > дрейф, etc.

2.8.8. Reduplication in English and Ukrainian

Reduplication is a type of word-formation in which the word is constructed by totally or partially doubling a stem, cf.: ding-dong vs. дзинь-дзелень; higgledy-piggledy vs. так-сяк; willy-nilly vs. хоч-не-хоч, волею-неволею; hurry-scurry vs. сяк-так, etc.

There are the following types of reduplication in English and Ukrainian:

a) sound-imitating (onomatopoeic), cf.: буль-буль, ха-ха, гав-гав vs. plop-plop, ha-ha, bow-wow;

b) emotive, cf.: но-но! (warning), сину-сину! (reproach), ого-го vs. no-no! (prohibition or failure), go-go! (excitement);

c) rhyming (expressive), cf.: чудо-юдо, шуря-буря, фіґлі-міґлі, теревені-вені, яйце-райце vs. hokey-pokey, razzle-dazzle, super-duper, boogie-woogie, teenie-weenie, walkie-talkie, hoity-toity, easy-peasy, hurdy-gurdy;

d) schm-reduplication, cf.: нитки-шмитки, кекс-шмекс, танці-шманці vs. baby-schmaby, fancy-schmancy, cancer-schmancer;

e) contrastive focus reduplication, or lexical cloning (found in English) – used to contrast “real” or “pure” things against imitations or less pure forms. For example, at a coffee shop one may be asked, “Do you want soy milk?” and respond, “No, I want MILK milk”. This gives the idea that they want “real” milk.
ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Characterize the onomasiological approach to contrastive analysis.
2. Give the characteristics of onomasiological structure and category.
3. Speak on motivation of lexical items in the contrasted languages.
4. Describe the types of word-formation in the contrasted languages:
   (a) derivation;
   (b) compounding;
   (c) conversion;
   (d) abbreviation;
   (e) clipping;
   (f) blending;
   (g) back-formation;
   (h) reduplication.
CHAPTER 3

SEMASIOLOGICAL ASPECT OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

3.1. Semasiological Approach to Contrastive Analysis
3.2. Typology of Meanings
3.3. Epistemological Approach to Meaning
   3.3.1. Cognitive Meaning
   3.3.2. Pragmatic Meaning
   3.3.3. Stylistic Components of Pragmatic Meaning
3.4. Semantic Equivalence
   3.5. Types of Semantic Equivalence
3.6. Prototypical Semantics and Its Contrastive Representation

3.1. Semasiological Approach to Contrastive Analysis

Being adjacent to onomasiology, semasiology focuses on the inner structure of a lexical item, i.e. on its meaning. The meaning is considered as a lexical item’s content that represents the idea of an object, feature, process, phenomenon, etc. Consequently, the basis for contrastive semasiological analysis is information about the world of discourse (a certain situation or its fragment) encoded in the semantics of a lexical item.

On the whole, contrastive analysis provided within the semasiological approach intends to reveal the characteristics of a lexical item’s content within two types of semantics: referential and lexical. The referential semantics considers the meaning of a word as its capacity to represent the world of discourse. The lexical semantics, for its part, considers the meaning of a word as an entity that encodes information about the world of discourse. It should be borne in mind that a word describes not just a mere physical world, but a conceptualized one, i.e. the conceived and interpreted reality.

There might be four possible types of relationship between the two semantics at contrastive analysis what concerns the way a concept is represented. The concept may be the entity of:

a) the referential semantics, but not of the lexical one, cf.: дядько “брат батька або матері” vs. uncle “a brother of one’s father or mother”;
b) both referential and lexical semantics, cf.: стрий “діал. дядько по батькові” and вуйко “діал. дядько по матері”;  
c) the lexical semantics, but not of the referential one: in reality there are no uncles in general, but there are brothers of one’s fathers or mothers, nevertheless, the concept may be generalized, cf.: дядько “дорослий чоловік взагалі // при звертанні до старшого за віком чоловіка” vs. uncle “used as a form of address to non-relatives, esp. to elderly men”;

d) neither the referential, nor the lexical semantics, cf.: the words *uncloaunt or *стрийовуй are not the elements of the lexico-semantic systems of the contrasted languages yet.

3.2. Typology of Meanings

It is argued that in the formation of lexical meaning there participate three interrelated elements of the epistemological situation – a cognizer (a designator), a cognized object (the external world, i.e. reality) and a linguistic sign (lexical item). In this way, lexical meaning is assumed to “take into account” those elements as basis for its typology.

In the content of a lexical item the following aspects or types of meaning may be singled out:

A. **Referential**, or **denotative** aspect of lexical meaning is determined by the word’s reference to an object (denotatum, referent). It is usually referred to as the *ostensive* or *demonstrative* meaning. According to this approach, there is a certain relationship between a word and an object, represented and denoted by the word. The relation of the word to the object is interpreted as the **referential meaning**. In a pure sense, we may observe this type of meaning in some proper names (the so-called specific reference), cf.: Карпаму vs. the Carpathians; Norfolk vs. Норфолк, etc.;

B. **Conceptual**, or **significative** aspect of lexical meaning is determined by the word’s reference to a mental entity (concept, image, idea, conception, etc.). This aspect is considered within the so-called *conceptual* theory of meaning. Within this approach, lexical meaning is treated as a concept (an abstract or generalized idea of particular objects, processes and other phenomena) denoted by a word. The relation of the word to the concept is interpreted as the **conceptual meaning**.

The concept comprises the minimum of typical features that characterize the object of designation and distinguish it from other objects. It should be borne in mind that the process of generalization may
provide for the selection of various features to represent the typicality of an object. Depending on a designator’s intention (and some other factors) in selecting those typical features, lexical meanings may reveal different degrees of equivalence in the contrasted languages, cf.: apple “a round fruit with red or green skin and crisp white flesh” vs. яблуко “плід яблуні (переважно кулястої форми)”.

Taking into account the fact that both types of meanings represent the relation of a word to an object itself and to the concept of this object, it is expedient to refer to these types of meanings with a generic term the **cognitive meaning** (vide infra 3.4.1.);

C. **Pragmatic**, or **connotative** aspect of lexical meaning is determined by the communicative situation the word is used in, i.e. the conditions of its application. This aspect also includes the speaker's attitude towards a denoted object, the relations between an addressee, communication environment, the goal an interlocutor intends to achieve, and many other parameters. The information about these states of affairs is contained in lexical meaning in the form of various components (evaluative, emotive, expressive, associative, ideological, stylistic, etc.). Those components, being additional to the cognitive meaning, constitute the basis of the **pragmatic meaning** (vide infra 3.3.2.) of a word, cf.: кінь “велика свійська однокопита тварина, яку використовують для перевезення людей і вантажів” and укана “заморений, слабосилий, худий кінь” vs. horse “a solid-hoofed perissodactyl quadruped (Equus caballus), having a flowing mane and tail, whose voice is a neigh” and jade “a contemptuous name for a horse; a horse of inferior breed, e.g. a cart- or draught-horse as opposed to a riding horse; a roadster, a hack; a sorry, ill-conditioned, wearied, or worn-out horse; a vicious, worthless, ill-tempered horse”;

D. **systemic**, or **differential** aspect of lexical meaning (vide infra 5.2.);

E. **syntactic**, or **relational** aspect of lexical meaning (vide infra 6.1.).

### 3.3. Epistemological Approach to Meaning

Defining **meaning** as a **concept captivated (bound) with a sign**, M.V. Nikitin vectors an epistemological, or cognitive approach towards semasiological studies. It is posited that lexical meaning consists of two components: **cognitive**, encoding information on the ways the world of discourse is conceptualized, and **pragmatic**, informing of the subjective (individual) opinions of a person about various phenomena, his / her personal experience and attitude towards the things that surround the person.
3.3.1. Cognitive Meaning

According to M.V. Nikitin, the cognitive meaning of the word includes two components: contensional and extensional. The contensional component, or **contension** represents the content of a notion, i.e. totality, or structure of features represented in the notion (meaning, name). The extensional component, or **extension** represents the extent of a notion, i.e. totality of things (denotata), the notion (meaning, name) correlates with; it is a totality of objects that can be designated by a lexical item. For example, the contension of the direct meaning of the word *cup* “a small round container, usually with one handle and used for drinking tea, coffee, etc.” includes the features of ‘container’, ‘small’, ‘round’, ‘with one handle’, ‘for drinking tea (coffee)’, whilst its Ukrainian equivalent чашка “невелика посудина (частіше з вушком), переважно з фарфору, фаянсу, з якої п’ють чай, каву та інші напої” – the features of ‘посудина’, ‘невелика’, ‘з фарфору (фаянсу)’, ‘з вушком’, ‘для пиття чаю (кави)’. The extensions of the words would be all cups as a multitude of things (denotata) that reveal common features attributed to what is called a cup. In that way, extension indicates the range of applicability by naming the particular objects it denotes. Thus, the extension embraces such notions as plastic cup, paper cup, solo cup, measuring cup, sippy cup, fuddling cup, spa cup, sake cup, coffee cup, etc.

The contension of a word includes another important component called **intension** – the entity that constitutes a stable core of lexical meaning; it is a feature expressed by a name, cf.: *cup* [from Latin *cupa* “tub” < Sanskrit *kupa* “cave”] vs. чашка [from Proto-Slavic *čaša* < Old Prussian *kiosi* “кубок”, or Lithuanian *kiáušas* “череп”]. The intension of the contrasted words would be “a drinking container”, cf.: ‘tub’, ‘cave’, ‘bowl’, ‘skull’ are hollow objects like all containers are).

It should be pointed out that the stability of intension does not exclude the variability of contension which, depending on the context, may manifest itself in the **contextual meaning**, represented by its two varieties: **denotative** and **significative** meanings. The significative meaning comprises general features of a class of denoted objects, cf.: *There were cups on the table* vs. На столі стояли чашки, whereas the denotative meaning comprises some other features (besides the features of a class) that are characteristic of a denoted object and which differ it from other objects of the class, cf.: *Where are the cups, we’ve ordered?* vs. Де чашки, які ми замовили?
The semantic features that constitute the periphery of the lexical meaning core constitute its **implication**. Implication may be **strong** (features that are sure to be characteristic of an object), cf.: ‘small’, ‘round’, ‘with one handle’, ‘for tea (coffee)’ vs. ‘невелика’, ‘з вушком’, ‘з фарфору, фаянсу’, ‘для чаю, кави’, **weak** (features that are likely to be characteristic of an object), cf.: “made of china (faience)”, “used for scooping or watering” vs. ‘кругла’, ‘використовується для поливання квітів’, and **negative** (features that are unlikely to be characteristic of an object, e.g. various metaphorical transfers), cf.: чашка квітки “віночок квітки подібної форми” vs. *the cup of a flower* “a plant or body part, resembling a cup”.

**3.3.2. Pragmatic Meaning**

The meaning of the word is not just reduced to its cognitive component. The matter is that objects of the external world are very often evaluated and estimated. People, depending upon circumstances, try to express their attitude towards objects, approving or disapproving of them, this being the basis for various additional senses (associations), or connotations that attend the content of a word, constituting its **pragmatic** meaning.

The English and Ukrainian words:

a) may coincide in connotations, e.g.: the characteristics of ‘slyness’ is attributed to a fox, cf.: *cunning as a fox* vs. хитрий, як лис; of ‘the largest part of something’ – to a lion, cf.: *the lion’s share* vs. левова частка; of ‘someone who is dangerous or cruel, but appears to be gentle and harmless’ – to a wolf, cf.: *a wolf in sheep’s clothing* vs. вовк в овечій шкури; of ‘a person or thing that have changed from being respectable to being worthless’ – to a dog, cf.: *go to the dogs* vs. сходити на пси;

b) may not coincide in connotations, e.g. the characteristics of ‘being drunk’ in English is attributed to an elephant, cf.: *(to see) pink elephants*, whereas in Ukrainian – to a snake, cf.: *(допитись до) зеленого змія*; of ‘being very hungry’ in English – to a horse, cf.: *I’m so hungry I could eat a horse*, but to an ox in Ukrainian, cf.: я такий голодний, що вола б з’їв; of ‘advice to be careful to examine something properly before deciding to buy it’ in English – to a pig, cf.: *a pig in a poke*, but to a cat in Ukrainian, cf.: кіт у мішку; of ‘the suggestion that a certain event is just possible, though unlikely, that person is saying they do not believe it will happen’ in English – to a pig, cf.: *pigs might fly*, but to a bear in Ukrainian, cf.: буває, що й ведмідь літає.
The pragmatic meaning is not homogeneous and includes the components, which represent human being’s attitude towards the objects, denoted by the word from the viewpoint of his / her personal opinions, feelings, associations, etc. In this way, there are traditionally singled out four such components: emotive, evaluative, expressive and stylistic. It should be borne in mind that in English and Ukrainian those components may reveal various pragmatic characteristics.

The emotive component reveals the emotional layer of cognition, expressing emotion or feeling (joy, satisfaction, anger, surprise, hatred, respect, affection, love etc.), cf.: hurray! “used to express excitement, pleasure or approval” vs. ура! “вживається для вираження загального схвалення, захоплення, радості”; however, ox! “вживається при вираженні фізичного болю, страждання, переляку, відчуття полегшення; при висловленні застереження, попередження про що-небудь небажане, неприємне” vs. oh! “used to express a variety of emotions, such as surprise, disappointment and pleasure, often as a reaction to something someone has said” – the Ukrainian word, unlike the English one, designates more negative emotions; ух! “вживається при вираженні якогось сильного почуття (обурення, незадоволення, здивування, захоплення)” vs. угх! “used to express a strong feeling of disgust at something very unpleasant” – the Ukrainian equivalent has a broader extension;

The evaluative component expresses a negative or positive attitude towards the denoted object, its approval or disapproval, cf.: brown-nose “a servile and flattering person” vs. підлабузник “зневаж. той, хто підлещується з корисливою метою”; economical “thrifty; marked by careful, efficient, and prudent use of resources” vs. економний “який бережливо, ощадливо витрачає що-небудь”. Sometimes in English and Ukrainian we find some inconsistency by having two words with polar meanings in one language and a single word in the other one, cf.: inquiring “of someone, asking about something” (a positive connotation) :: inquisitive “unduly curious about the affairs of others” (a negative connotation) vs. допитливий “який хоче, намагається про все дізнатися, все зрозуміти” – the meaning of the Ukrainian word has a broader extension; упертий “1. який намагається все робити по-своєму, настоює по-своєму, інколи наперекір здоровому глузду; непоступливий; 2. стійкий, твердий” vs. obstinate “clinging stubbornly to an opinion, decision, or course of action; unyielding” (a negative
connotation) :: determined “firm, resolute; showing determination” (a positive connotation) – there are polar meanings in the Ukrainian word. Considering these examples, we may infer that the evaluative component of lexical meaning of the Ukrainian words is drawn to the polar concepts within the scope of denotation of a single word.

The expressive component aims at representing the image of an object, intensifying what is denoted by the word, cf.: slave “to work very hard; to toil” vs. надриватися “робити що-небудь із надмірним зусиллям, напруженим, стараючись з усієї сили”; ганчірка “про безвольну, безхарактерну людину; слабодух, квач, хрунь” vs. milksop “an unmanly man; molly-coddle”.

The stylistic component indicates “the register”, or communication environment, showing the word’s belonging to a certain functional style, cf.: розуміти (neutral) :: усвідомлювати (bookish) :: кумекати (colloquial) vs. understand (neutral) :: comprehend (bookish) :: get (colloquial).

3.3.3. Stylistic Components of Pragmatic Meaning

From the viewpoint of their stylistic differentiation, all English and Ukrainian words are divided into two major groups:

A. Stylistically neutral, i.e. words that are characteristic of all language styles (either official, scientific, publicist, colloquial or belles-lettres). They are words that designate general notions: objects, natural phenomena, as well as numbers (numerals), deixis (pronouns), etc. cf.: батько vs. father; sun vs. сонце; five vs. п’ять; вони vs. they;

B. Stylistically charged, i.e. words that are characteristic of some definite, selective styles of language, cf.: угода vs. covenant – official style; synthesis vs. синтез – scientific style; суверенітет vs. sovereignty – publicist style; балакуха vs. chatterbox – colloquial style.

The use of language (lexicon) in various social spheres is predetermined by its stylistic and functional differentiation. The stylistic classification is based on the word’s reference (e.g. place, time, etc.). It is the reference that determines a stylistic value of a word. The functional classification of vocabulary regards the social prestige of the word, viewed as the result of “stylistic”, or rather “functional” evaluation, i.e. the word’s belonging to a certain style.
A. Stylistic

The 'stylistic' group vocabulary includes words that are marked by a certain feature of reference. In English and Ukrainian, we may find divergences marked by:

- **temporal** reference:
  a) *archaisms* – words that are out of use in present day language and are considered to be obsolete, recalling bygone eras, cf.: *eke* (obsolete) vs. *також* (modern); *mere* (obsolete) vs. *ставок/озеро* (modern); *глас* (obsolete) vs. *voice* (modern); *спудей* (obsolete) vs. *student* (modern);
  b) *neologisms* – words and word groups that designate new concepts, cf.: *wellness* (new) vs. *здоров’я* (old); *дилер* (new) vs. *dealer* (old). Sometimes we may observe some inconsistency in the contrasted languages between lexical neologisms (new words in meaning and form) and semantic ones (new meanings in available words), cf.: *інтернетівський* “той, що здійснюється через комп’ютерну мережу Інтернет” (lexical neologism) vs. *electronic* “involving computers or other electronic systems” (semantic neologism);
  c) *historical words* – words that denote no-longer existing objects, cf.: *musket* “a gun with a long barrel, used in the past” vs. *мушкет* “старовинна гнотова рушниця великого калібру”; *алебарда* “старовинна зброя – сокирка у вигляді півмісяця, насаджена на довгий держак зі списом на кінці” vs. *halberd* “a long-handled weapon combining a spear and battle axe, used esp. in the 15th and 16th centuries”.

- **ethical** reference:
  a) *taboo words* – words or phrases the use of which is avoided for religious or social or other reasons, cf.: instead of the word *God* in English and *Бог* in Ukrainian the following expressions might be used: Eng. *dad*; *Gad*; *Gar*; *garden seed*; *gattings*; *Gawd*; *Gawsh*; *godalmighty*; *Godfrey*; *Gol*; *Golly*; *gorra*; *Goshen*; *Gott*; *gub*; *gum*; *gummy*; *gun* vs. Ukr. *Отче*; *Господи*; *Всевишній*;
  b) *euphemisms* – words or phrases that are mild, indirect, or vague substitutes for offensive or unpleasant ones, cf.: *упокоївся*; *спочив (у Богі)*; *відійшов у вічність* vs. *to be no more*; *to lose one’s life*; *to breathe one’s last*; *to join the majority*; *to pass away*; *to be gone* – expressions that render the concept of DEATH in a milder form;
• local reference:

dialectal words, or dialecticisms (words spoken in a particular part of the country). It is hardly worth looking for any similarities between dialectal words in English and Ukrainian, considering their numerous varieties in both languages and besides, their designating local customs, characteristics of social life and of natural phenomena. Nevertheless, for the purpose of an adequate translation (to render a stylistic equivalence) one may find dialectal equivalents, or rather near-equivalents. For example, for designating “squirrel” in the English dialects the word squirren may be used, whereas in Ukrainian we find the words вивірка or білища; the meaning of “beautiful” may be rendered with the Scottish bonny or braw vs. South-Western Ukrainian файний; within the same dialects the meaning “crazy, silly” may be rendered with the words daffy vs. варіят.

B. Functional
The ‘functional’ group vocabulary includes words of two evaluative layers: superneutral that comprise elevated lexicon (words mostly used in high-flown, belles-lettres, official and scientific styles), cf.: prevail vs. превалювати; притаманний vs. inherent, and subneutral, embracing degraded lexicon (words primarily used in a colloquial style), cf.: гультяй vs. good-for-nothing; hang about vs. шастати.

The elevated lexicon is represented by:

a) folklore vocabulary – words found in folk songs, ballads, elegies, cf.: бранець vs. captive; битий шлях vs. beaten track;

b) scientific vocabulary – words found in articles, monographs, theses and other scientific and academic publications, cf.: дедукція vs. deduction; суфікс vs. suffix; терція vs. tierce; valence vs. валентність;

c) officialese – words of business and legal correspondence, cf.: протокол vs. official act; solvent vs. кредитоспроможний;

d) publicist vocabulary – words found in essays, feature articles, public speeches, cf.: adversary of war vs. противник війни; інформаційний простір vs. mass media sphere; flag-waving vs. уранпатріотизм; evil empire vs. імперія зла;

e) terms – special words or phrases which serve to denote the object of a certain branch of science, cf.: корінь (слова) vs. root (of the word) – linguistics; рента vs. rent – economics; substance vs. субстрат – philosophy; alibi vs. алібі – legal; авізо vs. letter of advice – finance;
f) **professionalisms** – unofficial terms of a special domain, cf.: *tutorial* vs. *консультація* (зустріч з науковим керівником) – university; *кетгут* vs. *catgut* – medicine; *trawl* vs. *трал* – fishery; *салага* vs. *newfer*, *rookie* – military;

g) **barbarisms**, or **foreign words** – words or expressions that are borrowed from other languages, but to some extent “adjusted” to the norms of the target language, cf.: *de facto* vs. *де-факто*; *nota bene* vs. *нотабене*; *postscript* vs. *постскриптум*, but *ad lib* vs. *імпровізованій*, *coup d’état* vs. *путч* (державний переворот); *bon mot* vs. *дотепний вираз*;

h) **exotic words** – foreign words, being a part of the target language system, though denoting the concepts that are characteristic of the source language, cf.: *чалма* vs. *турбан*, *корида* vs. *корида*;

i) **poetic words** (found in poetry), cf.: *небозвід* vs. *concave*; *чоло* vs. *brow*; *ложе* vs. *couch*; *воїн* vs. *warrior*.

The degraded lexicon is represented by:

a) **literary colloquial words** (everyday speech lexicon), cf.: *rubbish* vs. *дурниця*; *бабахнути* vs. *bang*; *замазура* vs. *пигги-вигги*;

b) **popular language** (common parlance lexicon), cf.: *beetle-head* vs. *бовдур*; *велик* vs. *bike*; *Aussie* vs. *австралійчик*;

c) **slang words** (highly informal words not accepted for dignified use, sometimes expressing humorous attitude towards a denoted object), cf.: *предок* (father) vs. *гovernor*; *skirt* (girl) vs. *спідниця* (cf.: ‘бігати за кожною спідницею’); *upper story* (head) vs. *дах* (cf.: ‘дах йде’); *fins (hands)* vs. *ласти* (cf.: ‘забери свої ласти’);

d) **jargon words** (unofficial substitutes for professional terms), cf.: *maths* vs. *матма* stand for ‘mathematics’ – students’ jargon; *самовар* vs. *минни* stand for ‘mortar’ – military jargon, but *баранка* – driver’s jargon vs. *steering-wheel* – a stylistically neutral word; *ringer* – military jargon vs. *офіцер ВПС* – stylistically neutral;

e) **vituperative words**, or **vulgarisms** (swear words of abusive character), cf.: *mug* vs. *рило/мордя*; *вилупок* vs. *бастард*;

f) **argot** (thieves’ jargon) – special words and phrases typical to a certain social stratum used for being cryptic. In English it is, first of all, the so-called ‘Cockney rhyming slang’ – a code of speaking wherein a common word can be replaced by the whole or abbreviated form of a well-known phrase which rhymes with that word, e.g.: *apples and pears* – “stairs”; *plates of meat* – “feet”; *butcher’s hook* – “look”; *rabbit and pork* –
“talk”; *pork pies* – “lies”. In Ukrainian, argot words were primarily used by beggars, furriers, lirnyky (lyrists) to designate natural phenomena or household articles, e.g.: дулясник “вогонь”; кеміть “ніч”; макохтій “місяць”; камуха “шапка”; кунсо “хліб”; морзуля “цибуля”; ботень “борщ”.

There is some coincidence of argot words in English and Ukrainian that designate parts of the body, cf.: *loaf of bread* – “head” vs. лавда – “голова”. One more phenomenon of thieves’ jargons is the *back jargon* – encryption that provides for using numerals in their reversed form, cf.: іон – “один” vs. апо – “one”; двеня – “два” vs. оwt – “two”; скера – “три” vs. erth – “three”.

It should be pointed out that rhyming slang, unlike Ukrainian argot words, is widely used in English nowadays. Since the 1980s there has been a resurgence in the popularity of rhyming slang, with numerous new examples popping up in everyday speech, e.g. *Ayrton Senna* – “tenner” (a monetary unit); *Claire Rayners* – “trainers” (the footwear); *Dammon Hill* – “pill”; *David Gower* – “shower”; *Tony Blair* – “hair”.

### 3.4. Semantic Equivalence

*Equivalence* [from Latin *aeguus* “equal” + *valentis* “having meaning, value”] is viewed as equality of value, force, importance, significance, etc. The units *A* and *B* are supposed to be semantically equivalent, under the condition that they completely coincide by all marks of their semantic structure, and between them the identity relations are established: \( A = B \).

In order to establish the semantic equivalence of two contrasted words, the following equation of the equivalent relations degree is used:

\[
E = \frac{2 \times C}{A' + B'}, \text{ where}
\]

\( C \) stands for a number of general semantic features of words *A* and *B*.

\( A' \) and \( B' \) stand for a number of semes in the structure of lexical meanings of the words *A* and *B*.

\( E \) stands for the equivalence coefficient.

The *equivalence coefficient* (EC) is a factor that determines the semantic equivalence of the contrasted words within a zero-to-one scale: if the EC approximates to a “zero” mark, the contrasted words are
considered less semantically close to each other, if there prevails the approximation to a “one” mark, then the equivalents are regarded more semantically close (Fig. 3.1.). If \( E = 1 \), the structures of lexical meanings are considered total equivalent.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
0 & 1 \\
< \text{less semantically close} & \text{more semantically close} & >
\end{array}
\]

**Figure 3.1. Semantic Equivalence Coefficient**

**Example 1.**
Eng. *stork* – “a large mostly white bird with very long legs which walks around in water to find its food”;
Ukr. *лелека* – “великий перелітний птах із довгим прямим дзьобом та довгими ногами”.
\[A' = 9 \text{ (large, white, bird, long, leg, walk, water, find, food)};\]
\[B' = 7 \text{ (великий, перелітний, птах, довгий, прямий, дзьоб, ного)};\]
\[C = 4 \text{ (large :: великий; bird :: птах; long :: довгий; leg :: ного)};\]
\[
E = \frac{2 \times 4}{9 + 7} = 0,5
\]

**Conclusion:** the words *stork* and *лелека* are partial equivalents.

**Example 2.**
Eng. *drake* – “male duck”;
Ukr. *селезень* – “самець качки”.
\[A' = 2 \text{ (male, duck)};\]
\[B' = 2 \text{ (самець, качка)};\]
\[C = 2 \text{ (male :: самець; duck :: качка)};\]
\[
E = \frac{2 \times 2}{2 + 2} = 1
\]

**Conclusion:** the words *drake* and *селезень* are total equivalents.
3.5. Types of Semantic Equivalence

The semantic equivalence of the contrasted words in English and Ukrainian is determined by three types of equivalence: (total) coincidence, partial coincidence (inclusion and overlap), incoincidence (Fig. 3.2.).

![Figure 3.2. Types of Semantic Equivalence](image)

**Coincidence**, or **identity** ($A = B$ – class A and class B reveal the same membership) provides for complete, or total coincidence of lexical meanings of the contrasted words. This type of relations is very often observed: in terms, cf.: *atom* “the smallest unit of any chemical element, consisting of a positive nucleus surrounded by negative electrons” vs. атом “найдрібніша частишка хімічного елемента, що складається з ядра й електронів”, and borrowings, cf.: *import* “something imported, esp. merchandise from abroad” vs. імпорт “ввезення в країну товарів із-за кордону”.

**Partial coincidence** is characterized by incomplete coincidence of lexical meanings. The incompleteness may be represented by means of inclusion, or of intersection.

**Inclusion** ($A \subseteq B$ – class B is wholly included in class A) is partial coincidence that is based on the hyponymic relations revealed between lexical meanings of the contrasted words, cf.: *rose* “a widely cultivated prickly shrub with showy fragrant flowers” vs. троянда “багаторічна кущова рослина родини розових з великими запашними квітками червоного, рожевого, білого або жовтого кольору і з стеблами, звичайно вкритими колючками” – the extension of the English equivalent is much wider, than that of the Ukrainian one.

**Overlap**, or **heteronymy** ($A \cap B$ – class A and class B reveal a common membership, however each has the elements not found in the other) is partial coincidence that is based on an incomplete intersection.
of lexical meanings of the contrasted words, confer the words stork and лелека (vide supra). When the boundaries of semantic intersections become vague, words start revealing the features of cross-linguistic homonyms, cf.: hymn “a song of praise to God” vs. гімн “урочиста пісня, прийнята як символ державної або класової єдності”.

**Exclusion**, or **disjunction** (A ≠ B – class A and class B reveal no common membership) is (total) incoincidence of lexical meanings, when each non-overlapping part preserves its own, unique set of semantic features. Exclusion is observed in the so-called nationally biased lexicon, i.e. lexical items that designate some specific (not found in the other language) phenomena, e.g. names of some dishes: мандрика “виріб із сиру та тіста, що має форму коржика; вид сирника”; затірка “страва, зварена на воді або молоці з розтертого в дрібні кульки борошна з водою” vs. kedgeree “a dish containing rice, flaked smoked fish, and chopped hard-boiled eggs”; haggis “a Scottish dish that consists of minced sheep’s or calf’s offal with suet, oatmeal, and seasonings, and traditionally boiled in the stomach of the animal”, etc.

### 3.6. Prototypical Semantics and Its Contrastive Representation

The semantic equivalence of words in English and Ukrainian is established, proceeding from the assumption that the nature of meaning and its origin are common for both languages. The cases of semantic equivalence that may be monitored in contrastive analysis are mostly determined by differences in a set of prototypical characteristics that constitute the meanings of the contrasted words.

A linguistic sign, being arbitrary in its relation to a designated object, is not arbitrary what regards its meaning. Establishing the content of a lexical meaning, we, first of all, take into account those typical features which are common to the class of objects denoted by the sign. It is a cognitive approach towards semantic analysis carried out within the so-called prototype theory.

**Prototype Theory** (B. Berlin, P. Kay, G. Lakoff, E. Rosch, Ch. Fillmore et al.) provides an explanation for the way word meanings are organized in the mind. It is argued that words are categorized on the basis of a whole range of typical features. For example, a prototypical bird has feathers, wings, a beak, the ability to fly and so on. In other words, we differentiate between birds and other animals because we know some specific features and properties of a bird (it has a beak, wings, lays eggs, etc.). Those characteristic features are prototypical, as they form the prototype of a bird. Decisions about category membership are
then made by matching the features of a given concept against a prototype. Therefore, in order to establish similarities and differences between word meanings, we are likely to know those prototypical features that constitute words’ meanings in the contrasted languages.

The experiments, carried out by E. Rosch showed that features are not the basis on which people categorize. Rather, they categorize on the basis of how close something is to the “prototype” or ideal member of the category. The scholar concludes:

(1) when people categorize, they cannot tell you what features they use;
(2) when people categorize, they usually find some members of categories more “typical” or “better” than others (e.g., a robin is a better member of the category of BIRD than an ostrich).
(3) when people categorize, they categorize more typical members more quickly than less typical ones.

What is the nature of category? The category may be viewed as entity that comprises some discrete “senses”, the salience of which provides for their being denoted by people. In this way, we have a set of words, the meanings of which represent those “senses”, i.e. typical features that constitute the category, but under the name, which is the best representative of this category.

There is, in fact, a strong agreement about what counts as the best exemplar of a particular category. For example, most people in England and Ukraine consider the colour terms red vs. червоний to be the most typical instances for the category of RED / ЧЕРВОНИЙ. It is the way the categories may be represented in English and Ukrainian:

CATEGORY “RED” (vermilion, scarlet, carmine, crimson, raspberry red, oriental red, poppy red, Indian red, madder crimson, signal red, fire red, French red, tomato red, cardinal red, saturn red, bright red, vivid red).
CATEGORY “ЧЕРВОНИЙ” (червоногарячий, яскраво-червоний, темно-червоний, темно-рожевий, кривавий, багряний, буряковий, пурпуровий, багровий, малиновий, рум'яний, маковий, полум'яний).

There may be observed some similarities and differences in the categorization of this colour spectrum. The equivalence grounds in similar conceptualization of the colour intensity, cf.: bright-red vs. яскраво-червоний, or some natural phenomena, cf.: raspberry red vs. малиновий; poppy red vs. маковий; fire red vs. полум'яний. Partial equivalence, in its turn, is determined by different conceptualization of some cultural phenomena in English and Ukrainian, cf.: oriental red, Indian red, French red, cardinal red vs. венеційський червоний, кардинальський.
ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Characterize the semasiological approach to contrastive analysis.
2. Speak on the typology of meaning.
3. Represent cognitive and pragmatic meanings.
4. Give the characteristics of semantic equivalence.
5. Characterize prototypical semantics.
CHAPTER 4

EPIDIGMATIC ASPECT
OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

4.1. Epidigmatic Relations
4.2. Types of Meanings of a Polysemous Word
4.3. Semantic Structure of a Polysemous Word
4.4. Types of Polysemy and their Contrastive Representations
4.5. Causes of Semantic Change in English and Ukrainian
4.6. Types of Semantic Change in English and Ukrainian
4.6.1. Metonymy in English and Ukrainian
4.6.2. Metaphor in English and Ukrainian
4.7. Processes of Development and Change of Meaning
4.7.1. Specialization and Generalization of Meaning
4.7.2. Elevation and Degradation of Meaning
4.7.3. Enantiosemy in English and Ukrainian
4.8. Homonymy in English and Ukrainian
4.9. Paronyms in English and Ukrainian

4.1. Epidigmatic Relations

The onomasiological and semasiological aspects of Contrastive Lexicology focus on the similarities and differences either at the level of the formal characteristics of a word, or at the level of its meaning, without taking into account the associative or the so-called epidigmatic relations that may exist either within the word, or between its formal features. The relations of this type suggest the former aspects being supplemented with one more aspect – the epidigmatic one.

Being defined as a “third dimension” of the lexico-semantic system, the epidigmatic relations determine the lexical meaning by its interrelation with other meanings, constituting a pattern, or framework of the semantic structure of a polysemous word, i.e. word having several connected meanings. Besides, the epidigmatic relations may determine the interrelations between the words on the basis of their formal characteristics, as in this case with homonyms and paronyms, though this kind of relations is formally associative, i.e. it takes into account a structural or phonological representation of the word. In this case, it is a visual or auditory associations that count.
4.2. Types of Meanings of a Polysemous Word

Within a polysemous word one should distinguish the following types of meanings:

a) **direct meaning** – directly points out the correlation of the word with the reality phenomena, being fixed in a speaker’s mind, cf.: кохання “1. почуття глибокої сердечної прихильності до особи іншої статі; закохання; любов, люба” vs. love “1. a strong feeling of attachment, tenderness, and protectiveness for another person”;

b) **transferred meaning** – a secondary (derived) meaning which characterizes natural phenomena indirectly. It is the result of a name transference from one object onto another. Very often the contrasted languages reveal differences in the realizations of transferred meanings, cf.: (велике) кохання “2. рідко те саме, що любов”; “3. дія або стан за значенням кохати або кохатися” vs. love “2. attraction or devotion based on sexual desire”; “3. warm interest in and enjoyment of something”; “4. the object of love”; “5. a score of zero in tennis, squash, etc.”; “6. Brit. informal used as a friendly or affectionate form of address”.

4.3. Semantic Structure of a Polysemous Word

The analysis of relations between the direct and transferred meanings in English and Ukrainian determines the *hierarchy of lexico-semantic variants*, degree of their dependence – sometimes the direct meaning in the target language corresponds to a transferred meaning in the source language, cf.: land “1. the solid part of the earth’s surface, as distinct from seas, lakes, rivers, etc.; 2. ground owned as property or attached to a building; 3. a particular country, region, or state” vs. земля “1. третя від Сонця планета, яка обертається навколо своєї осі і навколо Сонця (cf.: earth); 2. верхній шар земної кори; 3. речовина темно-бурого кольору, що входить до складу земної кори; 4. суша (на відміну від водяного простору); 5. ґрунт для вирощування рослин; 6. країна, край, держава”.

The contrastive analysis gives the opportunity to understand the chain of meanings generation (semantic derivation) in each language, the characteristics of their arrangement, cf.: tea “1. (a drink made by pouring hot water onto) dried and cut leaves and sometimes flowers, esp. the leaves of the tea plant; 2. a small meal eaten in the late afternoon, usually including cake and a cup of tea; 3. meal which is eaten early the evening and which is usually cooked” vs. чай “1. південна вічнозелена рослина (дерево або кущ), із висушених і спеціально обробленого листя якої приготовляють ароматний напій; 2. висушене та спеціально
оброблене листя цієї рослини, яке вживається для приготування ароматного напою; 3. ароматний напій (переважно гарячий), настояний на листі цієї рослинн”. The given example viewed in terms of the prototype theory (vide supra 3.6.) reveals some nationally determined specificities of the meanings arrangement. For the British the process of tea-drinking is a socially predetermined fact, which reduces to communication, pastime, or a fling. Not without reason, there are so many collocations and idioms with a tea-component in English: *for all the tea in China (=nothing would persuade me to do it); tea chest (=a large wooden box used first for storing tea after that for other things, esp. when someone is moving from one house to another); tea party (=occasion when people meet in the afternoon to drink tea and eat a small amount of food)* etc. For the Ukrainians the prototypic meaning “a drink made from the leaves” is likely to be the most relevant, as for maintaining a conversation we might prefer some other drinks, cf.: Туру, по воєнному звичаю, З горілкою напившись чаю, Сказать попросту, п’яний спав (І. Котляревський).

4.4. Types of Polysemy and their Contrastive Representations

According to the arrangement (dependence, motivation) of the lexico-semantic variants in a polysemous word, three types of polysemy are singled out: concatenation, radiation, and mixed (concatenation-and-radiation) type.

A concatenation type is characterized by a single-dimentional arrangement of meanings which relate with each other successively, forming a single chain, cf.: *green* “1. of a colour between blue and yellow in the spectrum; 2. covered with herbage or foliage; 3. not yet ripe or mature (*of fruit*); 4. immature, unskilled, inexperienced” vs. *зелений* “1. один із семи кольорів, що знаходиться в спектрі поміж жовтим і блакитним; 2. рослинний, який складається з рослин; 3. (про плоди, овочі і т. ін.) недостиглий, недозрілий; 4. перен. розм. недосвідчений через свою молодість, незрілий, не сформований” (Fig. 4.1.):

```
1
2  ↓
3  ↓
4
```

Figure 4.1. Concatenation type of polysemy
A *radiation* type is determined by an immediate relationship of the transferred meanings of a word with a direct one and, are motivated by it, cf.: собака “1. домашня тварина родини собачих, яку використовують для охорони, на полюванні і т. ін.; 2. зневаж. про злу, жорстоку, недоброзичливу людину; 3. рідко той, хто досяг досконалості в чому-небудь; вміла, спритна, завзята в чомусь людина; 4. хижий ссавець родини собачих” vs. *dog* “1. a four-legged flesh-eating domesticated mammal occurring in a great variety of breeds; 2. informal fellow; 3. derogatory unattractive woman; 4. plural greyhound racing” (Fig. 4.2.).

![Figure 4.2. Radiation type of polysemy](image)

A *mixed type* may have various configurations, depending on the meanings’ immediate relations, cf.: *root* “1. the underground part of a flowering plant that anchors and supports it and absorbs and stores food; 2. the part of a tooth, hair, the tongue, etc. by which it is attached to the body; 3. something that is an underlying cause or basis; 4. in grammar, the base element from which a word is derived; 5. a number which produces a given number when multiplied by itself an indicated number of times” vs. *корінь* “1. частина рослини, що міститься в землі й за допомогою якої рослина всмоктує з грунту воду з поживними речовинами; 2. частина зуба, волосся, нігтя тощо, яка міститься в тілі; 3. перен. початок, причина чого-небудь; 4. грам. головна частина слова (без афіксів), що виражає його основне (лексичне) значення й не поділяється на морфеми; 5. мат. величина, що при піднесенні її до певного ступеня дає дане число” (Fig. 4.3.):

![Figure 4.3. Mixed type of polysemy](image)
4.5. Causes of Semantic Change in English and Ukrainian

In the course of the historical development of language, the word meaning is liable to change. The factors accounting for semantic change may be roughly subdivided into two groups: extra-linguistic and linguistic.

By extra-linguistic factors there are meant:

a) various changes in the life of a community, changes in economic, social and other spheres of human activities. Those changes generate the necessity of new designations, cf.: key “1. a metal instrument by which the bolt of a lock is turned; 2. a small button on a keyboard, e.g. of a computer or typewriter; 3. a small switch for opening or closing an electric circuit; 4. a means of gaining or preventing entrance, possession, control” vs. ключ “1. знаряддя для замикання та відмикання замка, засува та ін.; 2. знаряддя для загвинчування або відгвинчування гайок, болтів і т.ін.; 3. перен. засіб для розуміння, розгадування чогось, чогось, для оволодіння чимось; 4. спец. у телеграфному апараті або радіопередавачі – вимикач для замикання й розмикання електричного кола на різні відрізки часу відповідно до телеграфного коду”;

b) psychological causes – they are vetos or taboos, arising from fear, religious beliefs, over-delicacy, or when talking on unpleasant topics (diseases, death, sex, human body functions, etc.). In this case, one uses words that in the course of time, having acquired new meanings, become euphemistic, cf.: fable “1. a fanciful, epigrammatic story, usually illustrating a moral precept or ethical observation > 2. a falsehood” vs. байка “1. невеликий віршований або, рідше, прозовий повчальний твір алегоричного змісту > 2. розм. вигадка, вигадка, небилиця”; нечистий “1. брудний, непомитий, непочищений > 2. надприродна істота, що втілює в собі зло; біс, чорт, сатана” vs. unclean “dirty, filthy” > unclean spirit “demon, devil, satan”.

By linguistic factors there are meant changes of meaning, occurring within the system of language:

a) ellipsis: the phrase made up of two words, one of which being omitted and its meaning being transferred to its partner, cf.: weekly < weekly paper vs. тижневик < тижневе видання;

b) semantic analogy: within a group of words referring to a common concept, one of the words may acquire a new meaning under the condition that another word of this group has already acquired it. Thus, the
members of the group develop analogous meanings. This phenomenon finds its embodiment in Sperber’s Law: If at a certain time a given complex of representations is so heavily charged with emotions that it drives one word beyond its original meaning and forces it to adopt a new meaning, [...] we can expect with certainty that this same complex of representations will also force other expressions that belong to it to transgress their sphere of use and thus develop new meanings (Sperber 1923: 67). For example, the English verbs *get* and *grasp* acquired the new meaning “to grasp with the sense or the mind” after their synonym *catch* “to take hold of smth.” had acquired it, cf. the Ukrainian words *ловити* “1. намагатися схопити, затримати того, хто тікає, те, що летить, віддаляється; 2. перен. намагатися збагнути” and *схопити* “перен. швидко сприймати, розуміти, засвоювати щось”.

4.6. Types of Semantic Change in English and Ukrainian

It becomes clear that there are associative relations that underlie a secondary designation, based on names transferences. Those relations are reflexions of our concepts and ideas about the relations the reality phenomena reveal. Depending on the basis of associative relations – either contiguity of phenomena, or their similarity – the metonymic and metaphoric transferences are distinguished, as well as their varieties – synecdoche; functional or synaesthetic transferences.

4.6.1. Metonymy in English and Ukrainian

*Metonymy* (contiguity of meanings) is a semantic (conceptual) phenomenon that involves the substitution of the name of one thing for that of another thing and assumes that the two things are somehow associated. These associations are regarded to manifest themselves in “stands for” relations that may hold between two elements *A* and *B*, such that one element *B* may stand for another element *A* (e.g. cause for effect, container for content, time for action, thing perceived for perception, etc.). This type of relations provides for the so-called metonymic models. In general, a metonymic model has the following characteristics:

– there is a “target” concept *A* to be understood for some purpose in some context;
– there is a conceptual structure containing both *A* and another concept *B*;
– *B* is either part of *A* or closely associated with it in that conceptual structure;
– a metonymic model is a model of how A and B are related in a conceptual structure.

Here are the examples of some metonymic models in English and Ukrainian:

1. animal for flesh of the animal, cf.: fish “1. a cold-blooded aquatic vertebrate with an elongated scaly body, fins, and gills; 2. the flesh of a fish used as food” vs. риба “1. водяна хребетна тварина з непостійною температурою тіла, яка дихає жабрами і має плавці та шкіру, звичайно вкриту лускою; 2. страва, приготовлена з м’яса цієї тварини”. Designating the animal’s flesh, the Ukrainian language sometimes resorts to word-forming strategies in the form of collective nouns, cf.: гуска > гусятина, теля > телятина, свиня > свинина and, which is less often, the suppletive forms, cf.: корова > яловичина. In English they are the suppletive forms usually borrowed from French, cf.: pig > pork, calf > veal, cow > beef;

2. tree for wood of the tree, cf.: pine “1. an evergreen tree that grows in cooler areas of the world; 2. the wood of pine tree and fir” vs. сосна “1. вічнозелене хвойне дерево, переважно з прямим високим стовбуром, довгою хвоєю і невеликими шишками; 2. деревина цього дерева; гілка цього дерева”;

3. material for article made of the material, cf.: bronze “1. any of various copper-base alloys; 2. a sculpture or artefact made of bronze” vs. бронза “1. сплав міді з оловом та іншими металами; 2. художні вироби з такого сплаву”;

4. property for subject of the property, cf.: beauty “1. a quality that gives pleasure to the senses or satisfies the aesthetic demands of the mind; 2. a beautiful person or thing. esp. a beautiful woman” vs. краса “1. властивість, якість гарного, прекрасного; 2. заст. красуня”;

5. action for subject of the action, cf.: safeguard “1. a precautionary measure or stipulation; 2. someone who or something that serves as protection” vs. охорона “1. оберігання від знищення, пошкодження, небезпеки; 2. загін, що охороняє, забезпечує щось”, etc.

One of the varieties of metonymy is synecdoche – transference from the part onto the whole, cf.: head 1. “the upper or foremost division of the human body”; 2. “a person or individual” vs. голова “1. частина тіла людини або тварини, в якій міститься мозок; 2. керівник установи, об’єднання, товариства”, or from the whole onto its part, cf.: drink “1. to consume a liquid: I’m thirsty, is there anything to drink?; 2. to imbibe alcoholic beverages: He goes out to drink too often” vs. нуму “1. ковтати
яку-небудь рідину для вгамування спраги: Приходить Уляна. – Де ти була? – заглядаючи в вічі, питає генеральша. – В кухню ходила, води пити; 2. вживати спиртне; проводити час за питтям горілки, вина і т. ін.; бути п’яницею; пиячити: – Чи ви не знали його вдачі, що він п’є? – Ой, чому ні! Казали мені люди, вже по заручинах, що бачили його в місті п’яного”.

Within a Cognitive Linguistics approach, metonymy is considered as “a cognitive process in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within the same idealized cognitive model” (Radden, Kövecses 1999: 21).

The idealized cognitive models (ICMs) are structures that organize our knowledge. The best way to provide an idea of what ICMs are and how they work in categorization is to go through examples. Take the English word *Tuesday*. *Tuesday* can be defined only relative to an idealized model that includes the natural cycle defined by the movement of the sun, the standard means of characterizing the end of one day and the beginning of the next, and a larger seven-day calendric cycle – the week. In the idealized model, the week is a whole with seven parts organized in a linear sequence; each part is called a *day*, and the third is *Tuesday*. Similarly, the concept weekend requires a notion of a *work week* of five days followed by a break of two days, superimposed on the seven-day calendar. Our model of a week is idealized. Seven-day weeks do not exist objectively in nature. They are created by human beings (Lakoff 1987: 68).

Here are some ICM configurations that relate conceptual entities, functioning as parts with respect to a whole ICM:

**Action ICM**

Agent for Action: *to author* a new book; *to butcher* the cow
Instrument for Action: *to ski*; *to hammer*
Object for Action: *to blanket* the bed; *to dust* the room
Result for Action: *to landscape* the garden
Manner for Action: *to tiptoe* into the room

**Perception ICM**

Organ of Perception for Perception: *to eye* someone
Thing Perceived for Perception: *There goes my knee* for ‘there goes the pain in my knee’ vs. *Стріляє в коліно*  
Perception for Thing Perceived: *sight* for ‘thing seen’ vs. *смак* for ‘якість їжі’
**Causation ICM**

Cause for Effect: *healthy complexion* for ‘the good state of health bringing about the effect of healthy complexion’ vs. *здоровий колір обличчя*

Effect for Cause: *slow road* for ‘slow traffic resulting from the poor state of the road’ vs. *повільна траса*

Emotion for Cause of Emotion: *She is my joy* ‘she makes me be happy’ vs. *Дорогою прогриміли вози, etc.*

Sound for Event Causing it: *The train whistled into the station* vs. *Дорогою прогриміли вози, etc.*

Within the experiential approach (G. Lakoff), metonymy is treated as a major source of prototype effects (an asymmetry between typical and non-typical cases) – a situation in which some subcategory is used to comprehend the category as a whole. In other words, these are cases where a part (a subcategory) stands for the whole category.

The contrastive analysis at the level of subcategories may reveal the characteristics of the worldviews of the English and Ukrainians, as well as to determine the features of their national mentality and cultural background. The procedure that underlies the contrastive analysis of these phenomena in English and Ukrainian is based on involving derivatives, compounds and phraseological units that represent conceptual domains in the contrasted languages.

Here is the list of subcategories that may stand for a category as a whole, representing the cases of cognitive metonymy:

- **stereotypes** (are used to characterize cultural expectations). The stereotypical “bee” is industrious, active and hard-working, cf.: *як Божа бджола* “дуже напружено, посилено (трудитися)” vs. *as busy as a bee* “to move quickly about doing many things”;

- **typical examples** (are used in reasoning), e.g. “Apples are typical fruits”, hence we may observe numerous designations with this word in both languages, cf.: *яблуко розбрату (чвар)* “причина, предмет суперечки, сварки, незгоди” vs. *apple of discord*; *Адамове яблуко* “анат. випнута хрящова частина гортані” vs. *Adam’s apple*, but *яблуку ніде впасти “надзвичайно тісно від великого скупчення людей” vs. there’s not an inch in room*; *у яблуках “з круглими темними плямами на шерсті (про масть коней)” vs. dappled horse*; *яблуко від яблуні vs. like father like son*; *the apple of someone’s eye vs. зіниця ока*; *upset the applecart vs. руйнувати чиїсь плани*; *apple knocker vs. бейсболіст (особливо той, хто відбиває м’яч).*
In English some proper names are considered to be typical to represent a nationality, cf.: John Bull “he is supposed to personify the typical Englishman”; Uncle Sam “a nickname for the typical American”. In Ukrainian the most typical to represent certain characteristics or activities of people might be the name of Іван. V.D. Uzhchenko gives numerous examples of its usage to represent: a) arrogance and pomposity, cf.: Івана Івановича з себе корчить; Івана корчить; Сам себе іванить; b) foolishness and recklessness, cf.: Ростом з Івана, а розумом з болвана; Мудрий Іван по шкоді: коні вкравли, тоді він стайню зачинив; с) pauperism and opposition to the rich, cf.: Не перший раз Іван бідний; Пан з паном, а Іван з Іваном; Що вільно панові, то не вільно Іванові.

- **ideals** (are used to make judgments of quality). “Heaven is an ideal”, cf.: heaven on earth “perfect conditions in which to live or work” vs. рай “перен. красива благодатна місцевість”: У нашім раї на землі Нічого кращого немає (Т. Шевченко).

- **paragons** (are used to comprehend categories in terms of individual members). “Hercules is the paragon of great physical strength and efforts”, cf.: геркулес “людина великої фізичної сили і атлетичної будови тіла” vs. herculean “requiring or showing immense effort or strength”; Herculean efforts “immense, almost superhuman efforts”. “Croesus is the paragon of wealth”, cf.: Croesus [Croesus, king of Lydia, famed for his wealth] “a very rich man”; beyond the dreams of Croesus “unimaginable riches” vs. Крез “людина, що володіє величезними багатствами”.

- **generators** (are used to comprehend categories in terms of the members that are defined or “generated” by the central members plus some general rules). In English, the category of FEMALE KINSHIP AND MATERNAL FILIATION is represented by a group of words that are formed by means of a composition (rule) based on the generator “mother”, cf.: mother > mother-in-law > stepmother vs. мама > теща :: свекруха > мачуха. The congruence may be observed at the level of the category of COLOUR, cf.: голубий > небесно-голубий vs. blue > sky-blue;

- **submodels** (are used to comprehend categories in terms of various subcategories, those having either a biological basis: the primary colours, the basic emotions, or being culturally stipulated: the seven deadly sins). For example, the phraseological unit the seven deadly sins – сім смертних гріхів denotes the concept of CARDINAL SINS in the Christian religion: pride, envy, anger, lust, sloth, avarice and gluttony.
These kinds of sins are peculiar “cognitive reference points” (E. Rosch), within which we comprehend the relative extent of other minor transgressions, cf.: pride: arrogance “unpleasant pride and behaviour as if you are more important than, or know more than, other people”, conceit “too much pride or too much confidence in your general ability to perform particular actions or to achieve particular aims”) vs. гордість: зарозумілість “який поводиться гордовито, пихато, самовпевнено, вважаючи себе у чомусь вищим від інших”, пиха “надмірно висока думка про себе, погорда”;

- salient examples (are used to comprehend categories in terms of a familiar and memorable example). Both languages prefer using colour names to represent salient examples, cf.: red-letter day “a special, happy and important day that you will always remember”; Black Monday “Monday 19th October 1987, the day on which share prices on world stock markets fell dramatically” vs. чорні дні “дуже важкий час, сповнений неприємних клопотів, страждань, нужди і т. ін.”; біла ворона “той, хто виділяється серед інших чимсь незвичайним, зовсім не схожий на інших”.

4.6.2. Metaphor in English and Ukrainian

Metaphor (similarity of meanings) may be described as a semantic process of associating two denotata, one of which in some way (in shape, colour, appearance, etc.) resembles the other, cf.: neck “1. the part of a person or animal that connects the head the head with the body; 2. a relatively narrow part shaped like a neck” vs. шия “1. частина тіла людини та більшості тварин, що з'єднує голову з тулубом; 2. розм. вузька частина якогось предмета, споруди і т. ін.”; лис “1. хижий савець родини собачих з цінним рудим або сріблястим хутром і з довгим пухнастим хвостом; 2. перен. про хитру, лукаву людину; хитрун, лукавець” vs. fox “1. a flesh-eating mammal of the dog family with a pointed muzzle, large erect ears, and a long bushy tail; 2. a clever crafty person; 3. Am. informal a physically attractive woman”;

In case the name of an object or phenomenon is transferred onto the other object or phenomenon as the result of their functional unity, we register functional transference, cf.: shuttle “1. a spindle-shaped device that holds a bobbin and is used in weaving for passing the thread of the weft between the threads of the warp; 2. a sliding thread holder that carries the lower thread in a sewing machine through a loop of the upper thread to make a stitch” vs. човник “1. частина ткацького
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verstata, за допомогою якої протягується поперечна нитка; 2. частина швейної машини, яка подає нижню нитку”. Going further with the functional transference, the words have acquired new meanings recently, cf.: “3. a vehicle or aircraft that travels regularly between two places”, cf.: The American (space) shuttle can be used many times to put payloads in space vs. Американці офіційно визнали існуючу небезпеку для човника “Дискавері”. The same transference is observed in the English phrase shuttle diplomacy “discussions to try and make peace between two or more opposed countries, in which someone travels between the countries involved, carrying messages and suggesting ways of dealing with problems”, cf.: The Secretary General of the United Nations was involved in weeks of shuttle diplomacy vs. Човникову дипломатію з нашого боку, за деякими даними, здійснював Віктор Ревчук, який втратив статус учасника контактної групи, але не втратив завязки i, схоже, довіри з боку української влади. Other cases of this kind of functional transference are observed in compounds and special word combinations, cf.: shuttlecock “the game (more fully battledore and shuttlecock, now played only by children) in which the shuttlecock is hit with the battledore backwards and forwards between two players, or by one player into the air as many times as possible without dropping it”; shuttle bombing “bombing carried out by planes taking off from one base and landing at another”; shuttle service “a service of shuttle-trains; more widely, any transport service in which vehicles or aircraft travel to and fro between fixed points at frequent intervals”, etc. The Ukrainian language also reveals numerous cases of occasional meanings, cf.: Однак навіть якщо ми вирішили надалі придушувати розвиток туризму заради заробітку “човникових” контрабандистів, то угода про маленький прикордонний рух тут нічого не змінить. Один зі способів мінімізувати сплату податків – човникові схема. Впродовж обмеженого часу воїни-понтонери обладнали два пороми ПММ-2М, вантажопідйомністю по 170 тон кожний, які човниковим методом здійснили переміщення військовослужбовців та військової техніки на протилежний берег.

Another type of metaphor, found mainly amid adjectives, is synaesthesia – transference from one kind of sensory experience to another, cf.: soft “1. yielding to physical pressure (a soft ground, sand, pillow); 2. pleasing or agreeable to the senses (soft music, voice, sound)” vs. м’який “1. який угинається, подається при дотику, натискуванні
The adjectival vocabulary includes the names of various types of physical properties (temperature, size, taste, light, etc.). They are used to designate various types of conceptual domains. For example, the contrastive analysis of the tactile words sharp “well-adapted to cutting or piercing, usu. by having a thin keen edge or fine point” (a sharp knife) vs. гострий “який має колючий кінець або ріжучий край” (гостра коса) has shown that in English prevails the transference onto the domains of PHYSICAL APPEARANCE: “a) characterized by hard lines and angles (sharp features); b) clear in outline or details; distinct (a sharp image); c) informal stylish or dressy (a sharp dresser)”, of PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES: sudden and vigorous or violent (a sharp tap), of SENSE PERCEPTION: “a) of the senses: able to perceive clearly and distinctly (a sharp sight, nose); b) causing intense usu. sudden anguish (sharp pain); c) affecting the senses or sense organs intensely esp. in flavour (sharp wine)”, of INTELLECTUAL ACTIVITIES: quick to notice; clever (a sharp mind/intellect), of NATURAL PHENOMENA: biting cold; icy (a sharp image), and of MUSIC: of a musical note: raised one semitone in pitch (the key of C sharp), whilst for the Ukrainian language those are the domains of PHYSICAL APPEARANCE: який звужується, витягується на кінці (Подекуди виглядали жовті соняшники, гострі верхи кукурудзи), of PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES: який діє рішуче, різко і грубо (Ішла чутка, що він страшний чоловік, палкий як порох, а гострий як бритва), of INTELLECTUAL ACTIVITIES: “який глибоко вникає в суть чого-небудь; допитливий” (На виду у діда старечий спокій, а проте – гострий, огняний погляд), of SENSE PERCEPTION: “а) який сильно діє на органи чуття (Гаряче повітря було повно гострих пахоців акacja і розливало якусь розкіш на весь дів’); b) з великою кількістю солі, прянощів, спецій (На смак цибуля буває гостра, і солодка)”, and of PSYCHOLOGICAL STATE: “який надзвичайно сильно виявляється; сильний (про почаття)” (Іваниха сплеснула руками і впала до землі змоліла, гостра туга її підкосила).

The cognitive approach towards metaphor reveals its integrality into language and understanding. Linguist George Lakoff and philosopher Mark Johnson in Metaphors We Live By argue that “metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which
we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature” (Lakoff, Johnson 1980: 3). The scientists adopt a broad definition of metaphor, examine common phrases for metaphorical interpretation, and offer a classification system of metaphors. For example, orientational metaphors are found in our ordinary language and are part of the spatial organization of our lives. When one says, “He dropped dead ‘Він помер’ (букв. упав мертвим) or “He’s in top shape ‘Він у найкращій формі’ (букв. у верхній формі)”, one uses the orientational metaphor that we live by: “Health and life are up; sickness and death are down”. This orientation is not arbitrary; the scientists point out that one lies down when one is ill.

Just as the basic experiences of human spatial orientations give rise to orientational metaphors, so our experiences with physical objects provide the basis for an extraordinarily wide variety of ontological metaphors, that is, ways of viewing events, activities, emotions, ideas, etc. as entities and substances. For example, take the experience of rising prices, which can be metaphorically viewed as an entity via the noun inflation. This gives us a way of referring to the experience:

**INFLATION IS AN ENTITY**

*Inflation is lowering our standard of living.*
If there’s much *more inflation*, we’ll never survive.
We need to *combat inflation*.
*Inflation is backing us* into a corner.
*Inflation makes me sick.*

In these cases, viewing inflation as an entity allows us to refer to it, quantify it, identify a particular aspect of it, see it as a cause, act with respect to it, and perhaps even believe that we understand it (Lakoff, Johnson 1980: 26).

The contrastive analysis of cognitive metaphor in the English and Ukrainian languages may reveal not only designation strategies in the contrasted languages, but also ways the English and Ukrainians think and interpret the reality. One of the procedures that underlies the contrastive analysis of cognitive metaphor grounds in using lexical units to establish the characteristics of analogical mapping between the *source* and *target* domains, they being the basis for *metaphorical concepts*. The target domain is usually an abstract concept such as LIFE, whereas the
source domain is typically a more concrete concept, such as a DAY. The metaphor allows us to export conceptual structure about the more concrete domain to the more abstract target domain. Conceptualizing LIFE as a DAY allows us to map the various structures comprising a DAY onto aspects of a LIFE, understanding our BIRTH as the DAWN, OLD AGE as the EVENING, and so forth. These correspondences, called mappings, allow us to make sense of our lives, understand our stage of life, and appreciate that stage (working while the sun is high, savoring the sunset, and so on).

The contrastive analysis may reveal similarities and differences in metaphorical concepts (hence, in analogical mapping). Here is the analysis of the concept of ANGER / ГНІВ, based on the English and Ukrainian phraseological units:

**A. Total Congruence**

**ANGER IS MADNESS**

ГНІВ – ЦЕ БЕЗУМСТВО

to drive somebody mad “to make somebody very angry”;
зводити з розуму “негативно впливаючи на психіку, викликати почуття роздратування, гніву і т. ін.”.

**ANGER IS AN ACUTE SOUND**

ГНІВ – ЦЕ РІЗКИЙ ЗВУК

gnash one’s teeth “to express a strong feeling such as extreme anger, pain, or sadness”;
скреготати зубами; скрипіти зубами “виявляти гнів, роздратування, невдоволення і т. ін.”.

**B. Partial Congruence**

**ANGER IS A HOT LIQUID**

ГНІВ – ЦЕ ГАРЯЧА РІДИНА

to seethe with anger (rage) “to feel anger without expressing it”;
кров кипить (закипа, вирує) “хтось перебуває в стані сильного збентеження, гніву, обурення і т. ін.”;
* кров закипіла у жилах (скронях) “хтось перебуває в стані сильного збентеження, гніву, обурення і т. ін.”;
* в душі закипіти “надмірно хвилюватися від припливу якогось почуття (гніву, незадоволення, роздратування тощо)”.

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ANGER IS FIRE
ГНІВ – ЦЕ ВОГОНЬ

to add fuel to the fire “to aggravate someone’s rage, to make someone still angrier”;
підливати лою у вогонь “підбурювати кого-небудь, сердити і т. ін.”;
to burn with anger “to feel very hot because of anger”;
очі палають “чийсь вигляд виражає почуття, емоції (збудження, гнів, радість і т.ін.”);
* іскри сиплються (летять, скачуть, крещуть) з очей “уживається для підкреслення чийогось надмірного, надзвичайного гніву”;
* сипати вогнем “дуже сердито, гнівно розмовляти”;
* очі метеють іскри (блискавиці) “хтось дивиться глухо, сердито”;
* очі запалають гарячим вогнем “чийсь погляд, вигляд виражає якісь почуття (гнів, обурення, рішучість і т. ін.”);
* очі розгорілися “чийсь вигляд виражає якісь почуття (збудження, гнів, радість і т. ін.”);
* нехай воно ясним вогнем горить “вживається для вираження великого незадоволення, роздратування, досади з приводу кого-, чого-небудь”.

C. Incongruence
ANGER IS GAS
ГНІВ – ЦЕ ГАЗ

to vent “to let loose, pour out, wreak (one’s anger, spleen, etc.) on or upon a person or thing”;
vs.

ANGER IS A (GUIDED) OBJECT
ГНІВ – ЦЕ (КЕРОВАНИЙ) ОБ’ЄКТ
зривати злість на комусь “спрямовувати на кого-небудь свій гнів, роздратування, невдоволення і т. ін.”.

D. Inequivalence
ANGER IS AN AGGRESSIVE ANIMAL
ГНІВ – ЦЕ АГРЕСИВНА ТВАРИНА

to get one’s hackles up “to make somebody angry”;
* to get one’s monkey up “to annoy or irritate somebody very much”;
* to ruffle one’s feathers “to upset or annoy somebody”.

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ANGER IS LIGHT
ГНІВ – ЦЕ СВІТЛО
світити (засвітити) оком (білками) “виявляти поглядом якесь почуття (перев. гніву, роздратування)”; * очі блиснули гнівом “хтось глянув дуже сердито, суворо, зі злістю і т. ін.”;
* блиснути очима “глянути на кого-, що-небудь, виявляючи певні емоції (злість або радість)”; * блистнути оком “глянути на кого-небудь з певним виразом (докору, злості, гніву і т. ін.)”;
* метати громи та блискавки “1. гнівно, роздратовано говорити про кого-, що-небудь, лята когось; 2. поглядом виражати гнів, обурення, незадоволення; сердито дивитися”.

4.7. Processes and Results of Semantic Change
In the course of semantic evolution, a word may be subjected to some changes in its cognitive and pragmatic meanings. Those changes provide for quantitative or qualitative modifications of the word’s content, resulting in specialization vs. generalization or elevation vs. degradation of its semantic scope, respectively.

4.7.1. Specialization and Generalization of Meaning
The specialization or narrowing of meaning is characterized by the contraction of its semantic scope. This phenomenon is characteristic of terms, where narrowing is viewed as the process of “tapering off” to a certain scientific notion, cf.: pressure “the application of force to something by something else in direct contact with it; the force exerted by pressing or squeezing; 2. in physics, the force or thrust exerted over a surface divided by its area” vs. тиск “1. дія ваги на кого-, що-небудь; натискання, стискання; 2. фіз. сила, що діє на одиницю площі перпендикулярно до поверхні тіла, тиснення, нагніт”.

The generalization or broadening of meaning underlies the process of extending its semantic scope, resulting in “enriching” the notion, cf.: дядько “1. брат батька або матері; чоловік тітки; стрий”; 2. “розм. дорослий чоловік взагалі” vs. uncle “1. the brother of one’s aunt”; 2. “used by a child as a term of affection for an adult male friend”.

The extension of meaning is typical for proper names, when they tend to function in language as common nouns, cf.: mentor [from Greek Mentor] “1. a friend of Odysseus entrusted with the education of Odysseus’ son Telemachus; 2. a trusted counselor or guide” vs. ментор “заст. наставник, керівник, вихователь, навчитель”.

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4.7.2. Elevation and Degradation of Meaning

Semantic changes at the level of the pragmatic meaning (connotations) may entail “degradation” or “elevation” of the word’s content. Actually, it goes about the transference based on the evaluation of an object (denotatum) within a “good – bad” scale. A preferred scale extreme motivates the development of either ameliorative or pejorative meaning.

The ameliorative meaning (elevation of meaning) – is a result of semantic change by which a derived meaning develops a positive evaluative connotation based on either neutral or negative meanings, cf.: (neutral): майстер “1. старший робітник, керівник окремої ділянки виробництва; 2. той, хто досяг високого вміння, мистецтва, майстерності в будь-якій галузі” vs. master “1. a person having control or authority over another; a ruler or governor; 2. an artist, performer, player, exponent of something, etc. who is extremely skilled or accomplished”; (negative): rumour [Middle English rumour, from Middle French rumor clamor, gossip] “1. a statement or report current without known authority for its truth; 2. talk or report of a notable person or event” vs. поголоска “1. чутка, вірогідність якої не встановлено; поголос, чутка, плітка, поговір; 2. звістка, повідомлення про кого-, що-небудь”.

The pejorative meaning (degradation of meaning) – is a result of semantic change by which a derived meaning develops a negative evaluative connotation based on either neutral or positive meanings, cf.: (neutral): despot “1. a ruler with absolute power; 2. a person exercising power abusively or tyrannically” vs. decnom “1. верховний правитель, який користувався необмеженою владою (у рабовласницьких монархіях Стародавнього Сходу); 2. самовладна людина, яка нехтує чужі бажання, не зважаючи на інших, самодур”; (positive): млість “1. почувття приємної розслабленості, солодкої знемоги; 2. хворобливий стан, близький до зомління або непритомнєї” vs. swoon “1. to feel a lot of pleasure, love etc. because of something or someone; 2. to lose consciousness”.

4.7.3. Enantiosemy in English and Ukrainian

Enantiosemy is the development of the opposite (polar) meaning within the same polysemous word. This phenomenon is characteristic of both English and Ukrainian, cf.: pretty “1. attractive or aesthetically pleasing, esp. in delicate or graceful way, but less than beautiful; 2. used
ironically: dreadful or terrible” vs. гарний “1. який має позитивні якості або властивості, цілком відповідає вимогам, заслуговує схвалення; 2. розм. уживається для вираження іронічного ставлення до кого-, чого-небудь, зневажливої оцінки кого-, чого-небудь”. A polysemous word with polar meanings in one language may be distributed between two converses in the other, cf.: позичити “1. брати щось у борг у кого-небудь; 2. давати щось у борг кому-небудь” vs. borrow “to take or receive (something) with the implied or expressed intention of returning it to its owner or the place where it belongs” and lend “to give (something) to somebody for temporary use on condition that it be returned”.

The polarization of meanings is very often observed in words that correlate with the domains of EMOTION, SENSES, FEELINGS, etc. Being realized within the axiological plane, those kinds of words demonstrate the polarization of meanings based on emotional, sensitive or perceptual ambivalence (the state of having two opposing and contradictory attitudes or feelings towards an object, person, etc.), cf.: red-hot “1. furious, full of scandal: juicy, torrid; 2. full of energy or enthusiasm: peppy, vigorous” vs. розлючений, оскаженілий, нестямний, навіжений, шалений; запальний and гарячий, полум’яний, полкий; жвавий, веселий, енергійний.

4.8. Homonymy in English and Ukrainian

One should distinguish polysemous words from homonyms – words identical in form, but different in meaning. The main criterion that differs homonymy from polysemy is the content of a word, its correlation with the reality, availability or unavailability of semantic relations between the consonant words, i.e. words that are deprived of any associative relations between their meanings, though preserving these relations in their forms, cf.: reef¹ “a line of rocks, sand, small stones etc. just above or near the surface of the water”; reef² “a part of a sail which can be rolled up to expose less surface to the wind” vs. риф¹ “геол. пасмо підводних або невисоких надводних скель на мілководді”; риф² “поперечний ряд отворів або петельок на вітрилі, через які просувають вірьовку, щоб зменшити площу вітрила під час сильного вітру”. Being identical both in sound and form, such homonyms are called absolute homonyms.

Another group of homonyms are partial homonyms which are divided into: homographs and homophones. We can hardly find any congruence between these kinds of homonyms in English and Ukrainian,
as their contrasting involves non-identity in sound and form, which are very often of a different origin.

**Homographs** are words with different meanings and origins which have the same spelling, cf.: *bow* /ˈbou/ :: *bow* /ˈbou/; *close* /ˈklouz/ :: *close* /ˈklouz/. The pronunciation is usually the same: *We saw a polar bear at the zoo* vs. *I just can’t bear the excitement*. But some homographs differ in their pronunciation, for example ‘lead’ can be pronounced /liːd/ as in *Gold is heavier as lead* or /liːd/ as in *You lead and I’ll follow you*. Sometimes the pattern of stress is the main difference between homographs, cf.: *content* /ˈkɒntent/ as in *I won’t be content until you give me an answer* vs. *content* /ˈkɒntent/ as in *Meat usually has a protein and fat content*. In Ukrainian, homographs are words that differ only in an accent. Here we differentiate between the phonetical homographs, cf.: *кілько* :: *коло*, and the grammatical ones, cf.: *рік* (Nom. case, pl.) :: *руки* (Gen. case, sg.).

**Homophones** are words with the same pronunciation as another word, but with a different spelling and meaning, cf.: *key* “an instrument, usually of iron, for moving the bolt or bolts of a lock forwards or backwards, and so locking or unlocking what is fastened by it” vs. *quay* “an artificial bank or landing-place, built of stone or other solid material, lying along or projecting into a navigable water for convenience of loading and unloading ships”; *hair* “one of the numerous fine and generally cylindrical filaments that grow from the skin or integument of animals” vs. *hare* “a rodent quadruped of the genus Lepus, having long ears and hind legs, a short tail, and a divided upper lip”. In Ukrainian homophones are not numerous, it being determined by specific features of the phonetical system: distinct articulation of the vowels [i], [e] both in an unstressed position, cf.: *келіх* :: *келех*; *тримбіта* :: *трамбіта*; *гриби* :: *греби*, etc. Homophones are sometimes used humorously in newspaper headlines. For example, *The cent of success* might be the headline of a story of a successful perfume and cosmetics business.

The reason for homonymy is in a historical development of language system (various phonological, morphological, semantic modifications). The identity of forms of different lexical units may be viewed as the result of *sound convergence*, i.e. coincidence of primarily different in sound form words. For example, the phonetical changes resulted in the coincidence of a sound form of the Ukrainian words *ніс* (Past Simple of *нести* “to carry”) < (нєслъ) and *ніс* < (носъ “nose”), in English *bore* < (Past Simple of *bear* “to carry”) < (Old English *beran*) and *bore* < (Old Norwegian *bara*...
“wave”). Such homonyms are sometimes called **etymological homonyms**, as they differ in their origin.

From the viewpoint of the morphological structure the congruence of homonyms in English and Ukrainian is observed only between non-derivatives, cf.: ***круп*¹ “задня частина тіла коня” :: ***круп*² “хвороба (уреження гортані)” vs. ***croup*¹ “the rump or hindquarters, esp. of a horse” :: ***croup*² “inflammation of the larynx and trachea in children and babies, causing laboured, rasping breathing”.

The correspondences between **word-building homonyms** is reduced to the cases of conversion in both languages, cf.: ***круг*¹ “мат. частина площини, обмежена колом” :: ***круг*² “прийм. навкруг, кругом” – (the case of prepositionalization) vs. ***round*¹ “circular” :: ***round*² “a circular piece” – (the case of substantivization).

One of the important sources of homonymy is a **split of polysemy**, resulting in the loss of relations between the meanings of a polysemous word. For example, in Ukrainian the word ***нікн* used to be polysemous (on the basis of the primary meaning “пил (dust)” there developed the secondary meaning “взрізана речовина, яку застосовують для стрільби”), but in the course of time the relations between those two meanings have been lost, thus no associations can be traced between them now. Unlike Ukrainian, the English word ***powder* is still treated as a polysemous one, cf.: “1. a solid substance that has been reduced to dry loose particles; 2. a substance, esp. a cosmetic or a medicine, produced in the form of fine particles; 3. gunpowder”. The homonyms that emerged as the result of the polysemy disintegration are called **semantic homonyms**.

It should be borne in mind that the phenomenon of “homonymy – polysemy” correspondence in English and Ukrainian is rather frequent, and to some extent regular. Thus, it is relevant that a criterion for the congruence of polysemous and homonymous words should be introduced. Such a criterion will be intended for establishing the availability or unavailability of semantic relations between the contrasted words from the viewpoint of their semantic ambiguity (hence, **semantic ambiguity criterion**). If words are in “homonymy – polysemy” correspondence, then polysemous words are likely to become homonymous in the course of time, i.e. those words may be considered potential homonyms.

Thus, the congruence of homonyms in the contrasted languages may be as follows: **total** (**vide supra** absolute homonyms) – homonyms that correspond to each other both in form and meaning, **partial** (**vide supra**...
etymological and word-building homonyms) – homonyms that correspond to each other only in form, and **potential** (*vide supra* semantic homonyms) – homonyms that correspond to the lexico-semantic variants of a polysemous word in the other language.

The identity of words in their forms in the contrasted languages is called **cross-linguistic homonymy**. Such words are often confused in translation, as they look or sound similar, though having different meanings. That is why, these words are sometimes marked as “false friends of a translator”, cf.: аспірант “особа, що готується до педагогічної або наукової діяльності при вузі чи науково-дослідному інституті” vs. aspirant “one who aspires; one who, with steady purpose, seeks advancement to high position, or the acquirement of some privilege or advantage”; *complexion* “the appearance of the skin, esp. of the face” vs. комплекція “будова тіла; статура”; геніальний “винятково талановитий, творчо обдарований” vs. genial “cheerfully good-tempered”; магазин “приміщення для роздрібної торгівлі; крамниця” vs. *magazine* “an illustrated periodical containing miscellaneous pieces by different authors”; *herb* “any aromatic plant used to flavour food or in medicine or perfume” vs. герб “відмінний символічний знак держави, міста, дворянського роду або окремої особи тощо, зображений на прапорах, монетах, печатках, документах і т. ін.”.

### 4.9. Paronyms in English and Ukrainian

**Paronyms** are words that are closely related to each other in form, but differ in their meanings. The characteristic feature of paronyms is that they are similar in pronunciation and spelling, but are not identical in form. What really counts for their similarity is their close objective (physical) correlation, cf.: лікарняний (листок) :: лікарський (про рослину) vs. medical (certificate) :: medicinal (plant); *immigration* vs. еміграція :: іміграція; адресат :: адресант vs. *addresser* :: *addressee*.

According to semantic relations, paronyms in English and Ukrainian may be divided into the following groups:

- **a)** **synonymic paronyms**, cf.: слизяк :: слизняк vs. snail :: slug; unsteady :: unstable vs. хиткий :: хибний;
- **b)** **antonymic paronyms**, cf.: progress :: regress vs. прогрес :: регрес; експорт :: імпорт vs. export :: import;
- **c)** **semantically close paronyms**, cf.: ceremоніальний :: церемонійний vs. ceremonial :: ceremonious;
- **d)** **thematic paronyms**, cf.: basket :: bucket vs. кіш :: ківш.
ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Characterize the epidigmatic approach to contrastive analysis.
2. Speak on polysemy and its contrastive representation.
3. Give the characteristics of semantic change.
4. Describe metaphor and metonymy in the contrasted languages.
5. Characterize the processes and results of semantic change.
6. Represent homonymy and paronymy in the contrasted languages.
5.1. Paradigmatic Relations

The English and Ukrainian vocabularies are multiple and diverse. Its diversity manifests itself in units of language that very often have different phonation and meaning. The question arises about the way speakers retain such diverse units in their memory. The answer is the units are related to each other and one another in a certain way.

According to the experiments, carried out by cognitive psychologists, semantic organization (i.e. the way the concepts are systematized and structured in our mind) may be represented within four types of models: cluster model, generic model, model of comparative semantic marks, and network model.

In the cluster model concepts are combined in clusters and are reproduced together, e.g. the PRESIDENT cluster – Nixon :: Carter :: Reagan :: Ford :: Kennedy vs. Kravchuk :: Kuchma :: Yuschenko, etc.

In the generic model concepts are represented in groups. A group includes: a) the elements of a certain category, e.g. the BIRD category – redbreast :: dove :: blackbird vs. горобець :: ворона :: голуб, etc.; b) attributes, or properties of the category elements, e.g. the BIRD group includes such elements as wings :: feathers :: toothless beaked jaws :: able to fly vs. крыла :: дзьоб :: відкладає яйця, etc.

The model of comparative semantic marks represents concepts based on: a) determinative marks that constitute the essential aspects of

In the **network model** concepts are stored in semantic memory and are combined with propositions into a complicated network, being represented by the relationship *A is B*: ‘robin is bird’ vs. ‘вільшанка е пташкою’.

Those examples show that concepts and consequently words’ meanings are determined by numerous connections. It is argued that the lexico-semantic system of language is not chaotic, but is accurately and elaborately organized with interdependent lexical items. The interdependency of vocabulary elements is determined by the so-called **paradigmatic relations**, the latter being defined as relations that hold between words and groups of words (of the same category) based on similarities and contrasts of their meanings.

### 5.2. Comparison of Lexico-Semantic Systems

The **systemic**, or **differential** aspect of word meaning, which is established on the basis of the word’s relations to other words within a certain group of lexical units, argues that meaning in not self-sufficient and self-defining, but stands in certain relations with other meanings that specify it. In this way, we may observe some inconsistency in relations of certain words in English and Ukrainian: a) in paradigmatic relations, e.g.: basic colour terms, cf.: *blue* vs. блакитний and синій, names of kinship, cf.: *cousin* vs. двоюрідний брат and двоюрідна сестра; *mother-in-law* vs. теща и свекруха, names of some parts of the body, cf.: рука vs. *hand* и *arm*, etc.; b) in syntagmatic relations, cf.: *Він забув правило* :: *Він забув книжку* vs. *He forgot the rule* :: *He left the book*.

The contrastive analysis of lexico-semantic systems gives the opportunity to observe similarities and differences in paradigmatic relations of the contrasted languages.
The most important type of paradigmatic relations, determining the vocabulary, is a *semantic* type. It grounds in various verbal associations that reflect the relations that exist between the reality objects. The distribution of the corresponding words by their lexical meaning determines the formation of a certain group, the latter having various names in linguistics: *verbal field*, *semantic field*, *lexico-semantic paradigm*, *conceptual field*, *semantic group*, *lexico-semantic group*, *thematic group*, etc. A group combines lexical items that are characterized by close semantic relations and interdependency and are united under the name of a certain concept, i.e. cover a certain conceptual domain (hence, semantic field).

5.3. Semantic Field

**Semantic field** is a set of words related in meaning. It includes lexical items with an identifiable semantic affinity (sometimes based on their formal characteristics). The members of semantic fields are not just synonyms. They are joined together by some common semantic component – a concept, e.g. COLOUR, cf.: *blue*, *red*, *yellow*, *indigo*, *saffron*, *royal blue*, etc. vs. *блакитний*, *синій*, *червоний*, *бурштиновий*, *колір морської хвилі*, *візантійський*, etc., KINSHIP, cf.: *mother*, *mother-in-law*, *sister*, *cross-cousin*, etc. vs. *брат*, *стрий*, *батько*, *прадід*, *внук*, etc., MOVEMENT, cf.: *go*, *run*, *jog*, *creep*, *shuffle*, etc. vs. *йти*, *їхати*, *бігти підтюпцем*, *летіти*, *повзти*, etc. The semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as a common denominator of meaning. The members of the field are semantically interdependent as each member helps to delimit and determine the meaning of its neighbours, being semantically delimited and determined by them.

Each word belongs to a certain field, but being polysemous, it may be a part of other fields as well. Hence, for example, we may argue the overlap of the semantic field of MOVEMENT and that of MENTAL PROCESSES, cf.: *дійти висновку* vs. *come to conclusion*, *go out of someone’s head* vs. *вилетіти з голови*.

Semantic field has its core (nucleus) and periphery. The core is formed by the most significant lexical items, which being related to one another form synonymic, antonymic, and hyponymic groups. At the periphery there are functionally less important words that, as a rule, belong to other semantic fields. Within the semantic field there may also be singled out semantic groups.
Semantic group is a set of words within a certain semantic field. For example, in the semantic field of TIME we may single out: a) names of inexact periods of time (time vs. час, season vs. підіроку, period vs. період, epoch vs. епоха, era vs. ера, etc.); b) names of exact periods of time (секунда vs. second, хвилина vs. minute, година vs. hour, тиждень vs. week, місяць vs. month, рік vs. year, століття vs. century, etc.); c) names of seasons (spring vs. весна, summer vs. літо, autumn (Am. fall) vs. осінь, winter vs. зима); d) names of the day periods (ранок vs. morning, вечір vs. evening, ніч vs. night); e) names of months (січень vs. January, лютий vs. February, березень vs. March, etc.); f) names of the week days (понеділок vs. Monday, вівторок vs. Tuesday, etc.).

5.4. Semantic Field Structure
The contrastive analysis at the level of semantic field depends greatly on the type of its structure. Semantic fields are characterized by different types of structures and various correlations within the field itself.

In general typology the most known of semantic field structures is a paradigm (Ch. Fillmore). Paradigm is a set of words that possess one common semantic mark, but differ in other marks, each of which differentiates more than one couple of words. Thus, the relations between the words man “чоловік” and woman “жінка” are paradigmatic, as their distinction differentiates such words as boy “хлопчик” and girl “дівчинка”, actor “актор” and actress “актриса”, etc. From this viewpoint, the semantic distinction between the words wolf “вовк” and fox “лисиця” is not paradigmatic, as it does not differentiate any other couples of words.

The six other (though not widely-spread) semantic field structures are (according to D.A. Cruse):

a) chains (pure linear order), cf.: birth :: childhood :: adolescence :: adulthood :: old age :: death vs. народження :: дитинство :: юність :: зрілість :: старість :: смерть. The chain represents a set of words that are related to each other by means of the subordinate relations.

b) cycles (a regularly repeated order), cf.: red :: purple :: blue :: green :: yellow :: orange :: red vs. червоний :: пурпуровий :: синій :: блакитний :: зелений :: жовтий :: жовтогарячий :: червоний, etc. This set does not constitute a hierarchy: the structuring relations do not have the necessary directional properties. There is no top, and no bottom; there is no unique item related in the relevant way to all other items in the set;
c) helices (a hybrid linear / cyclical ordering). The sets of lexical items which are termed helices are a subtype of chain. They show the typical characteristics of chains, with a first item, a last item, and a unique ordering in between, cf.: Sunday :: Monday :: Tuesday vs. понеділок :: вівторок :: середа, etc.;

d) ranks (a position higher or lower than others). Ranks combine lexical items which operate on a discontinuous scale, cf.: (The United States Marine Corps) private :: private first class :: lance corporal :: corporal :: sergeant :: staff sergeant :: gunnery sergeant :: master sergeant :: first sergeant :: master gunnery sergeant :: sergeant major :: sergeant major of the Marine Corps, etc. vs. (The Ukraine Ground Forces and Airmobile) солдат :: старший солдат :: капра :: сержант :: старший сержант :: головний сержант :: штаб-сержант :: майстер-сержант :: старший майстер-сержант :: головний майстер-сержант, etc.;

e) grades (a position of ranks or qualities), cf.: freezing :: cool :: warm, etc. vs. крижаний :: прохолодний :: теплий, etc. The boundaries between grade-terms are typically somewhat vague, but the vagueness is less marked when the terms are explicitly contrasted with one another;

f) degrees (a position of an amount or measure). Degree-terms represent a more or less linear progression in terms of values of the underlying property, cf.: baby :: child :: adolescent :: adult. vs. немовля :: дитина :: підліток :: доросла людина.

One more structure is a network – a system of interconnected similar parts, as in the terms of kinship, where the most typical relations are: to be married to smb. "бути у шлюбі (з кимось)", to be one’s father “бути чийсь батьком”, older than “старший ніж”, younger than “молодший ніж”, etc.

A very important type of the semantic field structure is meronymy – a set of words that stand in a “part-whole” relation, cf.: nail :: finger :: hand :: arm vs. ніготь :: палець :: рука (кисть) :: рука (від кисті до плеча).

However, in Ch. Fillmore’s opinion, the most important type the semantic field structure is frame – a set of lexical items that represent a certain situation. For example, the situation of EXAMINATION “ІСПИТ” represents an examinee that takes an exam in a particular subject to an examiner or examining board. The words that may describe the situation are as follows: go in for an exam “складати іспит”, pass an exam “скасти іспит”, be plucked “провалитися на іспиті”,

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question card “екзаменаційний білет”, examining board “екзаменаційна комісія”, student’s record-book “заликова книжка”, crib “шпаргалка”, cheat “списувати”, etc. This type of structure correlates with what is called a thematic group (see Ginsburg et al.).

However, there are semantic field structures that represent the fundamental paradigmatic relations in vocabulary. Those are hyponymic (hierarchical), synonymic and antonymic relations.

5.4.1. Hyponymic Relations in English and Ukrainian

Hyponymic relations are hierarchical relations between words’ general and individual meanings. Hyponymy is based on the notion of inclusion: if the referent of term A (for example, colour) includes the referent of term B (for example, red), then term B (red) is a hyponym of hyperonym-term A (colour).

A hyperonym is a superordinate term that designates a generic concept (genus), expressing a more general notion of a referent, e.g.: plant vs. рослина, whilst a hyponym is a subordinate, specific term whose referent is included in the referent of a superordinate term, e.g.: flower < tulip vs. квітка < тюльпан. In this way, the extension of the hyperonym is wider, as comparing to that of the hyponym, though being narrower in the content, cf.: plant “a living thing which grows in earth, in water or on other plants” < flower “the part of a plant which is often brightly coloured with a pleasant smell” < tulip “a bulbous plant of the lily family, with a single richly coloured cup-shaped flower at the top of a straight stem” vs. рослина “організм, який живиться неорганічними речовинами повітря й ґрунту, є однією з форм існування живої матерії на Землі і разом з тваринними організмами належить до живої природи” < квітка “частина рослини, що виростає на кінці стебла або гіلки й складається з маточки, тичинки й пелюсток навколо них” < тюльпан “багаторічна декоративна трав’яниста рослина родини лілійних з великими квітками, що звичайно мають форму ковпачка і різнє забарвлення”.

Within the hyponymic relations there exist the relations of equality that are established between the hyponyms of the same hyperonym. Such hyponyms are called co-hyponyms, cf.: tree < birch :: poplar :: oak vs. дерево < береза :: тополя :: дуб, etc. On the basis of hyponymy lexical items are combined into the lexico-semantic and thematic groups.

The hyponymic configuration, i.e. the depth and width of the hyponymic structure development is determined by the characteristics of
words relations within the semantic field. Hence, the taxonomic depth of hierarchical relations may be different in the contrasted languages. In this regard, English is characterized by a somewhat deeper taxonomy as compared to that one in Ukrainian, cf.: bird < songbird < finch < bullfinch – a four-level taxonomy vs. птах < (співочий птах) < в’юрок < щиголь – a three-level taxonomy; stay < rest < sit < squat – a four-level taxonomy vs. перебувати (в якомусь стані) < відпочивати < сидіти < (сидіти навпочіпки) – a three-level taxonomy.

5.4.2. Synonymy in English and Ukrainian

One of the fundamental paradigmatic relations in vocabulary is synonymy. Synonymy is often understood as semantic equivalence, cf.: метелиця :: заметіль :: сніговійниця :: сніговиця :: завірюха :: хуртовина :: хурделиця vs. snowstorm :: blizzard :: precipitation; look :: glance :: stare :: gaze :: glimpse :: peep :: sight :: view vs. дивитися :: зирити :: глядіти :: глядіти :: глядіти :: насвітити :: спозирати :: назирати :: поглядівати, etc.

Words are said to be synonymous if they mean the same thing. The terms movie, film, flick, and motion picture all have the same set of referents in the real world and are usually taken to be synonymous terms. To address the notion of synonymy more formally, we can say that term A is synonymous with term B if every referent of A is a referent of B and vice versa. For example, if every movie is a film and every film is a movie, the terms movie and film are synonymous. The “vice versa” is important: without it, we would be defining hyponymy.

Among the criteria that underlie lexical items’ synonymy are:

a) identity or closeness of meanings, cf.: cosmos :: universe vs. космос :: всесвіт; краєвид :: ландшафт vs. scenery :: landscape.

b) interchangeability in a context, cf.: It’s a huge (gigantic) tower vs. Це величезна (гігантська) вежа.

Words that are totally identical in their meaning and stylistic colouring, being interchangeable in the context are called absolute synonyms. In fact, there are very few true synonyms in lexicon. More often than not, terms that appear to be synonymous have different social and affective connotations. Even if we restrict meaning to linguistic meaning, words that appear synonymous at first glance often refer to slightly different sets of concepts or are used in different situations. The adjectives fast, quick, and rapid may be used interchangeably in reference to someone’s running speed, but a fast talker (a ‘slippery or
deceptive person’) is different from a “quick talker”; some people live lives in the fast lane, not the “rapid lane”; and quick is the most appropriate term to describe a mind or a glance, while rapid is the usual term when reference is made to a person’s stride, especially metaphorical strides, as in learning to type or do mathematics. In Ukrainian, the corresponding synonymous group also reveals restrictions, determined by lexical collocations, cf.: швидка (хода), швидкісний (поїзд); пливка (течія), кваплива (мова), прудкокрилий (птах), прудконога (дівчина), негайна (поміч), шпарка (робота), etc.

There are three main types of synonyms:

1. **ideographic (semantic) synonyms** – words that designate the same concept, but differ in additional shades of meaning, cf.: шлях :: дорога (шлях “смуга землі, призначена для їзди та ходіння; дорога”; дорога “будь-яке місце для проїзду й місце для проходу, навіть дуже вузьке”) vs. way :: road (way “a route, direction or path”; road “an open way, usually a paved one, for the passage of vehicles, people, and animals”). Some other examples: страх vs. жах; голубий vs. блакитний; say vs. tell; town vs. city;

2. **stylistic synonyms** – words that are characterized by emotive and / or expressive charge, and hence, differ in their stylistic idiosyncrasy (a mode of expression peculiar to an author), cf.: обличчя (neutral) :: лик (literary) :: лице :: вид :: образ :: фізіономія :: фізія (colloquial) :: будка :: морда :: пика :: рило :: мармиза (vulgar) :: твар (vulgar, obsolete) vs. face (neutral) :: visage (literary) :: countenance (formal) :: physiognomy (formal) :: features :: mug :: phiz (informal).

3. **mixed (ideographic-and-stylistic) synonyms** – words that differ in shades of meaning, semantic extension, emotive and / or expressive charge, cf.: friend (neutral) “a person whom you know well and whom you like a lot, but who is usually not a member of your family”; associate, comrade, pal are characterized by social and emotional relations between the people during a considerable period of time, cf.: associate “someone who is closely connected to another person as a companion, friend or business partner”; comrade (slightly dated) – “an intimate friend or associate”; pal (informal) “a close friend”. Those words, unlike the word companion “a person you spend a lot of time with because you are friends or because you are travelling together” cannot denote contacts of short duration, those that can be easily established and broken with (e.g. in a game, on a train etc.). The word crony (informal) “a close friend, esp. of long standing” denotes friendship of many years
standing, i.e. old friendship that begins in the childhood or youth age and lasts up to the mature age vs. друг (neutral) “людина, зв’язана з ким-небудь довірою, відданістю, спільними поглядами, переконаннями, на яку можна в усьому покластися”; брат, друяка, дружище (informal) “у звертанні”; побратим, камрат (dialect) “переважно у боротьбі, боях”; приятель (informal), дружок (informal), кум (informal), кумпан (dialect) “людина, з якою склалися добрі, але не надто близькі стосунки”; товариш “людина, яка спільно з ким-небудь виконує якесь справу, бере участь у якихось діях”; спільник, однодумець, братчик (informal); компаньйон “товариш, співучасник чого-небудь”; колега “за фахом, місцем праці чи навчання”; одномашник “спільник у навчанні, військовій службі”; панібрат, панібратчик (informal) “хороший знайомий, задушевний приятель”.

5.4.2.1. Comparison of Synonyms in English and Ukrainian
The classification above describes synonyms as words, conveying the same concept, but differing in connotations, i.e. conceptual, associative, emotive, evaluative, expressive, stylistic, etc. shades of meaning that are additional to the denotational meaning of the word.

The criterion for the comparison of synonyms in English and Ukrainian is the one that reveals similarities and differences in synonyms’ connotations, as it traces much subtler distinctive features within the semantic structure of the contrasted words, cf. the synonyms that correlate with the concept of COWARD “БОЯГУЗ”:

**English**: coward (neutral, disapproving) :: craven (archaic) :: poltroon (archaic) :: dastard (archaic) :: sissy (informal, disapproving) :: chicken (informal, disapproving) :: scaredy-cat (informal, disapproving) :: yellow-belly (informal).

**Ukrainian**: боягуз (neutral) :: страхополох (intensive, informal) :: страхопуд (intensive, informal) :: баба (informal, disapproving) :: страхою (dialect) :: легкодух (informal).

**Expressive connotations**:
In both languages we observe intensive expressiveness, cf.: scaredy-cat “an unduly fearful person” vs. страхополох :: страхопуд “боягуз”. In English there are cases of figurative expressiveness based on metaphorical transfer, cf.: chicken :: yellow-belly “a coward”.

**Evaluative connotations**:
Being highly evaluative in English, the Ukrainian synonyms are reduced to one word, whose connotation is determined by a gender
overlap that underlies metaphoric transfer, cf.: баба “зневаж. про слабкого, боязного, нерішучого чоловіка або хлопця” vs. sissy “an effeminate man or boy; a timid or cowardly person”. Other English synonyms demonstrate either a culturally-based approach towards evaluation, cf.: chicken :: scaredy-cat, or a purely (i.e. not being culturally-determined) axiological approach, cf.: dastard “a coward, esp. one who commits malicious acts”, cf.: malice [fr. Latin malus ‘bad’].

**Stylistic connotations:**
In both languages there are informal colloquial words, though in English prevail archaisms over dialecticisms in Ukrainian.

**The connotation of degree or intensity:**
This type of connotation is characteristic of English, cf.: craven “extremely cowardly”; poltroon “a complete coward”. In Ukrainian the connotation of degree or intensity is only observed in the synonymic dominant боягуз “дуже несмілива, боязка, ляклива людина”, whereas its English counterpart rather reveals the evaluative connotation, cf.: coward “disapproving a person who is easily frightened or tries to avoid danger, difficulty or pain”.

**The causative connotation:**
This type of connotation is characteristic of the Ukrainian word легкодух “позбавлена сили волі, нерішуча, безсила людина”, whose semantic structure encodes information on ‘the cause of cowardness’. The English counterpart reveals the features of the evaluative connotation, cf.: milksop “fig. an effeminate spiritless man or youth”.

**5.4.2.2. Comparison of Synonymic Groups**
Within a certain group of synonyms there may be singled out a **synonymic dominant** – a lexical item that is characterized by the most general meaning of the kind, cf.: перемога :: звитяга :: вікторія :: тріумф :: торжество vs. **victory** :: **win** :: **conquest** :: **triumph** :: **success** :: superiority :: mastery. A synonymic dominant is a key word of a **synonymic group**, the latter being defined as a set of words that determine a certain domain, e.g. the domain of MISFORTUNE “НЕЩАСТЯ”, cf.: misfortune :: mischance :: bad luck :: ill luck :: mishap :: misadventure :: accident :: tragedy :: calamity :: disaster :: adversity :: affliction :: hardship :: trouble :: trial :: tribulation :: blow :: reverse :: setback vs. нещастя :: біда :: горе :: лихо :: беездоля :: зло :: драма :: трагедія :: напасть :: нахаба :: пеня.
According to Yu. D. Apresian, the differences and similarities of synonyms within a synonymic group are established on the basis of semantic proper, evaluative, associative and logical distinctions. All those features may be adopted and considered as general types of connotations, determining correspondences of synonyms in the contrasted languages.

**Semantic distinctions** are established on the basis of semantic marks that correlate with the concepts of PROPERTY, CAUSE, SUBJECT, PURPOSE, RESULT, PLACE, TIME, INSTRUMENT, ADDRESSER, ADDRESSEE, DEGREE, EMOTION, etc.

For example, in English the synonyms *beat, pummel, thrash and flog* are distinguished on the basis of the semantic mark that correlates with the concept of INSTRUMENT. The “instrument” used in the process of beating is ‘a limb or an object’, cf.: *beat* “to hit repeatedly (with a hand, stick, or other object)”: *They saw him beating his dog with a stick*. While pummelling, a ‘fist’ is used as an instrument, cf.: *pummel* “to (someone or something) repeatedly with your fists”: *The boxer had pummelled his opponent into submission by the end of the fourth round*. The act of thrashing or flogging involves a ‘thing’ as a punishment instrument, cf.: *thrash* “to beat soundly, esp. with a stick or whip”: *He thrashed the horse with his whip or flog* “to beat very hard with a whip or stick, as a punishment*: *Soldiers used to be flogged for disobedience.*

The evidence that the English “beating” synonyms’ semantics encode information on a certain ‘instrument’ is the abundance of words, having been converted from the nouns that denote an instrument-object (object used as an instrument), cf.: *whip v. < whip n.* “a piece of leather or rope which is fastened to a stick, used for hitting animals or people”; *cane v. < cane n.* “a thin stick used for hitting people”; *cudgel v. < cudgel n.* “a short heavy stick used for hitting people”.

The Ukrainian synonyms, designating the domain of “БИТИ” differ from one another in the semantic marks that correlate with the concept of MANNER. The words *бити, гатити, гепати* denote a ‘neutral’ way in which “beating” is done, cf.: *бити* “стукати, ударяти по чому-небудь, об щось”: *Тимофій берет долото, злегка стукнути й ею по ньому – робить зарубку (М. Стельмах); гатити “ударяти, стукати по чому-небудь, у щось вдаряти, бити”: *Він підхопився на ноги і став гатити підбором в те місце, де стояла щука, аж доки під чоботом не хрокнула вода (Г. Тютюнник); гепати “бити, стукати по чому-небудь, у щось вдаряти”*: *Понеслася журлява пісня; і вголос ій дружкова шабля гепає в стелю раз, удруге і втретє (П. Мирний). When striking is done
with a ‘force’, the following words are used, cf.: гамселити “з силою ударяти, стукати по чому-небудь, у що-небудь”: Він знову згадав за молоток і, відвернувшись, якось аж люто почав гамселити по цвяхах (О. Гончар); грити “стукати, бити з великоюилою”: Ти, що сиділи у перших рядах, не тільки аплодували, а й гріли чобітми в підлогу (В. Кucher); кресати “силоно вдаряти, сікти”: Крещуть коні кригу копитами (М. Терещенко); мостити “силоно вдаряти, бити”: Коні.., глухо ржучи самим черевом, в землю мостили копитом (П. Тичина); садити “уживається на позначення дій, що виконуються з особливоюилою, інтенсивністю, азартом і т.д.”: Десятки куликів садять, б’ють у двері, закладені зовні, як прогоничем, товстим ломом (О. Гончар). ‘Single acts of beating’ are denoted by the word ударяти “бити (про окремі удари)”: Могутнім хвостом ударяв [кит] пароплав по боках і ховався в воду (М. Трублаїн); whilst the word бацати denotes ‘beating with a sharp short sound’, cf.: бацати “різко вдаряти”, etc.

**Evaluative distinctions** ground in establishing a positive or negative value of concepts that correlate with synonyms in the contrasted languages. In English the synonyms *sharp* and *keen* with the meaning of “affecting the senses or sense organs intensely” differ in their evaluative connotations: *sharp* is negative, when it collocates with names of sound irritants, cf.: *sharp voice* “shrill or piercing voice”; the same in Ukrainian, cf.: різкий голос, cf.: різкий “занадто сильний, міцний або яскравий, що неприємно діє на органи чуття”; *keen* is positive when it denotes the property of spice or ability to refresh, cf.: *keen savour of the roast-beef; the wind came keen with a tang of frost*. In Ukrainian we find the words гострий, пікантний, пряний and пекучий, denoting ‘spicy food’. The words пікантний and пряний are considered positive in value, cf.: пікантний “гострий на смак, пряний (про соус, підливу і т. ін.)”, пряний “різкий, але приємний (про запах, смак і т. ін. // просякнутий різкими, але приємними запахами)”. On the contrary, the word пекучий is negative, cf.: пекучий “який викликає відчуття опіку”. The meanings of the words гострий “ідкий, пряний (про приправи)”, cf.: ідкий “який хімічно руйнує, роз’їдає що-небудь // який спричиняє подразнення” and пряний (vide supra) show that evaluation is variable and highly depends on the context: Його [кофе] змінила легка закуска з гостроприправленіх, пряних овочів і городини (Ю. Смолич).
Associative distinctions are based on reflecting the cultural conceptions about customs and other extra-linguistic factors in word’s semantics. To reveal those phenomena in English and Ukrainian, we shall compare the synonyms that designate the domain of JUMP “СТРИБАТИ”.

The word *jump* “to spring into the air, using the muscular power of feet and legs” is a synonymic dominant, cf.: *Ballet dancers can jump very high*. The Ukrainian counterpart *стрибати* “робити стрибок, стрибки” may be associated with an animal (in particular, a lambkin), cf.: *В чистім полі на роздоллі Молоде ягня стрибає* (П. Грабовський). Its synonym *leap* “to make a large jump or sudden movement, usually from one place to another” describes an extended, light, smooth and quick jump, the one, being associated with a jump of an antelope: *The reporter leapt forward holding out her microphone*. The words *spring* “to move quickly and suddenly towards a particular place” and to a lesser degree *bound* “to move quickly with large jumping movements” designate a powerful, springy jump with a jerky tearing off of the ground, being associated with a jump of a ‘predatory animal’, cf.: *The dog sprang at him*. The synonyms *skip* “to move with light leaps and bounds” and *hop* “to make small jumps on one or two feet, or to move along in this way” denote light, graceful and sometimes clumsy jumps, being associated with a jump of a frog, bird, grasshopper etc., cf.: *Her left foot hurt so much she had hopped over to the car; Several children were skipping in the playground*. Very close to the word *hop* are the Ukrainian words *гопати* “стрибати і тупати, скачучи або танцюючи” and *гацати* “підскакувати, витанцювати”, cf.: *підскакувати “робити невеликі стрибки вгору”: Не бійся, якби з хлопцями, то так би гацали козачка, що аж хата трусилася б!* (І. Нечуй-Левицький). The word *брикати* “граючись, пустуючи, бігати й стрибати” is associated with hoofed, ungulate animals, e.g. a horse: *На вінику по хаті брикають діти* (М. Черемшина), whilst its synonym *цибати* “пересуватися підстрибом (про людину чи тварину)” is associated with a nanny-goat: *Хочу, щоб ти [Катре] не цибала бездумно, наче кізка. Життя не луг* (Н. Рибак).

Logical distinctions underline, or emphasize the meaning core component in the contrasted synonyms. To illustrate this, we shall compare the synonyms that correlate with the domain of HARD “ВАЖКИЙ”. 
The English word *hard* “needing or using a lot of physical or mental effort” underlines the idea of ‘using effort’, cf.: Go on – give it a good hard push! The same in Ukrainian, cf.: важкий “який вимагає великого напруження, великих зусиль для здійснення, проведення, подолання і т. ін.”: Наймити та невільники обливались потом, аж стогнали від важкої роботи (І. Нечуй-Левицький). The English synonym *difficult* “hard to do, make, carry out, or understand” focuses our attention on ‘complication and obstacle’, standing in one’s way to solve a problem, cf.: She came across a difficult passage in translation; He is a difficult writer; It was a difficult problem for a pupil of the fourth class. In Ukrainian we observe it in the word трудний “складний для розуміння, сприймання, засвоєння // важкий для здійснення, виконання, розв’язання”: Олексій розпитує, якщо трудне та непонятне [незрозуміле] для нього у Четі-Мінеї (Г. Квітка-Основ’яненко); Просить [Коген] мене забрати свою платню з каси. Трудна річ доволі, правду мовити: каса порожня (М. Коцюбинський).

5.4.3. Antonymy in English and Ukrainian

The word antonymy derives from the Greek root anti- (‘opposite’) and denotes opposition in meaning. In contrast to synonymy and hyponymy, antonymy is a binary relationship that can characterize a relationship between only two words at a time. Terms A and B are antonyms if when A describes a referent, B cannot describe the same referent, and vice versa.

The prototypical antonyms are pairs of adjectives that describe opposite notions: large “великий” and small “малий”, wide “широкий” and narrow “узкий”, hot “гарячий” and cold “холодний”, married “одружений” and single “неодружений”, alive “живий” and dead “мертвий”. Antonymy is not restricted to adjectives, however. The nouns man and woman are also antonyms because an individual cannot be described by both terms at once. Always “завжди” and never “ніколи” form an antonymous pair of adverbs: they have mutually exclusive referents. The verbs love “любити” and hate “ненавидіти” can also be viewed as antonyms because they refer to mutually exclusive emotions. Antonymy is thus a binary relationship between terms with complementary meanings.

Antonymy forms the simplest type of a semantic field structure – contrastive class. In that way, antonyms are considered correlative themselves, i.e. their semantics is revealed relative to the semantics of
their counterparts, cf.: tall :: short vs. высокий :: низкий; life :: death vs. життя :: смерть; віїна :: мир vs. war :: peace; акуратний :: неохайний vs. tidy :: untidy; employ :: dismiss vs. наймати :: звільняти. It should be borne in mind, however, that antonymous words often do not have equal status with respect to markedness. For example, when you inquire about the weight of an object, you ask How heavy is it? and not How light is it? – unless you already know that the object is light. Notice also that the noun weight, which describes both relative heaviness and relative lightness, is associated with heavy rather than with light (as in the expressions carry a lot of weight and throw one’s weight around). Of the antonymous pair heavy and light, heavy is more neutral than light and is thus less marked. In the same fashion, tall is less marked than short, hot less marked than cold, and married less marked than single (we say marital status, not “singleness status”). Although there is some variation across languages as to which word of a pair is considered less marked, there is a surprising agreement from language to language.

Generally speaking, words are considered antonyms if their semantic relations meet the following requirements:

a) the words X and Y correspond to the contrary concepts, i.e. they are the extreme members of an arranged multitude that determines the contrary opposition. These antonyms form a gradual contrast. There is a middle element (at least one) between them: X is not X, not Y is Y, cf.: young – not young / not old – old vs. молодий – немолодий – нестарий – літній – старий.

b) the words X and Y denote the opposition of different directions, properties, features, etc. These antonyms represent the vector opposition: X > < Y, cf.: come > < leave vs. приїжджати > < віїд’їжджати; вмикати > < вимикати vs. turn on > < turn off; put on > < put off vs. одягати > < знімати. The variants of this type of opposition are antipodals – words in which one term represents an extreme in one direction along some salient axis, while the other term denotes the corresponding extreme in the other direction, cf.: north :: south vs. північ :: південь; top :: bottom vs. верх :: низ;

c) the words X and Y formally correspond to the contradictory concepts, the basis of which forms the contradiction: X is not X. The characteristic feature of this opposition is the absence of a middle element, cf.: жонатий – холостий vs. married – single; true – false vs. правильний – хибний.
d) the words $X$ and $Y$, denoting the same situation represent different names of the same action, state, relations, etc. These words, being reversed from the viewpoint of the counteragents, represent the **converse** opposition, cf.: *buy* – *sell* vs. *купувати* – *продавати*; *win* – *lose* vs. *вигравати* – *програвати*. Converseness characterizes a reciprocal semantic relationship between pairs of words. Other examples of converse pairs include terms, denoting many other kinship relations, such as *child* :: *parent* vs. *дитина* :: *батько*; terms, describing professional relationships, such as *employer* :: *employee* vs. *роботодавець* :: *робітник*; and terms, designating relative positions in space or time, such as *above* :: *below* vs. *вище* :: *нижче*; *before* :: *after* vs. *раніше* :: *пізніше*.

A considerable availability of words with opposite meanings in language is likely to be connected with a human being’s tendency to arrange the accumulated experience and evaluative opinions of mankind on the polar scales points. Taking into account the evaluative criterion for distinguishing antonyms, the following classification of antonyms is proposed (Cruse 1987: 208):

1. **polar antonyms** – words that are evaluatively neutral and objectively descriptive. In the majority of cases, the underlying scaled property can be measured in conventional units, such as inches, grams or miles per hour, cf.: *long* :: *short* vs. *довгий* :: *короткий*;

2. **overlapping antonyms** – words that have an evaluative polarity as part of their meaning: one term is commendatory and the other is depreciatory, cf.: *good* :: *bad* vs. *хороший* :: *поганий*;

3. **equipollent antonyms** – words that refer to distinctly subjective sensations or emotions, cf.: *hot* :: *cold* vs. *гарячий* :: *холодний*; or evaluations based on subjective reactions rather than on “objective” standards, cf.: *pleasant* :: *unpleasant* vs. *приємний* :: *неприємний*.

Antonyms in English and Ukrainian may be compared on the basis of their semantics or structure. The semantic criterion for comparison manifests itself in polysemy. The matter is that a word in one language may stand in the antonymic relations to one of the meanings (lexico-semantic variants) of a polysemous word in the other language. From this viewpoint, the comparison of polysemous words gives the opportunity to find the most appropriate antonymic equivalents in the contrasted languages, cf.: the polysemous word *спокійний* 1. “повний спокою, позбавлений тривоги” (сон, життя); 2. “який поводиться тихо, не турбує, не роздратовує”
(хлопець, вдача); 3. “у стані спокою, малорухомий або нерухомий” (оcean, течія). Having three meanings, the word may be brought into correlation with different antonyms, respectively: тривожний “повний тривоги, хвилювання”; гарячий “який легко збуджується; запальний”; бурхливий “який бурхає, бушує; швидкий у русі, рвучкий”. The words that are equivalent to these in English would be:

quiet “marked by little or no motion, activity, or excitement” :: troubled “worried or anxious”; cool “dispassionately calm and self-controlled” :: fiery “full of or exuding strong emotion or spirit; easily provoked; irascible” and calm “marked by the absence of wind or rough water; still” :: rough “of the sea: moving violently, with large waves”, respectively.

According to their structure antonyms are divided into cognate (semantic) and non-cognate (derivational).

Non-cognate antonyms are words that are opposed by their meanings. They constitute the majority of antonyms both in English and in Ukrainian, cf.: warm :: cold vs. теплий :: холодний; early :: late vs. рано :: пізно; швидкий :: повільний vs. quick :: slow; будувати :: руйнувати vs. build :: destroy.

Cognate antonyms are words that are formed by adding an affix (in particular, prefix) to the opposing word, cf.: armed :: unarmed vs. озброєний :: беззбройний; симетричний :: асиметричний vs. symmetric :: asymmetric.

The most productive opposite-forming affixes in Ukrainian are без-, а-, анти-, де-, ви-, за-, від- :: під-, від- :: при-, роз- :: з-(c), роз- :: на-, у-(a), cf.: демократичний :: антидемократичний; орієнтація :: дезорієнтація; виводити :: заводити; відбігати :: підбігати; відчалювати :: причалювати; розформувати :: сформувати; розвантажувати :: навантажувати; вдихати :: видихати. In English these affixes are: anti-, dis-, in-, un-, counter-, -less :: -ful, cf.: organization :: disorganization; complete :: incomplete; settled :: unsettled; fascist :: antifascist; revolutionary :: counter-revolutionary; hopeless :: hopeful.

The analysis of the English and Ukrainian counterparts reveals four types of antonymic correspondences. Antonyms may be:

a) non-cognate in Ukrainian, but cognate in English, cf.: з’являтися :: зникати vs. appear :: disappear;

b) non-cognate in English, but cognate in Ukrainian, cf.: mask :: expose vs. маскувати :: демаскувати;
c) non-cognate both in Ukrainian and in English, cf.: ніжний :: грубий vs. tender :: rude.
d) cognate both in Ukrainian and in English, cf.: розбірливий :: нерозбірливий vs. legible :: illegible.

5.4.4. Correlations of Semantic Derivativeness

Correlations of semantic derivativeness combine words based on their formal word-building relations (the so-called suppletive word-building). One of the varieties of such correlations are actantial correlations which confront the name of a situation with the standard name of an obligatory participant – actant (vide infra 6.2.). Here belong such correlations as: a) action – subject of action, cf.: treat – doctor vs. лікувати – лікар; b) action – object of action, cf.: боготворити – кумир vs. idolize – idol; c) action – instrument of action, cf.: shoot – weapon vs. стріляти – зброя; d) action – place of action, cf.: хоронити – могила vs. bury – grave and many others.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Characterize the paradigmatic approach to contrastive analysis.
2. Give the characteristics of semantic field.
3. Speak on the hyponymic relations in the contrasted languages.
4. Characterize synonymy in the contrasted languages.
5. Describe antonyms in the contrasted languages.
CHAPTER 6
SYNTAGMATIC ASPECT
OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

6.1. Syntagmatic Relations

The syntactic, or relational aspect of word meaning is determined by its semantic relations with other lexical items within a certain speech segment – word-combination or sentence.

It is argued that some words collocate with each other more freely in the utterance than others. Thus, we may infer that there are certain restrictions, applied to the collocation of words. Those restrictions may be determined:

a) logically, i.e. according to the extra-linguistic reality and the relations that constitute our knowledge about the world. For example, the words red and червоний have an unlimited number of collocations in language, as the same we may observe in the reality (based on the assumption that any object might be of a red colour);

b) linguistically, as the result of a historical development of language. From this viewpoint, the English word suggest collocates with the gerund, whilst its Ukrainian counterpart пропонувати, on the contrary, is followed by the infinitive, as there is no gerund in the grammatical system of the Ukrainian language.

Some other examples of incongruous collocations: in Ukrainian we have високий (будинок, гора, хлопець, дівчина), whilst in English – high building, high mountain, but tall boy, tall tree; in English – to wash (face, linen), in Ukrainian – умивати обличчя, but прати білизну, etc.

The collocations of words in linguistics are viewed in terms of the so-called syntagmatic relations. The syntagmatic relations of a word are
its linear, contextual relations. This type of relations determines the word semantics from the viewpoint of the word’s capacity to combine (collocate) with other words. The information about the semantic (syntagmatic) relations between words within the same flow of speech is regarded to constitute the syntactic layer of meaning (hence, word’s syntactic meaning).

6.2. Comparison at the Level of Syntagmatic Relations

The contrastive analysis at the level of syntagmatic relations serves for determining meanings of the contrasted words according to their collocability. The notion of “collocability” in theory of language is closely connected with the notions of “distribution”, “context” and “valence”.

**Distribution** is a set of linguistic contexts (the total of all the environments) in which a lexical item or class of items can occur.

**Context** may be defined as a minimal segment of speech that comes immediately before and after a word, determining its individual (denotative) meaning.

The denotative meaning of a word may be determined by its **grammatical context**, i.e. by the syntactic structure means. For example, the English word *stop* “to finish doing something” can occur in the following context, among others: *to stop doing smth.* (stop + gerund). The same meaning in Ukrainian occurs in a somewhat different context: *переставати діяти* (*переставати* + infinitive) or *припиняти дію* (*припиняти* + noun). The difference would be even more striking in some stable word-combinations, cf.: *stop at nothing* vs. *ні перед чим не зупинитися; припинити діяльність* vs. *come to a full stop*. However, there are cases with total congruence of contexts in the contrasted languages, cf.: *припиняти вогонь* (*припиняти* + noun) vs. *to stop fire* (*stop* + noun).

The denotative meaning of a word may also be determined by its **lexical context**. In this case, meaning is considered to be determined by other words’ semantics, cf. lexical contexts of the English word *strong* vs. its Ukrainian counterpart *сильний*. In the meaning of “powerful; having great force” the equivalents are totally congruous, denoting such natural phenomena as ‘wind, current’, cf.: *strong wind, current* vs. *сильний вітер, течія*, but they are incongruous in designating ‘rain, frost, heat, storm’, cf.: *сильний дощ, мороз, спека, буря* vs. *heavy rain, hard frost, fierce heat, heavy storm*. In designating ‘reason’ in the meaning of “difficult to argue with”, the equivalents are not congruous either, cf.:
strong argument, evidence vs. переконливий довід, доказ. No congruence is observed with the Ukrainian meaning of “який досяг значного ступеня або виявляється з великоюилою” in designating ‘feelings and senses’, cf.: сильні почуття, враження, біль vs. intense feelings, impressions, pain, etc.

Valence is a word’s capacity, its potentiality to combine with other words. The combination of words is characterized by selective lexical compatibility. Both English and Ukrainian lexicons comprise monovalent and polyvalent words. One may single out three types of valence correspondence in the contrasted languages:

a) monovalent, cf.: hazel (eyes) vs. карі (очі); гнідий (кінь) vs. bay (horse);

b) polyvalent, cf.: green (table, cup, dress, etc.) vs. зелений (стіл, чашка, сукня, etc.);

c) monovalent vs. polyvalent, cf.: згайнувати (час) or розтринькати (ерошт) vs. waste (time, money, talent, energy, etc.); addle (egg) vs. тухле (яйце, м’ясо, риба, вода, запах, etc.).

6.3. Semantic and Syntactic Actants

Of paramount importance at contrastive analysis is a notion of semantic valence. It is argued that a word P has semantic valence A, if the word P describes a situation with an obligatory participant that plays the role of A. The obligatory participant is called a semantic actant and its role is called a semantic role. Semantic role refers to the way in which the referent of the noun phrase contributes to the state, action, or situation described by the sentence. Semantic role is the actual role a participant plays in some real or imagined situation, apart from the linguistic encoding of those situations. For example, if, in some real or imagined situation, someone named John purposely hits someone named Bill, then John is the Agent and Bill is the Patient of the ‘hitting event’. Therefore, the semantic role of Bill is the same (Patient) in both of the following sentences: John hit Bill and Bill was hit by John. In both of the above sentences, John has the semantic role of Agent, cf. in Ukrainian: Джон ударив Білла and Білла вдарив Джон.

One should distinguish semantic actants from the syntactic ones – syntactically dependent participants that are assigned with the syntactic roles (grammatical relations) of subject and object.

It should be borne in mind that semantic and syntactic roles are not the same. For example, in English, the subject of a sentence can be an
Agent (as in the underlined noun phrase in sentence 1), a Patient (as in 2), an Instrument (3), a Cause (4), an Experiencer (5), a Benefactive (or Recipient) (6), a Locative (7), or a Temporal (8), depending on the verb.

1. *The janitor* (Agent) opened the door.
3. *His first record* (Instrument) greatly expanded his audience.
4. Bad *weather* (Cause) ruined the corn crop.
5. *Serge* (Experiencer) heard his father whispering.
6. *The young artist* (Benefactive or Recipient) won the prize.
7. *Arizona* (Locative) attracts asthmatics.
8. *The next day* (Temporal) found us on the road to Alice Springs.

In certain English constructions, the subject may not have any semantic role, as with the “dummy it” construction, in which the pronoun it fills the subject slot but is semantically empty, cf.: *It becomes clear that the government has jailed him there*. So the notion of subject is independent of the notion of semantic role; the same thing is for direct objects and other grammatical relations. Conversely, semantic roles do not appear to be constrained by grammatical relations. A locative (*garden*), for example, may be expressed as a subject (as in sentence 1 below), a direct object (2), an indirect object (3), or an oblique (4).

1. *The garden* (subject) will look great in the spring.
2. William planted the *garden* (direct object) with cucumbers and tomatoes.
3. *The begonias give the garden* (indirect object) a cheerful look.

Nevertheless, there is a relationship between grammatical relations and semantic roles. Consider the following sentences, all of which have *open* as a verb:

*Michele* opened the door with this key.
The *door* opens easily.
This *key* will open the door.
The *wind* opened the door.
The grammatical subjects of the sentences above are an agent (Michele), a patient (the door), an instrument (this key), and a cause (the wind).

Semantic roles are universal features of the semantic structure of all languages, but how they interact with grammatical relations such as subject and direct object differs from language to language. Equivalent verbs in different languages do not carry similar tags. The tag attached to the English verb like, for example, permits only Experiencers as subjects, cf.: He likes French fries. But only Patients can be the subjects of the equivalent Ukrainian verb подобатися, cf.: Йому подобається картопля фрі.

Some languages distinguish between Agent and Experiencer much more carefully than English does. For example, the verb might take a subject when the action described is intentional but take a direct object when the action is unintentional. In addition to cross-linguistic variation with respect to specific verbs, languages vary in the degree to which different semantic roles can fit into different grammatical slots in a sentence. In English, the subject slot can be occupied by noun phrases of any semantic role – depending, of course, on the verb. Many English verbs allow different semantic roles for subject, direct object, and so on. But the situation is different in Ukrainian; verbs do not allow nearly as much variation in semantic roles as English verbs do, and there is a much tighter bond between semantic roles and grammatical relations.

For example, the situation of opening in Ukrainian may be represented by two different predicates (verbs): відмикати “за допомогою ключа відкривати замок або що-небудь замкнене” and відчинити “відводити, відхилити вбік стулки дверей, вікон тощо, роблячи вільним вхід, доступ до чогось або вихід назовні”. Thus, it is possible to redistribute semantic roles and grammatical relations in Ukrainian, e.g. by omitting an Instrument indirect object with the verb відмикати, as the semantic role of Instrument is incorporated in the semantics of the verb, cf.: Старий шахтар відщикнув двері і навшпиньках увійшов у кімнату (Олесь Донченко).

6.4. Phraseological Units and their Characteristic Features

In lexicology, the scope of collocability is also expanded upon phraseological units – stable word-groups characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning. Phraseological units are habitually defined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely
made up in speech, but are reproduced as ready-made units. The main characteristic features of phraseological units are: *idiomaticity, stability* and *equivalence to word.*

**Idiomaticity** is a semantic characteristic of phraseological units which consists in non-inference of the meaning of the whole from the meaning of the individual parts (components), cf.: *build castles in the air* “make plans based on hopes and wishes which will probably never come true” vs. *будувати повітряні замки* “придумувати нездійсненні, відірвані від життя плани, мріяти про щось недосяжне”.

**Stability** of phraseological units provides for stability of their use, i.e. usage by all people, speaking the language. A phraseological unit is also stable in its structure. From the viewpoint of its structure, the stability of phraseological units is observed in:

a) components’ morphological forms, cf.: *a hair’s breadth,* but not *a hair breadth* vs. *висіти на волосинці,* but not *висіти на волосинах.*

b) components order, cf.: *live and learn,* but not *learn and live* vs. *вік живи – вік учись,* but not *вік учись – вік живи.*

**Equivalence to word** consists in a phraseological unit having the features characteristic of a word, i.e.: a) synonymy, cf.: *be in Queer Street* :: *be in low waters* :: *be on the rocks* :: *be hard up* :: *be on one’s beam ends* :: *be as poor as a church mouse* :: *be on one’s uppers* vs. *мов рак на мілині* :: *ніби руда миша зимою* :: *мов церковна миша;* b) antonymy, cf.: *відкрити чійсь очі* :: *закрити очі на щось* vs. *open (shut) one’s eyes;* keep your head :: *lose your head* vs. *володіти собою* :: *втратити голову;* c) polysemy, cf.: *take root* “1. to form roots so as to be able to live and grow; 2. to be accepted; to be adopted” vs. *пускати коріння* “1. приживатися, закріплюватися, обживатися де-небудь; 2. ставати постійним; надійно, міцно утверджуватись”; d) homonymy, cf.: *зелена вулиця*¹ “безперешкодний шлях у досягненні, доланні, у розвитку і т. ін. чого-небудь” :: *зелена вулиця*² “покарання солдатів шпіцрутенами в кріпосницькій Росії” vs. *green light*¹ “authoritative permission to go ahead with some project” :: *green light*² “(in the Great Gatsby) unattainable dream (the dream that must have seemed so close that Gatsby could hardly fail to grasp it)”.

6.5. **Classification of Phraseological Units**

The most famous classification of phraseological units based on the semantic principle is the classification worked out by Ch. Balley and
completed by V.V. Vinogradov. According to this classification phraseological units may fall into the following classes:

a) **phraseological fusions (idioms)** – semantically indivisible phraseological units whose integral meaning is non-motivated, i.e. is not reduced to the meanings of their components, cf.: *on cloud nine* “to be extremely happy” vs. *на сьомому небі* “дуже задоволений, радісний, безмежно щасливий”, *на зеленого (блакитного) змія* “надмірно, до нестям” vs. *see pink elephants* “to imagine seeing something because someone is drunk”.

b) **phraseological unities** – semantically indivisible phraseological units whose integral meaning is motivated, i.e. is reduced to the meanings of their components, cf.: *сробити з муки слона* “надто перебільшувати щось, надавати великого значення чому-небудь незначному” vs. *take a mountain out of a molehill* “make something unimportant seem important”, *break one’s back* “to work hard” vs. *гнути спину* “важко працювати”.

c) **phraseological collocations** – phraseological units whose components are characterized by a specific lexical valence, one of the components having a bound meaning, cf.: *брати участь* vs. *take part*, *drop one’s eyes* vs. *потупити очі в землю*.

Having preserved the three main classes of phraseological units, M.M. Shanskii singles out the fourth class – **phraseological expressions** – semantically divisible phraseological units whose components have a free meaning. Those phraseological expressions are: *proverbs*, cf.: *friend in need is a friend indeed* vs. *друзі пізнаються в біді*; *під лежачий камінь вода не тече* and *nothing ventured, nothing gained*, *sayings*, cf.: *tighten one’s belt* vs. *затягти пояс (покласти зуби на полицю)*; *чорним по білому* vs. *in black and white*, *aphorisms* and *catch-phrases*, cf.: *перейти Рубікон* vs. *cross the Rubicon* (Caesar); *facts are stubborn things* vs. *факти – уперта річ* (Eliot); *(eternal) love triangle* vs. *любовний трикутник* (e.g. Ibsen); *обітована земля* vs. *the promised land* (Bible).

### 6.6. Contrastive Analysis of Phraseological Units

The contrastive analysis of phraseological units in English and Ukrainian aims at revealing allomorphic and isomorphic characteristics at the phraseological level by singling out total and partial equivalents and analogues in the contrasted languages as well as non-equivalent
phraseological units, having no correspondences in the phraseological system of the other language.

It is argued that the criteria that underlie the establishment of phraseological units’ equivalence in the contrasted languages are as follows: semantic, structural, grammatical and componential.

The **semantic** level aims at establishing similarities and differences between the English and Ukrainian phraseological units in semantics. This aspect is the main one in differentiating allomorphic and isomorphic features. At the semantic level we differentiate between the cognitive and pragmatic meanings of phraseological units. Of paramount importance there are semantic marks (semes), being involved into the contrastive analysis of phraseological units.

At the **structural-and-grammatical** level phraseological units are compared on the basis of their structure, grounding in the structural patterns of free word-combinations. Besides, at this level the contrastive analysis takes into account the lexico-grammatical characteristics of phraseological units, i.e. their belonging to a certain morphological class.

The **componential** level aims at revealing identical, close in semantics or heterogeneous elements in the structures of the contrasted phraseological units. This level is considered to be the most specific for the phraseological units of both languages.

Taking into account the three levels, one may single out the following types of cross-linguistic relationships:

1. Phraseological equivalents (total and partial).
2. Phraseological analogues (total and partial).
3. Non-equivalent phraseological units.

### 6.6.1. English and Ukrainian Phraseological Equivalents

The phraseological **equivalents** are cross-linguistic phraseological units with identical semantics, grammar, structure and a set of components. There are two types of phraseological equivalents in English and Ukrainian: total and partial.

A. Total phraseological equivalents are phraseological units of the English and Ukrainian languages that have the same cognitive meaning, pragmatic connotations, grammatical and componential structures, cf.: *show one’s teeth* “to make threats or express hostility” vs. *показувати свої зуби* “виявити свою злости вдячні, злі намірі”. Both equivalents have the same cognitive meaning, represented by the following semes: ‘attitude’, ‘character’, ‘malicious intent’, ‘negative’; the same pragmatic
connotations – both involve the same image and both are neutral; from the viewpoint of their lexico-grammatical characteristics both belong to verbal phraseological units, structured by the same pattern (verb + pronoun + noun).

**B.** Partial phraseological equivalents are phraseological units that slightly differ in meaning, componential and grammatical structures. The partial phraseological equivalents are divided into three subgroups.

The **first** subgroup comprises phraseological units that differ in one component of contiguous semantics, *cf.*: *wolf in sheep’s clothing* “a person who hides the fact that they are evil with a pleasant and friendly appearance” vs. *вовк в овечій шкурі* “лицемірна людина, яка під маскою доброзичливості приховує злі наміри”. The cognitive meaning, pragmatic connotations, grammatical structure (noun + preposition + noun), lexico-grammatical characteristics (substantival) being the same, the phraseological equivalents differ in the components *clothing* vs. *шкура*, though having the generic meaning “something that covers the body”.

The **second** subgroup comprises the phraseological units that differ in one component of contiguous semantics, though having a variable set of components, *cf.*: *з голови до ніг (п’ят)* “повністю, цілком, весь” vs. *from head to foot (toe)* “completely”. The phraseological equivalents, having variable components *нога* vs. *toe*, differ semantically: the components *нога* vs. *foot* reveal meronymic, i.e. ‘part-for-the-whole’ relations.

The **third** subgroup comprises the phraseological units that have morphological distinctions, *cf.*: *тримати язик за зубами* vs. *keep one’s tongue between one’s teeth*. These equivalents differ in the prepositions ‘between’ vs. ‘за’. Besides, there is a specific pronoun *one’s* in the English phraseological unit. The phraseological equivalents *fish in troubled waters* vs. *ловити рибу в каламутній воді* differ in: the category of number of the nouns *waters* vs. *вода*; the components of contiguous semantics *troubled* vs. *каламутний*, *cf.*: *troubled* “worried or anxious” vs. *каламутний* > *каламуть “неспокій, тривога”*; the structure pattern, *cf.*: verb *fish* in English vs. word-combination *ловити рибу* in Ukrainian.

Summing up, the English and Ukrainian partial phraseological equivalents are characterized by incomplete incongruence in their structure and meaning.
6.6.2. English and Ukrainian Phraseological Analogues

The phraseological analogues are phraseological units that have the same or close meaning, but totally or partially differ in their inner form. The phraseological analogues in the English and Ukrainian languages may be divided into:

A. Phraseological analogues that reveal approximate similarities at the structural and grammatical levels, and have one common lexeme in their componential structures. The approximate similarities of phraseological analogues at the structural and grammatical levels provide for their belonging to the same class, irrespective of their structure, cf.: *put (have) one’s tail between one’s legs* “to feel or look ashamed and embarrassed” vs. *підібгати хвіст* “втратити упевненість, пиху, злякавшись чи засоромившись наслідків своїх дій, вчинків або відчувати свою провину”. The phraseological analogues reveal some slight divergence in the cognitive meaning with the integral sense of ‘shame’ as an indicator of behavior and the same evaluative connotation (the integral sense of ‘negative evaluation’). The functional and stylistic connotations of the phraseological analogues are different – the English phraseological unit is neutral, whilst the Ukrainian one is low colloquial. The components *tail* vs. *хвіст* coincide. Both analogues are related to the class of the verbal phraseological units with different structures: English (verb + noun + preposition + noun) and Ukrainian (verb + noun).

B. Phraseological analogues that reveal approximate similarities at the structural and grammatical levels, and have different componential structures, cf.: *in your element* “to be happy because you are doing what you like or can do best” vs. *як риба у воді* “поводитися вільно, невимушено, добре; бути професіоналом”. The phraseological analogues are close in meaning. The differences are observed in the componential structure: the English idiom represents the medieval “opinion” that every creature belonged to one of the four elements: earth, fire, air and water, whilst the Ukrainian phraseological unit depicts the “scenario” of an animal’s behaviour in water. Being adverbial by the lexi-co-grammatical characteristics, the English and Ukrainian phraseological units differ in their structure: the English idiom is structured with the pattern *preposition + pronoun + noun*, whilst the Ukrainian one – with the pattern *conjunction + noun + preposition + noun*.

C. Phraseological analogues that reveal differences at the structural and grammatical levels, and have different componential structures, cf.: *душа нарожхрист “хто-небудь відвертий, щирий у поводженні з
іншими” vs. *wear one’s heart on one’s sleeve* “to show one’s feelings too obviously, to lack self-control in concealing them”. Both analogues are close in the cognitive meaning. The componential structure of these analogues is different, as well as their lexico-grammatical characteristics: the Ukrainian idiom belongs to the class of the substantival phraseological units, whilst its English counterpart is verbal.

D. Partial phraseological analogues that reveal approximate similarities in their meanings, though differing at the structural and grammatical levels and in the componential structure, *cf.: дивитися чортом “виявити неприязнь, ворожість до кого-небудь, підозріло ставитися до когось” vs. like a bear with a sore head “bad-tempered: angry, or easily made angry”. The phraseological units, differing in structure (Ukrainian – *verb* + *noun* and English – *conjunction* + *noun* + *adjective* + *noun*) and lexico-grammatical characteristics (Ukrainian is verbal, whilst English is adjectival), differ in their semantics: the Ukrainian phraseological unit has the differential seme of ‘suspicion’, whilst its English counterpart implies the seme of ‘an unbalanced state’.

It should be borne in mind that phraseological units may have more than one correspondence in the contrasted language. This phenomenon goes under the name of ‘ambiguous correspondence’, *cf.: перейти комусь дорогу vs. to snatch something from under one’s nose, to put someone’s nose out of joint vs. to steal a march on someone; to fling (throw) mud at someone vs. облити брудом, облити помиями, змішати з землею, змішати з болотом. The choice of a required variant wholly depends on a context and stylistic characteristics.

6.6.3. English and Ukrainian Non-Equivalent Phraseological Units

The worldview characteristics of phraseology vividly manifests themselves first of all at the level of semantics. This level is the basic one in establishing correspondence between the English and Ukrainian non-equivalent phraseological units. The semantics of non-equivalent phraseological units encode information on unique features of language representatives: mode of their thinking (cognition), the ways they interpret the reality (conceptualization), the ways they provide their activities (culture), etc. From this viewpoint, non-equivalent phraseological units are considered to reveal no equivalence in the phraseological system of the other language.
There are three groups of non-equivalent phraseological units in English and Ukrainian.

A. Phraseological units of the source language that are rendered descriptively into the target language, cf.: *Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde* vs. людина, яка втілює в собі два початки: добре та зло; бити в (одну) точку and to concentrate on one thing.

The other way of such rendering is doing loan translation. Phraseological units of the source language are rendered by word for word translation, according to the norms of the target language, cf.: *value-added tax* vs. податок на додану вартість; надрати чуба vs. *pull somebody by the hair*.

It should be borne in mind that loan translation ought to represent the image, being acceptable and comprehensible to a native speaker. It should be as close as possible to the native speaker in its inner form, and agree with his / her worldview. For example, the English phraseological unit *as crafty as a rat*, rendered as підступний, як пацюк (щур), would not reflect its specificity (rats are said to have a premonition when a ship is about to sink, and leave it) in Ukrainian, as for the Ukrainians the concept of ‘rat’ is hardly associated with ‘craftiness, guile, treachery’. It is rather the concept of ‘snake’ that counts, cf.: вигодувати змію біля серця, вигріти змію за пазухою, відігріти змію коло серця "виявляти турботу, піклуватись про того, хто згодом віддячить злом"; лізти змію біля серця "виявляючи удавану люб'язність, приязнь до когось, добиватися його довір'я, прихильності"; hence, підступний, як змія might be a more appropriate equivalent.

B. Phraseological units of the source language are rendered by a word (monolexeme), with preserving the semantic correspondence in the target language, cf.: *to be out at elbows* “shabby, poorly dressed” vs. бідувати “жити в бідності, нудді, терпіти злидні, нестатки”; збити з пантелику “дезорієнтувати, заплутувати кого-небудь” vs. *confuse* “to bewilder and perplex”.

C. Phraseological units of the source language, whose semantics may be rendered into the target language either by means of a certain lexeme, word-combination or just descriptively. This type of phraseological units constitutes a mixed group, cf.: *to have the blues* “to feel sad” vs. хандрити, сумувати, бути у пригніченому стані; дивитися вовком “виявляти неприязне, вороже ставлення до кого-небудь” vs. *to scowl, to lower, to look surly* (morose, crusty), etc.
ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Characterize the syntagmatic approach to contrastive analysis.
2. Give the characteristics of semantic and syntactic actants.
3. Speak on phraseological units and their characteristic features.
4. Represent contrastive analysis of phraseological units:
   (a) phraseological equivalents;
   (b) phraseological analogues;
   (c) non-equivalent phraseological units.
EXERCISES

CHAPTER 1
FUNDAMENTALS OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY RESEARCH

Exercise 1. Establish correspondence of the English and Ukrainian words by their form and meaning:

- elbow-board – підвіконня
- free-thinker – вільнодумець
- advocate – адвокат
- helicopter – гелікоптер
- knight – лицар
- sylvan – лісовий
- kirk – церква
- чинуша – bureaucrat
- параметр – parameter
- материк – mainland
- геніальний – genial
- аспірант – aspirant
- вітрильник – sailing-ship
- стрий – uncle

Exercise 2. Establish and compare distributional patterns of the English and Ukrainian verbal collocations:

1. I like going on horseback vs. Я люблю їздити верхи.
2. Promotion goes by length of service vs. Просування по службі визначається стажем.
3. He had to fly the country vs. Йому довелося тікати з країни.
4. It came of being careless vs. Це сталося через необачність.
5. She was bowed with shame vs. Вона викривила очі від сорому.
6. They deceived him into giving them his money vs. Вони обманом змусили його віддати їм гроші.
7. I feel nothing intensely vs. Я сприймаю все спокійно.
8. All facts were laid before the committee vs. Комісії було представлено всі факти.
9. We read the telegram by code vs. Ми прочитали телеграму за допомогою коду.
10. He was taken to be smart vs. Його вважали розумним.

Exercise 3. Establish similarities and differences in the morphemic and derivational structures of the English-Ukrainian equivalents, using ICs analysis:

- teacher – вчитель; невиразність – inexpressiveness;
disadvantageously – несприятливо; перевантаження – transshipment;
misunderstanding – непорозуміння; сузір’я – constellation; participant – спільник; трав’янистий – grassy; recoverable – відшкодовуваний; безнадійний – hopeless; undenominational – неконфесійний.

Exercise 4. Establish and compare syntactic and semantic relations between the constituents of the English-Ukrainian equivalents, using Transformational Analysis:


Exercise 5. Establish similarities and differences of the English and Ukrainian words, using Componential Analysis:

CHAPTER 2
ONOMASIOLOGICAL ASPECT
OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

Exercise 1. Give the English words that denote sounds produced by the animals. Suggest their Ukrainian equivalents:

- cat – hen –
- dog – cricket –
- cow – pig –
- ox – bee –
- cock – duck –
- frog – snake –
- sheep – goose –
- crow – horse –

Exercise 2. Comment on the inner-form of the English and Ukrainian equivalents:

- window – вікно
- green – зелений
- woman – жінка
- bluet – волошка
- tree – дерево
- husband – чоловік

- січень – January
- білка – squirrel
- ведмідь – bear
- правда – truth
- голуб – pigeon
- тризуб – trident

Exercise 3. Establish types of onomasiological congruence of the English and Ukrainian equivalents:

- blood-red – криваво-червоний
- film-maker – кінорежисер
- Foot-Guards – гвардійська піхота
- hobby-horse – кінь-гоїдалка
- knee-cap – наколінник
- lawn-tennis – лаун-теніс
- loan-holder – позикодержатель
- bluegrass – тонконіг

- білоручка – kid-glove
- гострозорий – sharp-sighted
- жертвоприношення – oblation
- крововтрата – loss of blood
- білосніжний – snow-white
- серцеподібний – heart-shaped
- слабодухий – faint-hearted
- ширококрилий – large-winged
Exercise 4. Establish characteristic features of the English and Ukrainian non-equivalents:


Ukrainian: чорнобривець, синьоблузник, вовводух, винозір, труйзілля, білозір, великоможний, волосянка, дівчур, козачина, летючка, мальованка, мартопляс, носатка, паплянина, стільник, тезоіменитство, українофіл, холодник.

Exercise 5. Compare the English and Ukrainian equivalents that belong to the onomasiological categories of:

a) plants
bluebottle – волошка; молочай – whiteroot; snow-drop – підсніжник; первоцвіт – primrose; sun-flower – соняшник; восковик – bog-myrtle; wild-rose – шипшина; сокирки – larkspur; bluegrass – тонконіг; чорниця – blue-berry;

b) animals

c) physical activities
білити – whiten; medicate – лікувати; мазати (крейдою, фарбою) – whitewash; blacktop – гудронувати; в’ялити – dry-cure; кристалізувати – crystallize; bomb-destroy – бомбардувати;

d) professions
Exercise 6. Group the following words according to the type of borrowings and comment on them:

**English:** pysanka, world-famous, Hetman, kopiyka, dwell, blue-stocking, horilka, thing-in-itself, kobza, self-criticism, masterpiece, koliadky, Cossacks, dream;

**Ukrainian:** комбайн, декан, сейф, вагон, снайпер, нокаут, вакса, голкіпер, прем’єр-міністр, смокінг, хмарочос, фольклор, вельвет.

Exercise 7. Identify the languages the following expressions and shortenings are borrowed from. Translate them into Ukrainian:

1. coup d’état, kindergarten, tete-a-tete, Blitzkrieg, enfant terrible, persona grata, beau monde, leit-motiv, bon mot, prima donna, ottava rima, natzi.
2. etc., e.g., i.e., a.m., ibid., op.cit., vs., et al., C.V., AD, M.A., PhD.

Exercise 8. Establish correspondence of suffixes in the English and Ukrainian equivalents according to their:

a) origin:
   - вихователь – educator; movable – рухомий; приязь – friendliness; action – битва; гордина – arrogance; industrious – роботящий; багатство – richness; Olympiad – олімпіада; універсальний – universal; student – студент; акваріум – aquarium; sanatorium – санаторій; білизна – whiteness;

b) meaning:

Exercise 9. Establish correspondence of prefixes in the English and Ukrainian equivalents according to their:

a) origin:
   - antivirus – антивірус; возз’єднання – reunion; undernourishment – недоїдання; solitary – відлюдний; панслов’янський – Pan-Slavic; after-dinner – післяобідній; post-meridian – післяполудній;
perenasałeniy – overpopulated; withdrawal – wiedmikuyvannya; rozpowiadač – narrator; misinformation – dezinformatsiya;

b) meaning:

**Exercise 10. Compare the English and Ukrainian compounds by their structure and meaning:**


**Exercise 11. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian, paying attention to the cases of conversion:**

1. The waiter smiled politely as he handed my bill to me. 2. The child dogged me with her questions for the rest of the days. 3. The guests were eyeing the food and drink. 4. He carefully pocketed his change. 5. He’s rattled on us. 6. My brother was wolfing biscuits while he watched TV. 7. Ask the fishmonger to bone the fish for you. 8. John Travolta starred with a baby in the film ‘Look Who’s Talking’. 9. He squared his shoulders and took a deep breath. 10. We downed three enemy planes with our missiles.

**Exercise 12. Give the equivalents to the following abbreviations:**

Ukrainian: АЕС (атомна електрична станція); АК (автомат Калашникова); АПК (агарно-промисловий комплекс); АТС (автоматична телефонна станція); ВВП (валовий внутрішній продукт); ДПІ (державна податкова інспекція); ДТП (дорожньо-транспортна пригода); ЖЕК (житлово-експлуатаційна контора); ЗМІ
Exercise 13. Match the following Ukrainian and English clipped forms, where it is possible:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ukrainian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>зам</td>
<td>bike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>авто</td>
<td>photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ліза</td>
<td>spec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>спец</td>
<td>sub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>фізра</td>
<td>auto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>вело</td>
<td>Bess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>фото</td>
<td>phiz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 14. Explain the formation of the following blends:

**English**: slash, electrocute, galumph, fruice, chortle, pomato, twirl, good-bye.

**Ukrainian**: есмінець, аскофен, техогляд, фізмат, кандмініум, банкомат.

Exercise 15. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian, paying attention to the cases of back-formation:

1. When they returned they found that their home had been burgled (CIDE: 176).
2. He edits the local newspaper (CIDE: 441).
3. The boss asked for the letter to be typewritten.
4. We would like to fingerprint every one of your employees (CIDE: 522).
5. There are more and more homeless young people begging on the streets these days (CIDE: 113).
Exercise 16. Translate the sentences into English, paying attention to the cases of reduplication:

CHAPTER 3
SEMASIOLOGICAL ASPECT
OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

Exercise 1. Compare the English-Ukrainian equivalents by their cognitive meanings:


Exercise 2. Compare the English-Ukrainian zoosemic equivalents by their pragmatic meanings:


Exercise 3. Establish pragmatic meaning components of the Ukrainian words in bold type and suggest their English equivalents:

Exercise 4. Give modern equivalents to the following archaic words:

**English:** albeit, anon, aught, billow, brine, charger, clad, dire, eke, ere, even, hallowed, ire, morn, oft, quoth, spouse, sooth, troth, vernal, wight;

**Ukrainian:** балії, баяти, буй, вазнь, галити, головник, гудець, звідець, кріс, лельо, марець, паздерник, потяти, правотар, весь, вагадло.

Exercise 5. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian, paying attention to the neologisms in bold type:

1. It’s time to consider how we can make e-life happen without leaving anyone behind (Newsweek, Nov. 8, 1999). 2. In the 1980s he also chaired a blue-ribbon panel that came to be known as the Brandt Commission (Newsweek, Oct. 19, 1992). 3. Shopping on the Internet is booming. And Amazon is the best known e-tailer...Yet the conclusion that there is no difference between e-tail and retail is overblown (Economist, 1 July, 2000). 4. For just over 14 earthdays the sun will not shine on the barren surface of the Sea of Rains, where the Lunokhod began its historic mission last Tuesday (The Times, Nov. 24, 1970). 5. Identity thieves are aware that credit card companies and banks will demand documentation to prove who they are (USA Today, Jan. 16, 2001). 6. But Chappaquiddick seems different, and many politicians say it will be impossible for Kennedy to overcome. “It will still be an albatross around his neck in 1984”, says the chairman of the Democratic Party in Texas (Newsweek, Aug. 25, 1980). 7. Look, up in the sky, it’s a whole new dot-economy (Economist, Nov. 18, 2000). 8. Officialese is a lofty pretension of beaurocrats which instead of eliminating ambiguity conceals and confuses (The New York Times Magazine, Dec. 16, 1978). 9. I encountered Galston during a mini press conference in the ivy-covered, Oxbridgian atmosphere of Yale (New Scientist and Science Journal, June 17, 1971). 10. “Webucation” is the great new market of the internet age and companies – from the giants of the media sector to dotcom start-ups – are clamouring to be in the right place at the right time (Financial Times, Sep. 17, 2000).
Exercise 6. Give the English equivalents to the Ukrainian historical words:

боюрин, князь, магнат, воєвода, кріпацтво, панщина, шляхта, гайдук, пристав, сотник, віче, чумак, булава, колчан, лати, мушкет, рогатина, жупан, шаг, лікоть, половці, десятина, вельможа, челядь, владика, голота, сагайдак.

Exercise 7. Determine the English and Ukrainian words by their ethical reference and suggest their equivalents:

Ukrainian: вигадувати; нечистий; поважного віку; який важить більше норми; навіки спочити; Новоутворення; під градусом; немудрий.

English: deuce, dickens; expectorate; to pass away; unwise; in the family way; perspiration; to refresh oneself; retiring room; loan-office; memorial park; indigestion; deranged.

Exercise 8. Provide the words of common use for the following dialectal words:

English: brass; to lake; nivver; summat; nowt; baccy; mich; mun; aye; yellow;

Ukrainian: крумплі; жалива; мелай; хрунь; калачики; линва; киря; льоха; сон.

Exercise 9. Establish types of “elevated” words in the following sentences. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian:

1. We must wait until the morrow. 2. Yonder breaks a new and glorious morn. 3. The English term olive derives from the Latin word oliva. 4. The advantage of a being a backbencher is that you can speak your mind. 5. It was Harold Wilson who penned the bon mot that “one man’s wage increase is another man’s price increase”. 6. It’s possible to break a piece of wood using a karate chop. 7. If the plant has been infected you will see dark protuberances along the stems. 8. I allowed your last credit transfer to Homemakers Ltd. to pass as you have a large credit balance on your deposit account. 9. Representative Gerry Studds, referring to himself and a number of his colleagues, recently remarked that “For us, it is conventional wisdom that the President of the US lies”. 10. Chemical analysis revealed a high content of copper.
Exercise 10. Establish types of “degraded” words in the following sentences. Translate the sentences into English:


Exercise 11. Compare the English and Ukrainian words by the semantic equivalence coefficient:


Exercise 12. Establish types of semantic congruence of the following English and Ukrainian words:


Exercise 13. Establish similarities and differences in the semantics of the English and Ukrainian colour names, proceeding from Prototype Theory:

WHITE – БІЛИЙ; GREY – СІРИЙ; BLACK – ЧОРНИЙ; BROWN – КОРИЧНЕВИЙ; YELLOW – ЖОВТИЙ; PINK – РОЖЕВИЙ; PURPLE – ПУРПУРНИЙ; GREEN – ЗЕЛЕНИЙ; BLUE – СИНІЙ.
CHAPTER 4
EPIDIGMATIC ASPECT
OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

Exercise 1. Compare the English and Ukrainian equivalents by the hierarchy of their lexico-semantic variants:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Ukrainian</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>article</td>
<td>стаття</td>
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<tr>
<td>center</td>
<td>центр</td>
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<tr>
<td>cold</td>
<td>холод</td>
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<td>брудний</td>
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<td>чесний</td>
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<td>плече</td>
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<tr>
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<td>інструмент</td>
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<td>window</td>
<td>вікно</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero</td>
<td>нуль</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 2. Establish and compare types of semantic change (metaphor/metonymy) of the Ukrainian and English equivalents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Ukrainian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arrow</td>
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<td>wing</td>
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<td>warm</td>
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<td>індик</td>
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<td>двірник</td>
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<td>стопа</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 3. Identify types of idealized cognitive models that underlie the English and Ukrainian lexical items:

**English:** to summer in Paris; driver; to porch the newspaper; the pen; to hear the whistle; camembert; Waterloo; Cambridge won’t publish the book.

**Ukrainian:** кулі просвистіли; бордо; почути дзвін; Іловайськ; мати Форд; включити тепло; одружитися на грошах; молоко впало.

Exercise 4. Instantiate the following subcategories with English and Ukrainian lexical items and compare them:

- stereotypes,
- typical examples,
- ideals,
- paragons,
- generators,
- submodels,
- salient examples.
Exercise 5. Establish correspondence of cognitive metaphors in English and Ukrainian:

ARGUMENT IS WAR vs. СПІРКА – ЦЕ ВІЙНА
СЛОВА – ЦЕ ЗБРОЯ vs. WORDS ARE WEAPONS
TIME IS MONEY vs. ЧАС – ЦЕ ГРОШІ
ЩАСТЯ ЗВЕРХУ vs. HAPPY IS UP
LIFE IS A GAMBLING GAME vs. ЖИТТЯ – ЦЕ АЗАРТНА ГРА
МОЗОК – ЦЕ МЕХАНІЗМ vs. THE BRAIN IS A MECHANISM

Exercise 6. Establish and compare types of polysemy in the following equivalents:

symbol – символ; стіл – table; ripe – дозрілий; зерно – grain; sharp – гострий; бідний – poor; native – рідний; сіль – salt; secret – секрет; скромний – modest; whistle – свистіти; холод – cold; гордий – proud; dense – густий.

Exercise 7. Identify the processes of specialization or generalization of meaning in the following English and Ukrainian words:

English: arrive, pipe, meat, room, season, deer, hound, house, hooligan, starve, girl, lady, wife, place, fruit, voyage;

Ukrainian: бігун, вихователь, обвинувач, плавець, слухач, квас, гарант, висуванець, зав’язати, доносити, смертник, коктейль, стріляти.

Exercise 8. Identify the processes of elevation or degradation of meaning in the following Ukrainian and English words:

Ukrainian: сатрап, королева, лицедій, лицар, клоун, халтура, вітрогін;

English: poison, marshal, idiot, knight, knave, villain, fond, Tory, clown, lord, gossip, nice, silly, queen.
Exercise 9. Establish the meanings of the enatiosemic Ukrainian words in bold type. Translate the sentences into English:


Exercise 10. Establish correspondence of the following homonyms in English and Ukrainian:

**English:** club :: club; tap :: tap; tic :: tick; knot :: knot; metre :: metre; pain :: pane; light :: light; bar :: bar; gull :: gull; tail :: tale; course :: coarse;

**Ukrainian:** пікет :: пікет; лист :: лист; гама :: гамма; бум :: бум; виборний :: виборний; діти :: діти; качка :: качка; ключ :: ключ; лежи :: лижи.

Exercise 11. Explain the meanings of the following cross-linguistic homonyms:

Exercise 12. Establish semantic relations of paronyms in bold type. Translate the sentences:

**English:** 1. She’s an excellent student – bright, attentive and conscientious (CIDE: 289). I’m waiting until the hospital says she’s conscious before I visit her again (CIDE: 289). 2. Physicians and attorneys can be good role models (CIDE: 1061). Two physicists said they had discovered how to make energy by cold fusion (CIDE: 1061). 3. Canals were the main method of transporting goods until the mid-19th century (CIDE: 188). We tried digging a channel to lower the water level but that didn’t work (CIDE: 215). 4. The number of emigrants from the UK to other EU countries is set to rise dramatically over the next few years (CIDE: 450). Illegal immigrants are sent back across the border if they are caught (CIDE: 706).

CHAPTER 5
PARADIGMATIC ASPECT
OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

Exercise 1. Find and compare the English and Ukrainian synonyms by their connotations within the following concepts:

SHY / СОРОМ'ЯЗЛИВИЙ; ЧИСТИЙ / CLEAN; FREEDOM / СВОБОДА; KILL / ВБИВАТИ; ЗАКРИВАТИ / CLOSE; OBSERVE / СПОСТЕРІГАТИ; STEAL / КРАСТИ; HEALTHY / ЗДОРОВИЙ; LARGE / ВЕЛИКИЙ.

Exercise 2. Establish similarities and differences of synonyms within the following synonymic groups:

semantic proper distinctions
Ukrainian: любити, жалувати, дихати, кохати, полюбляти, обожнювати
English: love, adore, cherish, treasure, desire, like, worship, idolize

evaluative distinctions
English: stir, flurry, fuss, ado
Ukrainian: метушність, суета, крутання, розгардіяш

associative distinctions
Ukrainian: уява, фантазія, виображення
English: imagination, fancy, fantasy

logical distinctions
English: guard, safeguard, watch (over)
Ukrainian: охороняти, сторожити, пильнувати

Exercise 3. Compare the English and Ukrainian antonyms by their:

a) semantics:
power – inability :: weakness :: subjection || сила – кволість :: слабкість :: безпомічність; добро – зло :: лихо || good – harm :: evil; big – small :: insignificant :: mean :: humble || великий – малий ::
Exercise 4. Match the English and Ukrainian hyperonyms with the corresponding hyponyms:

- to stay – hover
- to sleep – straddle
- to lie – recline
- to stand – snooze
- to sit – live
- to hang – perch

- пересуватися – кроїти
- говорити – голосити
- готувати – копотіти
- різати – смажити
- бігти – жебоніти
- плакати – рачкувати

Exercise 5. Carry out contrastive analysis of the English and Ukrainian lexicons within the following semantic fields:

- HEALTH – ЗДОРОВ’Я; ZLOCHIN – CRIME; JOURNEY – ПОДОРОЖ; OCVITA – EDUCATION; EMOTIONS – ЕМОЦІЇ; ПОГОДА – WEATHER.
CHAPTER 6
SYNTAGMATIC ASPECT
OF CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

Exercise 1. Establish the collocations of the following adjectives and compare them:

long vs. довгий; short vs. короткий; high vs. високий; nuclear vs. ядерний; fast vs. швидкий; key vs. ключовий; dry vs. сухий; weak vs. слабкий; huge vs. величезний; nasty vs. огідний; nervous vs. нервовий; blind vs. сліпий; flat vs. плоский.

Exercise 2. Establish the contextual and dictionary meanings of the italicized words. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian:

1. He does all our insurance examining and they say he’s some doctor. 2. We toolewed the car into the street and eased it into the ruck of folks. 3. He inched the car forward. 4. He sat with the strike committee for many hours in a smoky room and agonized over ways and means. 5. When the food came, they wolfed it down rapidly. 6. “Don’t be an idiot, Bill. Things are happening”. 7. He seemed prosperous, extremely married and unromantic. 8. We drifted into a sort of understanding, I suppose I should call it an engagement. 9. “What do you think?” The question pops their heads up. 10. Betty loosed fresh tears.

Exercise 3. Identify semantic and syntactic actants of the italicized words. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian:

1. Mary fell over. 2. John killed Harry. 3. John felt happy. 4. John got Mary a present. 5. John went home. 6. John smelled her perfume. 7. David cooked the meat. 8. The sun melted the ice. 9. David filled in the form for his grandmother. 10. David passed the ball. 11. They signed the treaty with the same pen. 12. Edna handed her licence to the policeman. 13. We got the idea from a magazine. 14. The fox jumped out of the ditch. 15. The book is in the library. 16. It is raining.
Exercise 4. Classify the phraseological units:

**English:** bit by bit; a black sheep; angelic patience; a balmy voice; baking weather; Augean stable; all ales and skittles; after meat comes mustard; a battle of the books; once in a blue moon; under the rose; to fall into a rage; to come home; to make an attempt; to offer an apology; to meet the demand; to take something for granted; to stick to one’s word; to stick at nothing; gospel truth; bosom friends; bosom friend; to get in touch with; a mare’s nest; to show the white feather; to ride the high horse; to come a cropper; neck and crop; the last drop/straw; a big bug/pot; a fish out of water; to turn over a new leaf; to dance on a tight rope; to play the first fiddle; old salt.

**Ukrainian:** піймати облизня; терпець увірвався; ні в сих ні в тих; теревені правити; тримати камінь за пазухою; ложка дьогтю в бочці меду; намилити шию; стерти в порошок; замилювати очі; зробити з мухи слона; загрібати жар чужими руками; дати перцю; дати гарбуза; обмити руки; море по коліна; не всі дома; не по конях, то по голоблях; розводити руки здобути перемогу; деликатне питання; насупити брови; згорати з сорому; зачепити за живе; важка вода; бронхіальна астма; брати участь; вжити заходів.

Exercise 5. Carry out contrastive analysis of the following English and Ukrainian phraseological units:

**colours**

чорним по білому – black and white; out of the blue – як грім серед ясного неба; get the blues – хандрити; берегти на чорний день – put for a rainy day; catch someone red-handed – спіймати на гарячому; позеленіти від заздрості – turn green with envy; be green – молодий та зелений; дати зелену вулицю – give the green light (to); blue blood – “блакитна кров”, аристократичне походження; серед білого дня – in broad daylight; in the pink – в розквіті сил; бачити в чорному світлі – see everything in the worst light (look through black glasses); browned off – незадоволений;

**weather**

bucket with rain – лити як з відра; золотий дощ – shower of gold; pure as the driven snow – чиста як немовля (особливо про дівчину); як
Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Ukrainian Languages

сніг на голову – like a bolt from the blue; break the ice – розбить кригу; бачити щось неначе в тумані – see something through the mist; every cloud has a silver lining – немає лиха без добра; буря в склянці води – tempest in a teapot; like greased lightning – як стріла; напустити туману – mystify;

time
buy time – вигравати час; змусити когось попотіти – give someone a rough time; roll back the years – повернутися думками до минулого; з року в рік – from year to year; Season’s Greetings – з Різдвом Христовим; бабине літо – Indian summer; the best days of your life – найкращі дні чийсьо життя; ясно як день – it’s plain as a bumble-bee on a fried egg; as if there’s no tomorrow – не думаючи про наслідки; не сьогодні-завтра – any day now; till all hours – до світанку;

life and death
боротися не на життя, а на смерть – fight to the death; at death’s door – на порозі смерті; питання життя і смерті – the matter of life and death; dice with death – грати з життям та смертю; вчепитися мертвою хваткою – hold on like grim death; worried to death – дуже хвилюватися; підписати собі смертний вирок – sign your own death warrant; high life – аристократичне суспільство; видихнути життя у щось – breathe life into something; life is a bowl of cherries – щасливе життя; таке життя – such is life;

animals
a dog’s life – собаче життя; жити, як кішка з собакою – fight like cat and dog; top dog – людина чи сторона, що сильніша або перебуває в кращому стані; гратись з кимсь як кіт з мишкою – play cat-and-mouse with someone; horse sense – здоровий глух; хід конем – decisive move; flog a dead horse – носити воду решетом; вставати з півнями – rise with the lark; the donkey work – чорнова робота; здоровий як бик – as strong as a horse; make a pig of yourself – обїдатися; кіт у мішку – a pig in a poke; get someone’s goat – розсердити когось;

body
bang your head against the wall – як горохом об стіну; з голови до п’ят – from head to foot (toe); use your head – міркувати; і оком не моргнути – not turn a hair; a hair’s breadth – висіти на волосині; лихе
Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Ukrainian Languages

око – the evil eye; all my eye and Betty Martin – дурниця; впадати в око – catch someone’s eyes; private eye – приватний детектив; по самі вуха – up to your eyeballs; disappear off the face of the earth – зникнути з лица землі; втрачати своє обличчя – lose face; take at face value – приймати щось за чисту монету; грати на слух – play it by ear; down in the mouth – сумний; з перших рук – at first hand; dab hand – зуби з’єсти на чомусь; і пальцем не кивне – not lift a finger;

mind

спадати на думку – cross someone’s mind; a dirty mind – розбещений, морально зіпсований; задня думка – ulterior motive; go out of your mind – з’їхати з глузду; мати щось на думці – on someone’s mind; state of mind – душевний стан; подати думку – give an idea; in two minds – вагатися; to my mind – на мою думку; не мати й копійки за душею – not to have a penny to bless oneself; take your mind off something – відвертати чиїсь думки від когось, чогось; вискочити з пам’яті – slip someone’s mind; keep an open mind – не мати упередження проти когось, чогось; у глибині душі – in one’s heart of hearts; mind over matter – перемога духу над плоттю;

relations

run in the family – бути спадковим; матусин синок – a mother’s boy; be mother – розливати чай гостям; дитячі іграшки – child’s play; sleep like a baby – спати без задніх нір; у чому мати народила – mother naked; like father like son – яке коріння, таке й насіння;

food

milk the bull – займатися марною справою; у нього ще молоко на губах не обсохло – he is still in his salads days; big cheese – велике цабе; як сир у маслі – in clover; bad egg – погана людина; яйця курку не вчать – don’t teach your grandmother to suck eggs; butter wouldn’t melt in one’s mouth – і мухи не скривдить; все піде як по маслу – it will go on greased wheels; your bread and butter – хліб насущний; передати куті меду – go too far; the salt of the earth – сіль землі; ні риба, ні м’ясо – neither fish, flesh nor good red herring.

weapons

jump the gun – почати щось передчасно; понюхати пороху – smell powder; keep your powder dry – бути напоготові; вогнем і мечем – by
fire and sword; whet one's sword – точити меч; це йому як ніж у серце – it is death to him; look daggers – дивитися вовком; мчати стрілою – fly like a shot;

**numbers**

один одного вартий – one is as good as the other; one over the eight – напідпитку; одинадцятьим номером – on foot; a thousand and one – безліч; у двох словах – in a word; fifty-fifty – порівну; через п’яте на десяте – skip over; at sixes and sevens – збентежений; у нього сім п’ятниць на тиждень – he keeps changing his mind; dressed up to the nines – виряджений, як на весілля; за тридев’ять земель – at the world’s end; ten to one – десть шансів проти одного; на сьомому небі – in seventh heaven; six of one and half a dozen of the other – Не вмер Данило, так болячка задавила;

**games and sports**

play a waiting game – вичікувати; грати на нервах – play on one’s nerves; play the game – діяти чесно; залишити козиря в запасі – have a card up in one’s sleeve; in the running – мати шанси на успіх; жереб кинуто – the dice is cast.
1. Congruence of the contrasted words in form and meaning.
2. Type of onomasiological congruence (total congruence / partial congruence / total incongruence / non-equivalent words).
3. The inner-form of the contrasted words.
4. Type of word-formation:
   a) derivation:
      – type of derivation (suffixation / prefixation);
      – congruence by the affix origin (reciprocal congruence / one-sided congruence);
      – congruence by the affix semantics (semantically congruous / semantically incongruous / non-equivalent affixes);
   b) compounding:
      – according to the structure (compound proper / derivational compound);
      – according to the way the ICs link together (juxtaposition / morphologically / syntactically);
      – according to the semantics (non-idiomatic / idiomatic; endocentric / exocentric);
   c) abbreviation (acronym / initialism);
   d) clipping (apocope / syncope / apheresis / mixed).
5. Type of semantic equivalence (coincidence / partial coincidence / inclusion / overlap / exclusion).
6. Semantic Equivalence (equivalence coefficient)
7. Cognitive meaning of the word (contension / extension; intension / implication).
8. Pragmatic meaning of the word (emotive / evaluative / expressive / stylistic).
9. Stylistic component:
   a) stylistic differentiation:
      – temporal reference (archaisms / historical words / neologisms);
      – ethical reference (taboo words / euphemisms);
      – local reference (dialecticisms);
   b) functional differentiation:
      – elevated lexicon (folklore vocabulary / scientific vocabulary / officialese / publicist vocabulary / terms / professionalisms / barbarisms / exotic words / poetic words);
      – degraded lexicon (literary colloquial words / popular language / slang words / jargon words / vulgarisms / argot).
10. **Polysemy:**
a) hierarchy of the lexico-semantic variants;
b) type of polysemy (concatenation / radiation / mixed type).

11. **Types of semantic change:**
a) metonymy (synecdoche);
b) metaphor (functional transfer / synaesthetic transfer);

12. **Processes and results of semantic change:**
a) specialization or generalization of meaning;
b) elevation or degradation of meaning.

13. **Homonymy:**
a) type of homonymy (absolute / partial: homographs and homophones / etymological / word-building / semantic);
b) type of homonymous correspondence (total / partial / potential).


15. **Semantic field structure** (paradigm / chains / cycles / helices / ranks / grades / degrees / network / frame).

16. **Hyponymy** (hyperonym / hyponym / co-hyponyms).

17. **Synonymy:**
a) type of synonymy (absolute / ideographic / stylistic / mixed);
b) correspondence of synonyms (types of connotations).

18. **Antonymy:**
a) type of antonymy (contrary / vector / contradictory / converse);
b) evaluative antonyms (polar / overlapping / equipollent);
c) structural antonyms (cognate / non-cognate).

19. **Syntagmatic relations** (distribution / context / valence).

20. **Phraseological units:**
a) type of phraseological unit (phraseological fusion / phraseological unity / phraseological collocation / phraseological expression);
b) correspondence of phraseological units:
   – phraseological equivalents (total / partial);
   – phraseological analogues (total / partial);
   – non-equivalent phraseological units.
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Oleh Demenchuk

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