

МІЖРЕГІОНАЛЬНА  
АКАДЕМІЯ УПРАВЛІННЯ ПЕРСОНАЛОМ



МАУП

**МЕТОДИЧНІ МАТЕРІАЛИ  
ЩОДО ЗАБЕЗПЕЧЕННЯ САМОСТІЙНОЇ  
РОБОТИ СТУДЕНТІВ**

**з дисципліни**

**“ПОРІВНЯЛЬНА ГРАМАТИКА  
(англійська мова та українська мова)”**

**(для бакалаврів)**

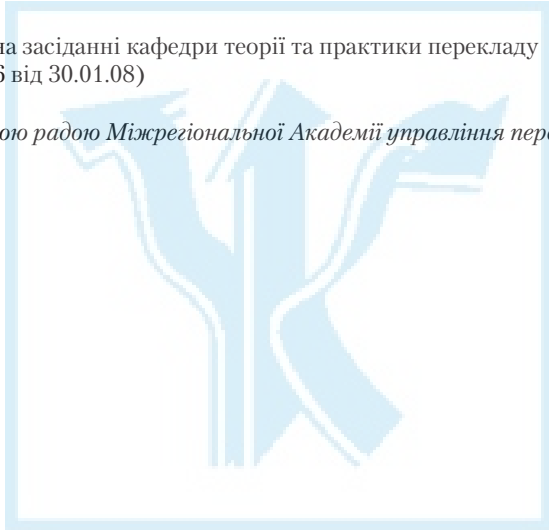
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Підготовлено доцентом кафедри теорії та практики перекладу  
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Затверджено на засіданні кафедри теорії та практики перекладу  
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**МАУП**

**Яковенчук О. А.** Методичні матеріали щодо забезпечення самостійної роботи студентів з дисципліни “Порівняльна граматики (англійська мова та українська мова)” (для бакалаврів). — К.: ДП «Вид. дім «Персонал», 2008. — 43 с.

Методичні матеріали містять пояснювальну записку, питання для самоконтролю, а також список літератури.

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## ПОЯСНЮВАЛЬНА ЗАПИСКА

**Мета і завдання дисципліни** — розкрити основні граматичні трансформації при здійсненні перекладу за відсутності граматичних еквівалентів у зіставлених мовах; домагатися від студентів вільного оперування граматичними структурами як у писемному, так і в усному мовленні та вживання граматичних форм на рівні автоматизму; навчити студентів розпізнавати граматичні явища під час читання або сприйняття тексту на слух і вміти пояснювати вживання тієї чи іншої граматичної конструкції та співвідносити її з певною комунікативною функцією.

Сформованість граматичних навичок студентів відображається через вміння висловлювати власні думки в усній чи письмовій формі відповідно до норм англійської та української мов.

### Вимоги до знань і вмінь студентів

Студенти повинні *знати*:

- базові поняття та категорії морфології і синтаксису англійської та української мов;
- характер парадигматичних і синтагматичних зв'язків в обох мовах;
- видо-часові форми англійської та української мов, їх утворення та особливості вживання; відмінності в категорії виду та способи його передачі у зіставлених мовах;
- систему узгодження часів в англійській мові та правила їх відтворення в українській мові;
- модальні дієслова/слова, їх значення та функції в англійській та українській мовах, а також лексичні та граматичні способи передачі модальності з однієї мови в іншу;
- систему та форми вираження нереальності в порівнюваних мовах, вживання основних мовленнєвих моделей умовного способу дієслова, відмінності в дієслівній категорії способу та мовні засоби її відтворення у зіставлених мовах;
- безособові форми дієслова в англійській та українській мовах, характер заміщення синтаксичних функцій нефінітних форм дієслова у зіставлених мовах;
- базові категорії іменника англійської мови порівняно з українською;
- категоріальні парадигми прикметників і прислівників англійської та української мов, способи утворення ступенів порівняння прикметників і прислівників у порівнюваних мовах;

- системи англійських та українських числівників і займенників, їх категоріальні відмінності та мовні засоби вираження семантичних ознак і категорій числівників і займенників у зіставлених мовах;
- систему службових частин англійської мови порівняно з українською, засоби передачі міжтекстових зв'язків і відношень у порівнюваних мовах;
- основні принципи побудови речення; способи вираження головних і другорядних членів речення, сурядності/підрядності та форм синтаксичного зв'язку в порівнюваних мовах;

*уміти:*

- вільно оперувати граматичними формами та конструкціями англійської та української мов в усному та писемному мовленні;
- розпізнавати граматичні явища та вміти їх адекватно відтворювати чи замінювати в мові перекладу;
- розрізняти граматичні структури та явища під час сприйняття тексту на слух;
- перекладати з української мови на англійську і навпаки з урахуванням особливостей будови обох мов;
- здійснювати граматичний перекладознавчий аналіз тексту;
- вдосконалювати розуміння студентами мовних універсалій, базових понять дисципліни, виявляти типологічні ознаки порівнювальних граматичних явищ, розпізнавати ізо- та аломорфні ознаки у граматичних системах обох мов і розвивати навички володіння граматичною будовою порівнювальних мов.

### **Самостійна робота студентів**

Комплексне навчання граматики англійської мови передбачає розвиток у студентів навичок самостійної роботи, що включає:

- опрацювання тем, що виносяться на самостійне вивчення;
- виконання домашніх завдань (лексико-граматичні вправи, письмові переклади, граматичні вправи на відтворення та трансформацію, складання діалогів і монологів з використанням активного граматичного матеріалу);
- підготовка до письмових робіт.

### **Форми поточного та підсумкового контролю**

Система контролю складається з поточних, рубіжних і підсумкових етапів.

*Поточним* контролем є усне фронтальне опитування на практичних заняттях для оцінювання рівня засвоєння студентами теоретичного матеріалу та якості виконаних практичних завдань.

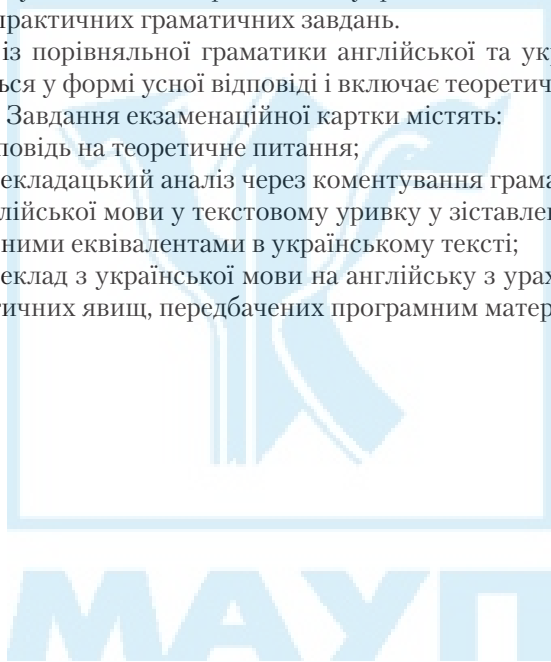
*Рубіжний* контроль здійснюється у формі тестів, які охоплюють питання вивчених тем.

*Підсумковим* контролем є складання іспиту, якому передують підсумкова тестова робота.

Підсумкова тестова робота виконується на заключному етапі вивчення курсу і передбачає оцінювання рівня знань граматики англійської мови у зіставленні з граматикою української мови та якості виконання практичних граматичних завдань.

*Іспит* із порівняльної граматики англійської та української мов проводиться у формі усної відповіді і включає теоретичні і практичні завдання. Завдання екзаменаційної картки містять:

- відповідь на теоретичне питання;
- перекладацький аналіз через коментування граматичних явищ англійської мови у текстовому уривку у зіставленні з їх граматичними еквівалентами в українському тексті;
- переклад з української мови на англійську з урахуванням граматичних явищ, передбачених програмним матеріалом курсу.



## ***SUBJECT OF CONTRASTIVE TYPOLOGY***

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

### ***Розділ 1***

## **PRACTICAL AIMS AND TASKS OF CONTRASTIVE TYPOLOGY**

The results obtained in any branch of typological investigation can be usefully employed both in theoretical linguistics and in teaching practices. Thus, the all-embracing final results of universal and general typologies could help to successfully perform a scientifically substantiated general classification of languages. The results of structural typology could usefully help in creating scientifically well-grounded theoretical as well as practical phonetics/phonologies, grammars, lexicologies, stylistics and dictionaries of various languages, fit study of characteristogical and partial (aspects) typology would acquaint the students with the fundamentals of this modern branch of linguistics in general and with some of its principal methods of analysis in particular. A contrastive typological treatment of the main phonetical/phonological, lexical and grammatical features/phenomena, available or unavailable in the corresponding systems of the foreign language/languages and in die native tongue, will provide the students not only with the linguistic results necessary for their successful methodological work at school, but also with me understanding of a systemic organization of all languages.

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

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

2. ***Near universals*** i. e. features or phenomena common in many or some languages under typological investigation.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## Methods of Investigation in Contrastive Typology

Contrastive typological investigations are carried out with the help of several methods. The main one is the *comparative method*, which is also employed in historical and comparative linguistics. Nevertheless, the final aims of contrastive typological linguistics and of historical and comparative linguistics differ greatly. The latter aims at establishing the parent language and the former at establishing the isomorphic (alongside of allomorphic) features, the dominant features and on their basis the establishment of structural types of languages under contrastive investigation. Comparing of isomorphic features and phenomena can very often be performed both with the help of the *deductive* and the *inductive* methods. The deductive method is based on logical computation/calculation which *suggests* all admissible variants of realization of a certain feature/ phenomenon in speech of one or of some contrasted languages. For example, the existence of the attributive AN and NA structure word-group patterns in English and Ukrainian is indisputable.

Common are also the dAN and the dDAN patterns in English and Ukrainian. Rarer, though quite possible, are also ANd or DANd patterns word-groups, eg:

Ukrainian word-groups of both these patterns regularly occur in speech. Cf.

The deductive computation helps find some other transforms of the ANd pattern with the post-positional pronoun determiner as in the word-group.

Consequently, the deductive method of analysis can be rather helpful in contrastive typological investigations, and not only when contrasting syntactic level units or phenomena. Much more often employed in contrastive typology is the *inductive method* which needs no verification whatsoever, since the investigated feature/phenomenon was proved already by the preceding generations of researcher linguists. Due to this the reliability of the results or data provided by the inductive method is indisputable. An example of thus obtained results may be the qualitative characteristics of vowels in some European languages (Table 1). These results had been obtained by the preceding researchers long ago and are simply taken from the corresponding phonetics bona fide by everybody interested in the nature of vowel sounds in the mentioned languages. The deductive and inductive methods can be successful when employed in the contrastive typological investigations of other than phonetic language units and phenomena as well. This is equally true concerning other methods of investigation employed in contrastive typology.



Among them the following should be mentioned: the *statistic method*, the *immediate constituents [ICs] method*, the *transformational* and the *substitutional method*, and some others. The *statistic method* is employed in contrastive typology for establishing the necessary quantitative and qualitative representation of some features or languages data, for identifying the percentage of co-occurrence of some features/phenomena or language units in the contrasted languages. For example, to establish the representation of the combinability of different classes of consonants with vowels in the contrasted languages; to establish the combinability of consonants and vowels in the initial, middle and closing positions of syllables in the contrasted languages; to establish the co-occurrence of different classes of words in speech in the contrasted languages; to establish the correlation of different types of morphemes in the contrasted languages, etc.

**The ICs (immediate constituents)** method is employed to contrast *only language units* with the aim of establishing their constituent parts in one or some contrasted languages. These may be consonantal and vocalic components in words or syllables, the morphemic components of words, as well as parts of syntactic units. For example, the word *garden* consists of six letters (g, a, r, d, e, n) forming one root morpheme and the sounds [g, a, d, n] forming two syllables [ga: dn]. The first of them is an open covered syllable and the other is a consonantal CC syllable. At the morphological level the ICs method helps establish the componental morphemes in words of the contrasted languages. Thus, the noun *writings* consists of three ICs: writ/ing/s i. e. a root morphem (writ), a suffix (-ing) and the ending (-s). A similar ICs analysis can be observed in Ukrainian.

The ICs method is often employed to single out constituent parts of the syntactic level units both at sentence level and at word-group level. Thus, the sentence *He learns many new words every week* can be subdivided into the following constituent word-groups:

1) *He learns* (predicative word-group); 2) *many new words* (attributive word-group);

2) *every week* (adverbial word-group). At word-group level a further splitting is observed: He / learns; many / new // words; every/ week. The Ukrainian equivalent of this sentence has the same types of word-groups with the identical division into ICs.

**The transformational** method is more often employed than the ICs method. Also it is more helpful when identifying the nature of some language unit in a contrasted language. Its reliability is clearly proved through translation, which is always the best transformation of any language unit.

In short, any transformation is a form of expressing some definite meaning. The transformational method is employed: a) to identify the nature of a language unit in the source language or in the target language. b) Transformation may reveal the difference in the form of expression in the contrasted languages.

Much more often employed in contrastive typology is the **inductive method** which needs no verification whatsoever, since the investigated feature/phenomenon was proved already by the preceding generations of researcher linguists. Due to this the reliability of the results or data provided by the inductive method is indisputable. An example of thus obtained results may be the qualitative characteristics of vowels in some European languages (Table 1).

Quality	English	Ukrainian	Russian	French	German	Spanish
front	+	+	+	+	+	+
central	+	-	+	-	+	+
back	+	+	+	+	+	+
long	+	+	+	+		
diphthongized	+	-	-	+	+	
labialized	+	+	+	+	+	+
nasalized	+	+	+	+		

**The deductive and inductive methods** can be successful when employed in the contrastive typological investigations of other than phonetic language units and phenomena as well. This is equally true concerning other methods of investigation employed in contrastive typology. Among them the following should be mentioned: the **statistic method**, the **immediate constituents [ICs] method**, the **transformational** and the **substitutional method**, and some others. The **statistic method** is employed in contrastive typology for establishing the necessary quantitative and qualitative representation of some features or languages data, for identifying the percentage of co-occurrence of some features/phenomena or language units in the contrasted languages. For example, to establish the representation of the combinability of different classes of consonants with vowels in the contrasted languages; to establish the combinability of consonants and vowels in the initial, middle and closing positions of syllables in the contrasted languages; to establish the co-occurrence of different classes of words in speech in the contrasted languages; to establish the correlation of different types of morphemes in the contrasted languages, etc.

**The ICs (immediate constituents)** method is employed to contrast *only language units* with the aim of establishing their constituent parts in

one or some contrasted languages. These may be consonantal and vocalic components in words or syllables, the morphemic components of words, as well as parts of syntactic units. For example, the word *garden* consists of six letters (g, a, r, d, e, n) forming one root morpheme and the sounds [g, a, d, n] forming two syllables [ga: dn]. The first of them is an open covered syllable and the other is a consonantal CC syllable. At the morphological level the ICs method helps establish the componental morphemes in words of the contrasted languages.

**The transformational method** is more often employed than the ICs method. Also it is more helpful when identifying the nature of some language unit in a contrasted language. Its reliability is clearly proved through translation, which is always the best transformation of any language unit. In short, any transformation is a form of expressing some definite meaning. The transformational method is employed: a) to identify the nature of a language unit in the source language or in the target language. Thus, the type of the Ukrainian sentence may be understood and treated differently.

Apart from these some other methods of analysis are helpful for the establishment of structural or semantic isomorphisms and allomorphisms in the contrasted languages. Among these is also the *contrastive linguistic method*, which is usually employed to investigate a restricted number of genealogically related or non-related languages. The object of contrastive linguistics in general is the meaning, form and functioning of certain language units, their features or phenomena [10]. Unlike contrastive typology, contrastive linguistics does not treat language features or phenomena with the aim of establishing isomorphic or allomorphic features and universals. Divergent features and phenomena in the languages under contrastive linguistic investigation are considered to be irregularities or exceptions to some general rules. The aim of contrastive linguistics has never been to establish systemic relations on a global scale, or to establish universal features. Despite all this, the **contrastive linguistic method**, when employed both synchronically and diachronically, provides the establishment of valuable theoretical and practical results [21; 23] providing the reliable data on various aspects of languages under investigation. Contrastive linguistics contributes greatly both to the aspect and characterological typologies of the investigated languages.

Some purely typological methods of contrastive investigation have recently been suggested as well. Among the best known is the **indexes method** by the American linguist Joseph Greenberg. The method helps

identify the quantitative co-occurrence or frequency of some feature or phenomenon in the contrasted languages.

### **CONTRASTIVE TYPOLOGY, ITS AIMS AND METHODS OF INVESTIGATION**

**Contrastive** typology, as the notion itself reveals it, represents a linguistic subject of typology based on the method of comparison or contrasting. Like typology proper, which has hitherto been practised, contrastive typology also aims at establishing the most general structural types of languages on the basis of their dominant or common phonetical/phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic features. Apart from this contrastive typology may equally treat dominant or common features only, as well as divergent features/phenomena only, which are found both in languages of the same structural type (synthetic, analytical, agglutinative, etc.) as well as in languages of different structural types (synthetic and analytical, agglutinative and incorporative, etc.).

The number of different languages which may be simultaneously subjected to typological contrasting at a time is not limited and is always predetermined by the aim pursued. The latter may be either theoretical or practical and involve the investigation of common or both common and divergent features/phenomena in the corresponding planes/aspects of the contrasted languages. The typological study of such features/phenomena, which usually represent certain regularities in the structure of different languages may be facilitated (or made more difficult) by the existence or absence of some results hitherto obtained in the languages concerned for some other purpose and by means of other methods of linguistic investigation.

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

- 1) to identify and classify accordingly the main isomorphic and allomorphic features characteristic of languages under investigation;

- 2) to draw from these common or divergent features respectively the isomorphic regularities (and the allomorphic singularities in the languages contrasted);
- 3) to establish on the basis of the obtained isomorphic features the typical language structures and the types of languages;
- 4) to perform on the basis of the obtained practical data a truly scientific classification of the existing languages of the world;
- 5) to establish on this basis the universal features/phenomena, which pertain to each single language of the world.

Contrastive typological investigations are both various and manifold, they may involve a separate language feature or phenomenon pertained to some genealogically close or genealogically far/alien languages, and they may involve several features or phenomena pertained to many genealogically close or genealogically different languages. Besides, the object of contrastive typology may as well be separate features and language units or phenomena pertained to both living and one or more dead languages. Consequently, the object of investigation may involve an extensive language area/material or it may involve a restricted object/material of investigation. Due to this there are distinguished several branches of typological (or contrastive typological) investigation often referred to as *separate typologies*. The main of these typologies are as follows: 1. **Universal typology** which investigates all languages of the world and aims at singling out in them such features/phenomena which are common in all languages. These features are referred to as **absolute universals**. Their identification is carried out not only on the basis of the existing (living) languages but also on the basis of dead languages like Sanskrit, ancient Greek or Latin. Also the hypothetic abstract **etalon language** created by typologists for the sake of investigation is widely made use of by universal typology. This “language” plays a very important.

### Питання для самоконтролю

1. The subject of contrastive typology and its theoretical and practical aims.
2. The principal terms and notions of contrastive typology (isomorphic/ allomorphic features and phenomena, absolute/near universals, typological constants, idiomatic, dominant and recessive features, etc.).

3. Kinds of typological investigations/various typologies (special typology, level typologies, areal typology, etc.).
4. The typological method vs. the historical and comparative method, the contrastive linguistic method of investigation.
5. The principal linguistic methods employed in contrastive typology (the comparative, the inductive/deductive methods, the ICs, the transformational and substitutional methods, *Greenberg's* indexes method).

6. Give a short prehistory of European contrastive typology of the 17th—18th centuries. The Ukrainian lexemes in Sanskrit.

The contribution to contrastive typological investigations of the brothers *F.* and *A. Schlegel* and of *W. Humboldt*, *H. Steinthal* and others in the 19th century linguistics.

8. Prague school linguists (*V. Mathesius*, *N. Trubetskoy*, *V. Skalicka*, *R. Jakobson*, and others) and their contribution to typological investigations.
9. Other 20th century linguists (*E. Sapir*, *J. Greenberg*, *O. Isachenko*, *N. Ya. Marr*, *M. Kalynovych*, *Y. Zhluktenko*) and their contribution to typological and contrastive linguistics.
10. The dominant typical features of a language vs. the structural type of this language.

*Розділ 2*  
**TYOLOGY OF THE PHONETIC  
AND PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEMS**

Any typological investigation of phonetic/phonological features of two or more languages inevitably involves a contrastive study of their sounds and phonemes. Accordingly, there are recognized two closely connected branches of linguistic science treating the units and phenomena of the phonetic and phonological levels: 1) ***contrastive typological phonetics*** and 2) ***contrastive typological phonology***.

The aim of contrastive typological phonetics is to identify and investigate the isomorphic and allomorphic features of the speech sounds within the sound systems of languages under contrasted investigation. The main purpose of contrastive typological phonology is respectively the identification and investigation of isomorphic and allomorphic features in the systems of phonological units in English and Ukrainian.

In conformity with the goals pursued are also the objects of investigation in each of these branches. Thus, the subject-matter of phonetic typology in the first place is the system of speech sounds and their quantitative and qualitative characteristics in the contrasted languages, while the subject-matter of phonological typology is the system of phonemes and their quantitative and qualitative characteristics in speech of the contrasted languages.

It must be added that apart from speech sounds and phonemes which are contrasted by typological phonetics and typological phonology respectively, each of these branches has also another common subject-matter. And this is combinability and functioning of speech sounds/ phonemes in words and syllables as well as prosodic phenomena, which include speech melody, utterance stress, tempo, pausation and voice timbre/voice setting. Hence, contrastive typology of phonetic and phonological systems of all languages investigates discrete and non-discrete units on both-segmental and suprasegmental levels and their features of universal nature i. e. those pertaining to all languages. Consequently, these units and phenomena are characterized by some common features: thus, for example, speech sounds in all languages are of two major types – vowels and consonants. Besides, the functions of phonemes in all languages, including English and Ukrainian, are common.

The main of these functions are:

1) The constitutive function i. e. the ability of phonemes to constitute separate morphemes and simple, derived or compound words. For example,

the English phonemes *It/, Ipl, Id/* may constitute /top/ *top* or *Ipotlpot*; the speech sounds *Iv. l, Idl, III* may constitute 1) /di: l/ *deal* or 2) *llv. dl lead* respectively. Similarly in Ukrainian: the speech sounds /a/, *IK/, hi* may constitute the words *max, mm* or *aum*.

2) The distinctive/contrastive function of phonemes can be illustrated through the commutation test or substitution of speech sounds in words in their initial, medial or final position. For example:

Typologically contrasted may also be vowels and consonants (or both) as well as their allophones/variants. Thus, the English phonemes *lal, l\* and *la:/* can be contrasted with the Ukrainian phoneme /a/, similarly the English forelingual consonants *III, Idl, In/* can be counterposed to their Ukrainian counterparts *IR-R'I, IT-T'I, IH-H'I*, etc.

Another equally important discreet unit which can be treated at the phonetic or phonological level is *syllable*. Apart from sounds and syllables, some non-segmental or supersegmental units or phenomena like *word stress, utterance stress* and all types of *pitch patterns* can become an

As a result, all English monophthongs as well as all the nuclei of the diphthongs can be grouped according to the position of the bulk of the tongue into the following three classes of vowels which are counterposed to the following two (partly corresponding) classes of the Ukrainian vowels:

Tongue position	English	Ukrainian
Front	<i>IvJ, III, Id, /ɛ/, /ei/, hal, leal, /ail, /au/, HI, In/, lei</i>	
Central	<i>foj, lal, /ou/, I hi,</i>	—
Back	<i>/u:/, hi, hsl, hi, h\l, h: l, /a:/</i>	<i>lyl, lol, lal</i>

Typologically relevant, due to the isomorphic features in the contrasted languages, is also the classification of vowel phonemes according to the height of the raised part of the tongue. Therefore, the distribution of the vowel phonemes in English and Ukrainian is not completely devoid of isomorphic (and allomorphic) features either:

<b>Tongue Position</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Ukrainian</b>
High Vowels	i: i; u, u:, u(a)	<b>iny</b>
Mid Vowels	e, e(a), 3:, a, o (u)	<b>e o</b>
Low Vowels	A, 3(1), a:, D, as, a	<b>a</b>
ae, a(i), a(u), A, a:		

The quantitative correlation of vowels is considerably different in the contrasted languages, there being only 6 vowels in Ukrainian as compared to 20 vowels in English. Besides, English has diphthongoids **IvJ** and /u:/ and diphthongs which are unknown in Ukrainian. But English unlike



Ukrainian has broad and narrow variants of vowels, and some phonemes as **IɔJ** and /m/ and their short counterparts, unknown in Ukrainian, which are labialized.

### Phonetic/Phonological Oppositions in the Vowel Systems

A typological contrasting of English and Ukrainian vowel systems can be based first of all on the counteropposition of vowels formed with the help of the horizontal movement of the tongue, for example: a) *fully front* versus *fully back* vowels: /i:-u:/: *beat-boot*; b) *front retracted* vs. *back-advanced* vowels: /ɪ:-ʊ:/: *bill – bull*; c) *fully front* vs. *mixed/ central* vowels: /e-ɜ:/: *bed – bird*; d) *fully front* vs. *back-advanced* vowels: /æ-a:/: *cdX-cart*; e) *back-advanced* vs. *fully-back* vowels: /ɑ – ɒ/: *part -pot* f) *low-narrow* vs. *mid-broad* vowels: /ʌ-ɜ:/: *tuck – Turk*.

Such and the like counterpositions of two vowels (or consonants) which differ in quality because of the position of the articulatory organ (here the bulk of the tongue) or other characteristics referred to as *binary* oppositions. Consequently, binary are also the oppositions of *Iv* vs. *Ill*, or in the system of consonants the voiced *Id*/ vs. the voiceless /t/, or correspondingly *Izl* vs. *Is*, *Ibl* vs. *Ipl*, etc. When three phonemes are counterposed, the opposition is referred to by some American linguists as tertiary. For *Qxamp* \e, *fully back* /ɒ, o:, u:/ vs. *back-advanced* /æ, u/ and the nuclei of the diphthongs *hi*, *ua*/, etc. Such and the like oppositions (cf. /p-t-k, b-d-g/) in the system of consonants are sometimes referred to as tertiary phonological oppositions.

The oppositions based on the abrupted and non-abrupted vowel phonemes formed as a result of the vertical movement of the tongue are various in English but they are not available in Ukrainian. Cf. /i: – i/: *beater-bitter* or *eat-it*; /u:-v/: *pool-pull*; *h'-ol*: *port – pot* or in *short -shot*, etc.

Binary oppositions in English are also observed between vowels formed at different position heights of the tongue. These are as follows: a) *high-narrow* vs. *low-narrow* vowels /u:-o:/: *fool -fall*; b) *high-narrow* vs.

Two groups of binary oppositions are observed only in English but they are not available in Ukrainian. They are:

1) *monophthong* vs. a *diphthong*: /ɪ – iɑ:/: *bid – beard*; /e – eɪ/: *c/eaJ – dared*; *h:-val*: *paw – poor*; /v-vsl/: *took – tour*;

2) *diphthong* vs. *diphthong* (totalling as many as 36 such oppositions), eg: a) *lei* – *ai*/: *bay – buy*; b) /ei – si/: *bay – boy*; c) /ei – au/: *bay – bow*; etc.

Ukrainian instead has a very wide use of vowel and consonant alterations presenting regular correlations to express grammatical or evaluating meanings. Such and the like alterations of sounds in the given pairs of words represent a kind of form-building. These alterations express categorial (morphological) meanings. Nothing to do with binary oppositions have the so-called Ablaut forms in English nouns or irregular forms of English verbs as in the following examples: *man – men, foot – feet, mouse – mice; louse – lice* and some irregular verb forms like *take – took, know – knew, see – saw, come – came, think – thought*, etc. No phonological oppositions can be seen in English and Ukrainian suppletive forms either as in *good-better*, and *bad – worse*, which can be observed in Ukrainian too.

### **Word-Stress and Utterance Stress in English and Ukrainian**

Like the syllable and many other linguistic phenomena, word stress also belongs to near universals. However, not all types of stress and its functions can be and are common in different structural types of languages. Though some of its functions seem to be (or in reality are) quite the same, namely: the constitutive and distinctive functions. In other words stress is of phonological nature, at least in the English and Ukrainian languages where it belongs to phonological units (like the phoneme or syllable). Its phosodic function constitute the stress patterns of words making them recognizable as certain lexical units. Cf. *'able* but *'unable, 'formal* but *form 'ality*. Hence, stress helps perform distinctive variations in words on the semantic and syllabic levels. It constitutes words of a definite meaning. Cf. *'atom* and *a'tomic, 'personal* and *perso'nnaal*. Therefore, stress constitutes words identifying them and making them distinctive at the same time. For example: *'con*

and *'black 'board; 'dancing 'girl* and *'dancing-girl*. And in Ukrainian: *workers*, etc.). Only due to the change of the distinctive stress that such words as are identified in their different meaning.

Besides, word-stress helps distinguish the verb and noun in such words as *'export (n)* and *ex'port (v)*, *'import (n)* and *irriport (v)* or the meaning of the same Ukrainian words and several others.

Apart from the purely distinctive function word stress in English and Ukrainian often performs a lexico-grammatical distinction (function), helping to identify the part of speech and express different categorial meanings. Namely:

a) case, number (plural or dual) and masculine or feminine gender of nouns as in Ukrainian;

b) case, number and neuter gender of nouns;

c) part of speech, its case (gender), etc.: (noun, dative case) and (adjective, payment), (adj.) (noun, gen. case), (*gen.* case of the noun *picm*) and – (future tense from *ЗрочТа™*), (noun) – (rorocB, preposition), (noun in plural) and (imperative mood from).

Some words in English and Ukrainian may have parallel accentuation, i. e. they may have two different stresses in a word of the same lexical meanings. Cf. in English:

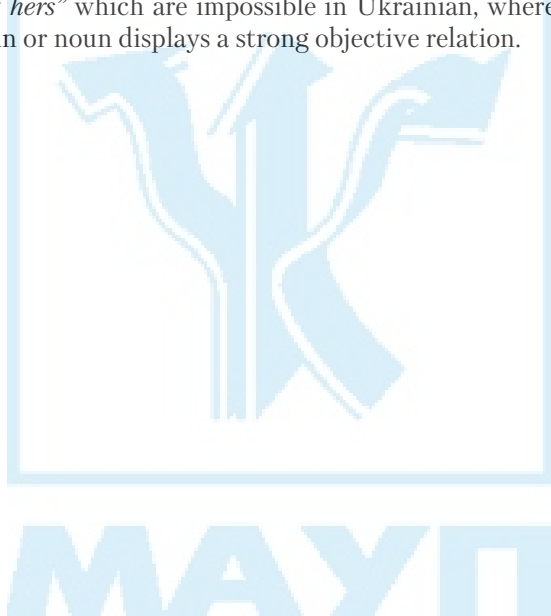
There are quite a few similar examples in Ukrainian, when one and the same word can have two different stresses. Isomorphic in some English and Ukrainian disyllabic, trisyllabic and polysyllabic words and in compounds is also the existence of one and sometimes of two primary stresses. Similarly in Ukrainian where some compounds have two stresses:

The number of words with two primary stresses is considerably larger in English than in Ukrainian due to the prefixes *un-*, *in-*, *dis-*, *sub-*, *ex-*, *under-*, and others forming prominent syllables, which is not observed in Ukrainian. Besides, English disyllabic, trisyllabic and polysyllabic words have an additional secondary rhythmic accent. This phenomenon is almost alien to Ukrainian, though a weaker stress can be traced in distinctly or meticulously pronounced and some polysyllabic words. Cf. Some compound Kozak family names and geographical names have also distinct two stresses in Ukrainian: and others. In rapid speech, however, the secondary stress is optional in Ukrainian and may be used depending on the choice of the speaker who may or may not accentuate this or that syllable or part of the word. Hence, one may speak in such cases also of doublets as in the examples.

Accentuation in Ukrainian, unlike English, is a very important form-building means used to express several morphological categories – not only plural forms of many nouns but also of pronouns and case forms of numerals: a) degrees of comparison of adjectives; different forms of adverbs. Word-stress in Ukrainian may sometimes identify the lexico-grammatical nature of the word (part of speech) as in adverbs and in adjectives or verbs; b) Besides, word-stress identifies different personal verb forms and also tense forms; c) non-perfective and perfective verb forms.

It should be repeated that word accent in the contrasted languages is *dynamic*, *free* and *shifting*. In Ukrainian, like in English, word-stress is also considered to be qualitative and quantitative. One more isomorphic

feature of English and Ukrainian word-stress is its tendency to be in disyllabic and polysyllabic words mostly recessive or restrictedly recessive. For example: *ˈworker*, *ˈteacher*, *ˈmother*, *ˈfather*. Comparing of isomorphic features and phenomena can very often be performed both with the help of the *deductive* and the *inductive* methods. The deductive method is based on logical computation/calculation which *suggests* all admissible variants of realization of a certain feature/ phenomenon in speech of one or of some contrasted languages. Ukrainian word-groups of both these patterns regularly occur in speech. Cf. The deductive computation helps find some other transforms of the ANd pattern with the post-positional pronoun determiner as in the word-group "*nice young sisters of his*" or "*a brave deed of hers*" which are impossible in Ukrainian, where a prepositional pronoun or noun displays a strong objective relation.



## METHODS OF THE INVESTIGATION IN CONTRASTIVE ANALYSES

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

Much more often employed in contrastive typology is the **inductive method** which needs no verification whatsoever, since the investigated feature/phenomenon was proved already by the preceding generations of researcher linguists. Due to this the reliability of the results or data provided by the inductive method is indisputable. An example of thus obtained results may be the qualitative characteristics of vowels in some European languages (Table 1). These results had been obtained by the preceding researchers long ago and are simply taken from the corresponding phonetics bona fide by everybody interested in the nature of vowel sounds in the mentioned languages.

*Table 1*

Quality	English	Ukrainian	Russian	French	German	Spanish
front	+	+	+	+	+	+
central	+	-	+	-	+	+
back	+	+	+	+	+	+
long	+	+	+	+		
diphthongized	+	-	-	+	+	
labialized	+	+	+	+	+	+
nasalized	+	+	+	+		

The deductive and inductive methods can be successful when employed in the contrastive typological investigations of other than phonetic language units and phenomena as well. This is equally true concerning other methods of investigation employed in contrastive typology. Among them the following should be mentioned: the **statistic method**, the **immediate constituents [ICs] method**, the **transformational** and the **substitutional method**, and some others. The **statistic method** is employed in contrastive typology for establishing the necessary quantitative and qualitative representation of some features or languages data, for identifying the percentage of co-occurrence of some features/phenomena or language units in the contrasted languages. For example, to establish the representation of the combinability of different classes of consonants with vowels in the contrasted languages; to establish the combinability of consonants and vowels in the initial, middle and closing positions of syllables in the

contrasted languages; to establish the co-occurrence of different classes of words in speech in the contrasted languages; to establish the correlation of different types of morphemes in the contrasted languages, etc.

**The ICs (*immediate constituents*)** method is employed to contrast *only language units* with the aim of establishing their constituent parts in one or some contrasted languages. These may be consonantal and vocalic components in words or syllables, the morphemic components of words, as well as parts of syntactic units. For example, the word *garden* consists of six letters (g, a, r, d, e, n) forming one root morpheme and the sounds [g, a, d, n] forming two syllables [ga: dn]. The first of them is an open covered syllable and the other is a consonantal CC syllable. At the morphological level the ICs method helps establish the componental morphemes in words of the contrasted languages. Thus, the noun *writings* consists of three ICs: writ/ing/s i. e. a root morphem (writ), a suffix (-ing) and the ending (-s). A similar ICs analysis can be observed in Ukrainian. Thus, the noun splits into the ICs: the first morpheme, the root morphem, the second and the third are suffixal morphemes and the fourth (-n) is the inflexion.

At the syllable level this noun splits into as many syllables as there are vowels: though the syllabification of this noun may depend upon the speaker's stress, both variants being linguistically justified in Ukrainian. The ICs method is often employed to single out constituent parts of the syntactic level units both at sentence level and at word-group level. Thus, the sentence *He learns many new words every week* can be subdivided into the following constituent word-groups: 1) *He learns* (predicative word-group); 2) *many new words* (attributive word-group); 3) *every week* (adverbial word-group). At word-group level a further splitting is observed: He / learns; many / new // words; every/ week. The Ukrainian equivalent of this sentence has the same types of word-groups with the identical division into ICs.

**The transformational** method is more often employed than the ICs method. Also it is more helpful when identifying the nature of some language unit in a contrasted language. Its reliability is clearly proved through translation, which is always the best transformation of any language unit. In short, any transformation is a form of expressing some definite meaning. The simplest transformation is transcoding. Cf. in English: Leeds, Liverpool (in Latin letters) in Cyrillic or any other letters. The transformational method is employed:

a) to identify the nature of a language unit in the source language or in the target language. Thus, the type of the Ukrainian sentence may be

understood and treated differently: 1) as a definite personal sentence with two homogeneous predicates; 2) as a definite personal main sentence (why shall I come?) because (I know it) or 3) as two co-ordinate definite personal clauses with the causal implicit meaning. When translated into English (i. e. transformed), this sentence acquires the following structural form: / *know it and I shall come*. Therefore, the original Ukrainian variant may be identified as a definite personal sentence with two homogeneous.

b) Transformation may reveal the difference in the form of expression in the contrasted languages. Cf. (an indefinite personal sentence, active voice), which has for its equivalent in English *You are invited to take part in the scientific conference* (i. e. a definite personal sentence with a passive voice verbal predicate). Transformation may often be required by the peculiarity of the syntactic structure of the source language (or the target language) unit. Cf. *The lesson over*, all students went to the reading-hall, or into a prepositional noun, expressing time. The nominative absolute participial construction *The lesson over* (i. e. *being* or *having been over*) has to be substituted i. e. transformed into an adverbial clause of time or cause

Transformation may also be lexical, as in the following sentences: He is *not unlike* his father; or Dick was running in the yard in his *shirt sleeves* flux Apart from these some other methods of analysis are helpful for the establishment of structural or semantic isomorphisms and allomorphisms in the contrasted languages. Among these is also the *contrastive linguistic method*, which is usually employed to investigate a restricted number of genealogically related or non-related languages. The object of contrastive linguistics in general is the meaning, form and functioning of certain language units, their features or phenomena [10]. Unlike contrastive typology, contrastive linguistics does not treat language features or phenomena with the aim of establishing isomorphic or allomorphic features and universals. Divergent features and phenomena in the languages under contrastive linguistic investigation are considered to be irregularities or exceptions to some general rules. The aim of contrastive linguistics has never been to establish systemic relations on a global scale, or to establish universal features. Despite all this, the contrastive linguistic method, when employed both synchronically and diachronically, provides the establishment of valuable theoretical and practical results [21; 23] providing the reliable data on various aspects of languages under investigation. Contrastive linguistics contributes greatly both to the aspect and characterological typologies of the investigated languages. Some purely typo-

logical methods of contrastive investigation have recently been suggested as well. Among the best known is the *indexes method* by the American linguist Joseph Greenberg. The method helps identify the quantitative co-occurrence or frequency of some feature or phenomenon in the contrasted languages. J. Greenberg selected some passages, among them one English and one Russian, each containing one hundred notional words and subjected them to various typologically relevant analyses.

### **Typology as a science is divided into the following types**

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

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

3. *Partial typology* investigates a restricted number of language features/phenomena; for example, the system of vowels/consonants, the means of word-formation or the syntactic level units. As a result, several level typologies are distinguished:

- a) *typology of the phonetic/ phonological level units;*
- b) *typology of the morphological level units;*
- c) *typology of the lexical level units;*
- d) *typology of the syntactic level units.*

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

5. *Structural typology* has for its object the means of grammatical expression, the order of constituent parts at the level of words, word-combinations and sentences. Structural typology aims at identifying



mainly dominant features, which characterize the structural type of each of the contrasted languages.

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

7. **Content typology** investigates the types of possible meanings expressed by various language units and their forms in the contrasted languages. Worth mentioning are also some other branches of typological/contrastive typological investigations as:

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

9. **Quantitative typology** which was singled out and identified by the American linguist J. Greenberg. The aim of this typology is to investigate the quantitative correlation of some features and phenomena and their identifying (dominant) role in the contrasted languages. Thus, taking into account the small quantity of inflexions and the great role of analytical means as prepositional connection and placement of components in English word-groups and sentences, this language can be identified by its syntactic structure as predominantly analytical. Apart from these there are distinguished some other equally important for typological or contrastive typological investigation branches of this linguistic subject, the most well-known among them being the following:

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

11. **Onomasiological typology** is a part of semasiological typology. Its object of investigation is isomorphic and allomorphic ways of giving family names and nicknames to people in different contrasted languages. For example, in English: Love, Hope, Lem, Ivy; Mr. Crabtree.

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

## Socially, Stylistically and Functionally Distinguished Classes of Words

Apart from the above-stated, there exist some other approaches and principles that are typologically relevant for the systemic arrangement and classification of lexicon. As has been already mentioned, among them is first and foremost the social principle, according to which the dialectal layer of lexicon is distinguished. Thus, one of the most characteristic territorial differences in the lexicon of English dialects is the London cockney with its distinguishing use of /h/ in several words with initial vowels as in *hopen for open, hup for up, hus for us*, etc. In some other words with the initial /h/ this sound is also omitted in speech (cf. *am for ham, ill for hill, Arry for Harry*). The concluding /g / in cockney is often omitted too as in *doin', readin', mornin'*, etc.

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

Dialectal differences are also observed in Ukrainian, the most distinguishing of them being Western, Northern and Central regional dialects. In western Hutsul dialects, for instance, *dedn* and are used for *father*, for *uplands*; in Halych region *Kozym* is used for *uncle* etc. Nevertheless, the difference between the Ukrainian dialects and literary standard Ukrainian is never so striking as it is between cockney and Standard English or, for example, between literary German and its dialectal variations. That is why the dialectal lexicon or dialectal phonetics and other aspects of dialectal English, Ukrainian, German and other languages is always in the focus of typologists' attention.

Socially predetermined in each language, however, is not only the appearance and existence of dialects and dialectal lexicons or dialectal prosody. Due to the natural development of human society socially predetermined is even the hierarchal distinction in the relationship of some notionals that are used for the expression of family relationships. Thus, there are universally distinguished and indisputably acknowledged in all-guage has acquired a large number of quite new words i. e. neologisms. The latter have come from different languages, both European and Asian and belong to various spheres of social life and human activities as:

a) social relations and other social phenomena. For example: *yakuza* /ja: ku'za:/ Japanese gangster (from Japanese), *Chorzim* /ho: z'i: m/ re-

emigrated to Israel Jews (Hebrew); *brigatisti* /brigatisti/ members of the *brigade rosse* (Ital. terrorists); (AI) *fatah* Palestine guerilla group organisation (its member);

b) Neologisms belonging to the sphere of cultural life: *Cafe theatre* / kae:

feiteiae: tre/ room for lecturing and theatrical performances, *policierl* pousjei/ detective novel or film (both of French origin), *hayashi* Japanese theatre (from Japanese), *salva* (Spanish) Caribbean dancing music (mambo, jazz and rock-like);

c) Neologisms reflecting borrowings from various cuisines as *calzone* (Italian) high curds pie; *burrito* (Spanish) maize pancakes wrapped around the minced veal, curds and fried beans; hoisin sauce (Chinese) thick dark-red soy and garlic sauce with spices;

d) Eastern sports terms as *iaido* (Japanese) kind of fencing, *basko* a fifteen matches competition in sumo;

e) Terms designating religious and medical notions as *satsang* (Sanskrit).

Hindo sermon, *zazen* (Japanese) meditation in *dzen* Buddhism, *Shiatsu* (Japanese) kind of healing massage; *sulfazini*/*sulphazin* (Russian) medicine (for the mentally ill), etc.

Very wide-spread during the last decades became the derivative means of forming neologisms in English as *workaholic* heavy worker, *close-aholic* (lover of clothes), *milkaholic* lover of milk, *chonoholic* i. e. sweet tooth conoflyH, etc.

No less productive is also the use of prefixes to form neologisms in English. Cf. *megadual* smth. better than twice as good, *megarich* i. e. very rich, *megafirm* a very large firm, *megaprojects* very rich or complicated projects, etc.

Suffixes are also used to form neologisms. Thus, the international suffix *-ism* forms *afroism* admirer of the African culture, *hyppyism* adherent of hippies. The suffix *-y/-ie* forms neologisms as *groupie* a fan/ admirer of a music group or popular star, *preppie* pupil/schoolboy of a private school or offspring of the middle class, *fundie* adherent of fundamentalism or any radical group, etc.

Many neologisms are regular collocations characteristic not only of the English language. The most common of them have the N+N or A+N structure as *athmic cleansing*, i. e. banishment, *hot button*, i. e. high interest in goods (or political figures) social structures; *safe haven* protected

zone in a country to safeguard a religious or national minority, *shareholder economy* an attractive for all citizens economy or economic progress.

Apart from word and phrasal neologisms the English language makes use of abbreviations which are usually different terms like the VCR *vid-cassette recorder*, MTV *Music Television*, OMOV *one member-one vote*, GASP *Group Against Smoke and Pollution*, ASH *Actions on Smoking and Health*, SMAT *special weapons and tactics (juridical term)*; HDTV *High Definition Television, i. e. TV having high distinctness of picture*; Gerbill (Brit.) *Great Education Reform Bill (of 1988)*; CLASS *Computer-based Laboratory of Automated School System (classes of programmed teaching)*.

Many neologisms form a common subgroup of lexicon in the contrasted languages (as well as in all languages). They may sometimes coincide in English and Ukrainian (when they are wide known or internationalisms). Among these are, for example, *clarifier* (the hearing aid), *advil* (medical pills), *AIDS* and respectively *CHUJ*, in Ukrainian. English new borrowings from Russian and Ukrainian are, for example, *cosmodrome*, *glasnost*, *perestroika*, *Rukh movement*, *hryvnia*, *Rada (the Verkhovna Rada)*, *salo* and others. Comparatively new borrowings from the English language in present-day Ukrainian and several others.

One more subgroup constitute colloquial newly-formed neologisms which are characteristic only of a national living language. They designate some new notions formed on the basis of the previously existing as well as on the basis of previously non-existing denotata. For example, in English: *spiv* (black marketeer), *sky-mobile/egg-beater* (helicopter), *Iran-gate*, *Ramboism* (violence shown in films/on TV), “*wellness*” i. e. health (cf. to return patients to “wellness”).

Closely related to the last group are also individual artistic language neologisms created by poets and authors for the sake of expressiveness as in Ukrainian (from Tychyna’s poetic works), (M. Bazhan) and others.

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

The social functioning and stylistic use of these subclasses of words are common not only in the contrasted languages. Thus, the large class of *literary colloquial lexicon* consists in English and Ukrainian of some

stylistically common subclasses of words to which belong various *emotives*, slangisms, jargonisms, argotisms, thieves' lingo, etc. Many of these lexical units represent the same substyles of lexicon and have direct equivalents in both contrasted languages. Therefore, this literary colloquial lexis is represented by several layers of words and expressions often or regularly used in expressive emphatic speech with strongly evaluative (positive or negative) aim. Among them are such English and Ukrainian words and phrases of negative evaluation as and some other words and expressions.

Often equivalent in English and Ukrainian are also *low colloquialisms* – vituperative words and phrases like *goddamn, hell, rat, swine, cad, pig, skunk, stink-pot* and others. In Ukrainian: obscene/dirty words as *shit, piss and corruption* (expression), *shit, naimo*. Functionally similar to them are vulgarisms which, like the previous group of low colloquialisms, are practically universal by their nature. These are used in oral speech in the main, though vulgarisms may sometimes occur (for stylistic reasons) in written speech as well. Cf., etc. Unlike vituperatives, such vulgarisms are registered in larger dictionaries, though in recent decades vituperative lexicons have become subject of scientific investigation [55].

Common by nature (and not only in the contrasted languages) are jargonisms and argotisms that seem to belong to absolute universals as well. Like all other low colloquialisms, they may sometimes have not only semantic but also stylistic equivalents in different languages. It goes without saying, however, that they are not necessarily of the same structural form as can be seen from the following examples.

Many word-groups and words having a bookish nature (both semantic, stylistic and lingual) in the contrasted languages are actually internationalisms originating from one common source language. Eg:

Poetic words and expressions form a stylistically common, though semantically not always coinciding subgroup of lexicon in English and Ukrainian as well. Poetic words split into two clearly distinguished groups: a) words/word-groups displaying their poetic nature already at language level, i. e. when singled out and b) words/word-groups acquiring their poetic tinge in a micro- or macrotext only. Thus, the following English words and word-groups are always poetic: *affright* (frighten), *Albion* (England), *Caledonia* (Scotland), *adore* (to worship), *anarch* (leader of an uprising/revolt), *babe* (baby), *harken* (hear), *shrill* (shriek), *steed* (horse), *mash* (admire), *the Bard of Avon* (Shakespeare), *pass away* (die), *uncouth* (strange), *ye* (you), the *main* (ocean), the *brow* (forehead), the *kine* (cow), etc.

Similarly in Ukrainian Whose poetisms are sometimes distinctly marked by their slightly archaic nature or by their Old Slav origin:

Poetic words of the second subgroup (which acquire their poetic tinge in a micro/macrocontext) may often be traditional in a national language. Thus, in English stylistically marked poetic word-groups can be found in Shakespeare's works: A considerable number of word-groups have also acquired a similar traditionally poetic flavour in Ukrainian due to our folk songs:

Apart from these there are some more common minute groups of stylistically marked words and word-groups in English and Ukrainian lexicons. The main of them are as follows: 1. **Archaisms**, i. e. old forms of words/word-groups, which are mainly used in poetic works or in solemn speech: *algazel* (gazelle), *avaunt* (out), *batoon* (baton), *dicacity* (talkativeness, mockery), *eke* (also), *gyves* (fetters), *mere* (pond, lake), *a micle* (much), *parlous* (perilous), *peradventure* (probably, perhaps), *well nigh* (almost, nearly), *thee* (you sing.), *thou* (you plur.), *thy* (your), *ye* (you), *yonder* (there), *hereto* (to this matter), *therefrom* (from that), *therein* (in that place), *thereupon* (upon that), *whereof* (of which). To this group also belong some participles ending in – en: and several others.

Apart from the above-mentioned there exist in both contrasted languages (and not only in them) some other typologically isomorphic classes of lexical units. Among these a prominent place belongs to words singled out on the basis of their informational structure/capacity. Accordingly, two types of such words are traditionally distinguished:

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

Most denotative words (and not only in the contrasted languages) are stylistically neutral. The latter may be represented by the whole lexicogrammatical classes such as: pronouns (*he*, *she*, *we*, *you*) and numerals (*five*, *ten*, *twenty*), most of verbs (*be*, *live*, *love*), nouns (*mother*, *sister*, *cow*, *horse*), adjectives (*blue*, *white*, *old*, *fat*, *urban*, *rural*, *young*) and all adverbs (*today*, *soon*, *well*, *slowly*, *then*, *there*) and some others.

2. Many words in English and Ukrainian may also have both *denotative and connotative* meanings. Thus, the nouns *bear*, *fox*, *pig*, *goose*,

*parrot, rat* and some others in their stylistically neutral meaning designate definite animals or birds, but when metonymically reinterpreted, they often acquire a vituperative (abusive) connotation.

Connotative words/word-groups directly or indirectly correlate with their natural denotata, eg: *Albion* (poet, for England), *the Bard of Avon* (Shakespeare); *Кобзар* (T. Shevchenko), *КаМеунп* (I. Franko), *доНКа ЕлпоМемен* (Lesia Ukrainka) and some other.

Connotative may become poetisms and neologisms: *foe* for enemy, *kine* for cow, *dough* (slang) for money, *mods* for admirer of jazz, *know-how* for skill, *chicken* (coll.) for baby (lovely boy or girl). Or in Ukrainian: *ноЮЮ* (noeT.) *люб*, *МахіТра* (low colloquial) -*ронБа*, *поКер* (neologism) *jiroGnTejib* *поК-МуЗHKH*, *nonca* (low quality pop-music or songs), *нопныха* (pornographic film, performance), etc.

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

1) **ameliorative words**: *daddy, mummy, sissie, chivalrous, gentleman*;

2) **pejorative words**: *bastard, blackguard, clown, knave; Gaiicmp K>K, HixneMa, nezidnuK, noKudbOK, zonoepиЗ, etc*;

3) **constantly neutral words** and word-groups/expressions, eg.: *smith, geometry, teacher, love, you, he, all*.

### Питання для самоконтролю

1. Typological constants of contrasting at the phonetic/phonological levels.
2. Quantitative and qualitative characteristics in the system of vowels of the contrasted languages. Allomorphy in the system of English and Ukrainian vowels.
3. Quantitative and qualitative differences in the systems of binary and group oppositions of English vowels vs. Ukrainian vowels.
4. Pronunciation/mutation of vowels in unstressed position in the contrasted languages.
5. Oppositions versus phonomorphological correlations in the systems of English and Ukrainian vowels.
6. Quantitative and qualitative characteristics of English and Ukrainian consonants. Isomorphisms and allomorphisms in the articulation and palatalization of English and Ukrainian consonant phenomena.
7. The main peculiar features of assimilation in English and Ukrainian consonants.

8. Binary, multiple (tertiary, quarterly) and group oppositions in the systems of consonants of the contrasted languages.
9. P. Menzerath's parallelogram and the study of syllables in different languages.
10. Principles and rules of syllabification in the contrasted languages.
11. Isomorphic and allomorphic structural types of syllable in English and Ukrainian.
12. Word-stress and its functions in English and Ukrainian.
13. Common and divergent intonation patterns in English vs. Ukrainian.
14. Isomorphisms and allomorphisms in the system of English and Ukrainian terminal tones.  
configuration of each English and Ukrainian intonation pattern.

1. "May I speak now?" said Doris. 2. "Were they obliged to be so rough?" 3. "Didn't she know that he was married?" 4. "She has three children then?" 5. "Why didn't you tell me?" 6. "And the children?" 7. "Why, what on earth's the matter?" "Nothing. Why?" 8. "Why didn't you tell me?" 9. "What are you doing?" cried Doris. 10. "What we were doing with that woman?" she asked abruptly. 11. "How d'you know? 12. "You understand, Doris, don't you?" 13. "Oh, you know a hell of a lot, don't you?" (Pritchett) 14. And his *voice-he never heard it live before* – seemed to be unnatural. 15. "Could you – *would you* – wait just a moment for me?" 16. Usually easy-going and kindly, Mary was now venomous. 17. "There was more in a look I bought once - *A trangle of fight*. An analysis of mysticism, by I. J. Partridge, D. Litt." (A. Wilson) 18. "She's get heaps of drink there-whishy, cherry-brandy, creme de menfhe." 19. Then one of the girls, forgetting Huggett's admonition to Susan, said... (Ibid.).

## TYPOLOGY OF THE LEXICAL SYSTEMS

### Factors Facilitating the Typological Study of Lexicon

The lexical level, like any other level of language stratification, is naturally represented by some characteristic **constants** and their peculiar features as well. The **principal constants** of this language level in the contrasted languages are the following:

1. Words, their semantic classes and word-forming means as well as their structural models and stylistic peculiarities of use.



2. The second object of contrasting alongside of separate words and their classes present the lexico-semantic groups (LSGs) of words which are pertained to the contrasted languages.

The third group of lexical units contrasted at this level are stable and idiomatic expressions which are also of universal nature, though they always have some national peculiarities in every single language. It must be emphasized that regular lexemes and lexical units, despite their seemingly chaotic mass of different words and stable expressions are, like units of other language levels, systemically arranged. The systemic organization of lexicon is conditioned in all languages by lingual as well as by extralingual factors which are of universal nature. Among the ex-tralingual factors, predetermining the systemic organization of lexicon, the following should be pointed out as most important: a) the physical and mental factors; b) the environmental factors; c) the social (cycnijibm) factors.

A. It is only due to the physical needs of human beings, and to a great extent due to the needs of all living beings in general that all languages have a great number of common notions of actions designated by such verbs as *live, eat, drink, think, sleep, wake, walk, run, jump, love, merry, die, etc.* And it is only due to the common mental activity of man that every single language of the world has the notions designated by such words as *speak, think, ask, answer, decide, realize, imagine, understand* and many others. Likewise only due to the unique natural environment of human beings all languages have acquired a large number of common notions designated by words which reflect the multitudes of objects and phenomena surrounding every human being on the globe such as *the sun, the moon, the stars, the wind, the sky, thunder, lightning, rain*, as well as various species of *plants, trees, fruits, colours, and living beings like fish, insects, mice, cats, dogs, etc.*

An equally important role in the formation of a mostly common lexicon in all languages is played by the social factor. The latter involves various social phenomena as well as relationships and activities of man. These come to being and become obvious already at the family level involving the relationships and having their expression in such words as *mother, father, child, sister, brother, aunt, uncle, grandmother, grandfather, etc.* All words and combinations of words designating the many notions, which appear due to the above-mentioned principles, constitute a large typologically common class of words referred to as *universal lexicon*. Here naturally belong many other groups of words as, for example, those expressing

deictic notions (pronouns, adverbial and adverbially expressed feelings, exclamations, specific national culturally biased notions).

Apart from this, all developed languages of the world have some other common layers of lexicon which came to being under the influence of different social, economic, historical and other extralingual factors. These layers form dialectal, professional, poetic, archaic, slang, international, specifically national, etc. lexicons. Each of them has its distinctive typologically characteristic features of isomorphic nature in common. Thus, the functioning of dialectal lexicons in any language is restricted to a definite historically destined territory (cf. the Scottish dialect, London cockney or the Western Ukrainian dialects, etc.).

Quite opposite by their nature, which is also a universal peculiarity property, are different international elements (words, phrases and sometimes separate sentences) which split in all languages in two typologically distinct subgroups: 1) genuine internationalisms having a common linguistic form, a common source of origin and identical lexical meaning (cf.: *parliament, poet, theatre, molecule, theoren, forum, history, waltz, sword of Damocles, to pass the Rubicon, Pandora's box*, etc.) and 2) lexical loan internationalisms which have the same lexical meaning but exist only in national lingual forms. These are usually terms like

In contrast to internationalisms there exists one more (already mentioned above) and typologically relevant group of lexis comprising the units of *nationally specific lexicon* (both words and different collocations) such as the English *farthing, shilling, dollar, Chartist, haggis, Yorkshire pudding, to cut off with a shilling, to accept the Chiltern Hundreds*, etc.). Many such or the like nationally specific or culturally biased elements, as they are often called today, exist in Ukrainian and naturally in other languages. Cf.

Closely related to the group of specifically national notions are also many words presenting in Ukrainian the so-called “kids” language. The latter involves mostly tender disyllabic words (usually diminutive nouns and verbs) predominantly used when addressing directly or indirectly one’s own or somebody else’s kids who can already understand their parents or other persons’ speech but are still unable to form coherent phrases or sentences themselves. The most often used all over Ukraine tender kids’ words involve mostly the following parts of speech:

1. Nouns.
2. Members of family.
3. Parts of human body.

4. Other nouns denoting different objects or phenomena.

B. The linguistic principles of typological classification of lexicon are based in all languages on the following distinguishing features of words: a) on their common lexico-grammatical nature; b) on their belonging to a common lexico-semantic group; c) on their peculiar stylistic function and meaning; d) on their denotative or connotative (or both) meanings, etc.

Thus, in accordance with their most general implicit lexico-grammatical meaning all words are grouped in any living or dead language of the world into a) notionals and b) functionals.

The notionals serve in all languages as principal means of nomination. They also constitute the bulk of words in English and Ukrainian and any other language's lexicon. Apart from their often complicated semantic structure they have different morphological, syn-tactic and stylistic features of their own. These are not of equal importance in the contrasted languages, however. In English, for example, it is not always possible to say for sure, what part of speech such words as *blue*, *hand*, *house* or even *man* belong to. Each of them may be a verb (*to blue smth*, *to man ships*, *to hand smth. over*); a noun: (*the blue of the sky*, *the man*, *two hands*) or an adjective (*the blue sky*), or even have an adverbial meaning (cf. to see blue), etc.

It is mostly not so in Ukrainian, whose words, when even out of a microtext, clearly display their lexico-grammatical nature.

The often indistinct lexico-grammatical meaning of many English notionals does not in the least discard the existence of isomorphic lexico-grammatical classes of them in the contrasted languages. Moreover, both contrasted languages have an isomorphic or even a universal peculiarity of expressing the most general implicit meanings of substantivity, verbi-ality, deictic properties, adverbiality, etc. thus representing nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adverbs and statives that are parts of speech performing the same functions in English and Ukrainian sentences. The notion of the parts of speech, therefore, belongs to the universal ones.

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

The second isomorphic class of words distinguished on linguistic principles represents practically common in the contrasted languages lexico-semantic groups of words (the LSGs). Words of a LSG may often have a regular synonymic relationship in English and Ukrainian. For example, the notion of "dwelling" unites the following row of nouns denoting dif-

ferent kinds of shelter etc. There may also be dwellings characteris- tions, particles and other parts of speech which have their corresponding equiv- alents in Ukrainian and in other languages.

### Word-Formation in English and Ukrainian

The principal ways of word-formation in the contrasted language are isomorphic. They include the following four ways: 1) morphological; 2) morphologico-syntactic; 3) lexico-semantic and 4) lexico-syntactic. The most productive of them in English and Ukrainian is the morphologi- cal way which is realized with the help of the following means: affixation, compounding, and non-affixal word-formation.

1. **Affixal** or derivational word-formation in both languages includes: a) suffixal word-formation; b) prefixal word-formation and c) combined (suffixal plus prefixal) word-formation. Affixal morphemes in the contrasted languages are used to form the same/common parts of speech. Thus, suffixal morphemes help to form: nouns, adjectives, verbs, numerals and adverbs. These word-forming suffixes also belong to the same seman- tic groups. Among the noun-forming suffixes there are distinguished the following typologically common classes of them in English and Uk- tainian:

a) **Agent suffixes** It should be added that nouns formed with the help of the suffix **-er** often have other meaning than that of denoting “performer of an action”. They may denote a) process: *blabber, roarer, whisperer*; b) psychological state: *admirer, boaster, adorer*, c) physical perception: *heaver, thinker, watcher*, d) instrument: *fanner, rectifier*, e) banknotes: *fiveer (n'nm-ipKa), tenner (decmnKa)*; f) time of activity: *fourter, fifter (nomupu-KypcmiK, n 'nmuKypcHuk)*. The suffix **-er** is also used to form jargon-isms like *crammer, kisser, peeper*, etc. No less different meanings are also expressed by nouns formed with the help of other suffixes of this class;

b) The English suffix **-ee** forms nouns denoting **reception of action**: *contestee, dedicatee, devotee, divorcee, employee, examinee, evacuee, nomi- nee, trustee, refugee* and some others. The meaning of this suffix in Ukrai- nian can be conveyed via the suffix **-eui>** as in the nouns. Besides, the meaning of patience can be expressed in Ukrainian by the suffixes **-H-**, **-T-**, as in the substantivized nouns of masculine and feminine gender.

The number of diminutive only noun-forming suffixes in Ukrainian is as many as 53, which goes in no comparison with the English 14 suffixes,

not all of which are productive. Besides, there exist adjective-, pronoun-, numeral-, adverb-, verb- and even interjections-forming diminutive suffixes in Ukrainian. For example, the noun-forming diminutive suffixes:

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

The most productive augmentative suffixes in Ukrainian are: **-aHb**:

c) **Gender/sex expressing suffixes** of person are clearly distinct in both contrasted languages. They form in Ukrainian 3 groups: 1) *masculine gender* and sex expressing suffixes of nouns like **-ap/-np**.

2. **Feminine gender** and sex expressing suffixes usually follow the masculine gender/sex expressing suffixes, which are mostly followed by inflexions.

3. **Neuter gender/sex** expressing suffixes are numerous in Ukrainian. They may form both abstract and concrete (life and lifeless) nouns.

Likewise English adjectives can easily be converted into nouns, and vice versa, according to the following patterns:

Intellectual (a) > an intellectual (n)	maiden (n) > maiden (a)
progressive (a) > a progressive (n)	sidelong (n) >sidelong (a)
Ukrainian (a) > a Ukrainian (n)	sluggrad (n) > sluggrad (a)
young (a) > a/the young (n)	Zionist (n) > Zionist (a)

Among other specifically English types of word-formation the following should be first of all pointed out:

a) **The sound interchange** (i. e. short vs. long): *bit – beat, cot –court, kin – keen, live – life, prove –proof, rid – read, sit – seat*, etc;

b) **Lexicalization** of some plural forms of nouns like *colour – colours (military\* banner), glass –glasses (eye-glasses, opera-glasses), line – lines (poetic works)*, etc;

c) **The phonomorphological** word-formation which is closely connected with the abbreviation proper. Cf. *Mr.* for mister, *Mrs.* (mistress), *govt.* (government), *Sgt.* (sergeant), *memo* (memorandum), *demo* (demonstration), *D* (Lady *D*) princess *Diana*, and many others.

### Typology of Idiomatic and Set Expressions

The idiomatic and set expressions, i. e. lexically and often structurally stable units of lexicon present a universal phenomenon. Structurally, they may be in all languages 1) Sentence idioms (*time and tide wait for no man*); 2) Word-group idioms (*Ten Commandments, to be or not to be*); 3) Meta-

phorically generalized proper names (sometimes geographical names) as Jack Ketch (hangman), *Tom Pepper (great Her)*, *Tom Tailor (tailor)*, *Tom Thumb (a small man, a Liliputian)*, *Mrs. Grundy, Tom, Dick, and Harry, Nosy Parker*. Similarly in Ukrainian and many others. Their transparent metaphorical meaning is indisputable in the contrasted languages.

Presumably common in all languages are also the paradigmatic classes of idioms which may be **substantival**; **verbal**; **adverbial** etc. Idiomatic expressions in English and Ukrainian and in all other languages may perform common functions in the sentence, namely, that of a) the subject (*Hobson's choice* is an idiom); b) the predicate/predicative (That was a *Hobson's choice* for him); c) the object (He translated correctly the idiom "*Hobson's choice*" into Ukrainian); d) the adverbial modifier (He will do it *by hook or by crook*).

Besides, idiomatic expressions exist in all languages either as 1) absolute equivalents having all components the same and absolutely identical or slightly different meaning in some languages of a historically, culturally and mostly geographically close region, as is the case with the idiomatic expressions of the European area as *the heel of Achilles*, *the Trojan horse* etc. 2) Idiomatic expressions may also exist as *near equivalents*, i. e. when having in some (usually different) languages one or more components missing or different as in other (contrasted) languages. For example: to kiss the *post as pale as paper*; *grass widow* — *measure twice, cut once*.

Or in Japanese: *to live like dog and monkey*, i. e. *to live as cat and dog*: 3) The third common class of idiomatic expressions and not only in the contrasted languages constitute genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies. The latter have in English and Ukrainian similar meaning but different componential structures. Cf. *a fly in the ointment*, *make haste slowly*.

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

Typologically relevant is also the identification of the group of regular **international idioms**, which are common, however, only in some groups of geographically closer languages (cf. European, South-Asian, Far Eastern). Nevertheless there scarcely exist universal idioms of the same lexical meaning and the same component structure. This is the result of the

historical development of languages which were exerted in different geographical/racial areas to different cultural, religious and other influences. Thus, all European nations and their languages have been influenced by Greek and Roman cultures and by Christianity. As a result, there are many not only words but also idioms borrowed from Greek, Hebrew and Latin (cf. *Pandora's box, Herculean pillars, Gordian knot, between Scylla and Charybdis, to cross the Rubicon; I came, I saw, I conquered; the Ten Commandments, wise Solomon, prodigal son/to be in (the) seventh heaven* and many others). These and the like idiomatic expressions, including several proverbs and sayings, have usually absolute or near equivalents in languages of one culturally and geographically common area. Such common historical, semantic, componental and sometimes even structural equivalents can be seen on the following few examples given below.

It must be pointed out that these and many other international idioms are alien, however, to Chinese, Japanese, Aleutian, Indonesian and other analogies even in genealogically not akin languages are semantically more transparent than the approximate phraseological/idiomatic analogies. This can be seen from the so-called Japanese idiomatic expressions listed under number 1, 2, 5 and 6. Thus, JVbl *Why use a meat cleaver to cut up a chicken?* corresponds to the English *To take a musket to kill a butterfly*. Similarly in the Japanese No 2: *to see a thief and make a rope* which corresponds to the English *to shut the stable-door after the horse is stolen*.

Approximate analogies, naturally, are still more obscure due to their componental parts/images which are mostly very different in non-related/far distant, as in case of the Japanese languages. Sometimes they are hardly recognizable for the Europeans in general. *The knight jumps too far* that corresponds to the English *Let sleeping dogs lie*.

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

### **Питання для самоконтролю**

1. Point to the extralingual factors predetermining the birth and functioning of universal lexicon.
2. Name and characterize all existing approaches to and principles of the systemic study and classification of lexicon.

3. Point out the common/isomorphic and divergent/allomorphic features in the onomasiological structure of some English vs. Ukrainian notional and functional words.
4. Point to the correlation of the phonetic/phonological, morphological, and semantic types of motivation in the lexical units of English and Ukrainian. Point out the typologically isomorphic layers of lexicon in the English and Ukrainian languages. State the correlation between the stylistically neutral and stylistically evaluative units of lexicon in the contrasted languages.
5. Characterize the socially predetermined layers of lexicon in the contrasted languages. Expand on the international terminological, professional, literary, colloquial, low colloquial etc. words and expressions in the contrasted languages.
6. Expand on the 1) common Indo-European stock of words in English and Ukrainian 2) on nationally specific English vs. Ukrainian lexis.
7. Define the types of derivational morphemes/affixes and the role of agglutination in English and Ukrainian word-formation.
8. Speak on the national and international word-forming/affixal morphemes in English and Ukrainian.
9. Expand on the phenomenon of substantivization, adjectivization, verbalization and adverbialization in English and Ukrainian.
10. Expand on the typological isomorphism of suppletivity as a word-forming and form-building means in English and Ukrainian.
11. Point out the isomorphic and allomorphic features in the identification, classification and functioning of international, national, and universal types of idiomatic expressions.
12. Expand on the typological classification of idiomatic and stable expressions in the genealogically different languages.

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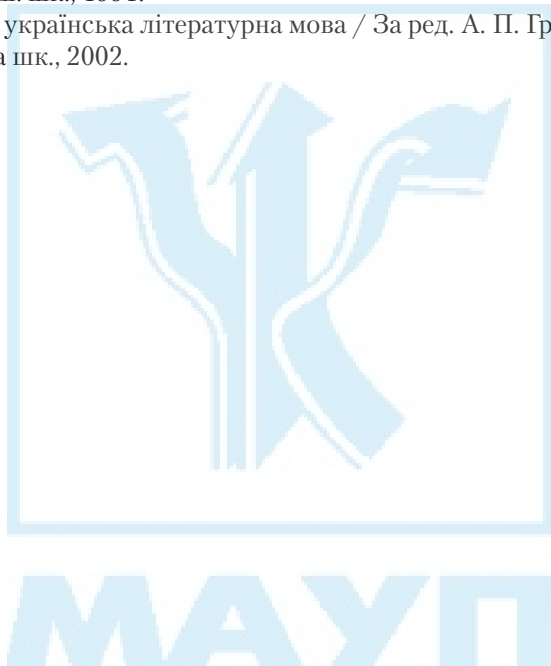


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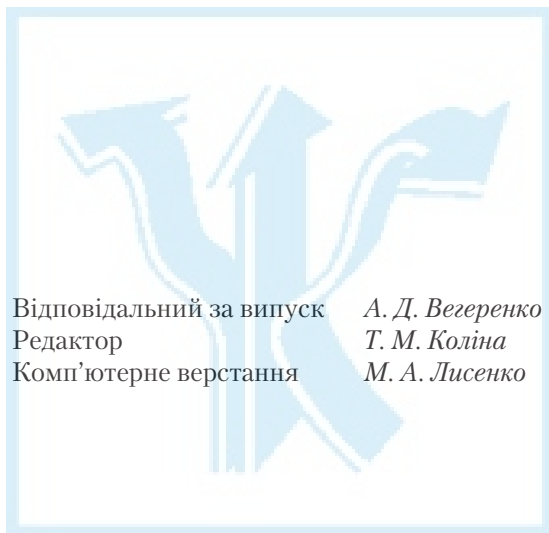
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