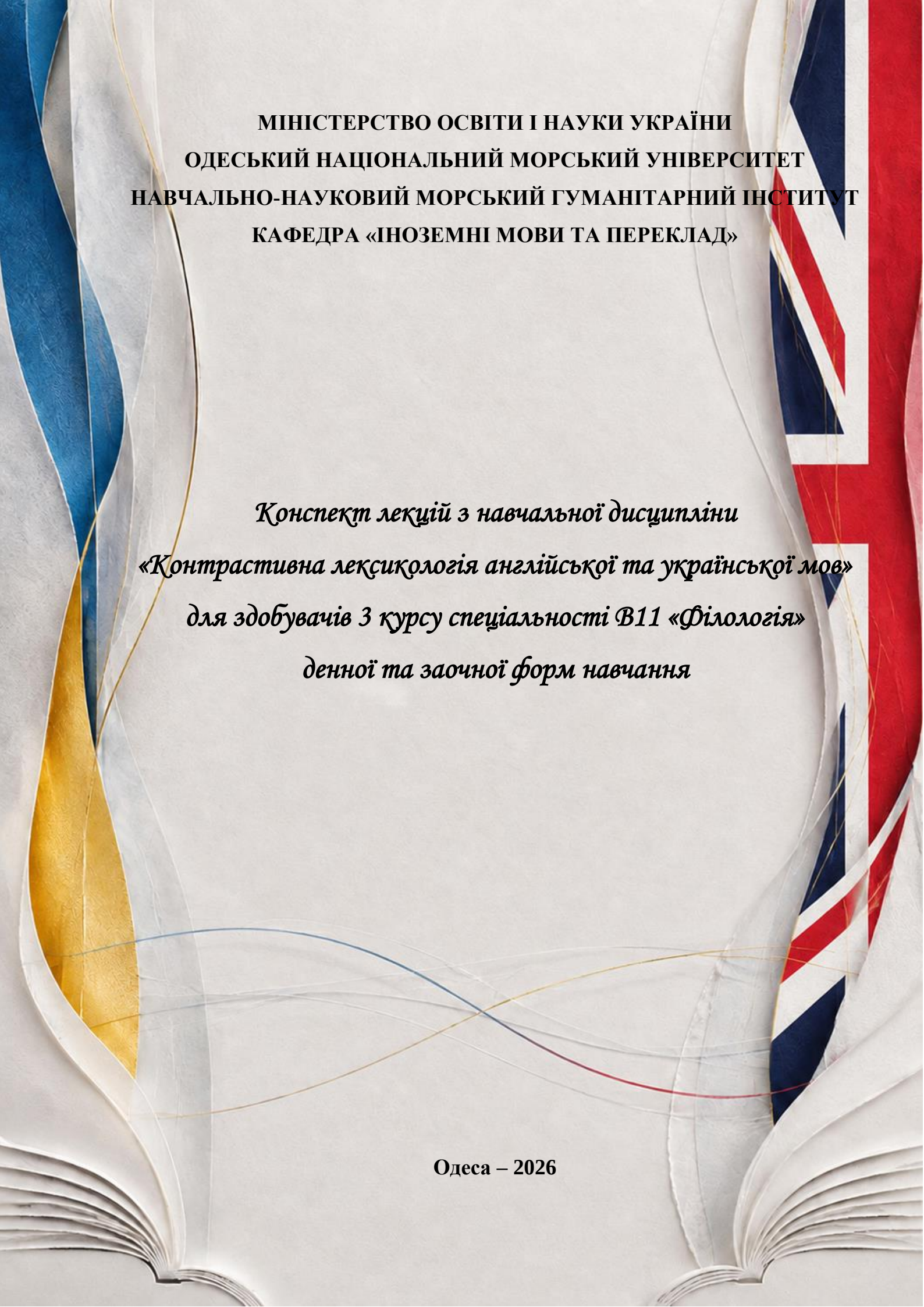


The background of the cover features a layered, torn-paper effect. On the left, a blue and yellow strip is visible. On the right, a portion of the Union Jack flag is shown. Thin, wavy lines in blue, yellow, and red are scattered across the white background.

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ОДЕСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ МОРСЬКИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
НАВЧАЛЬНО-НАУКОВИЙ МОРСЬКИЙ ГУМАНІТАРНИЙ ІНСТИТУТ
КАФЕДРА «ІНОЗЕМНІ МОВИ ТА ПЕРЕКЛАД»**

*Конспект лекцій з навчальної дисципліни
«Контрастивна лексикологія англійської та української мов»
для здобувачів 3 курсу спеціальності В11 «Філологія»
денної та заочної форм навчання*

Одеса – 2026

Конспект лекцій з навчальної дисципліни «Контрастивна лексикологія англійської та української мов» для здобувачів 3-го курсу спеціальності В11 «Філологія» денної та заочної форм навчання. Корнелаєва Є.В. Одеса: ОНМУ, 2026. 57 с.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Конспект лекцій з навчальної дисципліни «Контрастивна лексикологія англійської та української мов» призначений для здобувачів першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти 3-го курсу спеціальності В11 «Філологія» денної та заочної форм навчання. Видання підготовлено відповідно до змісту навчальної дисципліни та спрямовано на систематизацію теоретичних знань про лексичні системи англійської й української мов у зіставному аспекті.

Мета конспекту полягає у формуванні цілісного уявлення про закономірності організації, функціонування та розвитку словникового складу англійської й української мов, а також про спільні та відмінні ознаки їхніх лексичних систем. Опрацювання матеріалу сприятиме засвоєнню основних понять контрастивної лексикології, розвитку вмінь аналізувати лексичні одиниці за їхнім походженням, структурою, семантикою, словотвірними особливостями, парадигматичними й синтагматичними зв'язками, стилістичним забарвленням і сферою вживання.

Контрастивне вивчення лексики має важливе значення для професійної підготовки філолога й перекладача. Зіставлення англійських та українських лексичних одиниць дає змогу виявляти повні, часткові й нульові відповідники, розпізнавати міжмовні лексичні лакуни, установлювати відмінності в семантичному обсязі, сполучуваності, конотаціях і стилістичній належності слів. Такі знання допомагають уникати механічного добору словникових відповідників, обґрунтовано розв'язувати перекладацькі проблеми та враховувати лінгвокультурну специфіку англійської й української мов.

Конспект охоплює вісім лекцій, у яких послідовно розглянуто контрастивну лексикологію як галузь мовознавства; етимологічну структуру англійського та українського лексиконів; словотворення в англійській та українській мовах; лексичну семантику й структуру значення; парадигматичні лексичні відношення; семантичні зміни та семантичне перенесення; фразеологію й колокаційні моделі; стратифікацію словникового складу, термінологію та лексичні інновації.

Матеріал викладено англійською мовою із залученням українських відповідників, прикладів і контрастивних коментарів. Теоретичні положення супроводжуються визначеннями, класифікаціями та ілюстративним матеріалом, що демонструє особливості функціонування лексичних одиниць у двох мовах. Особливу увагу приділено випадкам часткової еквівалентності й безеквівалентності, розбіжностям у лексикалізації понять, культурно маркованій лексиці, фразеологічним відповідникам і способам передавання лексичних одиниць у перекладі.

Кожна лекція містить план, перелік ключових понять, основний теоретичний матеріал та питання для самоперевірки. Така структура забезпечує послідовне опрацювання тем, полегшує повторення навчального матеріалу та сприяє розвитку навичок самостійного лексикологічного аналізу.

Конспект лекцій може використовуватися під час аудиторної роботи, підготовки до практичних занять, виконання самостійних та індивідуальних завдань, а також підготовки до поточного й підсумкового контролю. Поданий матеріал покликаний не лише забезпечити засвоєння теоретичних засад дисципліни, а й сформувати в здобувачів уміння застосовувати методи контрастивного аналізу в перекладацькій, лексикографічній, дослідницькій та професійній діяльності.

Lecture 1. Contrastive Lexicology as a Branch of Linguistic Studies

Lecture plan

1. Lexicology and its branches: general, special, historical, descriptive and contrastive lexicology
2. Contrastive lexicology as a subdivision of contrastive linguistics: object, subject and aims
3. The word as a linguistic unit: word, word-form, lexeme and lexical unit
4. The notion of the lexical system
5. Lexical equivalence, partial equivalence, non-equivalence and lexical gaps
6. Methods of contrastive lexical analysis
7. Contrastive lexicology in translation
8. Contrastive lexicology and intercultural communication

Key concepts

lexicology, contrastive lexicology, comparative linguistics, contrastive linguistics, word, word-form, lexeme, lexical unit, lexical system, semantic field, paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation, equivalence, partial equivalence, non-equivalence, lexical gap, tertium comparationis, interlingual comparison

Introduction

Lexicology is the branch of linguistics that studies the **vocabulary** of a language and the properties of words as central **lexical units**. In a contrastive course, these questions are studied not in one language separately, but through a comparison of two **lexical systems**.

1. Lexicology and its branches: general, special, historical, descriptive and contrastive lexicology

Lexicology studies the **lexicon** of a language as an organized system. A **word** can be studied as a sound form, a grammatical unit, a unit of **meaning**, a member of a **semantic field**, and a cultural **sign**. **General lexicology** studies words and vocabularies according to general linguistic principles applicable to any language. **Special lexicology** applies these questions to one particular language.

Descriptive lexicology studies **vocabulary** synchronically. **Historical lexicology** investigates diachronic development. **Contrastive lexicology** compares **lexical systems** of two or more languages and is both theoretical and applied.

Example: English distinguishes *house* and *home*. Ukrainian has *будинок*, *дім*, *оселя* and *хата*, among others. *House* primarily denotes a building. *Home* foregrounds belonging, family, and emotional attachment. Ukrainian *дім* can cover both architectural and emotional meanings. *Хата* carries rural or folk cultural associations. *Оселя* is more literary and elevated in many contexts.

2. Contrastive lexicology as a subdivision of contrastive linguistics

Contrastive lexicology is a subdivision of **contrastive linguistics**. Unlike **comparative-historical linguistics**, which studies genetic relations and historical development of related languages, **contrastive linguistics** usually focuses on languages as they function at a given stage and is not limited to related languages. English and Ukrainian are not closely genetically related, but they can be compared systematically because the comparison rests on a shared **tertium comparationis**, not on common ancestry.

The **object** of **contrastive lexicology** is the **lexical systems** of the compared languages. The **subject** is the similarities and differences between **lexical units**, **lexical fields**, **semantic relations**, **word-formation** patterns, **stylistic layers** and **culture-specific vocabulary**. The **methodological founda-**

tion is **comparability**: the **tertium comparationis** – a shared semantic feature, conceptual domain, or communicative situation – makes comparison principled.

3. The word as a linguistic unit: word, word-form, lexeme and lexical unit

The **word** is the basic unit of **lexicology**: it has an external form and internal content (**lexical meaning**, **grammatical meaning**, and possible connotations). Modern **lexicology** distinguishes **word**, **word-form**, **lexeme** and **lexical unit**. A **word-form** is a concrete grammatical form of a **lexeme**. A **lexeme** is an abstract **vocabulary** unit represented in dictionaries. A **lexical unit** may be a single **word**, a compound, a **phrasal verb**, or a **stable expression**. These terms are not mutually exclusive: both single words and multi-word units (compounds, phrasal verbs, set expressions) have **lexeme** status, while **lexical unit** is the broader cover term.

Beyond its formal and grammatical properties, the **word** can be understood as a **linguistic sign** connecting form, meaning, and cultural associations.

Example: English *go, goes, went, gone* are **word-forms** of the **lexeme** *GO*. Ukrainian *і́дти, їде́ти, їшо́в, ї́тиму* are **word-forms** of the **lexeme** *ІТИ*. English *give up* is a **multi-word lexical unit** because its meaning (to stop trying, to quit) is not predictable from the components *give* and *up* separately. Ukrainian *бути байдуже* is similarly a **multi-word lexical unit** functioning idiomatically with the meaning ‘to idle, to laze around’. Note that *give up* and *бути байдуже* are not equivalents of each other; they are independent examples illustrating the same type – the **multi-word lexical unit** – in each language.

Contrastive comment. Ukrainian, as a synthetic language, has more visible grammatical forms for nouns, adjectives and verbs; English relies more on **word order**, function words and analytic constructions.

4. The notion of the lexical system

Vocabulary is a system. **Semantic relations** include **synonymy**, **antonymy**, **hyponymy**, **meronymy** and **lexical fields**. **Stylistic stratification** – neutral, formal, colloquial, bookish, archaic – is also part of the **lexical system**. A **word** receives part of its value from its place in the system: English *child* is neutral, *kid* is informal, *infant* is more formal or technical. Ukrainian *дитина* is neutral, *малюк* affectionate, *немовля* more specific, *чадо* elevated or ironic.

Paradigmatic relations connect lexical units within a system of choices and contrasts. Synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, stylistic differentiation and membership in a lexical field are predominantly paradigmatic. **Syntagmatic relations** concern the habitual combination of lexical units in speech and writing. Collocational compatibility is therefore primarily syntagmatic.

Contrastive comment. Ukrainian encodes verbal aspect morphologically, as in *нуча́ти / написа́ти*, whereas English often relies on lexical choice, tense-aspect constructions or contextual means.

5. Lexical equivalence, partial equivalence, non-equivalence and lexical gaps

Full equivalence is rare outside technical terminology. **Partial equivalence** means lexical units overlap in meaning but differ in semantic range, collocation, stylistic value, grammar or cultural associations. **Non-equivalence** appears when a lexical unit lacks a direct counterpart at the specified analytical level. A **lexical gap** is the absence of an established lexicalized unit for a concept expressed in the other language. Lexical gaps may occur in both directions. English *toddler* has no exact established one-word equivalent in Ukrainian, whereas Ukrainian *до́ба*, denoting a twenty-four-hour period as a single lexical unit, has no fully equivalent common one-word counterpart in English.

Example: English *privacy* may be rendered in Ukrainian as *приватність, особистий простір, конфіденційність* or *недоторканність приватного життя* depending on context. Ukrainian *громада* may be rendered into English as *community, local community, municipality* or *territorial community* depending on administrative and cultural context. English *sibling* (a gender-neutral term for a brother or sister) has no single Ukrainian equivalent; Ukrainian uses *брат або сестра* or a descriptive phrase – a **lexical gap in Ukrainian**, just like *toddler* in Example 2. Ukrainian *доба* (a 24-hour period as a single lexical unit) has no direct single English equivalent; English uses *twenty-four hours, a day, or round the clock* depending on context.

6. Methods of contrastive lexical analysis

In practice the methods are combined rather than used in isolation.

Definitional analysis – comparing dictionary definitions of the nearest correspondents. English *to borrow* is defined as taking something temporarily with intent to return it; Ukrainian *позичати* covers **both** borrowing and lending, so the definitions reveal that one English concept is split across a single wider Ukrainian verb.

Componential analysis – decomposing meaning into semantic features. English *hand* = [+upper limb, +below wrist] versus *arm* = [+upper limb, –below wrist]; Ukrainian *рука* carries [+upper limb] without specifying the wrist boundary, so it corresponds to *hand* and *arm* together – the feature [±below wrist] is lexicalized in English but not in Ukrainian.

Semantic-field analysis – comparing whole groups of words that cover one conceptual domain. The field of water flow: English *spring – brook – stream – river* against Ukrainian *джерело – струмок – потік – річка*. The fields divide the same domain by different criteria (size and position in the water-course), so the members are not in one-to-one correspondence: English brook and stream do not map neatly onto Ukrainian струмок and потік.

Word-formation analysis – comparing derivational models that build related words. English forms the agent noun *teacher* with the suffix **-er**; Ukrainian forms *учитель / учителька*, adding the feminine suffix **-к-**.

Contextual and collocational analysis – studying words in real contexts and habitual combinations. English *strong* collocates with *tea* (*strong tea*), but Ukrainian requires *міцний чай*, not *сильний чай*; the same concept selects a different conventional partner, which only contextual-collocational analysis reveals.

Translation-equivalent analysis – studying how units are actually rendered in translations and bilingual dictionaries. English *privacy* is rendered in parallel texts variously as *приватність, особистий простір*, or *недоторканність приватного життя* depending on legal or everyday context.

Cultural-conceptual analysis – focusing on culturally marked words and their background knowledge. Ukrainian *хліб* and English *bread* overlap in basic denotation, but Ukrainian *хліб* carries prominent cultural associations of hospitality and respect, as in *хліб-сіль*.

7. Contrastive lexicology in translation

Translation is one of the main applied domains of **contrastive lexicology**. Translators deal with lexical correspondences, **lexical gaps**, **phraseological equivalence**, semantic shifts and **culture-specific items**. **Contrastive lexicology** helps avoid mechanical word-for-word translation. When selecting a translation strategy for non-equivalent or partially equivalent **lexical items**, translators may draw on: **borrowing** or transcription (*vyshyvanka, наб*), calque (*академічна доброчесність*), descriptive translation, functional analogue, or contextual substitution.

Phraseological equivalence often works at the level of function rather than literal imagery. English *to kill two birds with one stone* and Ukrainian *убити двох зайців одним пострілом* are functional equivalents. They share the conceptual pattern ‘one action – two results’, although their concrete images differ. English *when pigs fly* and Ukrainian *коли рак на горі свисне* are functional equivalents meaning ‘never’ or ‘only under impossible circumstances’, but they use different images. A translator must match communicative function and stylistic register rather than reproduce the specific image mechanically.

8. Contrastive lexicology and intercultural communication

Language is connected with culture because **vocabulary** names socially important objects, practices, institutions, values and experiences. **Culture-specific words** act as carriers of background knowledge. Ukrainian *майдан, громада, кобзар, рушник, вишиванка* are not only **lexical items** but signs connected with history, social life and identity. English *pub, Thanksgiving, privacy, common law, campus* also require cultural knowledge for full understanding. Intercultural misunderstanding occurs when speakers assume formally similar words have identical meanings or that a dictionary equivalent carries the same cultural value.

Questions for Self-check

1. What is lexicology and what does it study?
2. What is the difference between general and special lexicology?
3. How do historical and descriptive approaches to vocabulary differ?
4. What distinguishes contrastive linguistics from comparative-historical linguistics?
5. Why is contrastive lexicology considered a subdivision of contrastive linguistics?
6. What are the object and subject of contrastive lexicology?
7. Why is the word regarded as the basic lexical unit?
8. What is the difference between a word, a word-form, a lexeme and a lexical unit?
9. What does it mean to say that vocabulary is a lexical system?
10. What is *tertium comparationis* and why is it necessary in contrastive analysis?
11. What is the difference between full equivalence, partial equivalence and non-equivalence?
12. What is a lexical gap? Give one example of a gap in English and one example of a gap in Ukrainian.
13. Which methods can be used in contrastive lexical analysis?
14. How does contrastive lexicology help translators? Give an example of a translation strategy.
15. What is the relationship between contrastive lexicology and intercultural communication?

Lecture 2. Etymological Structure of the English and Ukrainian Lexicons

Lecture plan

1. Native and borrowed vocabulary
2. Historical layers of the English lexicon
3. Historical layers of the Ukrainian lexicon
4. Causes and channels of lexical borrowing
5. Assimilation of borrowings: degree and types
6. Internationalisms, calques, and semantic borrowings
7. False friends in English and Ukrainian

Key concepts

etymology; native vocabulary; inherited vocabulary; borrowed vocabulary; loanword; source language; recipient language; immediate source; intermediary language; ultimate etymon; direct and indirect borrowing; assimilation (phonetic, graphic, grammatical, word-formational, semantic); barbarism; exoticism; internationalism; calque; semantic borrowing; false friends.

Introduction

The **etymological structure** of a **lexicon** is the organization of its vocabulary according to historical origin. In contrastive lexicology, this issue matters because languages differ not only in the number of lexical items they possess but also in the historical routes through which words entered the language and in the degree to which they became part of the **recipient vocabulary**.

1. Native and Borrowed Vocabulary

Native vocabulary consists primarily of lexical items inherited from earlier documented or reconstructed stages of a language. In English, the inherited stock continues Old English and earlier Germanic sources; in Ukrainian, it continues Proto-Slavic and later historical developments.

Borrowed vocabulary consists of lexical forms, meanings, or structural models adopted under cross-linguistic influence. A **loanword** is a lexical item adopted from a **source language** into a **recipient language**; its degree of formal and semantic adaptation may vary. Borrowing may involve form and meaning together, the internal structural model only (a **calque**), or meaning only (a **semantic borrowing**).

English – native: *mother, father, house, water, hand, go, eat, good.*

Ukrainian – native: *мати, брат, вода, земля, сонце, ходити.*

Contrastive comment. English has a larger visible Romance and classical component in general vocabulary, whereas Ukrainian preserves a stronger Slavic morphological and lexical base. English synonymic pairs often set a Germanic item beside a French or Latin counterpart; Ukrainian often pairs a **Common Slavic** item with a more recent international or English borrowing.

2. Historical Layers of the English Lexicon

The inherited English layer continues Proto-Germanic vocabulary, much of which can be traced further to Proto-Indo-European. These are not two mechanically exclusive origins: every inherited Indo-European item passed through a Germanic stage. For classroom classification, students should distinguish items with secure cognates outside Germanic from items reconstructed securely only at the Proto-Germanic level.

The **Scandinavian layer** entered English mainly through contact with Old Norse speakers during the Viking Age and settlement in the Danelaw. Many Scandinavian words are now completely assimilated and belong to the most frequent vocabulary; the influence even affected the pronominal system – the third-person plural pronouns *they*, *their*, *them* are Scandinavian in origin, replacing the Old English forms.

The **French layer** is connected with the Norman Conquest of 1066 and the centuries of French-speaking influence that followed. A characteristic result is stylistic synonymy: a native Germanic item for ordinary use beside a French item for institutional or elevated use, as in *ask* (native) beside *question* (French) and *interrogate* (Latin).

Latin influenced English in several waves – early Roman contacts, Christianization, medieval education, Renaissance scholarship, and modern scientific terminology. Greek influenced English mainly through learned, scientific, philosophical, and international vocabulary. Crucially, many of these items are not direct borrowings from Ancient Greek but **Greek-based formations** transmitted through Latin, French, New Latin, or modern scholarly usage. Some Latin-layer words are themselves of ultimately Greek origin: *priest* (Old English *prēost* < Late Latin *presbyter* < Greek *presbyteros*) and *school* (Latin *schola* < Greek *skholē*). The English lexicon also contains later borrowings from Italian, Spanish, Dutch, German, Arabic, Hindi, Japanese, Chinese, Slavic, and other sources.

Layer / source	Typical semantic spheres	Examples
Inherited English / Proto-Germanic	family, body, nature, basic actions, everyday qualities	<i>father, mother, hand, water, house, eat</i>
Scandinavian / Old Norse	everyday vocabulary, law, settlement, pronouns	<i>sky, egg, take, law, they, their, them</i>
French	law, government, army, court culture, cuisine, social hierarchy	<i>court, judge, government, army, royal, beef</i>
Latin and Latin-mediated	religion, education, scholarship, science, administration	<i>priest, school, formula, university</i>
Greek-derived (learned)	philosophy, medicine, science, technology, politics	<i>democracy, philosophy, analysis, telephone</i>

English synonymic sets (Germanic – French – Latin):

ask – question – interrogate; help – aid – assist; begin – commence – initiate.

In such sets the native item is usually more everyday and emotionally direct, while the Romance or classical item is more formal, institutional, or learned – a distinction a translator must preserve (e.g. *ask* vs. *interrogate* as *зану́тати* vs. *до́нупува́ти*).

3. Historical Layers of the Ukrainian Lexicon

The Ukrainian lexicon has a Slavic base. Its inherited vocabulary can be described at several depths: Proto-Indo-European inheritance continued through Proto-Slavic, vocabulary shared across Slavic languages, later East Slavic continuities where this category is supported by the selected historical model, and specifically Ukrainian developments. These labels should not be treated as mechanically exclusive if an item can be reconstructed at several successive stages. The inherited core covers family relations (*мати, брат, сестра*), body parts (*рука, нога, голова*), natural phenomena (*вода, земля, сонце, вітер*), agriculture and everyday life (*поле, ліс, хліб*), and basic actions (*ходити, говорити, їсти, спати*). Specifically Ukrainian formations include items such as *мрія, майбутнє, промінь*.

Church Slavonic exercised a profound influence on Ukrainian from the late ninth century onwards, through the written tradition, religious practice, liturgical texts, and educated culture. Words and forms

associated with this tradition include *благодать, владика, храм, воскресіння, спасіння, благословення*. Church Slavonic also shaped the elevated, bookish stylistic layer; some forms coexist with native **East Slavic** equivalents and differ in register. The clearest example is the contrast of full vocalism: *глас* (Church Slavonic, non-pleophonic, archaic or poetic) beside *голос* (East Slavic, pleophonic, neutral). The pair *уста* (elevated) beside *зуби* (everyday) shows the same stratification; *уста* is itself of Common Slavic origin but is preserved chiefly in the elevated register, supported by the Church Slavonic written tradition.

Polish contacts were important from the fourteenth to the eighteenth century, during the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth (1569–1795). Polish contributed social, administrative, educational, urban, and everyday vocabulary. Some items have Polish as their **immediate source** (*пан, кошт, гудзик, цегла, танок*); others were mediated through Polish from Latin, German, or other European sources. This intermediary role is significant: a surface form may suggest Polish origin while the deeper source is Latin or German – for example, *патуша* came through Polish *ratusz* from German *Rathaus*.

Turkic contacts are reflected in vocabulary connected with steppe culture, trade, food, clothing, and military life, entering Ukrainian primarily in the fourteenth–seventeenth centuries through the Crimean Khanate, the Ottoman Empire, and steppe trade routes. Four items deserve careful formulation:

- *майдан* – a borrowing from a Turkic source. Related forms are attested in Crimean Tatar, Tatar, Kipchak, Turkish, Kazakh, and Turkmen; the Turkic forms ultimately go back to Persian or Arabic.
- *кавун* – of Turkic origin: Turkish *kavun* means ‘melon’ and is traced further to Arabic *kavun*, whereas Ukrainian *кавун* means ‘watermelon’. An excellent example of borrowing accompanied by a change of meaning.

German borrowings are associated with crafts, trade, urban culture, military organization, and technical vocabulary, entering Ukrainian both directly and through Polish mediation (e.g. *рахунок* < Polish *rachować* ← German *rechnen*; *дах* ← German *Dach*). **French** contributed words of fashion, culture, diplomacy, cuisine, and social etiquette. **Latin** and **Greek** are central to education, science, medicine, philosophy, politics, and international terminology. From the late twentieth century, **English** has become a major source of new lexical items in IT, business, media, sport, and popular culture.

Layer / source	Typical semantic spheres	Examples
Inherited Slavic vocabulary	family, nature, agriculture, body, everyday life	<i>мати, вода, земля, поле, ходити</i>
Specifically Ukrainian developments	culture, evaluation, abstract concepts, everyday vocabulary	<i>мрія, майбутнє, промінь</i>
Church Slavonic	religion, bookish style, elevated and poetic vocabulary	<i>благодать, владика, храм, спасіння</i>
Polish	social life, administration, urban and material culture	<i>пан, кошт, гудзик, цегла</i>
Turkic	steppe culture, trade, food, military life	<i>майдан, кавун, козак, тютюн</i>
German	craft, trade, urban life, technical vocabulary	<i>рахунок, крам, дах, штраф</i>
French	fashion, cuisine, diplomacy, art, culture	<i>бульйон, меню, бюро, парфуми</i>
Classical and international (Latin/Greek)	science, education, medicine, philosophy, politics	<i>університет, демократія, театр, філософія</i>
English	business, digital culture, sport, media,	<i>менеджер, маркетинг, бренд,</i>

Layer / source	Typical semantic spheres	Examples
	technology	<i>смапман</i>

Contrastive comment. English absorbed major French and Latin layers into an already mixed Latin-script system, whereas Ukrainian currently receives many English items into a Slavic, inflectional, Cyrillic system. The shared principle is historical layering; the language-specific differences concern donor languages, chronology, writing systems, inflection, and derivational productivity.

4. Causes and Channels of Lexical Borrowing

Lexical borrowing occurs when speech communities interact. The causes may be cultural, political, religious, scientific, technological, economic, educational, or stylistic. Borrowing is not an accidental deviation but a regular mechanism by which languages name new realities and participate in broader communication networks.

A major cause is the need to name a new object, institution, practice, or concept. Another is cultural prestige: a language associated with power, education, religion, fashion, science, or technology may influence another even without conquest or direct contact. Borrowing may also provide terminological precision, stylistic variation, or international transparency.

Examples: *pizza* (Italian); *algebra* (Arabic *al-jabr*); *coffee* (Arabic *qahwa*, via Turkish *kahve* and Dutch *koffie*); *robot* (Czech *robota* ‘forced labour’); *tsunami* (Japanese *tsu* ‘harbour’ + *nami* ‘wave’); *лекція* (Latin); *демократія* (Greek via Latin); *телефон* (French *téléphone*, formed from Greek elements); (English *internet*); *маркетинг* (English); *ресторан* (French *restaurant*).

5. Assimilation of Borrowings: Degree and Types

Assimilation, also called naturalization, is the adaptation of a borrowed item to the phonological, **graphic**, **grammatical**, derivational, and semantic norms of the **recipient language**. The degree depends on the time of borrowing, frequency, communicative importance, similarity between source and **recipient language**, the channel of transmission, and the social sphere of use. Older and frequent words usually become more fully assimilated than recent, specialized, or culturally marked borrowings. By degree, borrowed words may be **completely assimilated**, **partially assimilated**, or **non-assimilated** (barbarisms).

Degree of assimilation	Main features	Examples
Completely assimilated	conforms to the recipient language in pronunciation, spelling, grammar, and ordinary usage	<i>cheese, street, table, take; торба, тютюн, школа</i>
Partially assimilated	keeps some foreign phonetic, graphic, grammatical, derivational, or semantic features	<i>ballet, genre, criterion – criteria; бюро, нюре, метро</i>
Non-assimilated / barbarism	retains foreign form and is felt as foreign; often has a native equivalent or is used for stylistic effect	<i>ad hoc, status quo, de facto, de jure</i>

5.1. Phonetic Assimilation

Phonetic assimilation adapts a borrowing to the sound system and stress patterns of the **recipient language** – replacing unfamiliar sounds, adjusting stress, simplifying clusters, or reinterpreting final vowels and consonants. **Phonetic non-assimilation** occurs when a word retains a sound, stress pattern, or a combination of the **source language**.

English: *garage, genre, prestige, ballet, machine, café, cliché.*

Ukrainian: *бюро* (French *bureau*), *вестибюль* (French *vestibule*), *пюре* (French *purée*), *маркетинг, менеджер, сканер* (English).

5.2. Graphic (Orthographic) Assimilation

Graphic assimilation adapts a borrowing to the writing system and spelling conventions of the **recipient language** – transliteration, replacement of foreign letters, omission of diacritics, or standardized spelling.

English shows a continuum: conventionalized spellings such as *beauty, music, and machine* coexist with source-like spellings or optional diacritics such as *café / cafe, naïve / naive, and résumé / resume*.

Ukrainian: *computer* → *комп'ютер*; *manager* → *менеджер*; *de jure* → *де-юре*; *de facto* → *де-факто*.

5.3. Grammatical and Morphological Assimilation

Grammatical assimilation integrates a borrowing into the **grammatical** system of the **recipient language** – plural formation, gender, number, case, declension, verb forms, and agreement. It is especially important in inflectional languages.

English (plurals/verb forms): *criterion* – *criteria*; *phenomenon* – *phenomena*; *formula* – *formulae / formulas*; *table* – *tables*.

Ukrainian – declined: *файл* – *файла*; *бренд* – *бренду*; *сканер* – *сканера*.

Indeclinable: *метро, авокадо, рандеву, портмоне*.

Verbal integration: *моніторити, сканувати, любіювати*.

5.4. Word-Formational (Derivational) Assimilation

Word-formational assimilation is the ability of a borrowing to participate in the derivational processes of the **recipient language**. A word is more fully integrated when it can form adjectives, verbs, nouns, or compounds by native patterns.

English: *table* (noun) – *table* (verb) – *tabled*; *manager* – *managerial*; *modern* – *modernize* – *modernization*.

Ukrainian – productive: *сканер* – *сканувати* – *сканування*; *бренд* – *брендовий*; *блог* – *блогер* – *блогерський*.

5.5. Semantic Assimilation

Semantic assimilation concerns the development of meaning after borrowing: a word may keep its original meaning, take only one meaning of a polysemous source word, undergo narrowing, broadening, specialization, or shift, or develop new metaphorical meanings.

English (meaning change): *nice* (Latin *nescius* ‘ignorant’, via Old French → ‘pleasant’); *cordial* (Latin ‘of the heart’ → ‘warm, friendly’); metaphorical extension: *jungle* → *concrete jungle*.

Ukrainian (meaning change): *кавун* (Turkish ‘melon’ → ‘watermelon’); *канікули* (ultimately connected with Latin *canicula* ‘little dog’ and the expression for the ‘dog days’ → a period free from study or regular institutional activity).

5.6. Barbarisms and Exoticisms

A **barbarism** is a foreign word or expression used in a visibly non-integrated or only minimally integrated form. It may occur for stylistic effect, cultural authority, terminological precision, or code-switching. An **exoticism** denotes an object, institution, title, custom, or practice associated with a particular culture or region. Formal integration and cultural reference are independent criteria, so an item may be a **barbarism**, an **exoticism**, both, or neither in a particular period and register.

English barbarisms: *ab initio, ultra vires, persona non grata.*

Ukrainian barbarisms: *de facto, status quo, à la carte.*

English exoticisms: *sari, hanbok, emir, hetman, pysanka, vyshyvanka.*

Ukrainian exoticisms: *ханбок, самурай, емір, кімоно, кабукі.*

6. Internationalisms, Calques, and Semantic Borrowings

Internationalisms are words with similar forms and related meanings across languages, especially in science, culture, politics, education, technology, and international communication. Many contain Greek or Latin morphemes, although they may have been created in modern European languages rather than inherited directly from the classical languages. **True internationalisms** are close in form and meaning across languages; **partial internationalisms** coincide only in one meaning or in some contexts. Internationalisms whose shared classical roots create a misleading similarity of meaning are **pseudo-internationalisms**, a subtype of the **false friends**.

A **calque**, or loan translation, is a lexical unit or phraseological expression created by translating the components of a documented foreign model. It borrows structure rather than foreign sound form and therefore looks native. Structural similarity alone does not prove calquing: the direction of influence requires historical, chronological, dictionary, or corpus evidence. A **semantic borrowing** occurs when an existing word acquires a new meaning under the influence of another language without a new sound form being borrowed.

Internationalisms: *democracy – демократія; philosophy – філософія; university – університет; telephone – телефон.*

Word-building calques. *suicide – самогубство* (Latin *sui caedere* ‘to kill oneself’ is reproduced by *само-* + the root *губ-* + the suffix *-ство*); *subject* (grammatical term) – *підмет* (Latin *subiectum*, from *sub-* + *iacere* ‘to throw, place’, is reproduced by *під-* + the root *мет-* from *метати*). These learned calques reproduce the Latin word-building model; they entered Ukrainian through the European scholarly tradition, frequently with Polish mediation (compare Polish *samobójstwo, podmiot*).

Phraseological calques. *rest on one’s laurels – спочивати на лаврах; the lion’s share – лєвова частка* (from Aesop); *after us the deluge – після нас хоч потоп* (French *Après nous le déluge*).

Semantic borrowings affect meaning, not form. Ukrainian *зелений* was not borrowed as a colour word; it acquired new ecological and political senses under English influence (*green energy* → *зелена енергетика*, *green transition* → *зелений перехід*). Likewise, *миша* gained the sense ‘computer device’ from English *mouse*. A **semi-calque** (partial translation + partial borrowing): *workaholic* → *трудоголік* (English *work* + the element *-aholic*, abstracted from *alcoholic*, not a Greek morpheme → Ukrainian *труд* + *-голік*).

7. False Friends in English and Ukrainian

False friends (*faux amis*) are formally similar words in two languages that differ in meaning. They may be historically related through a shared origin that developed differently in each language, partially related through one shared meaning among several, or formally similar by coincidence without any

historical connection. Only those whose similarity stems from a shared Latin or Greek root are **pseudo-internationalisms**; pairs that resemble each other only by chance are not. In translation, they are problematic because their form creates the illusion of semantic equivalence.

English word	Misleading Ukrainian association	Safer Ukrainian equivalent and note
<i>actual</i>	<i>актуальний</i>	<i>фактичний, справжній</i> ; note: <i>актуальний</i> = relevant / topical
<i>accurate</i>	<i>акуратний</i>	<i>точний</i> ; note: <i>акуратний</i> = neat / tidy (Latin <i>accūrātus</i> via Polish <i>akuratny</i>)
<i>magazine</i>	<i>магазин</i>	<i>журнал</i> ; note: <i>магазин</i> = shop / store
<i>fabric</i>	<i>фабрика</i>	<i>тканина</i> ; note: <i>фабрика</i> = factory
<i>data</i>	<i>дата</i>	<i>дані</i> ; note: <i>дата</i> = calendar date
<i>intelligent</i>	<i>інтелігентний</i>	<i>розумний, кмітливий</i> ; note: <i>інтелігентний</i> = cultured / refined
<i>complexion</i>	<i>комплексія</i>	<i>колір і вигляд шкіри обличчя</i> ; note: <i>комплексія</i> = body build
<i>ammunition</i>	<i>амуніція</i>	<i>боєприпаси</i> ; note: <i>амуніція</i> = military equipment and gear

Questions for Self-Check

1. What is the etymological structure of a lexicon?
2. How do native vocabulary and borrowed vocabulary differ?
3. Why is the English lexicon described as highly mixed?
4. What roles did Scandinavian, French, Latin, and Greek elements play in English vocabulary?
5. What are the main inherited and borrowed layers of the Ukrainian lexicon? How should Proto-Slavic inheritance, later historical continuities, and specifically Ukrainian developments be distinguished?
6. What are the main causes of lexical borrowing, and how do the channels differ between English and Ukrainian?
7. What is the difference between a source language and a recipient language? Between an immediate source and an ultimate etymon?
8. What is assimilation of borrowings, and why is it gradual?
9. How do complete, partial, and non-assimilation differ?
10. What are the main types of assimilation? Give one example of each.
11. Give an example of a borrowing whose meaning changed after it entered the language. What kind of semantic change does it show?
12. How do internationalisms differ from ordinary loanwords and calques?
13. What is the difference between a false friend and a pseudo-internationalism?
14. What is the difference between a barbarism and an exoticism? Give one example from English and one from Ukrainian.
15. Why are false friends especially problematic in English–Ukrainian translation? Give two examples from the lecture.
16. Give one example of a modern Ukrainian calque from English. What does it show about the current state of borrowing?
17. Why do *майдан*, *кавун*, and *баштан* require a carefully traced etymology rather than a single source language?

Lecture 3. Contrastive Word-Formation in English and Ukrainian

Lecture plan

Part A. Affixational Word-Formation

1. Word-formation as a means of vocabulary enrichment; derivation and inflection
2. Morphemic structure: root, stem, base and affix
3. Affixation: prefixes, suffixes, semi-affixes and combining forms
4. Prefixation: semantic groups and Ukrainian aspectual-prefixal models
5. Suffixation: person-denoting, abstract, adjectival, evaluative and gender-marking suffixes
6. Prefixal-suffixal derivation and feminitives in Ukrainian
7. Productivity of affixational models

Part B. Non-Affixational Word-Formation

8. Compounding in English according to Plag; Ukrainian compound words; compounds and phrases: criteria and translation difficulties
9. Conversion and zero-derivation
10. Shortening, clipping, abbreviation, acronyms and initialisms
11. Blending and back-formation
12. Minor processes, occasionalisms and digital neologisms
13. Contrastive summary and translation strategies

Key concepts

word-formation, derivation, inflection, morpheme, root, stem, base, affix, prefix, suffix, circumfix, derivational affix, inflectional affix, prefixation, suffixation, prefixal-suffixal derivation, semi-affix, combining form, productivity, feminitive, compound, compounding, head, modifier, nominal compound, adjectival compound, verbal compound, neoclassical compound, endocentric compound, exocentric compound, bahuvrihi compound, synthetic compound, interfix, conversion, zero-derivation, substantivation, clipping, apocope, aphaeresis, acronym, initialism, blending, back-formation, occasionalism, lexicalization, lexical economy, translation equivalence

Introduction

Word-formation is a branch of lexicological and morphological study that investigates the regular patterns by which a language creates new **lexical units** from existing material.

English and Ukrainian illustrate a significant typological contrast. English is largely analytic: its inflectional morphology is limited, and **word-class** boundaries are comparatively flexible. This makes **compounding** and **conversion** especially productive. Ukrainian is synthetic and highly inflectional: new words usually enter paradigms of gender, number, case, aspect or conjugation. As a result, Ukrainian relies heavily on **affixation**, especially **suffixation**, while English distributes **productivity** across **affixation**, **compounding**, **conversion** and several non-affixational processes.

PART A: AFFIXATIONAL WORD-FORMATION

1. Word-Formation as a Source of Vocabulary Enrichment

Word-formation enriches vocabulary by creating new **lexemes** from existing material. A **derived word** is a new vocabulary item with a new lexical meaning and a new position in the lexical system. It

differs from **inflection**, which produces grammatical forms of the same **lexeme** without creating a new vocabulary item.

English derivation vs. inflection: *teach* → *teacher* (**derivation**: a new **lexeme**); *teach* → *teaches* → *taught* (**inflection**: grammatical forms of TEACH).

Ukrainian derivation vs. inflection: *молодий* → *молодість* (**derivation**); *молодий* → *молода* → *молоде* → *молоді* (**inflection**).

Contrastive comment. The distinction is more formally visible in Ukrainian: a derivative such as *шкільний* simultaneously expresses a new lexical relation and grammatical information, while English *school* used attributively expresses only the lexical relation.

2. Morphemic Structure: Root, Stem, Base and Affix

The basic unit of **morphemic structure** is the **morpheme**, the smallest meaningful unit. The **root** is the central lexical **morpheme** of a word, which remains after all affixes are removed. The **stem** is the form to which inflectional endings are attached. The **base** is the form to which a **derivational affix** is added at a particular stage of **word-formation**. It may be identical with the **root**, but it may also be a derived or complex form.

Unit	Definition	English example	Ukrainian example
Root	Central lexical morpheme of a word; carries the core lexical meaning	<i>help</i> in <i>helpful</i> , <i>unhelpful</i>	<i>ліс</i> in <i>лісовий</i> , <i>лісник</i>
Stem	The form to which inflectional endings are attached	<i>kind</i> in <i>kinder</i> , <i>kindest</i>	<i>лісов-</i> in <i>лісовий</i> , <i>лісового</i>
Base	The form to which a derivational affix is added at a particular stage	<i>help</i> → <i>helpful</i> → <i>helpfulness</i>	<i>читати</i> → <i>читач</i> → <i>читачка</i>
Free morpheme	A morpheme that can function as an independent word	<i>help</i> , <i>school</i> , <i>black</i>	<i>ліс</i> , <i>рука</i> , <i>мова</i>
Bound morpheme	A morpheme that cannot occur independently	<i>-ful</i> , <i>-ness</i> , <i>un-</i> , <i>-er</i>	<i>-ськ-</i> , <i>без-</i> , <i>-ник</i> , <i>-ість</i>

Contrastive comment. English derivatives often keep the **base** visually unchanged, as in *help* → *helpful*, whereas Ukrainian derivatives more often show **stem** modification and grammatical integration, as in *рука* → *ручний* or *нога* → *ніжка*.

3. Affixation: Prefixes, Suffixes, Semi-Affixes and Combining Forms

Affixation is the formation of words by adding **derivational affixes** to a **base**. A **prefix** is placed before the **base** and usually modifies meaning without changing word class. A **suffix** is placed after the **base** and often changes both meaning and word class.

A **semi-affix** is an element that is historically connected with an independent word but functions as a productive word-forming element. In English, the most typical semi-affixes are *-man*, as in *postman*, and *-friendly*, as in *user-friendly*. Ukrainian has comparable elements, traditionally called суфіксоїди, such as *-люб* in *книголюб* and *-роб* in *хлібороб*.

A **combining form** is a bound element of Greek or Latin origin that appears in complex words and is especially common in scientific, technical and digital terminology. **English examples:** *bioengineering*, *cybersecurity*, *microchip*. **Ukrainian examples:** *біоінженерія*, *кібербезпека*, *мікрочип*, *телеканал*.

4. Prefixation in English and Ukrainian

4.1. Semantic Classification of English Prefixes

A single English **prefix** may correspond to different Ukrainian prefixes, suffixes or lexical equivalents. Conversely, one Ukrainian **prefix** may cover meanings that are distributed among several English lexical or grammatical devices.

Semantic group	English prefixes	English examples	Main Ukrainian equivalents
Negation and opposition	<i>un-, in-, non-, a-</i>	<i>unclean, illegal, non-alcoholic</i>	<i>не-, без-</i>
Reversal of action	<i>un-, dis-</i>	<i>unfasten, disconnect</i>	<i>роз-, від-</i>
Repetition	<i>re-</i>	<i>rewrite, reconsider</i>	<i>непе-</i>
Temporal or spatial relation	<i>fore-, pre-, post-, over-, under-</i>	<i>foresee, prewar, overpass</i>	<i>до-, перед-, після-, над-, під-</i>
Number and association	<i>bi-, co-</i>	<i>bilingual, co-author</i>	<i>дво-, спів-</i>
Former status	<i>ex-</i>	<i>ex-president</i>	<i>екс-</i>
Degree and intensification	<i>super-, over-, hyper-</i>	<i>supernatural, hyperactive</i>	<i>над-, пере-, супер-</i>
Causative meaning	<i>en-</i>	<i>enlarge, enrich, enable</i>	often rendered by suffixal or prefixal-suffixal models

Contrastive comment. Ukrainian renders English negative **prefixation** mainly through *не-* and *без-*, but also has borrowed prefixes of the same Greco-Latin fund (*a-, анти-, де-*); the native prefixes remain stylistically neutral and far more productive.

4.2. Ukrainian Prefixes as a Systematic Resource

Ukrainian **prefixes** form their own network, especially productive in the verbal system. **Spatial and directional prefixes** encode approaching (*при-*: *прийти*), movement away (*від-*: *відійти*), crossing (*пере-*: *перейти*), and surrounding or bypassing (*об-/о-*: *обійти*). Ukrainian verbal prefixes may also express lexical modification, boundedness, phase, completion, or aspectual meaning. A single **prefix** may combine lexical and aspectual functions, so the lexical contribution of the **prefix** should be distinguished from the perfective status of the resulting verb. **Negative and privative prefixes** (*не-, без-*) negate or deny a quality. **Intensifying prefixes** (*пре-, над-, архі-*) mark degree: *прекрасний, надзвичайний*.

Aspectual series: *йти* → *прийти, відійти, зайти, вийти, перейти, обійти, дійти, підійти*.

English rendering: *to arrive, to leave, to enter, to exit, to cross, to go around, to reach, to approach*.

Contrastive comment. Ukrainian **prefixal derivation** in the verbal system interacts with aspect in a way that has no direct parallel in English: one Ukrainian verbal **base** generates a full aspectual and directional series through **prefixation**, while English renders these distinctions through different verbs, phrasal verbs, or adverbials.

5. Suffixation in English and Ukrainian

5.1. Noun-Forming Suffixes Denoting Persons

Person-denoting suffixes form a larger and more differentiated system in Ukrainian than in English. English has several productive suffixes for naming agents, professions and participants, but Ukrainian additionally encodes gender and stylistic nuances more systematically.

English person-denoting suffixes:

Suffix	Meaning or note	Examples
-er	agent; highly productive	<i>teacher, driver</i>
-or / -ar	agent, mostly in Latin-based words	<i>actor, translator</i>
-ist	person by profession, activity or ideology	<i>philologist, pianist</i>
-ant / -ent	agent or participant	<i>assistant, correspondent</i>
-ee	recipient or patient of an action	<i>employee, addressee</i>
-ess	female person; limited and often stylistically marked	<i>actress, waitress</i>

Ukrainian person-denoting suffixes:

Suffix	Meaning or note	Examples
-ap	agent or profession	<i>шахтар, лікар</i>
-ник / -ик	agent, profession or object name	<i>робітник, художник</i>
-ець	agent, origin or nationality	<i>підприємець, українець</i>
-тель	agent; historically established, limited synchronic productivity	<i>вчитель, вихователь</i>
-іст / -ист	profession, activity or ideology; productive in terminology	<i>програміст, журналіст</i>
-ач	agent	<i>оглядач, викладач</i>
-ій	agent	<i>водій, палій</i>
-ка	productive feminine suffix	<i>редакторка, студентка</i>
-иця	productive feminine suffix	<i>дослідниця, учасниця</i>
-иня	productive modern feminine suffix	<i>філологиня, мисткиня</i>

Both English **-er** and Ukrainian **-ник** are polysemous: English *teacher* names a person, while *computer* and *boiler* name objects; Ukrainian *працівник* names a person, while *чайник* names an object.

Contrastive comment. Ukrainian has a larger inventory of competing **person-denoting suffixes**, and the choice depends on profession, gender and register: *teacher* may correspond to *учитель*, *учителька*, *викладач* or *викладачка* depending on context.

5.2. Abstract-Noun and Adjective-Forming Suffixes

English and Ukrainian both form abstract nouns and adjectives through **suffixation**, but the systems differ in **productivity** and stylistic distribution. English suffixes are often transpositional: they change the word class of the **base**. Ukrainian suffixes also interact with gender, declension and stylistic register.

English abstract-noun and adjective-forming suffixes:

Suffix	Word class formed	Examples
-ion	abstract noun	<i>explanation</i>
-ment	abstract noun	<i>development</i>
-ance / -ence	abstract noun	<i>importance</i>
-ness	abstract noun	<i>happiness, kindness</i>
-dom	abstract noun	<i>freedom</i>
-ship	abstract noun	<i>friendship</i>
-hood	abstract noun	<i>childhood</i>
-able / -ible	adjective	<i>readable</i>
-ful	adjective	<i>careful</i>
-less	adjective	<i>hopeless</i>
-ous	adjective	<i>dangerous</i>
-ive	adjective	<i>effective</i>
-al	adjective	<i>cultural</i>
-ish	adjective	<i>childish</i>
-y	adjective	<i>cloudy</i>

Ukrainian abstract-noun and adjective-forming suffixes:

Suffix	Word class formed	Examples
-ість	abstract noun	<i>бідність, сучасність</i>
-ота	abstract or collective noun	<i>доброта</i>
-ство	abstract or collective noun	<i>авторство, студентство</i>
-ання / -ення	abstract noun	<i>читання, пояснення</i>
-ація / -ізація	abstract noun, often terminological	<i>адаптація, цифровізація</i>
-ов(ий)	adjective	<i>службовий</i>
-н(ий)	adjective	<i>хмарний, шкільний</i>
-ськ(ий)	adjective	<i>міський</i>
-ичн(ий)	adjective	<i>історичний</i>
-лив(ий)	adjective	<i>дбайливий</i>

Contrastive comment. English **-ness** and Ukrainian **-ість** cover a comparable area, but Ukrainian may add derivatives of different value: *бідність* names the abstract quality, while *бідота* is a collective, often pejorative name. Ukrainian adjectives are doubly marked – by derivational **suffix** and by inflectional ending.

5.3. Diminutive, Evaluative and Verb-Forming Suffixes

Ukrainian has a highly developed system of **diminutive**, affectionate, **augmentative** and **pejorative suffixes**. These suffixes shift a neutral **base** into a tender, familiar, ironic or lowered register and may create chains of related forms.

Related Ukrainian evaluative formations: *малий, маленький, малесенький, малюсінький; вітер, вітерець, вітрюган.*

English has fewer productive **evaluative suffixes**, mainly **-let**, **-ling** and **-ie / -y**, as in *booklet, duckling, doggie*. English usually expresses evaluation through lexical choice, modifiers or context. English

verb-forming suffixes include *-ize* and *-fy*, as in *computerize*, *simplify*. Ukrainian forms verbs through suffixes such as *-umu* and *-(yв)ати*, as in *сушити*, *сканувати*.

Contrastive comment. Ukrainian suffixation can encode profession, gender, evaluation, affection, contempt, smallness and grammatical integration in one derivative, where English often needs separate lexical or syntactic means.

6. Prefixal-Suffixal Derivation and Feminitives

Prefixal-suffixal derivation, also called **circumfixation** in some descriptions, is especially characteristic of Ukrainian. A new word is formed through the simultaneous functional use of a **prefix** and a **suffix**. The combined pattern creates the new lexical meaning and cannot always be reduced to a simple sequence of separate operations.

Ukrainian examples: *без-* + *дар* + *-н(ий)* → *бездарний*; *між-* + *народ-* + *-н(ий)* → *міжнародний*.

Feminitives are nouns denoting female persons by profession, role or activity. In modern Ukrainian, productive suffixes include *-ка*, *-иця* and *-иня*, as in *редакторка*, *дослідниця*, *філологиня*. English usually uses gender-neutral nouns such as *teacher*, *editor*, *researcher*. A few feminine pairs exist, such as *actor* - *actress*, but they are stylistically restricted and not fully productive.

Contrastive comment. English lacks a fully productive morphological mechanism equivalent to Ukrainian professional **feminitives**: *редакторка Шевченко* is rendered as *editor Shevchenko*, with gender recovered from context or by a descriptive phrase if communicatively relevant.

7. Productivity of Affixational Models

Productivity is the capacity of a **word-formation model** to create new acceptable words in current usage. English productive affixational models include negative **prefixation** with *un-*, *non-* and *dis-*, agentive *-er*, abstract *-ness*, adjectival *-able*, and verbal *-ize*. Ukrainian productive models include suffixal nouns with *-ник*, *-ець*, *-ач*, *-ість*, *-ання* / *-ення*, adjectives with *-ськ(ий)*, *-ов(ий)* and *-н(ий)*, verbs with *-(yв)ати*, and feminitives with *-к(а)*, *-иця* and *-иня*.

Productivity is register-dependent. English productivity is distributed across affixation, compounding and conversion; Ukrainian productivity is more strongly concentrated in visible affixational patterns.

PART B: NON-AFFIXATIONAL WORD-FORMATION

8. Compounding in English and Ukrainian

8.1. Compounding as a Type of Word-Formation

Compounding is a type of **word-formation** in which a new lexical unit is created by combining two or more bases, stems or words. The result is a **compound word**, a complex lexical unit that functions as one naming item and denotes one object, phenomenon, quality, process or concept.

A **compound** has semantic, grammatical and sometimes phonological or orthographic unity. English *school bus* denotes a special type of bus, not any bus connected with a school; Ukrainian *лісостеп* denotes a specific natural zone, not two independent entities, *ліс* and *степ*.

In English, **compounding** is usually based on the juxtaposition of free bases, as in *coffee cup*, *sunrise*, *blackbird*. In Ukrainian, **compound formation** is more closely connected with morphological structure: compounds often involve **stem-composition**, **interfixation**, **word-composition**, or **composition with simultaneous suffixation**, as in *водогін*, *землетрус*, *працездатний*, *мовознавство*.

English compounds are most conveniently introduced through Plag's head-based description, while Ukrainian **compound** words are better described according to the way stems and words are joined.

8.2. English Compounds according to Plag

In Ingo Plag's treatment, a **compound** is a complex word consisting of two or more bases. English compounds are normally binary in internal structure. English compounds are generally **right-headed**: in *school bus*, the **head** is *bus* because the whole **compound** denotes a kind of bus. Stress and spelling are useful but not fully reliable criteria for recognizing compounds.

English compounds may be written **solid**, **hyphenated** or **open**: *blackbird*; *mother-in-law*; *school bus*.

8.2.1. General Inventory of English Compounding Patterns

In many English compounds, the **head** is the right-hand component. It determines the word class and the general meaning of the whole **compound**. In *laser printer*, the **head** is *printer*, so the whole **compound** is a noun; in *sugar-free*, the **head** is *free*, so it is an adjective; in *dry-clean*, the **head** is *clean*, so it is a verb. According to the word class of the **head**, English compounds may be **nominal**, **adjectival** or **verbal**.

8.2.2. Nominal Compounds

Nominal compounds have a noun as their **head**. They are the most productive and frequent type. The most typical model is noun plus noun: *film society*, *laser printer*, *coffee cup*. Most are **right-headed**: the right-hand component names the general class, and the left-hand component specifies it.

Endocentric compounds have the semantic **head** inside the **compound**, as in *laser printer*, *coffee cup*. **Exocentric compounds** do not denote a subtype of the final component: *pickpocket* is not a kind of pocket, and *loudmouth* is not a kind of mouth. A subtype of exocentric compounds is the **bahuvrihi compound**, which denotes a person or entity characterized by possessing a feature, as in *greybeard* or *loudmouth*.

Copulative compounds combine two roles or features, as in *singer-songwriter*, *poet-translator*. **Coordinate compounds** denote a relation between coordinated elements, as in *the mind-body problem*, *the doctor-patient relationship*. In Plag's own terminology, both groups are treated as subtypes of one copulative class.

Synthetic compounds contain a derived **head** connected with a verb, while the first component functions as an argument of that verbal **base**: *beer drinker*, *bookseller*. In *bookseller*, *book* is related to the object of the action expressed by *sell*.

8.2.3. Adjectival Compounds

Adjectival compounds have an adjective as their **head**. One frequent type is noun plus adjective: *knee-deep*, *sugar-free*, *structure-dependent*. Another type combines adjectives: *icy-cold*, *Franco-German*. Adjectival compounds may also include derived heads: *blue-eyed*, *awe-inspiring*.

Contrastive comment. English **adjectival compounds** are productive in descriptive and academic discourse. Ukrainian often translates them by adjectives, participial constructions or phrases, for example *sugar-free* as *без цукру* or *structure-dependent* as *залежний від структури*.

8.2.4. Verbal Compounds

Verbal compounds have a verb as their **head**, but Plag treats them cautiously because many English verbal compounds are historically or structurally secondary. **Examples:** *proof-read*, *stir-fry*, *dry-clean*.

8.2.5. Neoclassical Compounds

Neoclassical compounds are complex words formed from Greek or Latin **combining forms**. These elements are not ordinary free English words, but they are not identical to typical affixes either. **Examples:** *biochemistry, geology, philology*. Elements such as *bio-*, *photo-*, *geo-*, *-logy* and *-graphy* are especially important in scientific and academic vocabulary.

English and Ukrainian both use international neoclassical material in terminology: *biology* - *біологія*, *philology* - *філологія*.

8.3. Ukrainian Compound Words

Ukrainian **compound formation** is classified according to the way in which stems, words and word forms are joined. The main types are **stem-composition**, **word-composition** or **juxtaposition**, and **stem-composition with simultaneous suffixation**.

8.3.1. Stem-Composition

Stem-composition is the formation of a **compound word** by combining two or more stems. It may occur with or without **interfixes**. The most typical **interfixes** are *-o-*, *-e-* and *-є-*: *-o-*: *лісостеп, водогін*; *-e-*: *землетрус, працездатний*; *-є-*: *життєрадісний*. **Stem-composition** may also occur without an **interfix**, as in *всюдихід*. Many Ukrainian compounds are based on relations similar to those found in word combinations: subordinative, as in *дрібнолистий*, or coordinate, as in *синьо-жовтий, суспільно-політичний*.

8.3.2. Word-Composition or Juxtaposition

Word-composition, also called **juxtaposition**, is the formation of a **compound word** by combining whole words or word forms. Unlike **stem-composition**, it preserves the formal independence of the components more clearly and is often reflected by hyphenation. **Examples:** *салон-перукарня, хліб-сіль, прем'єр-міністр*. These compounds are usually based on appositional or coordinate relations and name one complex concept.

8.3.3. Stem-Composition with Simultaneous Suffixation

Stem-composition with simultaneous suffixation occurs when two stems are combined and a **suffix** is added as part of the same **word-formation** process. This type shows the close connection between **compounding** and **derivation** in Ukrainian. **Examples:** *мовознавство, триповерховий, двомовний*. In *мовознавство*, the stems are combined and the suffixal element *-ств-* / *-ство* helps form an abstract noun; in *триповерховий*, the numeral **stem** *три-* and the noun **stem** *поверх-* are combined with the adjectival **suffix** *-ов(ий)* within a single act of **word-formation**.

8.3.4. Productivity of Ukrainian Compound Formation

In Ukrainian, **compound formation** is especially productive in nouns and adjectives; it is less productive in adverbs and occurs only sporadically in verbs. The most characteristic feature of Ukrainian compounds is **morphological integration** through **interfixes**, suffixes and inflectional endings.

8.4. Contrastive Comparison of English and Ukrainian Compounds

Criterion	English compounds	Ukrainian compound words	Contrastive comment
General principle	Mostly juxtaposition of free bases: <i>school bus, coffee cup</i>	Mostly combination of stems or words: <i>водогін, салон-перукарня</i>	English compounding is more analytic; Ukrainian is more morphologically integrated.
Basic classification	Head-based: nominal, adjectival, verbal;	Formation-based: composition, stem-word-	English classification is head-based; Ukrainian is

Criterion	English compounds	Ukrainian compound words	Contrastive comment
cation	neoclassical separate	composition, composition with suffixation	formation-based.
Headedness	Most compounds are right-headed: <i>school bus</i> is a kind of <i>bus</i>	Less uniformly explained; depends on derivational structure	The right-head rule is central for English but not equally explanatory for Ukrainian.
Linking element	Usually absent: <i>sun-rise</i> , <i>blackbird</i>	Often present: <i>лісосмен</i> , <i>землетрус</i>	Interfixes are a major structural feature of Ukrainian compounds.
Relation to affixation	Usually separate, though synthetic compounds exist: <i>bookseller</i>	Often interacts with suffixation: <i>мовознавство</i> , <i>триповерховий</i>	Ukrainian shows a closer connection between compounding and derivation.
Orthographic form	Solid, hyphenated or open: <i>greenhouse</i> , <i>school bus</i>	Mostly solid or hyphenated: <i>землетрус</i> , <i>синьо-жовтий</i>	English spelling is more variable; Ukrainian often reflects morphological structure.
Translation equivalence	May correspond to a Ukrainian phrase, compound or simple word	May correspond to an English compound, phrase or simple word	Formal similarity does not guarantee translation equivalence.

8.5. Criteria for Distinguishing Compounds from Phrases

The **compound-phrase boundary** in English is especially difficult for noun plus noun combinations such as *stone wall*, *school bus*, *language policy*. Several criteria should be applied together: graphic form, stress, semantic unity, morphological behaviour and syntactic behaviour. No single criterion is decisive.

Useful diagnostic contrasts: *green house* - *greenhouse*; *black bird* - *blackbird*; *a stone wall* - *a wall made of stone*. A *greenhouse* is not simply a green house; a *blackbird* is a species, not any bird that is black. **Ukrainian renderings:** *кам'яна стіна*, *шкільний автобус*, *аналіз даних* – English noun plus noun structures often correspond to Ukrainian adjective-noun phrases or genitive constructions.

8.6. Translation Difficulties of Compounds

Compounds may create translation difficulties because the structural model of a **compound** in one language does not necessarily coincide with the structural model of its equivalent in another. Translation requires attention to the meaning of the whole lexical unit, not only to the meanings of its components.

An English **compound** may correspond to a Ukrainian word combination (*school bus* - *шкільний автобус*), a Ukrainian **compound word** (*waterfall* - *водоспад*), or a simple Ukrainian word (*greenhouse* - *теплиця* – a literal *зелений будинок* would be misleading); a Ukrainian **compound word** may in turn require a descriptive English phrase (*працездатна людина* - *a person fit for work / an able-bodied person*). Lexicalized units require special attention: *blackbird* denotes a species (*чорний дрізд*), not any bird that is black, and *red tape* is an idiom meaning excessive bureaucracy (*бюрократична тяганина*).

These relations can be generalized through **translation equivalence: full equivalence** (units coincide in meaning and usage despite different structure: *waterfall* - *водоспад*); **partial equivalence** (one unit corresponds to several target units across contexts: *teacher* - *учитель / викладач / викладачка*); or the **absence of a direct lexical equivalent in a particular context** (the translator uses an adapted borrow-

ing, calque, descriptive translation, or functional equivalent – for *doomscrolling*, *думскролінг* or a descriptive phrase).

9. Conversion and Zero-Derivation

Conversion, also called **zero-derivation**, is the formation of a new word by changing word class without adding an overt **derivational affix**. It is especially productive in English because many English words have little or no inflectional marking. The most productive type is noun-to-verb **conversion**, which creates **denominal verbs**.

English conversion examples: *to email - an email; Google - to google; a download - to download; clean - to clean*.

A related but distinct phenomenon is **partial conversion**, or **substantivation**, in which an adjective comes to function as a noun: *the rich, the poor, the unemployed*. These find a close parallel in Ukrainian substantivized adjectives and participles such as *черговий, молода, військовий*, which makes **substantivation** one of the few areas where the two languages behave similarly.

Strict **conversion** is less productive in Ukrainian because words are more clearly marked for part of speech through endings, gender, number, case, aspect or suffixes. Apart from **substantivation**, Ukrainian typically responds to English **conversion** with suffixal adaptation of borrowed bases: *гулити, сканувати, лайкати, тестувати*. **Translation strategies:** borrowing with a Ukrainian verbal suffix (*to google - гулити*); calque or descriptive phrase (*to screenshot - зробити скриншот*); functional equivalent (*to Google something - знайти щось в інтернеті*).

Contrastive comment. English **conversion** is morphologically economical – a new lexical item without visible marking. Its **limited productivity in Ukrainian** is the contrastive point: not a gap but a consequence of the synthetic, inflectional type, where the same need is met by **suffixation** (*гулити*) or **substantivation** (*черговий*).

10. Shortening, Clipping, Abbreviation, Acronyms and Initialisms

Shortening is the creation of a shorter lexical form from a longer one. **Clipping** removes part of a word. **Apocope** removes the final part, as in *lab, photo, app*. **Aphaeresis** removes the initial part, as in *phone, bus, plane*. **Syncope** removes a medial part, as in *ma'am*. Some English clippings, such as *bus* and *phone*, have become stylistically neutral.

Ukrainian shortening and colloquial adaptation: *універ* illustrates **clipping**. Forms such as *лаба, фотка* combine shortening with **suffixation**, while *анка* combines borrowing, adaptation, and **suffixation**. The normative Ukrainian equivalent of English *app* is *застосунок*, while *анка* is colloquial and register-dependent.

An **initialism** is pronounced as a sequence of letters: *BBC, FBI, EU, AI*. An **acronym** is pronounced as a word: *NATO, laser, radar*. Ukrainian may borrow, transliterate, translate or adapt such units: *НАТО, лазер, радар, ІІІ*.

Contrastive comment. English **clipping** supports speed and informality, and some clippings become neutral; Ukrainian clipped forms are often stylistically marked and must conform to Ukrainian phonological and morphological norms when they enter the inflectional system.

11. Blending and Back-Formation

11.1. Blending

Blending combines parts of two words, often with truncation or phonological overlap. A **blend** differs from a **compound** because the components are not preserved fully. **English blends:** *smog* from *smoke* + *fog*; *brunch* from *breakfast* + *lunch*; *webinar* from *web* + *seminar*; *Brexit* from *Britain* + *exit*.

Ukrainian adapted blends and internationalisms: *Брекзит, фінтех, вебінар*. A lexicalized Ukrainian blend is *реанімобіль* (*реанімаційний* + *автомобіль*) and *таксобус* (*таксі* + *автобус*). Domestic **blending** as a regular model is noticeably weaker in Ukrainian than in English.

11.2. Back-Formation

Back-formation creates a new word by removing a real or supposed **affix** from an existing word. It differs from **shortening** because it changes word class through morphological reanalysis. **English back-formations:** *editor* → *to edit*; *television* → *to televise*; *babysitter* → *to babysit*. Ukrainian usually creates analogous verbs by adding overt verbal suffixes rather than removing an apparent **affix**: *редактор* → *редагувати*; *сканер* → *сканувати*.

Contrastive comment. English **blending** and **back-formation** are more visible because English has weak inflectional marking and flexible word-class boundaries, whereas Ukrainian creates new verbs from borrowed or complex bases through overt **suffixation**.

12. Minor Processes, Occasionalisms and Digital Neologisms

12.1. Minor Processes

Process	Definition	English examples	Ukrainian examples	Productivity
Reduplication	Full or partial lexical repetition, sometimes with sound alternation	<i>ping-pong</i> , <i>flip-flop</i>	<i>часто-густо</i> , <i>пліч-о-пліч</i>	Limited; expressive
Onomatopoeia	Words imitating sounds	<i>buzz</i> , <i>hiss</i> , <i>splash</i>	<i>дзижчати</i> , <i>шуніти</i>	Limited; sound-symbolic
Sound inter-change	Historical vowel or consonant alternation associated with lexical relations	<i>blood</i> - <i>bleed</i> , <i>song</i> - <i>sing</i>	<i>рука</i> - <i>ручний</i> , <i>нога</i> - <i>ніжка</i>	Not a productive independent model; in Ukrainian it accompanies suffixal derivation

12.2. Occasionalisms, Lexicalization and Digital Neologisms

A **nonce-word** is created for one communicative occasion. An **occasionalism** is a context-bound formation that may remain outside the stable lexicon. **Lexicalization** occurs when a new formation becomes conventionalized and enters general usage. Digital culture accelerates **lexicalization** because speakers need short, memorable names for new phenomena.

English digital neologisms: *selfie, doomscrolling, deepfake*. **Ukrainian digital neologisms:** *чатбот, скриншот, штучний інтелект*.

Contrastive comment. Digital neologisms show how **compounding**, **blending**, **shortening**, **conversion** and borrowing interact in English, while Ukrainian combines borrowing, calque, **derivation** and adapted bases; normative choice depends on text type (*штучний інтелект* is standard, *AI* informal).

13. Contrastive Summary and Translation Strategies

The dominant tendency in English is the combination of **affixation** with highly productive non-affixational processes, especially **compounding** and **conversion**. The dominant tendency in Ukrainian is visible morphological **derivation**, especially **suffixation**, **prefixation**, **prefixal-suffixal derivation** and **compound** formation with **interfixes** or suffixes. For translation, the central rule is functional equivalence: the translator must reproduce the naming function, register and stylistic value, not the source-language **word-formation** pattern mechanically.

Questions for Self-check

1. What is word-formation, and how does it differ from inflection?
2. What is the difference between root, stem and base?
3. What is affixation? How do prefix, suffix and circumfix differ by position and function?
4. What is the difference between a semi-affix and a combining form?
5. How do Ukrainian prefixes interact with verbal aspect? Give examples.
6. Why is suffixal derivation especially important in Ukrainian?
7. What is prefixal-suffixal derivation, and why is it important for Ukrainian word-formation?
8. What are feminitives, and which suffixes are most productive in modern Ukrainian?
9. What is productivity in word-formation? How does it differ in English and Ukrainian?
10. How does Plag classify English compounds according to the word class of the head?
11. What are nominal, adjectival, verbal and neoclassical compounds?
12. How are Ukrainian compound words classified according to the way their components are joined?
13. Why is the English compound-phrase boundary difficult to draw?
14. What is conversion, and why is it also called zero-derivation?
15. Why is strict conversion less productive in Ukrainian than in English?
16. Which strategies can be used to translate English conversion verbs into Ukrainian?
17. What is the difference between clipping, acronym and initialism?
18. What is blending, and how does it differ from compounding?
19. What is back-formation? Give examples from English.
20. What is lexicalization, and why does digital culture accelerate it?
21. What is the difference between full equivalence, partial equivalence, and the absence of a direct lexical equivalent in a particular context? Illustrate each relation with word-formation examples.
22. Which structural asymmetries between English and Ukrainian word-formation are most important for translators?

Lecture 4. Lexical Semantics and the Structure of Meaning in English and Ukrainian

Lecture plan

1. The notion of lexical meaning
2. Lexical meaning and grammatical meaning
3. Denotation and connotation
4. Semantic structure of the word: semes, sememes, polysemy and homonymy
5. The semiotic triangle: symbol, concept, and referent
6. Lexical motivation
7. Componential analysis and lexical gaps
8. Lexical fields in English and Ukrainian
9. Cultural specificity of lexical meaning
10. Partial equivalence: types and integrative case studies
11. Translation strategies in lexical semantic analysis

Key concepts

lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, denotation, connotation, emotive connotation, evaluative connotation, stylistic connotation, expressive connotation, semantic structure, seme, sememe, archiseme, differential seme, polysemy, homonymy, semiotic triangle, symbol, concept, referent, lexical motivation, phonetic motivation, morphological motivation, semantic motivation, componential analysis, lexical field, paradigmatic relations, syntagmatic relations, cultural specificity, contextual full equivalence, partial equivalence, lexical gap

Introduction

Lexical semantics is the branch of linguistics that studies the meaning of words and lexical units. In **contrastive lexicology** it is not limited to isolated dictionary meanings: it investigates how two languages organize meaning, how lexical units divide reality into conceptual categories, how they develop **connotations**, and how they function in translation. A word that looks like a simple equivalent in a bilingual dictionary may cover a wider, narrower, or culturally different area of meaning, so the student needs the semantic range, contextual restrictions, collocational behaviour, stylistic colouring, and cultural associations of the word, not only its dictionary equivalent.

1. The Notion of Lexical Meaning

Lexical meaning is the meaning carried by a word or a lexical unit as an element of the vocabulary system. It allows a word to name, indicate, describe, classify, evaluate, or evoke something.

A word is not a direct copy of reality. It is a linguistic sign connected with reality through a mental representation: when speakers use a word, the linguistic form activates a **concept** through which they identify or interpret the relevant **referent**. English and Ukrainian speakers may refer to similar objects, but the **concepts** activated by their words may not be identical. For example, the English word *home* is not simply a physical building; it may include belonging, family, emotional security, and origin. Ukrainian *дім* may overlap with *home*, but Ukrainian also has *будинок*, *оселя*, *хата*, and *домівка*, each with its own range and associations.

Contrastive comment. English *house* primarily denotes a building while *home* foregrounds belonging or emotional attachment; Ukrainian *будинок* denotes a building, *дім* a building or the sphere of family and belonging, and *оселя* is often literary – a network of **partial equivalence**.

2. Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

Lexical meaning and **grammatical meaning** are two interrelated components of the meaning of a word. **Lexical meaning** is individual and identifies the **concept**, object, quality, action, process, or relation named by the word. **Grammatical meaning** is general and belongs to a class of words or word forms, expressing categories such as number, tense, case, gender, person, degrees of comparison, aspect, definiteness, or part-of-speech meaning.

English relies extensively on word order, auxiliary verbs, articles, and prepositions to express **grammatical meaning**, though it retains a limited set of inflections; Ukrainian expresses much **grammatical meaning** through inflections, case forms, gender agreement, and aspectual verb pairs.

Contrastive comment. In English the lexical item remains relatively stable while grammatical meanings are supplied by auxiliary words or word order; in Ukrainian **grammatical meaning** is more visibly encoded in the form of the word itself, so the translator must separate what belongs to **lexical meaning** from what is supplied by grammatical structure.

The point is clear with articles: English *a* and *the* have no direct formal equivalents in Ukrainian, but their meaning may be rendered by word order, demonstratives, lexical additions, or context (*A woman entered the room. The woman looked tired.* → *До кімнати увійшла жінка. Ця жінка мала втомлений вигляд.*).

3. Denotation and Connotation

Denotation is the central component of **lexical meaning** that connects a word with a class of objects, phenomena, actions, qualities, or relations. **Connotation** includes the emotional, evaluative, stylistic, expressive, social, historical, or cultural associations that accompany **denotation**; it matters for translation because two words may share **denotation** but differ in **connotation**. Four types are distinguished:

Type of connotation	Definition	English example	Ukrainian example
Emotive	Reflects feelings or emotional attitudes toward the referent	<i>home</i> (belonging); <i>war</i> (fear, grief)	<i>хата</i> (affection, origin); <i>рідний</i> (warmth)
Evaluative	Expresses approval or disapproval of the referent	<i>slim</i> (positive) vs. <i>skinny</i> (negative)	<i>стрункий</i> (positive) vs. <i>худючий</i> (pejorative)
Stylistic	Indicates the register or sphere of use	<i>domicile</i> (formal) vs. <i>home</i> (neutral) vs. <i>pad</i> (informal)	<i>оселя</i> (elevated) vs. <i>квартира</i> (neutral) vs. <i>хата</i>
Expressive	Intensifies or strengthens the image or attitude	<i>gigantic</i> (intensified large); <i>tiny</i> (intensified small)	<i>здоровенний</i> (intensified); <i>малесенький</i> (very small, affective)

Connotation in synonymic sets: *child* - *kid* - *brat*; *smell* - *aroma* - *stench* / *мати* - *матуся* - *маїнка*; *говорити* - *балакати* - *теребенити*.

The pair *freedom* - *liberty* shows that similar **denotation** may differ in association: both correspond to Ukrainian *свобода*, but *freedom* is broad and general while *liberty* often has a formal, legal, political, or historical association (*civil liberties* → *громадянські свободи*; the established *Статуя Свободи* does not reproduce the English contrast).

4. Semantic Structure of the Word: Semes, Sememes, and Polysemy

The meaning of a word has an internal **semantic structure**. Each meaning can be described through smaller semantic components called **semes** (B. Pottier, A.-J. Greimas). A **sememe** is one meaning of a word understood as a structured set of **semes**. An **archiseme** is the general component shared by a group of related lexical units; a **differential seme** distinguishes one word from others in the same field. Thus *man, woman, boy, girl* share the **archiseme** *human being* and differ in **differential semes** such as *adult, non-adult, male, female*; Ukrainian *чоловік, жінка, хлопець, дівчина, дитина* belong to the same field but do not map perfectly onto the English units.

Contrastive comment. English *man* usually denotes an adult male (with an older generic use); Ukrainian *чоловік* may denote an adult male or a husband – apparent equivalents may differ in **semantic structure**.

The **semantic structure** is also connected with **polysemy** and **homonymy**. **Polysemy** is the existence of several related meanings within one word; **homonymy** is identity of form between lexical units whose meanings are not synchronically related. English *bank* ‘financial institution’ and *bank* ‘side of a river’, or Ukrainian *лава* ‘bench’ and *лава* ‘volcanic lava’, illustrate **homonymy**; the meanings of *head* in *a person’s head*, *head of a department*, and *the head of the table* are related by extension and illustrate **polysemy**.

5. The Semiotic Triangle: Symbol, Concept, and Referent

The **semiotic triangle** (Ogden and Richards) includes three elements: the **symbol**, or linguistic form; the **concept**, or mental representation; and the **referent**, or element of reality identified in context. Its three relations are: (1) the relation between **symbol** and **concept** is conventional; (2) the **concept** is the mental representation through which speakers identify and classify the **referent**; (3) the relation between **symbol** and **referent** is indirect, mediated by the **concept**.

Element	English/ Ukrainian
Symbol (word form)	<i>tree/ дерево</i>
Concept (mental representation)	plant with a trunk, branches, and leaves
Referent (real-world object)	a real tree

Contrastive comment. The **symbol** differs from language to language, while the referent may be the same object; the concept partly overlaps, but cultural and phraseological associations differ, so translation reconstructs the **concept** activated in context.

6. Lexical Motivation

Lexical motivation is the relation between the form or structure of a word and its meaning. A word is **motivated** when its meaning can be partly inferred from its sound, morphemic structure, or figurative basis, and **non-motivated** when it cannot. Three types are distinguished: **phonetic motivation** (sound imitation or symbolism), **morphological motivation** (transparent morphemic structure), and **semantic motivation** (metaphor, metonymy, or another transfer).

Motivation may be lost through semantic change. English *lord* developed from elements meaning *bread-keeper* and *lady* from *bread-kneader*, no longer transparent; Ukrainian *підвіконник* remains **motivated** (*під-* + *вікон-* + *-ник*), whereas *нісенітниця* is not transparent to most present-day speakers.

Examples: phonetic – *buzz, splash, cuckoo* / *дзижчати, плюскіт, ку-ку*; morphological – *teacher, greenhouse* / *учитель, чорнозем*; semantic – *mouse* as a computer device, *blue* meaning *sad* / *мишка* як пристрій, *ніжка* *столу*.

Contrastive comment. The types are shared, but the motivating images do not always coincide: English *blue* can mean sadness (*feeling blue, the blues*), while Ukrainian *синій* and *блакитний* do not; Ukrainian *калина* activates a symbolic network of family memory, love and grief that English *viburnum / guelder rose* does not.

7. Componential Analysis

Componential analysis is a method of describing **lexical meaning** by decomposing it into **semes**, showing which are shared and which distinguish lexical units; in **contrastive lexicology** it reveals **partial equivalence**, semantic overlap, **lexical gaps**, and culturally specific components. The procedure has five steps: select a group of related words; identify the **lexical field** and its **archiseme**; compare the meanings in context; formulate the shared and **differential semes**; contrast the semantic structures of the English and Ukrainian units.

Lexical unit	Language	Main semes	Typical context
<i>house</i>	English	building, dwelling, physical structure	<i>The house needs repairs.</i>
<i>home</i>	English	place of living, belonging, family attachment	<i>Home is where I feel safe.</i>
<i>будинок</i>	Ukrainian	building, construction, physical structure	<i>Будинок потребує ремонту.</i>
<i>дім</i>	Ukrainian	building and/or family/home sphere	<i>У рідному домі пахло яблуками.</i>
<i>оселя</i>	Ukrainian	dwelling, settled abode; elevated register	<i>Затишна оселя чекала гостей.</i>

Componential analysis shows that *house*, *home*, *будинок*, *дім*, and *оселя* form a network of partial equivalence. Translation should select the Ukrainian unit according to the dominant seme in context: physical building, emotional belonging, family sphere, or elevated dwelling.

A **lexical gap** occurs when one language lacks a direct single-word counterpart for a **concept** lexicalized by one word in another.

Concept	English	Ukrainian
Gender-neutral sibling term	<i>sibling</i> (one word)	<i>брат або сестра</i> (phrase)
Day before yesterday	<i>the day before yesterday</i> (phrase)	<i>позавчора</i> (one word)
Period of two weeks	<i>fortnight</i> (one word)	<i>два тижні</i> (phrase)
Warm lands migratory birds fly to	descriptive phrase	<i>вирій</i> (one word, folk-poetic)
Person who regularly travels to work/study	<i>commuter</i> (one word)	descriptive phrase

Contrastive comment. **Lexical gaps** occur in both directions and mean only that a single-word counterpart of comparable scope is absent, not that the **concept** is untranslatable; the translator can use a phrase, **borrowing**, calque, **descriptive translation**, or **functional equivalent**.

8. Lexical Fields in English and Ukrainian

A **lexical field** is a group of words related by a common area of meaning, showing that vocabulary is a structured system. Words within a field are connected by **paradigmatic relations** (synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy) and by **syntagmatic relations** (typical collocations and co-occurrence). English *meal* commonly combines with *light*, *heavy*, *skip*, *serve*; Ukrainian *їжа* with *свіжа*, *здорова*,

смачна, while *страва* combines with *гаряча, улюблена, традиційна* – patterns that are not always parallel across languages.

The **lexical field** of food and eating illustrates this: English *meal* denotes a regular eating occasion or the food eaten on it, while Ukrainian *прийом їжі* foregrounds the occasion, *їжа* denotes food in general, and *страва* a prepared dish.

The field of dwelling also differs: English *house, home, flat, apartment, room, dwelling, residence* vs Ukrainian *будинок, дім, квартира, кімната, оселя, житло, резиденція, хата*, arranged differently by register, cultural association, and collocation (Ukrainian *хата* may be *house, cottage*, or the **borrowing** *khata* in a culture-focused text).

9. Cultural Specificity

Cultural specificity appears when **lexical meaning** contains components shaped by the history, customs, material culture, social practices, or symbolic system of a language community, as in *home, privacy, freedom, bread, рушник, воля, and громада*. Words with strong **cultural specificity** may lack a target-language unit with the same conceptual and associative structure; the main strategies are **borrowing, descriptive translation, functional equivalent, cultural substitution**, and a **translator's note** (Mona Baker 2018).

Use *towel* for an ordinary household **referent**, *embroidered ritual cloth* for a ritual object, and *rushnyk* with an explanation when the culture-specific name is important. Abstract vocabulary is affected too: *freedom* and *liberty* both overlap with *свобода*, while Ukrainian *воля* carries distinct literary, historical, and national associations – even when **denotation** is close, cultural **connotation** may differ.

10. Partial Equivalence

Partial equivalence is a relation between lexical units of two languages that overlap in some meanings or uses but differ in others. It is more common than **contextual full equivalence** and may arise from a wider or narrower semantic range, different **connotations**, different collocations, different grammatical behaviour, or a culturally specific component.

Type of partial equivalence	Description	English - Ukrainian example
One source word - several target equivalents	Source lexicalizes as one unit what target differentiates	<i>blue</i> → <i>синій / блакитний</i> ; <i>meal</i> → <i>їжа / страва / прийом їжі</i>
Several source words - one target equivalent	Source differentiates what target expresses with one word	<i>freedom + liberty</i> → <i>свобода</i>
Same denotation - different connotation	Words share a referent but differ in emotional/stylistic value	<i>slim</i> - <i>стрункий</i> ; <i>skinny</i> - <i>худючий</i>
Same lexical field - different usage	Same field but different collocational behaviour	<i>meal</i> - <i>їжа</i> : collocations do not map directly
Source word - culture-specific concept	Source carries cultural components absent in target	<i>рушник</i> - <i>towel / rushnyk / embroidered ritual cloth</i>

Contextual full equivalence occurs when source and target units express the same relevant meaning with compatible register and collocation in a particular context (*waterfall* - *водоспад* in neutral contexts). A lexical gap occurs when the target lacks a direct single-word counterpart of comparable scope; the meaning remains translatable.

11. Translation Strategies in Lexical Semantic Analysis

Componential analysis prevents three common translation errors: **over-translation** (adding components absent in the source), **under-translation** (losing components present in the source), and **false equivalence** (choosing a dictionary equivalent without checking whether its **semes** match the context) – translating *meal* invariably as *їжа* is **false equivalence** where the source refers to an eating occasion.

Bilingual dictionaries should be used critically: a dictionary provides possible equivalents, not ready-made translations, and the translator must verify which equivalent fits the relevant **semes**, **connotation**, and collocational norms in context.

Questions for Self-check

1. What is lexical meaning, and how does it differ from grammatical meaning?
2. How does the absence of articles in Ukrainian create a translation challenge when rendering the English distinction between *a* and *the*?
3. What is the difference between denotation and connotation?
4. Name and explain the four types of connotation with one English and one Ukrainian example each.
5. What is the semantic structure of a word?
6. What are semes, sememes, archisemes, and differential semes? Illustrate with an example from the human/age/gender field.
7. How does polysemy differ from homonymy? Give one example of each from English and Ukrainian.
8. What are the three relations in the semiotic triangle, and what does the dotted line between symbol and referent signify?
9. Why does a word not name reality directly, according to the semiotic model?
10. What is lexical motivation? Name its three types and give one example of each.
11. How can a historically motivated word become non-motivated? Give one example.
12. Describe the procedure of componential analysis. How does it help reveal partial equivalence?
13. What is a lexical gap? Give two English-Ukrainian examples, one in each direction.
14. What is a lexical field? Explain the difference between paradigmatic relations and syntagmatic relations with examples.
15. Why are English *house* and *home* not fully equivalent to Ukrainian *будинок*, *дім*, and *оселя*?
16. Why can English *blue* correspond to both *синій* and *блакитний* in Ukrainian?
17. How can Ukrainian *рушник* be translated into English in different contexts? Name three strategies and explain when each is appropriate.
18. What is partial equivalence, and why is it common in cross-linguistic lexical comparison?
19. How do contextual full equivalence, partial equivalence, and lexical gaps differ?
20. What are the three common translation errors caused by failure to analyse lexical meaning properly?
21. How does cultural specificity affect the choice of translation strategy for culturally marked words?

Lecture 5. Paradigmatic Lexical Relations in English and Ukrainian

Lecture plan

1. Paradigmatic relations and syntagmatic relations in vocabulary
2. Polysemy and the semantic structure of the word
3. The distinction between polysemy and homonymy
4. Classification of homonyms
5. Synonymy, synonymic dominant, and types of synonyms
6. Antonymy and its semantic and structural types
7. Hyponymy, hyperonymy, and lexical hierarchy
8. Meronymy and part-whole relations
9. Paradigmatic relations in translation

Key concepts

paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation, polysemy, homonymy, full homonym, homophone, homo-graph, homoform, synonymy, synonymic dominant, absolute synonymy, near-synonymy, ideographic synonym, stylistic synonym, contextual synonym, semantic prosody, antonymy, gradable antonymy, complementarity, converseness, directional antonymy, reversive antonymy, derivational antonyms, root antonyms, hyponymy, hyperonym, co-hyponym, lexical hierarchy, meronym, holonym, meronymy

Introduction

Paradigmatic relations are systematic relations among lexical units and senses based on similarity, opposition, inclusion, part-whole organization, or formal identity. They reveal how vocabulary is structured into synonymic sets, antonymic oppositions, lexical hierarchies, and networks of related or formally identical units. **Polysemy** concerns related senses within one lexical unit, whereas the other relations examined here connect different lexical units.

1. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations in Vocabulary

Paradigmatic relations organize lexical units through similarity, opposition, inclusion, part-whole structure, or formal identity. **Syntagmatic relations** concern the linear combinations in which lexical units occur, especially their **collocations** and contextual restrictions. The two dimensions complement one another: paradigmatic analysis identifies possible lexical alternatives, while syntagmatic analysis shows which alternatives are natural in a particular context. English *big* and *large* are near-synonyms, but *a big deal* and *a large amount* are conventional whereas *a large deal* and *a big amount* are not; Ukrainian *великий* and *значний* also overlap only partially (*великий будинок* neutral vs *значний внесок* abstract and formal).

2. Polysemy and the Semantic Structure of the Word

Polysemy is the presence of two or more synchronically related senses within one lexical unit. The senses form a semantic network connected through established extensions such as **metaphor**, **metonymy**, specialization, or generalization. The central question is not whether the senses share a form, but whether speakers can identify a meaningful relation between them. Polysemy operates differently in nouns, verbs, and adjectives.

Noun polysemy often develops when the name of a physical object is extended to a person, institution, position, or abstract property.

Verb polysemy is especially important in translation because verbs may encode manner, direction, phase, causation, and participant roles.

Adjective polysemy often develops through **metaphorical extension** from a perceptual property to an intellectual, emotional, or evaluative meaning.

3. The Distinction Between Polysemy and Homonymy

Homonymy is a synchronic relation between different lexical units that share a form but have meanings perceived as unrelated in present-day usage. In **polysemy**, related senses belong to one lexical unit; in **homonymy**, unrelated meanings belong to different lexical units.

To distinguish the two, first determine whether the meanings have a clear synchronic semantic connection. Etymology, derivational patterns, part of speech, grammatical behaviour, collocation, and dictionary treatment provide supporting evidence, but no single criterion is decisive.

4. Classification of Homonyms

Full lexical homonyms coincide in spelling and pronunciation throughout the relevant paradigms. **Homophones** coincide in pronunciation but differ in spelling. **Homographs** coincide in spelling but differ in pronunciation. **Homoforms** coincide only in one or several grammatical forms.

Type	Diagnostic criterion	English example	Ukrainian example
Full lexical homonym	Same spelling and pronunciation throughout the paradigms; unrelated meanings	<i>seal</i> (animal) - <i>seal</i> (stamp)	<i>ключ</i> (key) - <i>ключ</i> (spring)
Homophone	Same pronunciation; different spelling and meaning	<i>right</i> - <i>write</i>	<i>біль</i> (suffering) - <i>білль</i> (bill)
Homograph	Same spelling; different pronunciation and meaning	<i>lead</i> [li:d] - <i>lead</i> [led]	<i>за́мок</i> - <i>замо́к</i>
Homoform	Coincidence in one or several grammatical forms; different paradigms	<i>saw</i> (tool) - <i>saw</i> (past of see)	<i>мати</i> (mother) - <i>мати</i> (to have)

5. Synonymy and Types of Synonyms

5.1. The Nature of Synonymy

Synonymy is a semantic relation between lexical units that share a substantial part of their meaning and can substitute for one another in at least some contexts. Most synonyms are not fully interchangeable because they differ in semantic range, intensity, register, evaluation, collocation, or contextual distribution.

English *big*, *large*, *huge*, *enormous* and Ukrainian *великий*, *значний*, *величезний*, *грандіозний* form partially overlapping sets that differ in intensity, register, and collocation, so dictionary proximity does not establish contextual interchangeability.

5.2. Absolute Synonymy and Near-Synonymy

The course distinguishes two principal degrees. **Absolute synonymy** requires identity of relevant denotative and connotative meaning, register, collocational behaviour, and contextual distribution; it is a limiting case, extremely rare in general vocabulary. **Near-synonymy** is the normal relation in which lexical units share a semantic core but differ in at least one relevant component or usage condition.

Near-synonyms may be grouped by the dominant source of difference: **ideographic synonyms** differ mainly in a denotative component or degree; **stylistic synonyms** differ mainly in register or social marking; **contextual synonyms** become semantically close only in a particular context.

They should also be compared by diagnostic dimensions – **intensity, duration, evaluation, register, collocation**: *surprised* - *astonished* differ in intensity, *glance* - *stare* in duration, *slim* - *skinny* in evaluation; Ukrainian shows comparable but non-coinciding contrasts (*здивований* - *приголомшений*, *поглянути* - *нильно дивитися*, *стрункий* - *худий*).

5.3. Semantic Prosody

Semantic prosody is the recurrent positive or negative evaluative association created by a word's typical collocational environment. It is a syntagmatic phenomenon, but it helps distinguish near-synonyms whose dictionary definitions appear similar.

Contrastive comment. Semantic prosody must be established separately in each language: a formally accurate equivalent may distort the evaluative tone if its typical collocations differ.

5.4. The Synonymic Dominant

A **synonymic dominant** is the neutral and semantically broad central member of a synonymic set. It serves as a reference point for describing more specific members, but it is not automatically the best translation equivalent in every context.

Contrastive comment. English *stare* may correspond to Ukrainian *нильно дивитися*, *втупитися*, or *виприщатися* depending on context, so the members of the two sets do not form fixed one-to-one pairs.

6. Antonymy and Types of Antonymy

Antonymy is a semantic relation of opposition between lexical units that contrast within the same semantic dimension: *hot* - *cold* form a pair (temperature), whereas *hot* - *blue* do not; Ukrainian *високий* - *низький* contrast on height, while *високий* - *зелений* do not. The course distinguishes four principal semantic types – **gradable antonymy, complementarity, converseness, and directional antonymy** – with **reversive antonymy** as a subtype of the directional type.

- **Gradable antonyms** express opposite ends of a continuous scale and admit intermediate degrees; one term does not logically entail the negation of the other (*not hot* ≠ *cold*), and they take degree adverbs: *hot* - *cold*; *big* - *small*; *rich* - *poor* / *гарячий* - *холодний*; *великий* - *малий*; *багатий* - *бідний*.
- **Complementary antonyms** express a binary logical opposition with no intermediate: denial of one implies the other: *alive* - *dead*; *true* - *false* / *живий* - *мертвий*; *істинний* - *хибний*.
- **Converses (relational opposites)** describe the same situation from opposite roles or perspectives (Lyons, Cruse): *buy* - *sell*; *lend* - *borrow*; *teach* - *learn* / *купувати* - *продавати*; *навчати* - *навчатися*; *над* - *під*.
- **Directional opposites** indicate opposite directions, orientations, or spatial/ordering relations: *up* - *down*; *enter* - *exit*; *increase* - *decrease* / *вгору* - *вниз*; *увійти* - *вийти*; *збільшитися* - *зменшитися*.
- **Reversives** (a subtype) are change-of-state verbs where the second action returns the object to its previous state, typically marked by a reversative prefix (English *un-*, *dis-*; Ukrainian *роз-* vs *за-*, *від-* vs *під-*): *tie* - *untie*; *connect* - *disconnect* / *зав'язати* - *розв'язати*; *підключити* - *відключити*.

6.1. Structural Classification of Antonyms

By structure, antonyms are **derivational** (sharing a root, opposition through affixation) or **root** (different lexical roots). This axis is independent of the semantic classification, so the same pair can be described on both.

English derivational: *legal - illegal; honest - dishonest; tie - untie. English root:* *big - small; hot - cold; remember - forget.*

Ukrainian derivational: *правда - неправда; зрозумілий - незрозумілий; заплутати - розплутати. Ukrainian root:* *добрий - поганий; день - ніч; любити - ненавидіти.*

Visible negative morphology does not automatically establish **antonymy**: *different - indifferent* are not antonyms, *flammable - inflammable* share the meaning “able to burn”, *valuable - invaluable* are both positive, and *mis-* means “wrongly”, so *understand - misunderstand* are not logical opposites.

Contrastive comment. Equivalent oppositions may use different structural means: English *fearful - fearless* corresponds to Ukrainian *боязкий - безстрашний*, whose members share no lexical root.

7. Hyponymy, Hyperonymy, and Lexical Hierarchy

Hyponymy is an inclusion relation between a more specific unit (the **hyponym**) and a more general unit (the **hyperonym**), tested by “is a kind of”. Units that share the same hyperonym at the same taxonomic level are **co-hyponyms**.

English hierarchy: *animal → dog → spaniel.*

Ukrainian hierarchy: *квітка → троянда → чайна троянда.*

Contrastive comment. English *armchair* is a hyponym of *chair*, but Ukrainian *крісло* and *стілець* are co-hyponyms under *меблі*, so *chair* may require *стілець* or *крісло* according to the referent, and a technical classification must preserve the correct level of specificity.

8. Meronymy and Part-Whole Relations

Meronymy is a part-whole relation in which a **meronym** names a part and a **holonym** names the whole. WordNet distinguishes **part meronymy**, **member meronymy**, and **substance meronymy**; these must be kept separate from hyponymy (a wheel is part of a car, not a kind of car).

Part: *wheel - car; колесо - автомобіль.*

Member: *soldier - army; дерево - ліс.*

Substance: *wood - table; борошно - хліб.*

Broader taxonomies also distinguish portion-mass relations (*slice - bread; скибка - хліб*); the relation must be identified from the nature of the part, not merely from two associated nouns.

Contrastive comment. Part-whole boundaries may differ: Ukrainian *рука* may correspond to English *hand* or *arm*, and *нога* to *leg* or *foot*, so the translator must identify the exact part from context.

9. Paradigmatic Relations in Translation

Paradigmatic analysis does not provide ready-made equivalents; it identifies the semantic question that must be answered before the target unit is selected – for each relation, establish the active sense or type first (polysemy: the active sense; homonymy: disambiguation by field and co-text; synonymy: each relevant dimension; antonymy: the semantic type then target morphology; hyponymy: the level of specificity; meronymy: the exact part) and then choose the equivalent that realizes it in the target language.

Questions for Self-check

1. How do paradigmatic relations differ from syntagmatic relations?
2. What is polysemy, and how does it differ from homonymy?
3. Which criteria provide supporting evidence when polysemy and homonymy are distinguished?
4. What four operational types of homonyms are used in this course?

5. Why does English have numerous conventional homophones, while Ukrainian homographs are commonly distinguished by stress?
6. How do absolute synonymy and near-synonymy differ?
7. What is a synonymic dominant, and why is it not automatically the best translation equivalent?
8. Which dimensions should be checked when near-synonyms are compared?
9. What is semantic prosody, and why is it relevant to translation?
10. Why must antonyms contrast within the same semantic dimension?
11. How are gradable antonymy, complementarity, converseness, and directional antonymy distinguished?
12. How does reversive antonymy differ from other instances of directional antonymy?
13. How do derivational antonyms differ from root antonyms, and why does negative morphology not guarantee antonymy?
14. How do hyponymy and meronymy differ? Apply the “kind of” and “part of” tests.
15. Which paradigmatic relations create the greatest translation difficulties between English and Ukrainian, and why?

Lecture 6. Semantic Change and Semantic Transfer in English and Ukrainian

Lecture plan

1. Semantic change and semantic transfer: definitions, causes, and scholarly approaches
2. Broadening / generalization of meaning
3. Narrowing / specialization of meaning
4. Amelioration and pejoration
5. Metaphor as semantic transfer based on similarity: definition and mechanisms
6. Types of metaphor by degree of conventionalization: living, conventional, and dead metaphors
7. Semantic types of metaphor: source domains
8. Conceptual metaphor in English and Ukrainian; personification
9. Metonymy: types of metonymic transfer; synecdoche as a part-whole subtype

Key concepts

semantic change, semantic transfer, semantic radiation, broadening, generalization, narrowing, specialization, amelioration, pejoration, metaphor, tenor, vehicle, linguistic metaphor, conceptual metaphor, source domain, target domain, living metaphor, conventional metaphor, lexicalized or dead metaphor, demotivation, structural metaphor, orientational metaphor, ontological metaphor, personification, metonymy, contiguity, synecdoche, lexicalization, contextual innovation, cultural specificity, denotative shift

Introduction

Words do not have fixed meanings; over time a word may expand, narrow, improve or deteriorate in evaluation, or acquire a new sense through **metaphor** and **metonymy**. This matters for contrastive lexicology because English and Ukrainian words that appear equivalent at one stage may diverge later in meaning, register, or cultural association. **Semantic change** is the diachronic process by which the meaning of a word shifts over time; **semantic transfer** is a cognitive mechanism – primarily **metaphor** or **metonymy** – by which a word acquires a new meaning through associative mapping. Transfer is one of the main mechanisms through which change occurs, but not every change involves transfer, and not every act of transfer produces lasting change.

1. Semantic Change and Semantic Transfer: Definitions, Causes, and Scholarly Approaches

Michel Bréal (*Essai de sémantique*, 1897) introduced **semantic radiation** – the tendency of a word to extend its meaning in multiple directions from a historical core. Stephen Ullmann distinguished changes in the **range** of meaning (**broadening**, **narrowing**), in **evaluation** (**amelioration**, **pejoration**), and in **sense** (**metaphor**, **metonymy**). Dirk Geeraerts treats change through **generalization**, **specialization**, **metaphor**, and **metonymy**; Traugott and Dasher explain many changes through language use and pragmatic inference. **Semantic change** is caused by cultural, technological, social, historical, psychological, and communicative factors, with digital communication a particularly visible contemporary driver in both languages.

Contrastive comment. Both languages extend existing words to new realities, with English often the global source; Ukrainian adapts by borrowing, calquing, or independent extension – sometimes parallel (*mouse* - *мишка*), sometimes divergent (*application* - *застосунок*).

Broadening, **narrowing**, **amelioration**, and **pejoration** describe the result or direction of change (what happens to range or evaluation); **metaphor** and **metonymy** describe mechanisms of transfer (how a new use is motivated, through similarity or **contiguity**). These dimensions are not mutually exclusive, and a one-off contextual **metaphor** is transfer without evidence of stabilized lexical change.

2. Broadening or Generalization of Meaning

Broadening, also called **generalization**, is a type of **semantic change** in which a word begins to refer to a wider class of objects, actions, or situations than before; Geeraerts discusses it as **prototype extension**.

English examples: *dog* (a specific breed → the species); *holiday* (a holy day → any day of rest); *picture* (a painted image → any image, including a photograph).

Ukrainian examples: *чорнило*, from *чорний* (black), originally only black writing fluid, broadened so that *червоне чорнило* is fully normative though the root still says “black”; *стріляти* from shooting with an arrow (*стріла*) to shooting with any weapon.

3. Narrowing or Specialization of Meaning

Narrowing, also called **specialization**, is a type of **semantic change** in which a word loses part of its earlier range and becomes restricted to a more specific meaning, often driven by social, professional, or institutional differentiation.

Contrastive comment. English *meat* (food → flesh) and Ukrainian *нуво* (any drink → beer) show the same narrowing – a generic term restricted to its prototypical member – which challenges translation of older, broader uses.

4. Amelioration and Pejoration

Amelioration is a **semantic change** in which a word acquires a more positive, respectful, or prestigious meaning over time; **pejoration** is the opposite, acquiring a more negative or socially lowered meaning. Traugott and Dasher explain many cases through **invited inferencing**, by which contextual associations become conventionalized.

English amelioration: *knight* (Old English *cniht* ‘servant, young man’ → a noble title); *minister* (servant/attendant → high official); *nice* (from Latin *nescius* ‘ignorant’ → pleasant, agreeable).

Ukrainian amelioration: *козак* developed strong positive associations with courage, dignity, and freedom, though earlier uses could denote a free steppe warrior and vary in evaluation.

Contrastive comment. *Villain* and *міщанин* are parallel not identical: both became morally negative from social labels but via different social histories, so translation needs separate attention to denotation, historical reference, register and evaluation – a neutral equivalent may erase pejoration, an over-lowered one may distort a rehabilitated term.

5. Metaphor as Semantic Transfer Based on Similarity

Metaphor is a **semantic transfer** based on perceived **similarity** between two domains. In cognitive linguistics (Lakoff and Johnson, *Metaphors We Live By*, 1980) it is not only a figure of speech but a conceptual mechanism by which one domain of experience is understood through another. I. A. Richards (1936) introduced two terms: the **tenor** is the subject described, the **vehicle** is the image that provides the description – in *the foot of the mountain*, the **tenor** is the lower part of the mountain and the **vehicle** is *foot*.

Metaphor operates at two levels. A **linguistic metaphor** is a particular expression realized in language (*the foot of the mountain*), classified by degree of conventionalization and by **source domain**. A **conceptual metaphor** (Lakoff and Johnson) is an underlying mental mapping such as *TIME IS MONEY* that motivates a system of expressions (*spend time, waste time, run out of time*). The levels are connected, but not every creative linguistic metaphor instantiates an established conceptual mapping.

Contrastive comment. Many basic metaphorical models coincide (body, temperature, space, nature are universal source domains), but each language lexicalizes them in different collocations, so a natural metaphor in one may be unidiomatic in the other.

6. Types of Metaphor by Degree of Conventionalization

Linguistic metaphors can be arranged on a **scale of conventionalization** according to how vivid the image still is: **living (creative)**, **conventional (usual)**, and **dead (demotivated)** metaphors. The boundaries are gradual, and a living metaphor may through repeated use become conventional and finally dead. This scale is complementary to the classification by source domain: the first asks *how vivid* the image is, the second *what domain* it is drawn from, and the same metaphor is located on both at once – *the foot of the mountain* is a **dead** metaphor by conventionalization and an **anthropomorphic** metaphor by source domain.

A **living metaphor** is original, vivid, and context-dependent, still perceived as figurative and the most resistant to translation: *The city folded its lights into the river* / *Ніч поклала на місто чорну долоню*.

A **conventional metaphor** is established and recognizable, still felt as figurative but no longer original: *a wave of anger*; *a glimmer of hope* / *хвиля обурення*; *буря емоцій*.

A **dead metaphor** is so fully lexicalized that speakers no longer perceive it as figurative; in some the image is still transparent, in others the origin has become opaque through **demotivation**: *the leg of a table*; *the mouth of a river* / *ніжка стола*; *гирло річки*.

Contrastive comment. Equivalent expressions need not occupy the same point on the scale: living metaphors need creative compensation, conventional ones an established target expression, and lexicalized ones the conventional equivalent (*foot of the mountain* → *підніжжя гори*, not *нога гори*); degree of transparency must not be inferred from etymology alone.

7. Semantic Types of Metaphor: Source Domains

This **semantic classification of metaphor** is based on the **source domain** from which the image is drawn (Lakoff and Johnson 1980; Kövecses 2010). The celebrity senses of *star* and *зірка* belong here – parallel metaphorical transfers from the celestial domain based on brightness and prominence, not simple broadening.

Semantic type	Source domain	English example	Ukrainian example
Anthropomorphic	Human body or qualities	<i>the mouth of a river; the heart of the city</i>	<i>серце міста; горло пляшки</i>
Zoomorphic	Animal characteristics or behaviour	<i>a political hawk; a corporate shark</i>	<i>політичний яструб; акула бізнесу</i>
Nature-based	Natural phenomena (weather, water, fire)	<i>a storm of protest; a flood of messages</i>	<i>буря емоцій; потік новин</i>
Object-based	Material objects and tools	<i>a tool of influence; the machinery of government</i>	<i>важіль впливу; рукав річки</i>
Spatial / orientational	Physical space and directions	<i>high status; low mood</i>	<i>високий статус; низький рівень</i>
Colour-based	Colour associations with emotion	<i>black mood; green politics; grey area</i>	<i>чорна заздрість; зелена енергетика; сіра зона</i>
Sensory / synaesthetic	Perception transferred across senses	<i>a sharp taste; a soft voice</i>	<i>гострий запах; м'який голос</i>

Contrastive comment. Anthropomorphic, orientational and sensory metaphors are more cross-linguistically consistent (shared embodiment), while zoomorphic and colour metaphors are more culture-specific (*black mood* = depression vs *чорна заздрість* = envy). The sensory type is a rich site of asymmetry: *bitter* overlaps only partly with *гіркий* (*bitter truth* → *гірка правда*) before Ukrainian switches to a tactile image (*bitter frost* → *некучий мороз*, *bitter remark* → *в'їдливе зауваження*); *sweet* is often *милий* / *приємний* rather than *солодкий*; and figurative *heavy* takes a quantitative reading (*heavy rain* → *сильний дощ*, *heavy traffic* → *інтенсивний дорожній рух*), while difficulty is carried by a separate hardness metaphor (*hard times*, *hard task*) – so a sensory adjective cannot be assumed to map onto its dictionary cognate.

8. Conceptual Metaphor in English and Ukrainian

The theory of **conceptual metaphor** (Lakoff and Johnson 1980; Kövecses 2010) holds that metaphor structures thought itself: cognitive mappings between **source** and **target domains** organize how we understand abstract experience. Conceptual metaphors are written in capitals (**TIME IS MONEY**) to distinguish them from the expressions that instantiate them (*spend time*). Three major types are distinguished, with **personification** as a special case of the ontological type.

A **structural metaphor** maps one complex conceptual domain systematically onto another: English **TIME IS MONEY** motivates *spend* / *save* / *waste* / *invest time*, while Ukrainian has a parallel **ЧАС – ЦЕ ПЕКУРС**, motivating *витрачати* / *економити* / *марнувати час*.

An **orientational metaphor** organizes abstract concepts through spatial orientation, especially the up–down axis (positive = *up*, negative = *down*): *spirits are up*; *prices went down* / *настрій піднявся*; *ціни впали*.

An **ontological metaphor** treats an abstract concept as a physical entity – object, substance, or container – allowing speakers to quantify and reason about it: *she fell into depression*; *get out of this crisis* / *вона впала в депресію*; *вийти з цієї кризи*.

Personification is a subtype of **ontological metaphor** in which human characteristics, actions, or states are attributed to non-human entities: *The wind whispered through the trees* / *Осінь постукала у вікна холодним дощем*.

Contrastive comment. Broad conceptual mappings may be shared while their realizations diverge: English *invest time* is conventional, whereas Ukrainian prefers *приділяти час* / *вкладати час і зусилля*, so translators reproduce the mapping through a natural target expression rather than transferring the lexical **vehicle** mechanically.

9. Metonymy and Synecdoche

Metonymy is **semantic transfer** based on **contiguity** – conceptual association within the same situation, frame, institution, event, or domain – rather than similarity. Unlike **metaphor**, which understands one domain through a different but similar domain, **metonymy** uses one element of a domain to stand for another element of the same domain (Radden and Kövecses; Barcelona). Six recurring patterns:

- **Container for contents:** *The kettle is boiling* / *Чайник кипить*.
- **Place for institution:** *The White House announced new measures* / *Банкова повідомила про рішення* (Bankova Street = the Presidential Office).
- **Author for work:** *to read Shakespeare; a Picasso* / *читати Шевченка; придбати Сальвадора Далі*.
- **Instrument for action or agent:** *The first violin began the solo; the pen can expose corruption* / *Перша скрипка задала тему; перо викриває неправду*.
- **Whole for part:** *Ukraine won gold* / *Англія забила гол* (= the national team).

- **Institution for people:** *The university decided to cancel the event* / *Університет ухвалив рішення.*

Contrastive comment. The six patterns exist in both languages; place-for-institution is the most culture-bound (*The White House* internationally known vs Ukrainian *Банкова / Грушевського*, which may need explication), and stylistic register must be preserved.

Synecdoche is, in cognitive semantics, a **subtype of metonymy** defined by the **part-whole relation**: a part stands for the whole or the whole for a part. It differs from the whole-for-part pattern *Ukraine won gold*, where the whole stands for a representative participant in an event frame rather than a structural part of itself: *all hands on deck* (*hands* = *sailors*); *a new face in the team* / *робочі руки* (= *workers*); *дах над головою* (= *shelter*).

Questions for Self-check

1. What is the difference between semantic change and semantic transfer? How are the two concepts related?
2. Which scholars are associated with classical and modern approaches to semantic change? What did each contribute?
3. What is semantic radiation according to Bréal?
4. What is the difference between broadening and narrowing? Give one English and one Ukrainian example of each.
5. Why are the celebrity senses of *star* and *зірка* analysed primarily as metaphorical transfers rather than simple taxonomic broadening? How does stabilization of these senses nevertheless expand the lexical range of the words?
6. Why must Ukrainian examples of semantic change be verified in etymological dictionaries?
7. Give one securely documented English example of amelioration and discuss one possible Ukrainian candidate. What evidence distinguishes stable amelioration from pragmatic rehabilitation or positive cultural association?
8. Give English and Ukrainian examples of pejoration and explain what evaluative change has occurred. Why are *villain* and *мищанин* parallel cases?
9. How does metaphor differ from metonymy as a mechanism of semantic transfer?
10. What are the tenor and the vehicle of a metaphor according to I. A. Richards? Illustrate with an example.
11. What is the difference between a linguistic metaphor and a conceptual metaphor? How are the two levels connected?
12. Describe the three operational zones on the conventionalization continuum. Why should demotivation be diagnosed separately rather than assumed for every lexicalized metaphor?
13. How do the classification by degree of conventionalization (Section 6) and the classification by source domain (Section 7) relate to each other? Show how *the foot of the mountain* is located on both scales.
14. How may English *mouth of a river* and Ukrainian *гирло річки* differ in present-day transparency? Why must the degree of demotivation be supported by evidence rather than inferred automatically?
15. What are structural, orientational, and ontological metaphors? Why is personification treated as a subtype of ontological metaphor rather than a separate rhetorical figure?
16. Why is synecdoche treated as a subtype of metonymy in cognitive semantics, and on what kind of contiguity is it based?
17. Describe the six types of metonymic transfer with English and Ukrainian examples. How does synecdoche differ from them?
18. Why are sensory metaphors a rich site of English-Ukrainian asymmetry? Explain, using *bitter*, *sweet*, and *heavy*, how the source sense may switch between the two languages.

19. Why are place-for-institution metonymies (*The White House*, *Банкова*) particularly challenging in translation?
20. What translation strategy should be used for a dead metaphor? For a living (creative) metaphor?
21. When translating a conceptual metaphor, how do you decide whether to use a parallel target-language expression or a paraphrase?
22. Why must the referent of an author-for-work metonymy (*to read Shakespeare*) be preserved in translation, even though the metonymic pattern is shared by both languages?
23. How does pejoration affect translation choices regarding register and evaluative tone?
24. Give an example of a broadening and a narrowing from each language that are not simple translations of each other.

Lecture 7. Phraseology and Collocational Patterns in English and Ukrainian

Lecture plan

1. The notion of phraseology: definitions and scope
2. Phraseological units vs. free word combinations: diagnostic criteria
3. Structural classification of phraseological units
4. Idioms, proverbs, sayings, clichés, and formulaic language
5. Motivation, imagery, and stability in phraseology
6. Author-attributed classifications (Cowie; Baker; Uzhchenko & Uzhchenko)
7. Collocations in English and Ukrainian
8. Phraseological Equivalence in English and Ukrainian
9. Phraseology in translation: diagnostic procedure and strategies

Key concepts

phraseology, phraseological unit, free word combination, semantic unity, structural stability, idiomaticity, reproducibility, expressiveness, idiom, proverb, saying, cliché, formulaic language, winged words, biblicalisms, motivation, imagery, fixed expression, semi-fixed expression, phraseological variant, open collocation, restricted collocation, figurative idiom, pure idiom, collocation, open-choice principle, idiom principle, phraseological equivalence (full/partial/zero), phraseological gap, functional equivalent, paraphrase

1. The Notion of Phraseology: Definitions and Scope

Phraseology is the branch of lexicology that studies stable, reproducible, and conventionalized word combinations. In a narrow sense it focuses on idiomatic and expressive expressions (idioms, proverbs, sayings); in a broader sense it also includes restricted collocations, formulaic sequences, routine social formulas, and discourse markers (Sinclair 1991; Moon 1998; Nesselhauf 2005). A **phraseological unit** is a stable multiword expression reproduced as a ready-made unit with semantic, structural, or functional specificity that distinguishes it from a freely constructed combination. A **free word combination** is created on the spot according to grammar and ordinary lexical meaning; its meaning is fully compositional and its components can be freely substituted.

Contrastive comment. Both languages have rich inventories of stable expressions, but their **imagery** differs (*to spill the beans* vs *вивести на чисту воду*), so the translator preserves the **communicative meaning**, not the literal image.

2. Phraseological Units vs. Free Word Combinations: Diagnostic Criteria

The main criteria are **semantic unity**, **structural stability**, **idiomaticity**, **reproducibility**, and **expressiveness** (Uzhchenko & Uzhchenko 2007; corresponding to Cowie's and Moon's **institutionalization**, **fixedness**, **non-compositionality**). No single criterion is sufficient; PUs typically satisfy several simultaneously.

Criterion	Definition	English example	Ukrainian example
Semantic unity	Functions as one semantic whole; meaning not fully predictable from parts	<i>to be in hot water</i> (= in trouble)	<i>бути на гачку</i> (= trapped/dependent)
Structural stability	Form relatively fixed; substitution/permutation restricted	<i>safe and sound</i> (not <i>sound and safe</i>)	<i>ні живий ні мертвий</i> (order fixed)
Idiomaticity	Total meaning not predictable from	<i>to pull some-</i>	<i>водити за ніс</i> (= to

Criterion	Definition	English example	Ukrainian example
	component meanings	<i>one's leg</i> (= to tease)	deceive)
Reproducibility	Used as a ready-made unit from memory	<i>better late than never</i>	<i>Краще пізно, ніж ніколи</i>
Expressiveness	Carries emotional, evaluative, or stylistic colouring	<i>to cost an arm and a leg</i>	<i>коштувати шалені гроші</i>

Contrastive comment. **Idiomatcity** creates the sharpest translation risk (*зарубати на носі* = to remember firmly, nothing to do with the nose), while **reproducibility** links parallel forms (*better late than never* / *Краще пізно, ніж ніколи*) yet diverges when images differ (*once in a blue moon* vs *коли рак свисне*).

3. Structural Classification of Phraseological Units

Structural classification groups PUs by their syntactic organization and grammatical function; it is the first step in translation because it identifies the grammatical role of a **fixed expression** before an equivalent is sought.

3.1. Phraseological Units with the Structure of a Word Combination

- **Nominal PUs** (noun as centre): *a dark horse, a white elephant, the apple of one's eye* / *чирпий кардинал, біла ворона, ахіллесова п'ята*.
- **Verbal PUs** (organized around a verb): *to spill the beans, to break the ice, to keep an eye on somebody* / *вивести на чисту воду, бити байдики, тримати язик за зубами*.
- **Adjectival PUs** (describe a property): *as good as gold* (= well-behaved, esp. of a child), *dead tired, green with envy* / *легкий на підйом, злий як чорт, мокрий до нитки*.
- **Adverbial PUs** (modifiers of time, manner, degree): *in a nutshell, from time to time, once in a blue moon* / *час від часу, ні світ ні зоря, з першого погляду*.

Contrastive comment. English nominal idioms favour compact adjective+noun and noun+of+noun patterns, while Ukrainian uses genitive constructions and body-part imagery (*keep an eye on* vs *узяти себе в руки*); structural type is only the starting point, since **semantic unity**, register and imagery must all be verified.

3.2. Sentence-Structured Phraseological Units

These have the form of a complete sentence or clause and include many proverbs and sayings: *A friend in need is a friend indeed; The early bird catches the worm* / *Друзі пізнаються в біді; Хто рано встає, тому Бог дає*. Because they resist word-for-word translation, the practical method is to match the **situation**, not the image – clearest in proverbs built on a **zoonym**, where the two languages routinely choose different animals for the same meaning:

Situation	English proverb	Ukrainian equivalent
The small but certain is better than the large but unattainable	<i>a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush</i>	<i>краще синиця в жмені, ніж журавель у небі</i>
Members of one group protect their own	<i>dog does not eat dog</i>	<i>ворон ворону око не виклює</i>
Prompt effort improves success	<i>the early bird catches the worm</i>	<i>вовка ноги годують</i>

3.3. Comparative Phraseological Units

Based on a stable comparison (*as...as* / *як*): *as busy as a bee, as cool as a cucumber, as stubborn as a mule* / *білий як сніг, хитрий як лисиця, мовчить як риба*.

Contrastive comment. The model is structurally parallel but the images differ and cannot be transferred literally (*as cool as a cucumber* → *спокійний як удав* or *холоднокровний*), so the translator decides whether the specific image matters for the effect.

3.4. Paired and Binomial Phraseological Units

Two coordinated elements, often fixed in order: *safe and sound, by and large, give and take, black and white* / *ні пуху ні пера, і сміх і гірх, туди-сюди, сяк-так*.

Contrastive comment. English binomials rely on fixed lexical order; Ukrainian paired units often use negation, repetition, or rhyme, and deviating from the conventional order is a marked stylistic choice, not free variation.

4. Idioms, Proverbs, Sayings, Clichés, and Formulaic Language

The structural classification and these functional-semantic categories are complementary, not alternative: one unit may be an **adverbial PU** by structure and a **pure idiom** by transparency at once (*by and large*).

- An **idiom** is a fixed or relatively fixed expression whose meaning is partly or fully non-compositional, varying in opacity: *to spill the beans, to be under the weather* / *вивести на чисту воду, пекти раків*.
- A **proverb** is a complete sentence expressing collective experience or moral judgement in fixed, often rhythmic form: *Too many cooks spoil the broth* / *У семи няньок дитина без ока*.
- A **saying** is a conventional fixed expression presenting a familiar observation without the generalized moral of a proverb: *so far, so good; such is life* / *таке життя; поживемо – побачимо*.
- A **cliché** is an overused expression that has lost freshness; weak in academic style but a conventional signal in journalism: *at the end of the day, last but not least* / *на сьогоднішній день, у сучасному світі*.
- **Formulaic language** (prefabs) sequences stored and retrieved from memory as wholes – routine formulas, greetings, discourse markers (Wray 2002; Sinclair 1991): *As far as I know, it goes without saying* / *Наскільки я знаю, само собою зрозуміло*.

Contrastive comment. The categories form a continuum whose shared property is **reproducibility**; the translation challenge differs by type – idioms need semantic and cultural analysis, proverbs functional equivalence, and formulaic sequences a target-language formula (*поживемо – побачимо* → *time will tell*, not a literal rendering).

Winged Words and Biblicalisms

Winged words are stable aphoristic expressions of literary, historical, mythological, or scriptural origin associated with a recognizable source; classical ones usually have direct equivalents (*the die is cast* → *жереб кинуто*; *after us, the deluge* → *після нас хоч потоп*). **Biblicalisms** are an especially large, stable, high-equivalence group: *an eye for an eye* → *око за око*; *the salt of the earth* → *сіль землі*; *to wash one's hands* → *умивати руки*; *the prodigal son* → *блудний син*.

Contrastive comment. High equivalence follows from the shared cultural source, but the translator must recognize the source and use the established target wording – unnecessary paraphrase erases the allusion, an invented literal version fails to activate it.

5. Motivation, Imagery, and Stability in Phraseology

Motivation is the degree to which a PU's meaning can be explained through metaphor, metonymy, cultural knowledge, or historical association; **imagery** is the concrete picture underlying it. Motivation is graded: fully transparent (*to add fuel to the fire* / *підливати олії у вогонь*), partly motivated (*to be in the same boat* / *бути в одному човні*), or entirely opaque (*red herring, to kick the bucket* / *дати гарбуза, точити яси*). **Fixedness** is also graded: a **fixed expression** admits little variation (*by and large, red tape*), a **semi-fixed expression** allows limited change while remaining the same unit (*to keep an eye on* → *to keep a close eye on*). Even **structural stability** is relative: **phraseological variants** are established alternative forms of the same unit (*as pale as a sheet* / *ghost* / *death*; *блідий як полотно* / *смерть* / *стіна*), to be distinguished from phraseological synonyms (separate units with similar meanings).

Contrastive comment. For opaque units the literal image actively misleads (*дати гарбуза* = to reject a suitor, not about a vegetable), and variability matters twice: a source idiom may appear in a non-canonical variant that must still be recognized, and the chosen target variant must match register.

6. Author-Attributed Classifications

6.1. A. P. Cowie: A Scale from Collocation to Pure Idiom

Cowie's scale runs from transparent to opaque and incorporates the gradation of **motivation**:

- **Open collocations** – transparent, relatively free substitution: *read a book, buy a ticket* / *читати газету, купити квиток*.
- **Restricted collocations** – transparent but conventionally limited: *heavy rain, strong tea, commit a crime, pay attention* / *сильний дощ, міцний чай, скоїти злочин, звернути увагу*.
- **Figurative idioms** – motivated by a recognizable image, meaning conventional: *to break the ice, to add fuel to the fire* / *розтопити лід, підливати олії у вогонь*.
- **Pure idioms** – opaque, meaning not derivable from components: *red herring, by and large, to kick the bucket* / *дати гарбуза, точити яси, дати дуба*.

6.2. Mona Baker: Idioms, Fixed Expressions, and Translation Equivalence

Baker (2018) translates idioms by meaning, function, register, and cultural context, with four strategies: (1) a target idiom of similar meaning and form; (2) a target idiom of similar meaning but different form; (3) paraphrase; (4) stylistic compensation elsewhere in the text. *to spill the beans* → *проговоритися*; *a blessing in disguise* → *несподіване благо* (paraphrase); *сісти в калюжу* → *to make a fool of oneself*.

6.3. V. D. Uzhchenko and D. V. Uzhchenko: Ukrainian Phraseological Tradition

They describe PUs as stable, reproducible, semantically integral units with specific grammatical, semantic, and ethnocultural properties; Ukrainian imagery frequently draws on folk culture, agricultural life, body symbolism, and historical experience: *тримати язик за зубами, накивати п'ятами, некти раків, ловити гав* → *to keep one's mouth shut, to run away, to blush, to be inattentive*.

Contrastive comment. Ukrainian idioms often carry vivid folk and body imagery with no literal English equivalent (*некти раків* = to blush), so communicative function takes priority over image fidelity.

7. Collocations in English and Ukrainian

A **collocation** is a habitual combination of words; unlike idioms it is semantically transparent but restricted by conventional usage (Firth 1957). Sinclair (1991) proposed two principles: the **open-choice principle** treats language as a sequence of independent grammatical choices, while the **idiom principle**

ple states that speakers habitually use semi-preconstructed phrases stored as wholes – and most real language relies far more on the idiom principle than learners expect.

- **Adjective-noun:** *heavy rain, strong tea, bitter disappointment, bright future* / *сильний дощ, міцний чай, гірке розчарування, світле майбутнє*.
- **Verb-noun:** *make a decision, take responsibility, draw a conclusion, raise an issue* / *ухвалити рішення, взяти на себе відповідальність, дійти висновку, порушити питання*.
- **Adverb-adjective:** *deeply concerned, fully aware* / *глибоко стурбований, цілком обізнаний*.

Contrastive comment. Collocational transparency is deceptive – knowing *heavy* and *rain* does not reveal the partner is *сильний* – and the verb-noun type shows the strongest asymmetry because English light verbs (*make, take, draw, raise*) map onto semantically fuller Ukrainian verbs (*ухвалити, дійти, скоїти, порушити*).

8. Phraseological Equivalence in English and Ukrainian

Phraseological equivalence is a context-dependent relation between a source PU and a target unit performing a comparable semantic, pragmatic, and stylistic function.

- **Full phraseological equivalence** – close meaning, similar imagery, comparable function: *to add fuel to the fire, to play with fire* / *підливати олії у вогонь, гратися з вогнем*.
- **Partial phraseological equivalence** – same general meaning but different imagery, structure, or colouring: *to kill two birds with one stone, to buy a pig in a poke* / *убити двох зайців одним пострілом, купити kota в мішку*
- **Zero phraseological equivalence** – the target has no ready-made unit with the same meaning and function; a **phraseological gap** is the absence of a conventionalized unit for an idiomatically expressed concept: *to send someone to Coventry* → *бойкотувати когось* (no equivalent idiom); *damu garbuz* → *to reject a suitor* (no English idiom for the courtship image).

Contrastive comment. Full equivalence must be verified even for close expressions; partial equivalence is the normal case, and zero equivalence and gaps force a choice among **paraphrase** (meaning kept, expressiveness reduced), functional compensation, or descriptive translation.

9. Phraseology in Translation: Diagnostic Procedure and Strategies

A four-stage procedure applies to both idioms and collocations: **(1) identify the type of unit** (free combination, collocation, idiom, proverb, saying, or cliché), which sets the available strategies; **(2) establish the contextual meaning**, attending to pragmatic function, register, and irony rather than literal composition; **(3) assess register and stylistic colouring**, since a meaning-matched but register-mismatched equivalent is a style error; **(4) identify the available equivalence** (full/partial/zero) and select accordingly – a phraseological equivalent, a functional equivalent, a paraphrase, or stylistic compensation. Thus *to burn bridges* → *спалювати мости* (full); *вивести щось на чисту воду* → *bring something to light* (partial).

Questions for Self-check

1. What is phraseology, and what does it study in the broad and narrow sense?
2. How does a phraseological unit differ from a free word combination? Name and explain the five diagnostic criteria.
3. What is formulaic language? How does the concept extend the scope of phraseology beyond traditional idioms?
4. How does a proverb differ from a saying in this lecture's framework? Why may short conventional expressions receive different labels in different dictionaries? Give one English and one Ukrainian example of each.

5. Why are zoonymic proverbs matched by situation rather than by image? Give two English-Ukrainian pairs that use different animals for the same situational meaning.
6. What is a cliché, and in which text types is it acceptable or unacceptable?
7. What are winged words and biblicalisms? Why do they more often allow direct (full-equivalence) translation than ordinary idioms? Give two English-Ukrainian examples.
8. What is idiomaticity, and why does it create translation risk? Give a Ukrainian example with a non-transparent image.
9. What is the difference between a fixed and a semi-fixed expression? Give an English example of each.
10. In what sense is structural stability relative? Illustrate phraseological variants in each language, distinguish them from phraseological synonyms, and explain why the distinction matters for translation.
11. Describe the structural classification of phraseological units. Give one example of each main type from English and Ukrainian.
12. How does motivation differ among transparent, partly motivated, and opaque idioms? Give one English example of each type.
13. How does metaphor function as a basis for phraseological meaning? Give two parallel examples from English and Ukrainian.
14. How does metonymy function as a basis for phraseological meaning? Give a place-for-institution metonymy in each language and explain the translation challenge.
15. How does A. P. Cowie classify multiword units? Define each category and give one example from both languages.
16. What are the open-choice principle and the idiom principle according to John Sinclair? Who introduced the term collocation, and why are restricted collocations a frequent source of error? Give three English-Ukrainian collocational pairs illustrating typical asymmetries.
17. What translation strategies for idioms and fixed expressions are discussed by Mona Baker? What broader role may stylistic compensation play when no local equivalent reproduces the same effect?
18. What are the main features of Ukrainian phraseology according to Uzhchenko & Uzhchenko? Give three Ukrainian idioms with folk imagery and their English functional equivalents.
19. What are full, partial, and zero phraseological equivalence? Give one pair illustrating each type.
20. What is a phraseological gap, and how can a translator deal with it?
21. Describe the four-stage diagnostic procedure for translating phraseological units. Apply it to *to spill the beans* being translated into Ukrainian.
22. Why must the translation of English *make a decision* differ between institutional and conversational contexts in Ukrainian?

Lecture 8. Vocabulary Stratification, Terminology, and Lexical Innovation in English and Ukrainian

Lecture plan

1. Vocabulary stratification: dimensions and classification principles
2. Neutral, formal, and informal vocabulary
3. Literary, colloquial, and slang vocabulary
4. Thematic groups of slang and colloquial expressions; English-derived slang in Ukrainian
5. Ukrainian colloquial derivation and expressive suffixation
6. Professional vocabulary and terminology
7. Dialectal and regional vocabulary
8. Archaisms and historicisms
9. Neologisms, lexical innovation, and adapted borrowings
10. Contrastive analysis of register, terminology, and translation strategies

Key concepts

vocabulary stratification, neutral vocabulary, formal vocabulary, informal vocabulary, literary vocabulary, colloquial vocabulary, slang, register, professional vocabulary, professionalism, term, terminology, terminological system, terminological field, terminological variation, terminological consistency, dialectism, regional vocabulary, national variety, archaism, historicism, obsolescent/obsolete/archaic, neologism, lexical innovation, adapted borrowing, stylistic equivalence, terminological equivalence

1. Vocabulary Stratification: Dimensions and Classification Principles

Vocabulary stratification is the division of vocabulary into groups according to sphere of use, stylistic value, social function, professional domain, territorial distribution, historical status, and novelty. The overlapping dimensions are: the **stylistic** (neutral vs formal, bookish, colloquial, slang), the **social** (group-specific and sociolectal words), the **professional** (professional vocabulary, professionalisms, terms), the **territorial** (dialectisms, regional vocabulary), the **chronological** (archaisms, historicisms, obsolete words), and the **innovative** (neologisms, new meanings, borrowings, blends, digital formations).

2. Neutral, Formal, and Informal Vocabulary

Neutral vocabulary is stylistically unmarked and usable in most situations. **Formal vocabulary** is associated with official, academic, legal, administrative, or highly polite contexts. **Informal vocabulary** is typical of everyday conversation. In English, formal vocabulary often includes Romance or Latin-based words while everyday words are Germanic (*commence* vs *begin*, *purchase* vs *buy*, *reside* vs *live*); in Ukrainian it includes official, bookish, or abstract forms (*придбати* vs *купити*, *мешкати* vs *жити*, *надати допомогу* vs *допомогти*).

Context-bound register series (near-equivalents, not freely interchangeable): *begin/start* (neutral) – *commence* (formal) – *kick off* (informal); *help* – *assist* – *give someone a hand* / *почати* – *розпочати* – *взятися до чогось*; *допомогти* – *надати допомогу* – *підсобити*. Stylistic labels must be checked in authoritative dictionaries, and apparent series such as *child* - *infant* - *kid* / *дитина* - *немовля* - *малюк* are not pure register scales, since *infant* / *немовля* are semantically narrower and *малюк* is affectionate.

Contrastive comment. English marks formality largely through lexical origin and institutional usage, Ukrainian through bookish, official, or abstract choice, so *commence* and *розпочати* are both formal yet *commence* carries a legal-official colouring its counterpart need not replicate.

3. Literary, Colloquial, and Slang Vocabulary

Literary vocabulary includes words typical of written, elevated, poetic, or prestigious discourse. **Colloquial vocabulary** belongs to informal spoken communication and is not necessarily non-standard. **Slang** is socially marked, often group-related, expressive, innovative, and context-dependent (Mattiello 2008; Coleman 2012). Literary vocabulary differs from the formal vocabulary, literary words are elevated/poetic (*halcyon*, *незбагненний*), formal words official/institutional (*commence*, *надати допомогу*) – a word may be elevated without being official.

Contrastive comment. Both have colloquial words and socially marked slang, but Ukrainian slang often combines native resources with adapted English borrowings (*крінж*, *вайб*, *донатити*) while English slang is independently productive; because slang ages quickly and carries group meanings, a functional equivalent beats a literal rendering.

4. Thematic Groups of Slang; English-Derived Slang in Ukrainian

4.1. Thematic Groups of Slang and Colloquial Expressions

English and Ukrainian slang and colloquial expressions can be compared through thematic groups; labels must be verified per item, and digital-age slang is time-sensitive, so the notes state functional principles.

Thematic group	English examples	Ukrainian examples
Behaviour, departure, and tiredness	<i>beat it, conk out, drag one's feet</i>	<i>змотати вудочки, клеїти дурня, дати драла</i>
Money and small amounts	<i>bucks, dough, peanuts</i>	<i>бабки, кеш, копійки, дріб'язок</i>
People and character	<i>egghead, wimp, bigmouth</i>	<i>розумник, слабак, базікка</i>
Internet, gaming, youth culture	<i>cringe, vibe, noob, to farm, to nerf</i>	<i>крінж, вайб, юзати, чілити</i>

Contrastive comment. English slang frequently relies on phrasal verbs and compound nouns, Ukrainian on expressive verb formation and evaluative nouns; internet/gaming slang spreads through English and Ukrainian integrates the borrowed bases morphologically (*фармити*, *нерфити* take Ukrainian endings), the principle throughout being **functional equivalence** – preserve the communicative tone, not the image.

4.2. English-Derived Slang Borrowings in Ukrainian

Modern Ukrainian youth and media vocabulary contains numerous English-derived slang borrowings belong to the slang/youth stratum: *cringe* → *крінж* → *крінжовий* (noun → adjective); *like* → *лайкати* (verb, *-ати*); *toxic* → *токсик* (noun, a person, not the quality); *donate* → *донатити* (verb, *-ити*); *ROFL* → *рофл* (a joke/reaction); *old school* → *олдскульний* (adjective).

Contrastive comment. Back-translation is not automatic – *токсик* names a toxic person, not the adjective, and *рофл* a joke, not the acronym – because even the most fashionable borrowings are reshaped by Ukrainian morphology the moment they enter the language.

5. Ukrainian Colloquial Derivation and Expressive Suffixation

A typologically specific feature of Ukrainian **colloquial vocabulary** is the high productivity of **diminutive**, **affectionate**, **augmentative**, and **pejorative suffixes**, which shift a neutral base into a familiar, tender, ironic, coarse, or lowered register without changing the root: *малий* - *маленький* - *малесенький*; *мороз* - *морозець* - *морозище* - *морозяка*. English partial counterparts (*booklet*, *duckling*, *granny*) are far less productive and cannot create chains. Ukrainian lowered colloquial formations (*задавака*, *хануза*, *базіка*) correspond to separate English lexical items (*show-off*, *grabber*, *chatter-*

box), and colloquial synonymic expansion is vast (*вдарити, бити* → *бабахнути, влітнути, врізати, озпиму...* vs *hit, strike, clobber, thump, smack*).

Contrastive comment. Ukrainian creates colloquial colouring by **derivation** from a neutral stem with a single semantically dense suffix (evaluation, informality, irony, and speaker attitude at once), where English relies on lexical choice, modifiers, or intonation, so translation into English usually needs compensation through an adjective, a colloquial noun, or a tonal shift.

6. Professional Vocabulary and Terminology

Professional vocabulary is used by people sharing a professional field (work practice, tools, procedures, roles). **Terminology** is a special subsystem naming concepts within a domain of knowledge. The difference matters: professional words may be practical and field-specific without precise definition, while **terms** are conceptually precise, systematically organized, definitionally bounded, and tied to a **terminological system**. A **professionalism** is an unofficial or semi-official occupational designation used mainly by practitioners and not fixed by a standard, distinct from an established domain term – e.g. *box* for *container*, *reefer* / *рефка* for a refrigerated container, *ходовка* for *ходова частина*. Following Cabré and Sager, a term normally has **precision** (one concept per term within a domain), **systemicity**, **definitiveness**, and **domain membership**, though complete one-form-one-meaning stability is an ideal rather than an absolute rule.

6.1. Terminological Systems and Fields

A **concept system** organizes related concepts; a **terminological system** comprises their designations. A **terminological field** groups terms within a subject area.

Conceptual relations include:

- **Generic:** general concept and type, *transport document* → *bill of lading*.
- **Partitive:** whole and component, *ship* → *engine*.
- **Associative:** non-hierarchical connection, *carrier* → *cargo*.

Terms are verified through standards, legislation, specialist dictionaries, and professional resources.

Contrastive comment. English and Ukrainian terms require concept-based matching. *Cargo* denotes transported goods, while *freight* corresponds to *фрахт* when it means payment for carriage. Ukrainian *договір* may correspond to *contract*, *agreement*, or *treaty*, depending on the legal relationship and document type.

7. Dialectal and Regional Vocabulary

Dialectal and **regional vocabulary** are lexical units tied to a territory. Two phenomena must be separated: **national-variety differences** are contrasts between two *codified standards* of the same language (both fully literary), while **regional/dialectal vocabulary** proper consists of territorially restricted words outside the general standard, often uncoded.

English national-variety differences (British vs American): *flat* - *apartment*; *lift* - *elevator*; *lorry* - *truck*. **English regional/dialectal:** *bairn*, *wee*, *bonny*, *glen*, *loch*. **Ukrainian regional/dialectal:** *тазда*, *плячок*, *баняк*, *мешти*, *ватра*, *файний*, *легінь*, *бараболя* (картопля), *вуйко* (брат матері) – predominantly western; *полонина* and *трембіта* are **ethnographic regionalisms** naming Carpathian realities.

Contrastive comment. National-variety differences (*flat* / *apartment*) are contrasts between codified standards where the translator simply selects the target variety, while genuine regional words (*loch*, *полонина*) carry local cultural colouring and need a contextual decision (neutral equivalent, cultural explanation, or a preserved regional form); Ukrainian, lacking rival codified national standards of comparable scale, has mostly the second, genuinely regional type.

8. Archaisms and Historicisms

English and Ukrainian classify outdated vocabulary by **different criteria** – English by the degree of lexical survival, Ukrainian by the type of referent. The English tradition grades along a survival scale: **obsolescent words** are gradually leaving use but remain recognizable (*spinster*); **obsolete words** have fallen entirely out of use (*wanhope, eam*); **archaic words** survive specifically as literary or stylistic devices (*methinks, thou, quoth*). The Ukrainian tradition sorts by referent: **архаїзми** are older words replaced by modern synonyms while the reality remains (*перст* → *палець*, *уста* → *губи*, *град* → *місто*); **історизми** name objects, institutions, or roles that no longer exist and so usually have no modern equivalent (*чумак, кошовий, кольчуга, гетьман, кріпак*). Such vocabulary creates solemnity, historical distance, or – in a modern everyday context – comic effect.

Contrastive comment. The two systems are not mutually translatable labels: an English *archaic* word may correspond to a Ukrainian архаїзм or історизм depending on whether its referent still exists. An archaism cannot be flattened to its neutral synonym without losing register (*steed* ≠ simply *кінь*; *торкнувся її уст* is ceremonial where *доторкнувся до її губ* is neutral), and historicisms are sharply culture-specific (*осавул, жупан* usually require descriptive translation, not a false foreign analogue).

9. Neologisms, Lexical Innovation, and Adapted Borrowings

Neologisms are new words, meanings, or expressions appearing at a particular stage of a language; **lexical innovation** is broader, including new units, adapted borrowings, new meanings, and new collocations. Productive mechanisms (Bauer, Lieber & Plag 2013) are **derivation, compounding, conversion, clipping, blending, abbreviation** plus, in Ukrainian, internal word-formation, calquing, borrowing, and adaptation of international terms.

Adapted Borrowings in Ukrainian

Adapted borrowings are borrowed units integrated into the **recipient language** through **graphic adaptation** (Cyrillic spelling: *podcast* → *подкаст*, *startup* → *стартап*), **phonetic adaptation**, **morphological adaptation** (gender, case, verbal endings: *бренд* - *бренду* - *брендом*; *лайкати* - *лайкаю*), and **word-formational adaptation** (the base becomes productive: *блог* - *блогер* - *блогерський* - *блогерство*). Adaptation does not entail stylistic neutrality: *донатити, лайкати* remain informal or youth-marked and may be inappropriate in formal writing.

Contrastive comment. English neologisms spread globally, but Ukrainian integrates rather than copies them, choosing among direct borrowing, **calque** (*штучний інтелект*), **semantic adaptation** (*галюцинація моделі*), and **descriptive paraphrase**, with the normative status of each choice varying by context and text type.

10. Contrastive Analysis of Register, Terminology, and Translation Strategies

Vocabulary strata are organized in both languages, but the borders between strata do not always coincide: a word neutral in English may correspond to a more formal or specialized Ukrainian word. Lexical equivalence depends on habitual **collocation** and **register**, not word-for-word substitution: *strong coffee* → *міцна кава* (not *сильна*), while the same *strong* maps onto different partners by noun (*strong wind* → *сильний вітер*, *strong accent* → *виразний акцент*, *strong resemblance* → *разюча схожість*); *heavy smoker* → *зав'язаний / затятий курець*; *run a business* → *керувати бізнесом*. **Stylistic equivalence** means the target unit reproduces register, emotional colouring, and communicative function, not only denotation; **terminological equivalence** means it names the same specialized concept within an accepted term system.

Vocabulary strata are functionally comparable but formally language-specific, so the translator moves through three steps: (1) identify the stylistic stratum of the source unit (neutral, formal, colloquial, slangy, dialectal, archaic, terminological, or innovative); (2) identify the equivalent stratum in the tar-

get language; (3) verify that the chosen target unit occupies the same position – checking register, collocation, currency, and social value – thereby avoiding both stylistic flattening and overcorrection.

Questions for Self-check

1. What is vocabulary stratification, and what dimensions does it include?
2. How do neutral, formal, and informal vocabulary differ? Give one English and one Ukrainian example of each.
3. What is the difference between colloquial vocabulary and slang? How does literary vocabulary differ from formal vocabulary?
4. Why does Mattiello's approach to English slang matter for contrastive lexicological analysis?
5. What are the main thematic groups in which English and Ukrainian slang can be compared? Give one example from each group.
6. How do English-derived Ukrainian slang borrowings undergo graphic, phonetic, morphological, and word-formational adaptation? Give three examples with the type of adaptation specified.
7. Why is Ukrainian expressive suffixation especially important for translating colloquial vocabulary into English?
8. What is the difference between professional vocabulary, a professionalism, and a term? Give a maritime example of a professionalism and of a term.
9. What properties should a term have?
10. What is a terminological system? Give an example from one specialized field in English and Ukrainian, and explain why *dozovip* and *contract* may not map one-to-one.
11. What is terminological variation, and why does it create translation challenges?
12. Why is terminological consistency important within a translated document?
13. Why must chronologically marked vocabulary be analysed on two axes: current lexical status and type of referent? Explain the English dictionary labels and the Ukrainian distinction between *архаїзм* and *історизм* with examples.
14. What is the difference between national-variety differences (*flat* / *apartment*) and genuine regional / dialectal vocabulary (*bairn*, *тазда*)? Why does the distinction matter for translation?
15. What mechanisms produce neologisms in English and Ukrainian? Give two examples for each mechanism.
16. How does lexical innovation in digital culture differ from terminology formation?
17. What are the three analytical steps a translator should follow when choosing a target-language equivalent for a stylistically marked source-language unit?
18. How should a translator choose between *ухвалити рішення* and *прийняти рішення* when translating *make a decision*?

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