

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
Донецький національний університет економіки і торгівлі
імені Михайла Туган-Барановського

Кафедра іноземної філології, українознавства
та соціально-правових дисциплін

С. А. Остапенко, Л. А. Дмитрук, О. М. Бондаревська

**ПОРІВНЯЛЬНА ГРАМАТИКА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ ТА
УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ МОВИ**

Курс лекцій

Кривий Ріг
2021

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У запропонованій методичній розробці представлено основні питання порівняльної граматики як науки, зокрема, морфологія та синтаксис. Викладення теоретичних понять супроводжується великою кількістю прикладів як з англійської, так і з української художньої літератури, що істотно сприяє розумінню способів вираження граматичних понять у специфічно англо- чи україномовному функціонуванні.

Зміст посібника викликає зацікавленість, пов'язану з актуальністю розроблених тем.

Посібник відповідає сучасним методичним вимогам до навчальної літератури.

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імені Михайла Туган-
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ВСТУП / INTRODUCTION

Дисципліна «Порівняльна граматики англійської та української мови» входить до циклу лінгвістичних дисциплін, що формують філологічну базу здобувачів вищої освіти та дає можливість студентам оволодіти практичними навичками порівняння морфологічних та синтаксичних категорій в рідній та іноземній мовах.

Основна **мета** дисципліни – надати студентам знання про ключові положення порівняльної граматики, про ізоморфні/аломорфні мовні явища, морфологічні категорії частин мови, синтаксичні зв'язки, речення як основну комунікативну одиницю мови, структурні типи речень тощо, відображені в теоретично-практичних курсах суміжних дисциплін, що викладаються здобувачам вищої освіти.

Порівняльна граматики англійської та української мов як наука про типологію морфологічних систем та синтаксичних структур вивчає морфологію та синтаксис двох порівнюваних мов у всіх аспектах – від найменшої значеннєвої одиниці мови – морфеми – до одиниць суперсинтаксичного рівня мови – понадфразових єдностей і текстів.

Завданнями курсу «Порівняльна граматики англійської та української мови» є: підсумувати знання студентів про мовні рівні (фонетичний, лексичний, морфологічний, синтаксичний) у зіставному аспекті та виділити їхні ізоморфні та аломорфні риси; підвищити рівень підготовки студентів з теорії граматики, що має сприяти науковому розумінню теоретичних основ вивчення мови як системи; сформулювати у студентів розуміння характеру міжмовних граматичних зв'язків і відношень; з'ясувати схожості та розбіжності граматичної системи англійської мови з граматичною системою української мови; розкрити основні граматичні трансформації при здійсненні перекладу за відсутності граматичних еквівалентів у зіставляваних мовах.

У результаті вивчення навчальної дисципліни студент повинен

знати:

основні ідеї та концепції провідних українських учених у галузі контрастивної лінгвістики та порівняльної граматики зокрема;

інструментарій контрастивної лінгвістики, а саме методи зіставлення граматичних явищ англійської та української мов для виявлення спільного та відмінного у граматичних системах зіставлявальних мов;

аломорфні та ізоморфні риси граматичної структури англійської та української мов;

вміти:

практично аналізувати граматичну будову англійської та української мов з метою виявити у них спільні та відмінні риси;

організувати порівняльне теоретичне дослідження;

визначати аломорфні й ізоморфні риси частин мови та граматичних категорій словосполучень та речень і застосовувати ці знання при перекладі.

CONTENT MODULE 1. MORPHOLOGY

1. Fundamentals PLAN

1. Language.
2. Speech.
3. Basic units of language and speech:
 - the phoneme,
 - the morpheme,
 - the word,
 - the sentence.
4. The term grammar.
5. Word as a basic language unit.
6. Types of stems.
7. The classification of words.

Concepts and terms: *language, speech, language units, the phoneme, the morpheme, the word, the sentence, phonology, morphology, syntax, grammar, basic language unit, the structure of words, grammatical morpheme, lexical morpheme, lexico-grammatical morpheme, grammatical word-morpheme, analytical word, syntactical word, types of stems, simple, derivative, compound, composite, lexeme, grammeme.*

References: 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 14

1. Basic units of language and speech

The distinction between language and speech, which was first introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) in his book on general linguistics, has become one of the cornerstones of modern linguistics. Most generally these two notions are understood in the following way:

• language is the system of units used in the process of speaking by all members of a community;

• speech is the process of using articulate (distinctly uttered) sounds to convey information.

Broader definitions of the notions are as follows:

Language is the system, phonological, lexical, and grammatical, which lies at the base of all speaking. It is a source which every speaker and writer has to draw upon (rely on) if he/she is to be understood by other speakers of the language.

Speech, on the other hand, is the manifestation of language, or its use by various speakers and writers of the given language. Thus any material for analysis we encounter, orally or in a written form, is always a product of speech, namely something either pronounced or written by some individual speaker or writer, or a group of speakers or writers. There is no other way for a scholar to get at language than through its manifestation in speech.

In the process of speech we use many language units to code the information we are going to convey, therefore any instance of speech is a particular realization of a language. As we are concerned with grammar only we will not dwell on the problem of language system in phonology and lexicology, but we will concentrate on the system of grammar and its manifestation in speech where, of course, it can never appear isolated from phonology and lexicology. Actual sentences pronounced by a speaker are the result of organizing words drawn from the word stock according to a pattern drawn from its grammatical system.

Thus, in stating that English nouns have a distinction of two numbers, singular and plural, and that there are several ways of expressing the category of plural number in nouns, we are stating facts of language, that is, elements of that system which a speaker or a writer of English has to draw on (to draw on – to make use of supply of smth.). But, for instance, a concrete phrase *very fine weather* is a fact of speech, created by the individual speaker for his own purposes, and founded on knowledge, (a) of a syntactical pattern in question “adverb+adjective+noun”, and (b) of the words which he/she arranges according to the pattern [8, 6-7].

The basic units of language and speech are: the phoneme, the morpheme, the word and the sentence. The definitions of these units have never been generally agreed on, yet the following can serve as some brief functional characteristics.

The **phoneme** is the smallest distinctive unit. The phoneme [b], for instance, is the only distinctive feature marking the difference between *tale* [teil] and *table* [teibl].

The **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful unit. *Uti-fail-ing-ly*, for instance, contains four meaningful parts, that is four morphemes.

The **word** is the smallest naming unit. Though the words *terror*, *terrible*, *terrific*, *terrify* contain more than one morpheme each, they are the smallest units naming a certain feeling, certain properties and a certain action respectively.

The **sentence** is the smallest communication unit which expresses a complete thought or an idea. *It rains* is a sentence because it communicates a certain particular idea. Though a sentence contains words, it is not merely a group of words (or other units), but something integral, a structural unity built in accordance with one of the patterns existing in a given language. All the sounds of a sentence are united by typical intonation. All the meanings are interlaced according to some pattern to make one communication. And a communication is a directed thought [15; 11]. It is exactly the ability to express the complete idea or some meaningful thought that makes a sentence a sentence and distinguishes it, for example, from a phrase.

The mentioned units (the phoneme, the morpheme, the word and the sentence) are units of different levels of language structure. The phoneme is a unit of the lowest level, the sentence – of the highest. A unit of a higher level usually contains one or more units of the preceding level. But the higher unit cannot be reduced to the sum of those lower units since it has a quality not inherent in the units of the lower level. For example, the naming power of the word *length* is not inherent in the two morphemes it contains. The communicating power of the sentence *It rains* is not inherent in the two words it contains.

Vice versa, a combination of units of a certain level does not make a unit of a higher level unless the combination acquires the properties of the units of that higher level. The combination of morphemes *-ing-ly* is not a word since it names nothing. The combination of words *of the teacher* is not a sentence as long as it communicates nothing [14, 7-8].

The units of each level can be analyzed as to their inner structure, the classes they belong to in the language system (otherwise, their paradigmatic relations), and the combinations they form in speech (or their syntagmatic relations). In the light of all the above mentioned we shall assume that the structure of various units and the classes they form (paradigmatic relations) are the sphere of language, while the combinations the same units form in the process of communication (syntagmatic relations) are the sphere of speech.

It goes without saying that language and speech are interdependent and interpenetrating. The combinability of every unit depends upon its properties as an element of the language system. On the other hand, the properties of every unit develop in the process of speech. Combinations of units may become stable and develop into new units, as in the case of *motor-bicycle, has written, at last* etc. [14, 9-10].

The structure, classification and combinability of phonemes is studied by a branch of linguistics called phonology.

The structure, classification and combinability of words is the object of morphology.

Syntax deals with the structure, classification and combinability of sentences.

Morphology and syntax are both parts of grammar. Morphology is a part of grammar that treats meaning and use of classes of words – *parts of speech*, as they are traditionally referred to. Syntax is another subdivision of grammar that deals with the structure of speech utterances that makes a sentence or a part of a sentence.

The term grammar is used to denote:

- 1) the objective laws governing the use of word classes, their forms and their syntactic structures based upon their objective content;
- 2) the laws of a language as they are understood by a linguist or a group of linguists.

In other words, grammar ([Wikipedia Internet Source](#)) is the study of rules governing the use of language. The set of rules governing a particular language is also called the grammar of the language; thus, each language can be said to have its own distinct grammar. Grammar is a part of the general study of language called linguistics. The subfields of modern grammar are phonetics, phonology, morphology-syntax, and semantics. Traditional grammars include only morphology and syntax.

There can also be differentiated several types of grammar. Thus, we may speak of a practical grammar and a theoretical grammar. A practical grammar is the system of rules explaining the meaning and use of words, word forms, and syntactic structures. A theoretical grammar treats the existing points of view on the content and use of words, word forms, syntactic structures and gives attempts to establish (if necessary) new ones.

Summing up, it is worth presenting the views of A. Levytsky upon this subject, who considers grammar a branch of linguistics that treats the laws of language units' usage in speech. Grammar considers and examines language from its smallest meaningful parts up to its most complex organization. It classifies words into categories and states the peculiarities of each category. A. Levytsky considers vocabulary to be the word-stock, and grammar to be the set of devices for handling this word-stock. It is due to these devices that language is able to give a material linguistic form to human thought. The semantic value of grammatical devices is developed in the process of communication. So, *grammar* is treated as *a branch of linguistics, which studies the structure of language, i.e. a system of morphological categories and forms, syntactic categories and constructions*. That is why grammar consists of two branches – morphology and syntax [9, 97].

2. Word as a basic language unit.

The structure of words

One of the main properties of a word is its double nature. It is material because it can be heard or seen, and it is immaterial or ideal as far as its meaning is concerned. Therefore, the material aspects of the word (written and oral) will be regarded as its forms, and its meanings (ideal or immaterial aspects) as its content. When defining the word as “the smallest naming unit” the reference was made primarily to its content, whereas in pointing out the most characteristic features of words we deal chiefly with the form.

The word *books* can be broken up in two parts: *book-* and *-s*. The content of the first part can be rendered as “a written work in a form of a set of printed pages fastened together inside a cover, as a thing to be read” and the meaning of the second part is “plurality”. So, each of the two parts of the word *books* has both form and content. Such meaningful parts of a word are called morphemes. If we break up the word in some other way, e.g. *boo-ks*, the resulting parts will not be morphemes, since they have no meanings. The morphemes *book-* and *-s* differ essentially:

1) In their relations to reality and thought. *Book-* is directly associated with some object of reality, even if it does not name it as the word *book* does (compare *bookish*). The morpheme *-s* is connected with the world of reality only indirectly, through the morpheme it is linked with. In combination with the morpheme *book-* it means “more than one book”. Together with the morpheme *table-* it refers to “more than one table”. But alone it does not remind us of the notion “more than one” in the same way as, for instance, the morpheme *plural-* does.

2) In their relations to the word which they are part of. *Book-* is more independent than *-s*. *Book-* makes a word *book* with a zero morpheme, with the meaning of “singular number”, added, whereas *-s* cannot make a word with a zero morpheme. It always depends on some other morpheme.

3) In their relations to similar morphemes in other words. The meaning of *-s* is always relative. In the word *books* it denotes “plurality”, because *books* is opposed to *book* with the zero morpheme of “singularity”. In the word *news* *-s* has no plural meaning because there is no “singular” opposite to *news*. In verbs the morpheme *-s* shows the meaning of “present tense” in relation to the morpheme *-ed* in *wanted*, but

at the same time it shows the meaning of the “third person, singular” in relation to the zero morpheme of *want*. Now we cannot say that *book-* has one meaning when compared with *chair-* and another when compared with *table-*.

Summing up, we can state that, the meanings of the morphemes *-s*, *-ed*, being relative, dependent and only indirectly reflecting reality, are *grammatical* meanings of grammatical morphemes.

Morphemes of the *book-* type and their meanings are called *lexical*.

It is a common phenomenon in English that the function of a grammatical morpheme is fulfilled by an apparent word standing separately. The lexical meanings of the words *invite*, *invited* and the combination *shall invite* are the same. The main difference in content is the “present” meaning in *invite*, the “past” meaning in *invited* and the “future” meaning in *shall invite*. These meanings are grammatical. By comparing the relations of *invite – invited* and *invite – shall invite* we can see that the function of *shall* is similar to that of the grammatical morpheme *-ed*. Thus, being formally a word, since it is characterized by a separate loose position in a sentence (e.g. *I shall come tomorrow.*), in regard to its content *shall* is not a word, but a grammatical morpheme. Therefore, since *shall* has the properties of both a word and a grammatical morpheme, it can be called a *grammatical word-morpheme*.

Let us now compare the two units: *invites* and *shall invite*. They contain the same lexical morpheme *invite-* and different grammatical morphemes *-s* and *shall*. The grammatical morpheme *-s* is a bound morpheme: it is rigidly connected with the lexical morpheme. The grammatical morpheme *shall* is a free morpheme or a word-morpheme: it is loosely connected with the lexical morpheme. Owing to the difference in the forms of the grammatical morphemes, there is a difference in the forms of the units *invites* and *shall invite*. *Invites* has the form of one word, and *shall invite* that of the combination of words.

Units like *invites*, with bound grammatical morphemes, are called synthetic words. They are words both in form and in content.

Units like *shall invite*, with free grammatical morphemes, or grammatical word-morphemes, are called analytical words. They are words in-content only. In the form they are combinations of words.

Since the difference between synthetic and analytical words is a matter of form, not content, we may speak of synthetic (синтетична або проста форма) and analytical (аналітична або складена форма) forms.

Analytical forms are much more characteristic of English than of Ukrainian. Especially rich in analytical forms is the English verb where they greatly exceed the synthetic forms in number.

Owing to the prevalence of analytical forms, English is usually spoken of as an analytical language, and Ukrainian, Russian, Greek, Latin etc., in which synthetic forms prevail, as synthetic languages.

Besides lexical and grammatical morphemes there exist some intermediate types.

The first morphemes in the words *de-part*, *for-give*, and the second morphemes in the words *fly-er*, *home-less* resemble grammatical morphemes in their dependence on the lexical morphemes. But they differ from grammatical morphemes in not being

relative. Thus, for example, in pairs *merciful* – *merciless*, and *homeless*, *jobless*, etc., *-less* retains its meaning (“the absence of smth.”) even if it is not contrasted. Like grammatical morphemes, *de-*, *for-*, *-er*, *-less* are attached only to some classes of lexical morphemes, but like lexical morphemes they determine the lexical meanings of words. Compare: *part* and *depart*, *job* and *jobless*. Thus, owing to their double or intermediate nature, they will be called *lexico-grammatical morphemes*.

De-, *for-*, *-er*, *-less* are bound morphemes. English also possesses free lexico-grammatical morphemes, or *lexico-grammatical word- morphemes*.

Units of the type *stand up*, *give in*, *find out* resemble analytical words, having the forms of a combination of words and the content of a word. But there is an essential difference between *shall give* and *give in*. *Shall* does not introduce any lexical meaning, while *in* does. *Shall give* differs from *give* grammatically, while *give in* differs from *give* lexically. In this respect *give in* is similar to *forgive*. Thus, *in* is an example of a lexico-grammatical word morpheme.

A word has at least one lexical morpheme. It may also have grammatical and lexico-grammatical morphemes. The lexical morpheme is regarded as the root of the word, all the other bound morphemes as affixes: prefixes, suffixes and infixes.

Position is not the only difference between prefixes and suffixes. Suffixes play a much greater role in the grammatical structure of both English and Ukrainian languages. Firstly, they include grammatical morphemes besides lexico-grammatical ones, whereas prefixes are only lexico-grammatical. Secondly, the lexico-grammatical suffixes are more closely connected with grammatical morphemes than prefixes are. Adding a suffix to the root mostly changes the set of grammatical morphemes attached, which is not typical of prefixes.

Words without their grammatical morphemes (mostly suffixes, often called endings or inflections) are known as stems. In accordance with their structure the following four types of stems are usually distinguished:

1. Simple (прості основи), containing only the root, as in *day*, *dogs*, *write*, *wanted*, etc.

2. Derivative (похідні основи), containing affixes or other stembuilding elements, as in *boyhood*, *rewrite*, *strength*, etc.

3. Compound (складні основи), containing two or more roots, as in *white-wash*, *pickpocket*, *apple tree*, *motor-car*, *brother-in-law*, etc.

4. Composite (складені основи), containing free lexico-grammatical word-morphemes or otherwise having the form of a combination of words, as in *give up*, *two hundred and twenty five*, *at last*, *in spite of*, etc. [13, 12-18].

3. The classification of words

A morpheme usually has more than one meaning. This is the case, for instance, with both the lexical and the grammatical morpheme in the word *runs*. The morpheme *run-* has the following meanings: 1) “move with quick steps” (*The boy runs fast*); 2) “flow” (*A tear runs ...*); 3) “become” (*to run dry*); 4) “manage” (*run a business*); 5) “cause to move” (*run a car*), and many others. The meanings of the *-s* morpheme are as follows: 1) “present tense”; 2) “indicative mood”; 3) “third person”; 4) “singular number”; 5) “non-continuous aspect” and some Others.

All the lexical meanings of the word *runs*, inherent in the morpheme *run-*, unite this word with *to run*, *running*, *will run*, *shall run*, *has run*, *had run*, *is running*, *was running* etc. into one group called a lexeme.

All the grammatical meanings of the word *runs*, inherent in the morpheme *-s*, unite this word with *walks*, *stands*, *sleeps*, *skates*, *lives* and a great many other words into a group we shall call a grammeme.

The words of a lexeme or of a grammeme are united not only by the meanings of the corresponding morpheme, but by its form too. Still the content is of greater importance, with the form often differing considerably. The words *runs* and *ran*, for instance, have the same lexical meanings and belong therefore to the same lexeme in spite of the formal difference. A similar example can illustrate formal variations of a grammatical morpheme uniting words into a grammeme: *lived*, *walked*, *skated*, *slept*, *ran*, *went*.

As we see, each word of a lexeme represents a certain grammeme, and each word of a grammeme represents a certain lexeme. The set of grammemes represented by all the words of a lexeme is its paradigm. The set of lexemes represented by all the words of a grammeme is usually so large that it therefore has got no name. But it is of necessity to recollect the fact that in actual speech a lexical morpheme displays only one meaning of the bunch in each case, and that meaning is singled out by the context or the situation of speech (that is *syntagmatically*, in grammar language) [12, 19-22].

	Lexeme 1	Lexeme 2		
Grammeme 1	boy	girl	common case, singular number	
Grammeme 2	boy's	girl's	possessive case, singular number	
Grammeme 3	boys	girls	common case, plural number	
Grammeme 4	boys'	girls'	possessive case, plural number	
	<i>male, child son, male servant, etc.</i>	<i>female, child daughter, maid servant, etc.</i>	meanings of lexemes	meanings of grammemes

2. Noun as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian languages

PLAN

1. Definition of the noun.
2. Classifications of the nouns.
3. The peculiarities of Ukrainian and English nouns.
4. The grammatical phenomenon of opposition forming.
5. The category of number.
6. The category of case.
7. The category of gender.
8. The category of the names of living beings and lifeless objects.

Concepts and terms: *concrete and abstract nouns, names of living beings and lifeless objects, common and proper nouns, material nouns, collective nouns, thingness, substantivity, categories of number, categories of case, augmentative suffixes, opposeme, singular, plural, countables, uncountables, way of plural form building, collective nouns, nouns determining the substance, abstract nouns, singularia tantum, pluralia tantum.*

References: 1, 2, 5, 6, 9, 10, 13

The noun is the most numerous lexico-grammatical class of lexemes. It is but natural that it should be divided into subclasses. From the grammatical point of view most important is the division of nouns into countables and uncountables with regard to the category of number and into declinables and indeclinables with regard to the category of case.

All other classifications are semantic rather than grammatical. Thus, in Ukrainian, for example, according to M. Zubkov [4, 159] there are differentiated the following lexico-grammatical classes of nouns in regard to their semantic and morphological characteristics:

- 1) concrete and abstract nouns (іменники конкретні й абстрактні: *ложка, парк – імовірність, кохання*);
- 2) names of living beings and lifeless objects (назви істот і неістот: *студент, дочка – технікум, завод*);
- 3) common and proper nouns (власні й загальні назви: *Роман, Ірина, Львів, Канада – дівчина, хлопець, місто, держава*);
- 4) material nouns (матеріально-речовинні: *фтор, золото, кисень, нафта*);
- 5) collective nouns (збірні: *кіннота, огудиння, студентство, листя*).

According to B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya [13, 52] while dividing nouns into abstract and concrete ones, we usually take into consideration not the properties of words but the properties of the things they denote. The abstract noun *smile* does not differ from the concrete noun *book* in its paradigm (*smile – smiles, book – books*) or its lexico-grammatical combinability (*He gave me one of his books (smiles)*). Certainly, many abstract nouns (*pride, darkness, etc.*) are uncountables, but so are many concrete nouns (*wool, peasantry, etc.*).

The group of collective nouns mentioned in many grammars is grammatically not homogeneous. Some collective nouns are countables (*government, family, etc.*), others are not in English (*foliage, peasantry, etc.*). If we consider, for example, Ukrainian collective nouns we shall see that unlike English collective nouns they are rather homogeneous since they denote a certain unity of the same or similar objects which are treated as one whole (сукупність однакових або подібних предметів, що сприймаються як одне ціле). Most often these are names of some living beings, plants, etc. They have distinct grammatical meaning in the way that they do not have the plural form since they denote the unity of a number of objects that cannot be counted. Ukrainian collective nouns are also characterized by gender and word-changing abilities. They can be easily recognized by suffixes they are typically used with: -ство/-цтво (*студентство, птаство, козацтво*); -н(я) (*насіння, мурашня*); -инн(я)/-овинн(я) (*ластовиння, картоплиння*); -от(а) (*кіннота, парубота*); -еч(а) (*стареча, малеча*), etc.

Material nouns are a peculiar group of uncountables, for example: *air, iron, sugar, silver*.

Proper nouns are another, even more peculiar, group of uncountables (though sometimes they form number opposemes, e.g.: *Brown – the Browns* (in English). In Ukrainian proper nouns are mostly singular though the plural form can also be met, e.g.: *два Чернігові*.

According to Ukrainian grammars a noun is a notional part of speech possessing the meaning of “thingness” or “substantivity” (значення предметності) expressed in the forms of gender, number and case [10, 114]. We cannot apply this definition fully to the English noun since, as it is believed by the majority of scholars specializing in the study of the English grammar, there is no category of gender among English noun categories. So let us consider this part of speech in both languages according to five criteria mentioned above.

The English noun as a part of speech comprises the following features:

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning of “substantivity”.
2. Typical stem-building morphemes, as in: *pacif-ist, work-er, friendship, manage-ment*, etc.
3. The grammatical categories of number and case.
4. Typical combinability: left-hand connections with articles, prepositions, adjectives, possessive pronouns (also demonstrative pronouns, some indefinite and negative pronouns), other nouns, etc.; right-hand connections with nouns (creating the so-called noun clusters), verbs.
5. The typical syntactic function of a subject, an object, a complement or a predicative, less frequently attribute or other parts of the sentence.

Let us compare the English noun with its Ukrainian counterpart. The mentioned above five properties for distinguishing parts of speech will serve as the basis for comparison or tertium comparationis.

1. The lexico-grammatical meanings are similar.
2. The variety of lexico-grammatical morphemes is much greater for the Ukrainian noun.

The peculiarity of Ukrainian is also the abundance of “subjecty appraisal” (diminutive) suffixes, as in *дівчатко, носик, синок*. The number of diminutive only nounforming suffixes is as many as 53, which goes in no comparison with the English 14 suffixes [10; 149]. The four of English diminutive suffixes are considered to be productive, namely: -y (-ie, -ye) (*daddy, grannie*), -let (*booklet, streamlet*), -ette (*kitchenette, launderette*), -ling (*gooseling, kingling*) [9, 199].

Completely missing in English but available in Ukrainian are augmentative suffixes, for example: -ил (*вітрило, барило*), -ищ (*вовчище, дубище*), -ук/-юк (*каменяка, зміюка*), -уг/-юг (*дідуга, злодюга*), -ан/-ань (*дідуган, здоровань*), -яр (*мисяра, носяра*), etc. [9, 198].

3. The Ukrainian language possesses the category of gender which is absent in English. The category of gender in Ukrainian is a lexico-grammatical one, since not only grammatical features but also the semantic ones (that is a division according to sex, age) are taken into account: *дід – баба, син – донка, качка – каченя*. Morphological characteristics are also of importance (suffixes and endings): *студент – студентка, робітник – робітниця*, etc. The grammatical meaning of the masculine, feminine and neuter gender is determined, affording to the main index – the ending of the nominative case, singular as well as the genitive and the instrumental cases. For nouns of the masculine gender the most typical is zero ending, e.g.: *степ, двір, хлопець*, but also -а (я), -о, -е endings can be met, e.g.: *батько, Микола, суддя, вовчище*. Nouns of the feminine gender usually have the endings -а (я), e.g.: *калина, земля, Роксолана, Надія*; nouns with the zero ending can also be found, e.g.: *зустріч, сіль, більшість*. Nouns of the neuter gender have the endings, -о, -е, -я, e.g.: *село, поле, знання, дитя*. Nouns of the so-called common case (спільний рід – *базика, трудяга, нечепура, плакса*) will belong relatively to the context either to the masculine or to the feminine gender.

In both languages we find the categories of number and case. But their opposemes, especially those of the category of case, differ greatly in the two languages:

a) a Ukrainian case opposeme contains six (or seven if we take into account the vocative case) members unlike the English two- member case opposeme;

b) in English the “singular number, common case” grammeme is as a rule not marked. In Ukrainian any grammeme can be marked, e.g.: *рука, вікно*, etc.;

The category of number of English nouns is the system of opposemes (such as *girl – girls, foot – feet*, etc.) showing whether the noun stands for one object or more than one, in other words, whether its grammatical meaning is of “oneness” or “more than oneness” of objects.

The connection of the category with the world of material reality, though indirect, is quite transparent. Its meanings reflect the existence of individual objects and groups of objects in the material world.

All number opposemes are identical in content: they contain two particular meanings of “singular” and “plural” united by the general meaning of the category, that of “number”. But there is a considerable variety of form in number opposemes, though it is not so great as in the Ukrainian language.

With regard to the **category of number** both English and Ukrainian nouns fall into two subclasses: countables (злічувані іменники) and uncountables (незлічувані іменники). The former have number opposites, the latter do not. Uncountable nouns are again subdivided into those having no plural opposites and those having no singular opposites.

The grammatical phenomenon of opposition forming the basis of the category of number is easier to present on the example of the English language. Thus, an English noun lexeme can contain two number opposeemes at most (*boy – boys, boy's – boys'*). Many lexemes have but one opposeeme (*table – tables*) and many other have no opposeemes at all (*ink, news*). In the opposeeme *boy – boys* “singularity” is expressed by a zero morpheme and “plurality” is marked by the positive morpheme [-z], in spelling -s. In other words, the “singular” member of the opposeeme is not marked, and the “plural” member is marked. In the opposeeme *boy's – boys'* both members have positive morphemes -'s, -s', but these morphemes can be distinguished only in writing. In the spoken language their forms do not differ, so with regard to each other they are unmarked. They can be distinguished only by their combinability (*boy's head – boys' heads*).

In a few noun lexemes of foreign origin both members of the number opposition are marked, e.g.: *phenomenon – phenomena*. But in the process of assimilation this peculiarity of foreign nouns gets gradually lost, and instead of *formula – formulae*, the usual form now is *formula – formulas*.

Concluding from the mentioned above, the English language has quite a simple way of the plural form building: it has only one ending of the plural form -(e)s (with its three phonetic variants [s], [z], [izj]), which is added to the noun base. The exceptions of this rule are not numerous: this is the weak form of the plural of the type: *children, oxen*, the change of the root vowel (the inner flexion) in words of the type *man-men, foot-feet, tooth-teeth, goose-geese*, as well as retained by some nouns, borrowed from Latin, old Greek and other languages, the forms of plural, which they had in their own languages till borrowing (this witnesses about the fact that their assimilation by the English language was not complete), e.g.: *radius – radii* (промінь), *nucleus – nuclei* (ядро), *phenomenon – phenomena* (явище) etc.

The Ukrainian language has a more complicated way of plural form building. Each declension of nouns (відміна іменників) has another ending, e.g.: nouns of the first declension have in the nominative case plural the ending -и (*машина – машини*), -і (*межа – межі*), -ї (*надія – надії*), the second declension possesses accordingly the endings: -и (*робітник – робітники*), -і (*коваль – ковали*), -а (*місто – міста*), -я (*море – моря*); nouns of the third declension have the endings: -і (*відповідь – відповіді, ніч – ночі*); of the fourth declension -ята (*гусеня – гусенята*), -ата (*курча – курчата*), -єна (*ім'я – імена*).

The plural form of English nouns is almost unchangeable. In Ukrainian the plural of noun is opposed to the singular not only by the form of nominative case, but by the whole system of six cases (compare, e.g.: *машина, машини, машині... – машини, машин, машинам*).

In both languages only those nouns that can be counted and can be combined with cardinal numerals (кількісні) can have the plural form. Those nouns that cannot

be counted have as a rule the singular form, and, in fact, are altogether deprived of the category of number. In both languages these are the following groups of nouns:

a) collective nouns (збірні) – (*cavalry, humanity, кіннота, людство*);

b) nouns determining the substance or the mass (які позначають речовину або масу) (*copper, glass, мідь, скло*),

c) abstract nouns (абстрактні) – (*knowledge, health, знання, здоров'я*).

Both in English and in Ukrainian some nouns are used only in plural. These are, first of all, the names of objects, the structure of which causes the image of plurality or a pair of something (множинність, парність), or the symmetry, e.g: *scissors, spectacles, trousers, tongs* (кліщі) etc. The notion concerning the structure of such things is though not the same by the speakers of the two languages under analysis. Thus, for example in Ukrainian *вила, ворота, граблі, сани* are used only in plural, whereas the corresponding English names: *pitchfork, gate, rake, sledge* are used in both numbers.

The nouns of other meanings express the category of number in both languages also differently. For example, Ukrainian *дріжджі, гроші, канікули* are used only in plural, and the corresponding English nouns *yeast, money, vacation* – only in singular, and vice versa: English nouns *clothes, sweepings, contents, potatoes, carrots, onions* are used only in plural, whereas the corresponding Ukrainian – *одяг, зелень, сміття, зміст, картопля, морква, цибуля* – only in singular. Very often the noun can have only one number form in one of compared languages, whereas in the other language it has two numbers (e.g., English versus Ukrainian: *fruit – фрукт, фрукти, advice – порада, поради, strength – сила, сили*).

Summing up the mentioned inadequacies in the expression either of singular or of plural number, it can be stated that nouns like *milk, geometry, self-possession* having no plural opposites are usually called by a Latin name – *singularia tantum*; nouns like *outskirts, clothes, goods* having no singular opposites are known as *pluralia tantum*.

Singularia tantum usually include nouns of certain lexical meanings. They are mostly material, abstract and collective nouns, such as *sugar, gold, butter, brilliance, selfishness, soldiery*. Yet it is not every material, abstract and collective noun that belongs to the group *singularia tantum* (*a feeling, a crowd*) and, what is more important, not in all of its meanings does a noun belong to this group.

The group of pluralia tantum is mostly composed of nouns denoting objects consisting of two or more parts, complex phenomena or ceremonies, e.g. *tongs, pincers* (ціпці, кліщі), *trousers, nuptials* (весілля, весільна церемонія). Here also belong some nouns with a distinct collective or material meaning, e.g. *clothes, sweets, eaves* (повіки, вії (поет.)).

Since in these words the -s suffix does not function as a grammatical morpheme, it gets lexicalized and develops into an inseparable part of the stem. This probably underlies the fact that such nouns as *mathematics, optics, linguistics, mumps, measles* are treated as *singularia tantum* [6, 54-58].

Similarly in Ukrainian: those nouns that cannot be counted have either a singular or a plural number. Ukrainian singularia tantum (однинні іменники) include the following groups of nouns:

- abstract nouns (*мудрість, щастя, журба*);
- collective nouns (*начальство, лицарство, ганчір'я*);
- material nouns (*сметана, вугілля, кисень, сатин*);
- proper names (*Полтава, Михайло, "Літературна Україна"*).

Ukrainian pluralia tantum (множинні іменники) include such groups of nouns as:

- names of objects which have a pair of parts in their structure (*ножиці, сани, окуляри, штани*);
- some collective nouns (*надра, копалини, гроші*);
- names of certain materials (речовинні назви – *збоїни, вершки, консерви*);
- names of some time and weather notions (*приморозки, сутінки, обжирки, роковини*);
- names of some actions and processes (*пустощі, походеньки, заробітки, дебати*);
- names of games (*шахи, шашки, піжмурки*);
- names of abstract notions (*ресурси, хвастощі, ревнощі*);
- some geographical proper names (*Чернівці, Суми, Піренеї*) [6, 120-121].

Apart from some similarities there can also be found distinctive differences. Thus, the characteristic peculiarities in the number form usage in English as compared to Ukrainian are the following:

1. The usage of the similar form of a singular and a plural number for such words as:

- a) some names of animals, birds, fishes, e.g.: *sheep, deer, snipe* (*бекас*), *pike* etc;
- b) some nouns denoting quantity of smth, e.g.: *stone* (*the measure of weight = 6,35 kg*), *score* (*twenty pieces*), *dozen, pair* etc, when there is a numeral before them: *two stone, four score, three dozen, five pair*,
- c) some nouns denoting measure or the currency unit, when further there goes the denoting of the smaller unit, e.g.: *two pound ten* (*два фунти десять шилінгів*), *five foot eight* (*п'ять футів вісім дюймів*);

2. Different meanings of some nouns in the singular and the plural form, e.g.: *advice – advices* (*порада – відомості*), *manner – manners* (*спосіб – поведінка, манери*), *work – works* (*праця, робота – завод*) etc.

3. Some cases when there are two plural forms, having a different meaning, e.g.: *brothers* (*сини однієї матері*) – *brethren* (*члени однієї громади*) etc.

4. The usage of some forms of plural nouns in the singular meaning (with the verb form also in singular), e.g.: *news, gallows* (*шибеніця*), *summons* (*виклик*), *works* (*завод*); some names of sciences, illnesses, games: *linguistics, physics, mathematics, measles, billiards* etc.

The absence of such phenomena in Ukrainian witnesses that in this language the forms of singular and plural are opposed more distinctly: the category of number is expressed more consistently (категорія числа в іменниках виражена більш послідовно).

The **category of case** of nouns is the system of opposemes (such as *girl – girl’s* in English, *хата – хату – хати – хату – хатою – (на) хати – хато* in Ukrainian) showing the relations of a noun to other words in speech. Case relations reflect the relations of the substances the nouns name to other substances, actions, states, etc. in the world of reality. *Case is the grammatical form of a noun, which reveals its relation towards other words fulfilling the functions of parts of the given sentence* (Відмінок – це граматична форма іменника, яка передає його відношення до інших слів, що виступають у функції членів цього речення).

Case is one of those categories which show the close connection (a) between language and speech, (b) between morphology and syntax.

The common case is the form in which the English noun can fulfill functions of almost all parts of a sentence. It is by itself the pure base (він являє собою “чисту основу”) of the word without endings (or otherwise the base with the “zero ending”). Since the common case of nouns performs a big number of functions and is poor in its morphological expression (бідність морфологічного оформлення), its meaning can be clarified by syntactic means: the word order and the usage of prepositions. Merely judging from the fact that the noun stands before the verb-predicate we perceive it as a subject, and when it stands after the verb – as an object or the nominal part of the compound predicate (depending on the type of the verb).

The possessive case has a very narrow sphere of usage: the noun in this case fulfills the function of only one part of the sentence – the attribute, thus only such a kind of attribute which expresses the belonging or the size (приналежність чи розмір). It is expressed by only one ending -s. The separate form of the possessive case exists practically only in the singular. In the plural only a few nouns have the possessive case. These are nouns that do not have the ending -s, e.g.: *children’s*. The rest of nouns do not have a separate form of the possessive case in the plural. The idea of possession is usually expressed by placing the form of the common case plural before the modified noun, as it happens while using the noun in the attributive function. The usage of apostrophe is a mere formality and does not belong to the language facts. Compare, e.g.: *students society* (студентське товариство/ товариство студентів) and *Brains Trust* (мозковий трест/ трест мізків, тобто об’єднання людей видатних розумових здібностей).

The range of meaning of the possessive case is incomparably narrower than that of the common case. Yet linguists point out a number of meanings a “possessive case” noun may express in speech:

- 1) possession, belonging (*Peter’s bicycle*);
- 2) personal or social relations (*Peter’s wife*);
- 3) authorship (*Peter’s poem*);
- 4) origin or source (*the sun’s rays*);
- 5) kind or species (*ladies’ hats*);
- 6) the relation of the whole to its part (*Peters hand*);
- 7) subjective relations (*Peter’s arrival*);
- 8) objective relations (*Peter’s being sent*);
- 9) characteristic (*her mother’s care*);

10) measure (*a night's reflection; a mile's distance*)

Not all the nouns in English have the possessive case. Only the names of living beings and the names of lifeless/inanimate objects, meaning the size: the time interval (*проміжок часу*) (*a week's leave – тижднева відпустка*), the distance (*a mile's distance – відстань в одну милю*), the weight (*a ton's weight – вага в одну тону*), the cost (*a dollar's worth – вартість в один долар*). The names of countries, cities and ships as well as the words: *world, country, city, ship*, also have the form of the possessive case. Sometimes there can be met the possessive case of some other inanimate objects which mean the relation of the whole to its part: *the car's lights, the chair's arm* etc. The majority of English nouns are used in the common case, that is in fact they are indeclinable.

The English possessive case has two main usages: a) *the dependent possessive case* (залежний присвійний відмінок), which always fulfills the function of the attribute and the b) *independent possessive case*, which is used independently without the noun that follows it (very often these nouns could be the words: *house, office, shop*, e.g.: *at my friend's, to the baker's* (до крамниці булочника).

The dependent possessive case usually renders the meaning of belonging to something (*the doctor's house*), the meaning of size or of relation of the whole to its part (*the girl's hand*); sometimes it can have the subjective meaning regarding the word modified (*John's activity, my brother's arrival*) or in some cases the objective one (*Mike's trial – суд над Майком*).

The independent possessive case has most frequently the meaning of place (*at the chemist's*) and very seldom the meaning of belonging (*It is my uncle's*).

A very specific feature of English is the so-called *group possessive case* (груповий присвійний), when the ending of the possessive case serves not for one word but for a word combination, e.g.: *Peter and Helen's flat, Prime Minister of England's residence, somebody else's book*. Some linguists think that this happens due to the analytic character of the English language: quite often a group of words can acquire characteristics of the complex word.

The peculiarity of the English possessive case is that it is usually placed before the noun whereas the Ukrainian attribute in the genitive case is usually placed after the noun. Also the English possessive case corresponds not only to the form of Ukrainian genitive case (*зошит студента, день відпочинку*) but also to the form of Ukrainian possessive adjectives (*батьків капелюх, братова книжка*).

In Ukrainian the noun has a very complicated *system of declension* (система відмінювання). This system consists of six cases: the nominative case, the genitive case, the dative case, the accusative case, the instrumental case and the local or locative case. Besides, all the nouns that are the names of living beings and the names of lifeless objects, used in the transferred meaning or personified, have the seventh case – the so-called vocative form (клична форма), which is used at addressing: *брате, земле*. This system of declension is still more complicated by the fact that some nouns in one and the same case can have different endings. These endings can not be semantically differentiated, e.g.: *у гаю, у гаї, батькові, батьку* but sometimes they can somehow alter the meaning of the word, e.g.: *листопада* (the month) and *листопаду* (the season of the year).

In Ukrainian the category of case is purely grammatical. Case forms are the means of connection of nouns with other words. Each case is the unity of form and meaning.

The nominative case (називний відмінок) of the noun is called the direct case. The term “direct” denotes the independence of the nouns usage from its connection with other words. Its usage is very limited. The nominative case performs the function of a subject (підмет), being the logical subject (суб’єкт) in the sentence: “*А Рось купила в кам’яному ложі*” (Л. Костенко). In passive constructions it is used as an object (*Туман розгонився вітрами по долині*). It can also function as a nominative part of a compound nominal predicate (*Слава – зрадлива річ*) or as a main member of the nominative sentence (“*Заслання, самота, солдатчина ...*” – (Л. Костенко)). Sometimes it can fulfill the function of detached apposition (відокремлена прикладка – *Мінна знайшла будинок, невеличкий гарненький котедж, захований подалі від вулиці*).

The rest of cases are indirect, being used with prepositions or without them. Indirect cases can be used as secondary parts of the sentence: the object, different types of circumstances, sometimes attribute.

The genitive case (родовий відмінок) has the following meanings:

- belonging to some person or thing (*батько Миколи, властивість цементу*);
 - objective relations (*не дістав паперу*);
 - the part of the whole or its incompleteness (*налити води, цех заводу*);
- circumstantial meanings: a) dates (*1990року*); b) spatial relations (*наблизились до ставу*); c) time relations (*протягом тижня*); d) cause relations (*крикнув з переляку*).

The dative case (давальний відмінок) denotes a person for whom or because of whom a certain action takes place (*служіння народові, привіт другові*); possession (*пам’ятник Іванові Франку*); the subject of the action in the impersonal sentence (*Кому-кому, а йому тільки цього й треба було*).

The accusative case (знахідний відмінок) has, first of all, the objective meaning (as a direct object with transitive verbs) (*передплатити пресу, вимкнути світло*). Used as an object in prepositional constructions it denotes the space as the direction of movement (*в’їхати в ліс, стріляти в небо*), also an object (*дбати про дітей, кинути об землю*).

The instrumental case (орудний відмінок) abounds in meanings which can be the following:

- objective (*копати лопатою, міряти метром*);
- circumstantial (*їхати дорогою, плисти морем*);
- denoting the accomplice of the doer of some action (*батько з дочкою, мати з немовлям*);
- expressing the nominal part of the compound nominal predicate (*стати парубком, зробитися хмаркою*);
- denoting the subject in one-member sentence (односкладне речення) (*гуртожиток заселено студентами*).

The locative case (місцевий відмінок) is always used with a preposition. The

most important meanings are circumstantial (*ходити по березі, говорити по щирості*), or that of an object (*кохатися в мистецтві, гратися на почуттях*); much more rarely attributive meanings are used (*баба по матері, товариство по духу*).

The vocative case (кличний відмінок) denotes the addressing to some person or personified object or any creature (*мамо, брате, лисичко, кицю; Поезіє, сонце моє оранжеве!* (І. Драч) [20; 121-122]).

The mentioned above six cases have peculiar endings for all the nouns of the Ukrainian language. Correspondingly the Ukrainian noun possesses four declensions differentiated according to the ending type.

The first declension – includes nouns of the feminine gender with the nominative case singular ending -а, -я (*наука, земля*), and some group of nouns of the masculine gender and the common case (спільного роду) (*Микола, Ілля, голова, суддя*).

The second declension – includes the biggest part of nouns of the masculine and the neuter gender. Only those nouns of the masculine gender which have the final hard consonant or softened consonant and those having the ending -й, -о (*робітник, ключ, день, чай, батько*) belong to this declension. This declension includes also the neuter gender nouns ending in -о, -е, -я (except those that acquire the suffixes -ят, -єн in indirect cases), the latter usually have the doubling of the final consonant of the stem (*озеро, дерево, поле, бажання, обличчя*).

The third declension – includes all the nouns of the feminine gender with the hard or the soft final consonant (*ніч, любов, тінь, радість*) and the noun *мати*, which in indirect cases acquires the suffix -єр (*матері*).

The fourth declension – includes the nouns of the neuter gender with the endings -а, -я, denoting the names of little according to their age creatures/beings or some minute things as well as the noun *ім'я*. In indirect cases these nouns have the suffix -ат, -ят and the noun *ім'я* has the suffix -єн: *теля – теляти, лоша – лошати, ім'я – імені*.

The peculiar feature in the system of declensions of modern Ukrainian nouns is the local case, which, being the analytical form, creates the common paradigm of the noun alongside with other synthetic forms. This case form always has a preposition of place *на* or *в* in its structure and a special form of a noun bound with it.

The incorrect creation of some case forms can lead to the violation of morphological norms of the Ukrainian noun usage. This, first of all, concerns the incorrect creation of the forms of the genitive case of nouns which are of masculine gender and belong to the II declension. For example, we should use *приїхали з Кривого Рогу* (instead of *Кривого Рога*), *до Парижа* (instead of *Парижу*), *їхали до центру міста* (instead of *центра*).

Thus, taking into account their meaning, the following groups of nouns have the ending -а (я) in the genitive case:

a) names of persons, proper names and surnames: *учня, студента, Ігоря, Аранка*;

b) personified objects and phenomena: *Мороза, Вогня, Ліса*;

- c) names of animals and trees: *ведмедя, вовка, клена, ясеня*;
- d) names of some concrete objects: *малюнка, олівця, гвинта, автомобіля*;
- e) geographical names: *Львова, Тернополя, Лондона, Нью-Йорка, Дніпра, Дінця*;
- f) names of measures, time notions: *кілометра, процента, місяця, вівторка, вересня*;
- g) names of monetary units as well as numerical names: *долара, карбованця, десятка, мільйона, нуля*;
- h) terms of foreign origin, denoting some concrete objects or their elements, some geometrical figures and their parts: *атома, сегмента, косинуса, квадрата*;
- i) terms of Ukrainian origin formed by suffixes: *відмінка, додатка, числівника* (but *виду, роду, способу* formed without suffixes).

The following groups of nouns have the ending *-у (ю)* in the genitive case:

- a) some geographical names as well as composite locality names: *Кавказу, Криму, Китаю, Світязю, Зеленого Гаю, Давидового Броду*;
- b) *nature phenomena*: *морозу, дощу, вогню, вітру*;
- c) names of plants, bushes and their arrays: *бузку, барвінку, гаю, лісу, щавлю*;
- d) abstract notions: *болю, гніву, миру, сміху*;
- e) names of processes, states, characteristics, phenomena, processes of social life: *достатку, заліку, конфлікту, бігу, групи, імпорту*;
- f) names of institutions and organizations: *інституту, університету, комітету, штабу*;
- g) names of buildings, constructions, rooms and their parts: *залу, вокзалу, даху, поверху*;
- h) words with the meaning of place and space: *краю, лиману, світу, майдану*;
- i) nouns denoting substance, mass, material: *водню, цукру, пороху, сиру*;
- j) terms of foreign origin denoting physical and chemical processes: *аналізу, електролізу, синтезу, ферменту*;
- k) literary and linguistic terms (excluding those with suffixes): *сюжету, роману, роду, виду, способу*;
- l) collective terms: *ансамблю, батальйону, капіталу, парку, товару*;
- m) names of games and dances: *вальсу, хокею, футболу, фокстроту*.

Therefore, the ending *-а (я)* is characteristic of nouns that are names of creatures and concrete single objects: the ending *-у (ю)* is characteristic of nouns denoting collectiveness, substance, material, abstract notions etc. Compare: *звука* (note or phoneme) – *звуку* (nature phenomenon); *знака* (mark, letter, signal) – *знаку* (sign, token); *папера* (document) – *паперу* (material); *терміна* (word) – *терміну* (period of time).

The violation of morphological norms often occurs in the usage of the vocative case. For example, we should use *Віталію Петровичу* (instead of *Віталіє Петровиче*), *звернулися до братів Кличків* (instead of *звернулися до братів Кличко*).

Due to such richness of case endings the noun in Ukrainian is always

distinctly expressed from the morphological point of view and the meaning of its many forms is easily determined even beyond the sentence limits, that is why the importance of syntactic means in the grammatical expression of the noun is not a substantial one.

In Ukrainian all nouns without exception, irrespective of the fact whether they denote the living beings or lifeless objects belong according to their ending to one of three **grammatical genders**: the *masculine gender*, the *feminine gender* or the *neuter gender*. In modern English vice versa there is no division of nouns according to the grammatical gender on the basis of their morphological characteristics. As a consequence, the noun in modern English does not have the grammatical category of gender.

Some linguists believe that the English noun has the possibility (though quite a limited one) to express the category of gender. In particular, the means of expressing the gender is considered to be the ability of many nouns to correlate with some of personal pronouns (*he, she* or *it*). Yu. O. Zhluktenko agrees with O. Smirnits'ky who pointed out that the choice of the pronoun in such cases is wholly caused by the semantics of the noun, which is correlated with it, e.g.: the noun "*brother*" and the pronoun "*he*" correlate between themselves not directly and not formally but because of the fact that they both denote the person of the masculine sex. That is why, in such cases, we classify according to gender not the words as they are but the objects, denoted by corresponding words ("за родом" класифікуються не слова як такі, а певною мірою самі предмети, що позначаються відповідними словами) [6; 45].

Almost the only word building element that has the distinct gender characteristic is the noun suffix *ess*, with the help of which we form the nouns of the feminine gender from nouns of the masculine gender: *host – hostess, poet – poetess, tiger – tigress, actor – actress* (compare the Ukrainian suffix *-к(а)*: *лікар-ка, школяр-ка*).

In the rest of cases the fact of belonging to this or that sex is expressed by the semantics of the word itself, as it can be observed similarly in Ukrainian (*cow корова, bull бик*); or it can be rendered by adding one of such words to the word, semantics of which is not clear regarding its gender. As a result of such agglutination there appear compound words of the type: *he-goat, she-goat, boy-student, girl-student, bull-ele-phant, cow-elephant* etc. Sometimes the proper name is used in the role of such an agglutinative particle, a determiner of gender, e.g.: *tom-cat* (masculine gender). In spite of this a large number of English words can be similarly used to denote either the female or the male sex, e.g.: *pupil, friend, teacher, wolf* etc.

Nevertheless "The Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English", highlighting the issue of gender bias in nouns, gives reasons for the preference of male terms over female terms:

- speakers and writers refer to males more frequently than to females;
- the masculine terms are often used to refer to both sexes. For example, the masculine nouns *spokesman* and *manager* are used in the following sentences to

refer to women:

Eyeline *spokesman* Rosie Johnson said: “We don’t need a vast sum, but without it we’ll be forced to close.”

Area *manager* Beth Robinson says: “our business in Finaghy has steadily increased year by year.”

Both these factors amount to a bias in favour of the masculine gender. With reference to the second factor, it is traditionally argued that a term like *chairman* or *governor* has sex-neutral gender in addition to its masculine use. However, the fact that such roles have typically been taken by men means that these terms have strong masculine overtones.

In recent decades, efforts have been made to avoid masculine bias by using gender-neutral nouns in *-person* instead of *-man* or *-woman*. For example:

Mrs Ruddock said she had been nominated as *spokesperson* for the wives.

Salespersons by the thousands have been laid off in the recession.

However, this trend has had limited success so far. Words in *-person* (or their plurals in *-persons* or *-people*) are rare compared with the corresponding words in *-man* or *-men*. The only moderately common words of this kind are *chairperson(s)*, *spokesperson(s)*, *salespeople*, and *townspeople*. (Note that both *-people* and *-persons* are used in the plural.) [32; 86].

Though the category of gender is expressed very distinctly by the nouns of the Ukrainian language, it should be pointed out that it has undergone considerable changes as well. The grammatical gender of the noun is determined according to some characteristics, namely: the meaning of the word, its morphological structure (suffixes, flexions) and the syntactic connections in the sentence (forms of coordinated (узгоджений) adjectives, pronouns, verbs). The word ending has a great importance in determining the gender of a noun • the name of the lifeless object. The characteristic ending of the feminine gender in Ukrainian is the ending -а (я) and the hard or the soft consonant (*шахта, земля, ніч, повість*), of the neuter gender -о, -е (*вікно, поле*). Nouns of masculine gender usually end in a consonant (*чоловік, учитель, студент*). In plural nouns of all genders in the Ukrainian language have similar endings, in other words, the forms of plural now, in fact, do not render gender characteristics. That is why nouns that are used only in plural (*ворота, вила, окуляри, висівки, покидьки*) do not have gender.

The ending of the nominative case is not enough to determine the noun gender. In Ukrainian there are some nouns of masculine gender which have similar endings with nouns of the feminine and the neuter genders, e.g.: *собака, п’яниця, голова, суддя, ключ* (пор. *ніч*), *промінь* (пор. *повість*), *Дніпро, батько, Сірко*. That is why at determining the noun gender the whole paradigm (the system of cases) is taken into consideration: compare, *промінь, променя, променем ...* and *повість, повісті, повісті...* Some nouns are used both for the masculine and the feminine gender without any change of endings: *сирота, голова, суддя*. Such nouns as usual have the masculine gender though can be used to denote persons of the female sex: *професор, доктор, кандидат, бригадир* etc.

Professor O. Ponomariv notes on this issue that in the official style the preference is given to the forms of masculine gender even if we have female match

pairs in the spoken style. In the official style we emphasize not the persons sex but his or her social status: *лаборант Ганна Петренко, аспірант Марія Ковальчук, лікар Олена Мазена*, though we have literary equivalents *лаборантка, аспірантка, лікарка*. Forms with *-ка* should be used in fiction, publicistic and spoken styles otherwise we have the violation of language norms [18; 144]. Consider also [15; 228]. The violation of norms can happen in case of the incorrect gender usage, for example: *вчений ступінь* (instead of *вчена*), *прозорий тюль* (instead of *прозора*), *свій день народження* (instead of *своє*).

For a lot of nouns the names of creatures/animals, the gender is something conventional, since they are usually used to denote two biological species, without their differentiation, e.g.: *кінь, собака, кішка, олень* etc. The same happens to the majority of small according to their age creatures/animals, they are usually of neuter gender: *теля, порося, лоша* and even *дівча, хлоп 'я*.

Therefore, in the modern Ukrainian language the grammatical gender is to a large extent a formal category, sometimes very little connected with the content of the notion, expressed by the word itself. In spite of this the category of gender has not died out and is perceived by the linguistic way of thinking as the necessary one, since it fulfills an important function of the organization of words in the sentence, in coordinating nouns with adjectives and other words of the adjectival type as well as gender forms of verbs (категорія сприймається мовним мисленням як необхідна, бо вона виконує важливу функцію в організації слів у реченні й узгодженні з іменником прикметників та інших слів прикметникового типу і родових форм дієслова). The English language does not have such a system of coordination, that is why the category of gender could not exist for a long time in the language [6; 46].

Some linguists believe that the noun can express some other categories besides the categories of number, case and gender. Thus, according to Yu. Zhluktenko [6; 46-47], there can be differentiated the **category of the names of living beings and lifeless objects** (категорія назв істот та неживих предметів).

According to their semantics nouns always denote living beings, lifeless objects or abstract notions. This semantic division can be reflected as well in the grammatical structure of the noun. In English some differences in this relation exist only by the usage of the possessive case, characteristic usually of nouns which are the names of living beings. The possessive case is also used with quite a large number of nouns denoting lifeless objects or abstract notions. Nouns can differ one from the other by the fact that the names of living beings correlate with personal pronouns *he, she* and the relative pronoun *who*, whereas the names of lifeless objects correlate with the personal-objective pronoun (особово-предметний) *it* and relative pronouns *that, which*. Above it was mentioned that these correlations are of lexical character but not of the grammatical one. That is why it can be considered that the category of names of living beings and lifeless objects is not expressed in the grammatical structure of English nouns.

In Ukrainian it happens the other way: the language possesses some formal

and some grammatical differences between nouns denoting living beings and lifeless objects. These differences are not numerous: nouns of the masculine gender (names of living beings) have the form of the accusative case of both numbers similar with the form of the genitive case (*немає батька, бачу батька; не було брата, покликали брата, братів*), and the names of lifeless objects have the form of the accusative case similar with the form of the nominative case (*стоїть стіл, бачу стіл; це наш двір, бачимо двір, двори*). But nouns of the feminine and neuter gender in singular are not differentiated according to this category: all the nouns of the feminine gender in -а, -я have the ending -у, -ю in the accusative case (*бачу жінку, чую пісню*) and nouns of the feminine gender with the final consonant and all the nouns of the neuter gender have the form of the accusative case similar with the form of the nominative case (*читаю повість, відчиняю вікно*). Only the plural form of the feminine gender nouns in -а, -я shows a formal difference between the names of living beings and lifeless objects, e.g.: *стоять жінки, бачимо жінок* but *лунають пісні, чуємо пісні*.

Nouns denoting living beings can shift into the class of lifeless objects: (*бачу*) *кобзаря* (living being, since we have the homonymic forms of accusative and genitive cases) and (*читаю*) “*Кобзар*” (lifeless object, since in this example the forms of accusative and nominative cases are homonymic).

The consistent (послідовний) grammatical expression of the category of names of living beings and lifeless objects pertains in Ukrainian only to the names of persons. This noun class has also the peculiar vocative case form (особлива клична відмінкова форма): *хлопче, жінко* etc. The names of lifeless objects can be used in the vocative form only in the case of personification, e.g.: *О земле, велетнів роди!* (П. Тичина). But in general there is also a number of deviations from the consistent expression of this category.

3. Adjective as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian languages

PLAN

1. Definition of the adjective.
2. Classifications of the adjectives.
3. The peculiarities of Ukrainian and English adjectives.
4. Qualitative adjectives.
5. Full adjective and short adjectives.
6. Typical features of Ukrainian and English adjectives.
7. Degrees of comparison of adjectives.

Concepts and terms: *qualitative adjectives, relative adjectives, peculiar feature of the English adjectives, qualitative adjectives, full adjectives, short adjectives, attributes of substances, quality of substances, the characteristic combinability, typical syntactic functions, suffixes of subjective appraisal, adjectival grammemes, monosemantic, the combinability of adjectives, degrees of comparison of adjectives.*

References: 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14

In both languages adjectives as a class of lexemes are subdivided into qualitative adjectives which directly express some characteristic features and qualities of some objects or substances (якісні, що безпосередньо передають ознаку предмета) (e.g., *large, white, heavy*; *великий, білий, важкий*) and relative adjectives that express some characteristics bound with the relation to some other object or phenomenon (відносні, що передають ознаку, зв'язану з відношенням до іншого предмета чи поняття) (e.g., *former, wooden, silken*; *колишній, дерев'яний, шовковий*). Both in English and in Ukrainian the division line between qualitative and relative adjectives is a conventional (умовний) one.

The English language has a considerably fewer number of relative adjectives than the Ukrainian language. Especially few are those adjectives that denote some material: *wooden* (*дерев'яний*), *woolen* (*шерстяний*), *silken* (*шовковий*) and some others. Meanings rendered in the Ukrainian language with the help of relative adjectives are very often expressed in English by nouns in the common case in the function of an attribute, e.g.: *a stone house* (*кам'яний будинок*), *an iron bridge* (*залізний міст*), *the London museums* (*лондонські музеї*), *the Kyiv underground* (*київське метро*).

The peculiar feature of the English language is the existence of quantitative adjectives (кількісні прикметники): *little, few* (*мало*), *much, many* (*багато*). The Ukrainian language does not have such adjectives and the corresponding meanings are rendered with the help of adverbs or indefinite numerals (неозначені числівники: *кілька, декілька, багато* etc. present only in the Ukrainian language).

The Ukrainian language in its turn also possesses a peculiar group of adjectives, not present in English. By their meaning these adjectives, called possessive adjectives (присвійні прикметники), express belonging of some object to this or that person or creature, from the name of whom they are created, e.g.: *батьків, братів, сестрин. Андріїв, Ганнин, учителева, шкільне*. The corresponding notions are rendered in

English usually with the help of the possessive case of a noun (*father's (батьків), sister's (сестрин)*) or with the help of preposition + noun combination (*of the father (батьків), of the sister (сестрин)*).

All the three groups of Ukrainian adjectives – qualitative, relative and possessive – have their own semantic and grammatical peculiarities.

Qualitative adjectives are different in meanings. They can render: duration in space (протяжність у просторі: *довгий, вузький, глибокий*), in time (у часі: *повільний, швидкий, довгий*), spiritual or physical properties of living beings (духовні чи фізичні властивості живих істот: *талановитий, інтелектуальний, незграбний, хворий, гарний*), peculiarities perceived by sense perception organs (ознаки, що сприймаються органами чуття: *гарячий, гіркий, запашний, твердий*). Qualitative adjectives vary also according to their grammatical peculiarities. In majority of cases they have degrees of comparison (*високий – вищий – найвищий*); create pairs of antonyms (*гіркий – солодкий, вузький – широкий*), serve as wordbuilding stems for abstract nouns (*гіркий – гіркота, доблесний – доблесть*) and adverbs with suffixes *-o, -e* (*далекий – далеко, гарячий – гаряче*), and can be combined with adverbs of measure and degree (*дуже холодний, завжди уважний, вічно молодий*).

According to their morphological structure adjectives are divided in Ukrainian into two groups: full adjectives (повні або членні) – these are adjectives with flexions, e.g.: *певний, повний*, and short adjectives (короткі або нечленні) – without flexions, e.g.: *винен, годен, повен, певен*. Short forms of adjectives are used in parallel with the form of full adjectives and only in the nominative case singular of masculine gender. They have lost their system of declension and thus are indeclinable now. In modern Ukrainian short adjectives are used mainly in the function of the nominative part of predicate (*Скільки я вам винен? Будинок повен людей. Рад би це раз побачити*). They are practically not met in the function of an attribute (the exceptions are some uses in the language of folklore or poetry: *ясен місяць, дрібен дощик, зеленсад*) [5, 52].

English adjectives do not have any endings and consist of the “pure” base, so according to their structure they are similar to Ukrainian short adjectives. Nevertheless, the loss of flexions has not been reflected on their grammatical characteristics. Deprived of any morphological means of expressing syntactic relations, English adjectives still perform two characteristic for this part of speech syntactic functions – the function of an attribute and the function of a nominal part of the compound predicate, whereas Ukrainian short adjectives, having lost their flexions, lost as well a part of their expressive abilities.

The English adjective as a part of speech is characterized by the following typical features:

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning of “attributes (of substances) / quality (of substances)”. It should be understood that by attributes we mean different properties of substances, such as their size (*large, small*), colour (*red, blue*), position in space (*upper, inner*), material (*wooden, woolen*), psychic state of persons (*happy, furious*), etc.

2. The typical stem-building affixes *-ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ic, un-, pre-, in-*, etc.

3. The morphological category of the degrees of comparison (The absence of the category of number distinguishes English adjectives from adjectives in all other Germanic languages).

4. The characteristic combinability: right-hand connections with nouns (*a beautiful girl*), and the pronoun *one(the grey one)-*, left- hand connections with link-verbs (*... is clever*), adverbs, mostly those of degree (*a very clever boy*).

5. Its typical syntactic functions are those of an attribute and a predicative complement.

The Ukrainian adjective is a notional part of speech which renders some characteristic of an object (but not that of a process – непроцесуальна ознака предмета) expressing it via the grammatical categories of gender, number and case. In a sentence it performs the functions of an attribute and a nominal part of a compound nominal predicate.

Following is the comparison of the basic features of English and Ukrainian adjectives.

1. The lexico-grammatical meanings are essentially the same.

2. The Ukrainian adjective has a greater variety of stem-building affixes than its English counterpart.

The so-called “suffixes of subjective appraisal” (as in *дрібнесенький, багатющий, синюватий, величезний*etc.) are alien to the English adjective (the only exception is *-ish* in *whitish, reddish*, etc.).

3. The English adjective does not have the grammatical categories of gender, number and case, which were lost already in the Middle English period. In Ukrainian vice versa all adjectives are changed according to genders and numbers. Besides, all full adjectives (and we have the majority of them) have their own system of case endings. Similar to nouns, adjectives are changed according to six cases. Besides, according to the character of the final consonant of a stem they are divided into hard (тверда група: *дужий, червоний*) and soft (м’яка група: *нижній, безкрайі*) groups. In plural all adjectives lose the gender differentiation (родове розрізнення) and have similar endings in all three genders.

All the mentioned categories of Ukrainian adjectives are expressed in a rather peculiar way. Speaking about Ukrainian nouns, their categories of gender, number and case are to this or that extent determined by the meaning of words; whereas in adjectives they are reflected only according to the form of a word which the adjective is combined with. Thus, the categories of gender (*довгий – довга – довге*), number (*довгий – довгі*) and case (*довгий, довгого, довгому*, etc.) of Ukrainian adjectives are merely forms of grammatical relation of adjectives regarding the modified words, the forms of adjective agreement with them (Отже, категорії роду, числа і відмінка в українській прикметниках – це не що інше, як форми граматичного відношення прикметників до означуваних слів, форми узгодження прикметників з ними). English adjectives have lost any forms of coordination with modified words, that is why it is clear that they have lost simultaneously categories of

gender, number and case. The only category Ukrainian and English adjectives have in common is the category of degrees of comparison.

Therefore, adjectival grammemes in English are monosemantic (i.e. having but one grammatical meaning), while in Ukrainian an adjective grammeme is usually polysemantic, e.g. the grammeme represented by *розумна* carries the grammatical meanings of "feminine gender", "singular number", "nominative case" and "positive degree".

4. In Ukrainian as well as in English the category of the degrees of comparison is represented in three-member opposemes, but there are some distinctions.

a) The "positive degree" is unmarked in English, whereas it is marked in Ukrainian (compare; *red, червоний*). Taking into consideration that more than 90% of all adjectives in speech belong to positive grammemes, we may say that in the overwhelming majority of cases the form of an English adjective does not signal to what part of speech the word belongs. In the Ukrainian language every full adjective is marked. It shows by its form that it is an adjective.

b) The formations *більш цікавий, найбільш красивий* resemble the analytical forms *more interesting, the most beautiful*, but they can hardly be regarded as analytical forms since they are not in complementary distribution with the corresponding synthetic forms. *Більш цікавий* and *цікавіший* are rather stylistic synonyms.

5. In both languages there are qualitative and relative adjectives. In both languages relative adjectives and some qualitative ones have no opposites of comparison, i.e. they form the subclass of non-comparables. Despite the mentioned similarities there are some differences between the two languages.

a) The proportion of relative adjectives is greater in Ukrainian. In English "common case" nouns often render the meanings of Ukrainian relative adjectives, e.g.: *господарські витрати – household expenses, настільна лампа – a table lamp*, etc.

b) in Ukrainian there is a peculiar group of possessive adjectives (*сестрин, Настин, мамин*) having no English counterparts.

6. The combinability of adjectives is to some extent similar in the two languages. Yet there are some differences. In English one can speak only of two levels of combinability: lexical and lexico-grammatical. In Ukrainian grammatical combinability is of great importance too. Compare: *білий стіл, біла стеля, білих стін*, etc.

7. In both languages the typical functions of adjectives in the sentence are those of attribute (*white wall – біла стіна*) and predicative or the nominal part of a compound nominal predicate (*This girl is beautiful. – Ця дівчина прекрасна.*).

Degrees of comparison of adjectives

The only change that can be undergone by English adjectives is the change according to comparison degrees. Therefore the category of comparison is now the only grammatical category which is common for English and Ukrainian adjectives.

The category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives is the system of opposemes (like *long – longer – longest*) showing quantitative distinctions of

qualities. More exactly, it shows whether the adjective denotes the property of some substance absolutely or relatively as a higher or the highest amount of the property in comparison with that of some (or all) other substances. Accordingly we speak in both languages of the “positive” (*long, good, beautiful, довгий, хороший, красивий*), “comparative” (*longer, better, more beautiful, довший, кращий, красивіший/більш красивий*) and “superlative” (*longest, best, most beautiful, найдовгий, найкращий, найкрасивіший/найбільш красивий*) degrees.

Nevertheless, there are certain peculiarities in both languages concerning the means of expression of the degree of comparison, namely the peculiarities of the manifestation of opposition underlying this category.

Thus, as far as English adjectives are concerned their positive degree is not marked. We may speak of a zero morpheme in this case. The “comparative” and the “superlative” degrees are built up either synthetically (by affixation or suppletivity) or analytically, which mainly depends on the phonetic structure of the stem, not on its meaning. If the stem is monosyllabic, or disyllabic with a stress on the second syllable or ending in *-er, -y, -le, -ow*, the comparative and the superlative degrees are usually built up synthetically by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est* respectively, e.g.: *bright-brighter-brightest*.

In all other cases the comparative and superlative degrees are formed analytically with the help of the word-morphemes *more* and *most*, e.g.: *cheerful – more cheerful – most cheerful*.

Suppletive opposemes are few in number but of very frequent occurrence, e.g.: *good – better – best, bad – worse – worst*.

The quantitative pronominal adjectives (or adjective pronouns) *many, much* and *little* form opposites of comparison in a similar way: *many/much – more, most, little – less – least*.

Some scholars (V. Zhigadlo, I. Ivanova, L. Iofic) treat *more beautiful* and (*the*) *most beautiful* not as analytical forms, but as free syntactical combinations of adverbs and adjectives. One of their arguments is that *less* and *least* form combinations with adjectives similar to those with *more* and *most*, e.g. *more beautiful – less beautiful, the most beautiful – the least beautiful*. The mentioned similarity is however superficial [6, 75-77].

A. Smirnitsky, following O. Jespersen, thinks that there is good ground to speak of two forms of comparison only: the positive degree and the relative degree which exists in two varieties – the comparative degree and the superlative degree [6, 80].

As we know, with regard to the category of the degrees of comparison adjectives fall under two lexico-grammatical subclasses: comparables and non-comparables. The nucleus of the latter is composed of derived adjectives like *wooden, Crimean, mathematical*, etc. denoting some relation to the phenomena the basic stems refer to. Thus *a wooden house* is “a house of wood”, *Crimean weather* is “weather typical of the Crimea”, etc. These adjectives are called relative as distinct from all other adjectives called qualitative.

Most English qualitative adjectives build up opposemes of comparison, but some do not:

a) adjectives that in themselves express the highest degree of a quality, e.g.: *supreme, extreme-*,

b) those having the suffix *-ish* which indicates the degree of a quality, e.g. *reddish, whitish*;

c) those denoting qualities which are not compatible with the idea of comparison, e.g.: *deaf, dead, lame, perpendicular*.

Naturally, all the adjectives which have no comparative and superlative opposites are outside the category of comparison, but they are united by the oblique or lexico-grammatical meaning of the positive degree.

Therefore, an English adjective lexeme may contain three words at most (*strong – stonger – strongest*) representing three grammemes. The fourth grammeme contains words with the oblique meaning of the “positive degree” (*deaf vertical, wooden, etc.*). There are no oblique meanings of the “comparative” and the “superlative” degrees in English, that is words like *calmer, bravest* always have “positive degree” opposites [1, 81].

Speaking about Ukrainian adjectives, here the category of degrees of comparison is similarly the ability to render some characteristic feature in different qualitative dimensions (вияв ознаки в різних кількісних вимірах). The positive degree of Ukrainian adjectives is characterized by rendering a certain quality as it is (*зелений луг, блакитне небо*). The comparative degree acquires a certain relative comparative meaning (*розумніший, ніж інші*). The adjectives of the superlative degree render the complete absolute advantage of one object over the other (*найактивніші студенти на курсі*). The difference between Ukrainian and English adjectives, first of all, lies in the form of expression of degrees of comparison.

Ukrainian comparative degree adjectives have two forms of expression – the simple (synthetic) and the composite (analytical) ones (проста і складена).

The simple form of the comparative degree is formed in the following way: the base of the positive degree is combined with suffixes *-іш, -и* and the case or gender ending (*біл-ий, біл-иш-ий, біл-иш-і*). Some adjectives have the suppletive forms of formation (*гарний – кращий*).

The composite form of the comparative degree is formed with the help of words *більш/менш* and the positive degree adjective.

Ukrainian superlative degree adjectives have three forms of expression – simple, complex and composite (проста, складна і складена).

The simple form is created from the comparative degree form with the help of the prefix *най-*: *вищий – найвищий*.

The complex form is combining of the superlative degree form with particles *як, що*: *якнайдовший, щонайсильніший*.

The composite form is formed with the help of using words-antonyms *найбільш/найменш* with the positive degree form: *найбільш вибагливий, найменш примхливий*.

The synthetic form of the superlative degree adjectives can acquire the relative meanings, that is render the largest degree of some quality without comparing it with qualities of other objects, e.g.: *найширші кола читачів, без найменших зусиль*.

Ukrainian relative and possessive adjectives do not have features characteristic of Ukrainian qualitative adjectives, that is they do not form degrees of comparison, they cannot combine with adverbs, and they do not have antonymous counterparts [6, 134-142].

Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that by expression of this category English and Ukrainian adjectives have a lot in common.

Since the category of comparison renders the degree of intensity of some characteristics, expressed by an adjective, it is expressed only by qualitative adjectives in both languages (in the English language also by quantitative adjectives).

Both languages have three degrees of comparison – the positive, the comparative and the superlative ones (звичайний, вищий і найвищий). The comparison can express both the increasing intensity of some characteristics (*long-longer-the longest; довгий-довший-найдовший*) or the decreasing intensity (*interesting – less interesting – the least interesting; цікавий – менш цікавий – найменш цікавий*). Degrees of comparison in both languages are created synthetically and analytically.

The synthetic way of comparison creation is carried out with the help of affixes, but differently in each language. In English the comparative and the superlative degrees are formed with the help of suffixes added (-er, -est) to the form of the positive degree. In the Ukrainian language the comparative degree is formed with the help of adding the suffix -и or -іш to the root (*шириший, біліший*), and the superlative is formed from the comparative degree by adding the prefix най- (*найшириший, найбіліший*).

The analytical way of degree expression, both according to the increasing and the decreasing intensity of characteristic, is formed similarly in both languages: *convenient – more convenient – (the) most convenient, зручний – більш зручний – найбільш зручний*. The synthetic way of comparison building according to the decreasing intensity of some characteristic is absent in both languages.

There are some peculiarities in the usage of synthetic and analytical forms of comparison in both languages. In English the synthetic forms are created only from one-syllable and partially two-syllable adjective (*long, pretty*), whereas the analytical way is used to form the comparison of only polysyllabic adjectives (*interesting, important*). In Ukrainian the usage of that or other way of comparison formation does not depend on the quantity of syllables in the adjective. Both synthetic and analytical forms can be used as parallel ones (*зручніший – більш зручний*). The choice of that or other form is as a rule dictated by stylistic tasks, but in general synthetic forms of comparison are more spread than analytical ones.

In both languages there is a certain group of adjectives, the degrees of comparison of which are formed in a suppletive way (that is from another base), compare: in Ukrainian *великий-більший-найбільший, малий – менший – найменший, поганий – гірший – найгірший, хороший – кращий (or ліпший) – найкращий (найліпший)* and in English *many/much – more – the most, little – less – the least, bad – worse – the worst, good – better – the best*.

In Ukrainian the forms of comparative and superlative degrees are changed, the same as forms of the positive degree, according to genders, numbers and cases in

correspondence with the forms of the noun with which they are connected. In English forms of all degrees of comparison of adjectives are similarly indeclinable.

In both languages the form of the superlative degree can be used with the so-called elative meaning (елятивне значення) (elative – is the absolute superlative degree). It renders the maximum measure of quality without the comparison with other objects, e.g.: *найглибша повага, найсуворіша заборона, a most interesting theory, a most clever boy*. As it is obvious from the examples in Ukrainian in such cases the synthetic form of the superlative degree is usually used, and in the English language vice versa only the analytical form but with the indefinite article instead of the definite one.

The peculiar form of Ukrainian adjectives is the strengthened superlative degree (підсилений найвищий ступінь) formed by putting together of the superlative degree with the strengthening particle *якої що-*: *якнайкращий, якнайбільший, якнайрозумніший, щонайкращий, щонайбільший, щонайрозумніший*. These forms are also widely used in the elative meaning.

One more peculiar feature of the Ukrainian language in comparison with the English one is the wide usage of qualitative adjectives with two types of suffixes, that is those having the diminutive meaning, and those expressing some sort of augmentative meaning (*-есеньк-, -ісіньк-, -юсіньк-, -еньк-, -езн-, -енн-*), as well as with the prefix *пре-*, e.g.: *малесенький, тонесенький, білісінький, чистісінький, тонюсінький, манюсінький, величезний, широчезний, прегарний, предобрий*. Such adjectives already by themselves render the degree of the quality expression in one object without the need to compare it with other objects that have a similar characteristic, that is why they do not build degrees of comparison.

Similarly in the English language adjectives with the suffix *-ish* do not form degrees of comparison (*greenish (зеленуватий), darkish (темнуватий)*), since they by themselves express weak degree of the characteristic.

In general in English there is a considerably fewer number of adjectives with emotional suffixes, that is why meanings which are rendered in Ukrainian by caressing forms are rendered in English in a descriptive way with the help of defining word combinations (означальні словосполучення) (e.g.: *білісінький – very (extremely) white*) [5, 53-54].

4. Numeral as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian languages

PLAN

1. Definition of the numeral.
2. Classifications of the numerals.
3. Collective numerals in Ukrainian.
4. Grammatical categories of numeral.
5. The category of gender.
6. The declension of Ukrainian numerals.

Concepts and terms: *numeral, cardinal numeral, ordinal numeral, collective numerals, decimal system, simple or root numerals, derivative numerals, compound numerals, composite numerals, fractional numerals, the category of gender, the declension of Ukrainian numerals, the function of attribute, substantivized.*

References: 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14

In both languages numerals are divided into cardinal (кількісні числівники – *one, two, один, два*) and ordinal (порядкові числівники – *the first, the second, перший, другий*). Ukrainian cardinal numerals have the peculiar group of indefinite numerals (неозначені числівники): *кілька, декілька, багато, чимало, стільки, кільканадцять, кількадесят*. Besides Ukrainian numerals possess such a peculiar subgroup as collective numerals (збірні числівники – *двоє, обоє, троє, четверо*), denoting a certain quantity of objects as a whole. These numerals are created from the base of the corresponding cardinal numerals with the help of the suffix of collectiveness (суфікс збірності) -р+о. Collective numerals denote numbers within two tens and the numeral *тридцять*. They can have synonymous forms, e.g.: *двоє (двійко), четверо (четвірко), сімнадцятеро*. Besides, the following words are included into this group: *обоє, обидва, обидві* [3, 155]. One more peculiarity of the system of Ukrainian numerals is the caressing forms or diminutive forms of collective numerals (пестливі форми збірних числівників): *двійко, двойко, двоєчко, трійко, четвірко, обойко* and others. The English language does not have collective numerals and diminutive forms are met only by nouns (*sonny, Johnny*). Some meanings of indefinite quantity are expressed here with the help of quantitative adjectives and adverbs (кількісні прикметники та прислівники): *many, much, few, little, a little*.

The basis of counting in both languages is the decimal system (в основі лічби обох мов лежить десяткова система). That is why the structure of numerals' system formation does not have a big difference. As to their stem structure English and Ukrainian numerals fall into:

1) Simple or root numerals (прості числівники), such as *one, two, three* (in English from one to twelve), *один, два, три* (in Ukrainian from one to ten and the numeral *сорок*).

2) Derivative numerals (похідні числівники) formed with the help of the suffixes *-teen* (from *thirteen* to *nineteen* – these numerals have the double stress: *four'teen*), *-ty* (from *twenty* to *ninety*) in English. In Ukrainian the numerals from 11

to 19 are formed by the way of adding the suffix *-надцять* (which is created from the word group “*на десяти – одинадцять*”) to the numerals of the first ten. Ukrainian numerals denoting tens are formed with *-дцять* (*тридцять*). Both suffixes (English *-ty* and Ukrainian *дцять*) have in the basis of their meaning “*ten*” / “*десять*”. The exceptions in Ukrainian are only two numerals *сорок* and *дев'яносто*.

In both languages numerals *мільйон*-*million*, *мільярд*-*billiard* are borrowed and have in their structure the Latin root “*thousand*” / “*тисяча*” (*mille*). The peculiarity of English numerals *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* is the fact that they do not have the plural form, when they are placed after the cardinal numerals bigger than 1, e.g.: *two hundred* / *двісті*, *three thousand* / *три тисячі*, *four million* / *чотири мільйони*.

3) Compound numerals (складні числівники) in English (from *twenty-one* to *ninety-nine*)-,

4) Composite numerals (складені числівники), such as *nine hundred and three* in English and in Ukrainian *двадцять один*, *вісімсот вісімдесят* are formed in both languages according to the general principle. By forming of English numerals higher than 100 it is necessary to use the conjunction “*and*”: *two hundred and forty eight*. In Ukrainian such numerals are created in the same way as the numerals till 100: *сто два*, *двісті двадцять п'ять*.

Fractional numerals (дробові числівники) have as well a similar way of formation. The difference is that in Ukrainian the cardinal numeral for the numerator (кількісний числівник для чисельника) is in the nominative case and is combined with the ordinal for the denominator (порядковий для знаменника), which is in the genitive case plural: *п'ять шостих*. In English numerals do not have the category of case, but the ordinal numeral for the denominator is substantivized and acquires the plural form (when the numeral is bigger than 1): *five sixths*. When we have “*one*” in the numerator, then both the numerator and the denominator are expressed by numerals of the feminine gender in Ukrainian (since we mean here the word “*частина*”) in the nominative case: *одна сьома* (compare in English – *one seventh*).

In Ukrainian such words as *нів*, *нівтора*, *чверть* are also used as numerals. In English they are expressed correspondingly with nouns *half*, *quarter*. The numeral *нів* – is not an independent word, it is usually used with nouns as a whole, and such a noun is always in the genitive case: *нівдня*, *ніввідра*, *нівроку*, *ніваркуша*, *нів'яблука*. Unlike mentioned above the English *half* is never combined together with the noun to form one word, though they are considered as the united syntactic word group, in which the noun is in the common case: *half a year* і *нівроку*.

In Ukrainian with the mixed-fractional numerals (змішано-дробові числівники) bigger than 2 we use the noun *половина* instead of *нів*, e.g. *2^{1/2} два з половиною*, whereas in English the same word *half* continues to be used: *two and a half*.

From the Ukrainian *нів* numerals *нівтора*, *нівтори* are formed, and in English we have the correspondent word group *one and a half* and *нівтора*ста – in English *one hundred and fifty*.

In English the word *dozen* is very often used by counting whereas in Ukrainian the word *дюжина* is used very seldom. Of interest is also the usage of the separate numeral *score* in English meaning *twenty pieces* (*двадцять штук*). It does not have

the plural form similar to words *hundred, thousand*, e.g.: *three score* “*шістдесят*”, *four score* “*вісімдесят*”, *five score* “*сто*”.

Ordinal numerals are formed from the cardinal ones by adding the suffix *-th* in English, and in Ukrainian – the adjectival endings *-ий, -а, -е*.

The first four ordinal numerals are created in the contrasted languages not according to general rules: the Ukrainian *один* – *перший* from the old base “*първ*” (with the old meaning “*передній*”, the English *one* – *first* from *fyrest* (the form of the superlative degree of the old English *fore* meaning “*the front*”/неперед). The numerals *другий* (compare *два*) and *the second* (compare *two*) are also formed from different stems, the latter is borrowed from the French language. The numerals *третій, четвертий* and English *third* also have the changed base in comparison with the corresponding cardinal numerals *три, чотири, three* [2, 55-56].

Grammatical categories of numeral

The English numeral as a part of speech is characterized by the following features:

- 1) its lexico-grammatical meaning of “number”;
- 2) such typical stem-building suffixes as *-teen, -ty*;
- 3) the category of numerical qualification represented in opposite senses like *seven* – *seventh*-,
- 4) its unilateral combinability with nouns (*three children, the third child*);
- 5) its syntactic function as an attribute, less frequently as some other part of the sentence.

The lexico-grammatical meaning of “number” is not to be confused with the grammatical meaning of “number”:

a) The former is the generalization of a multitude of lexical meanings of individual numerals (*five, ten, fifty seven*, etc.). The latter is the generalization of only two grammatical meanings: “singular” and “plural”.

b) The plural number, as in *boys*, shows indefinite plurality, whereas the meanings of numerals, as in *twenty, forty* are definite plurality.

Numerals are usually divided into two groups, as it has been mentioned above, – cardinal numerals (*one, five, twenty*) and ordinal numerals (*first, fifth, twentieth*). The former denote some *numerical quantity*, the latter – some *numerical order*.

The difference between these two groups is sometimes exaggerated to such an extent that they are treated as belonging to different parts of speech. For instance, A.I. Smirnitsky is of the opinion that only cardinal numerals form a separate part of speech, whereas ordinal numerals are adjectives [6, 92-93].

In the opinion of B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, the pair *ten* – *tenth* forms an opposite of the grammatical category of numerical qualification [13, 92-93].

The lexical meaning of the two words expressed by the lexical morpheme *ten-* is the same. They are opposed only grammatically by the opposition of the zero morpheme in *ten* and the *-th* morpheme in *tenth*. The opposition is as regular as that of the zero morpheme of the singular and the *-(e)s* morpheme of the plural. The meaning of the zero morpheme is that of “numerical quantity”, and the meaning of the *-th* morpheme is that of “numerical order”.

In the opposemes *one – first, two – second, three – third* the meaning of numerical qualification is expressed by means of suppletivity and sound interchange.

The words *half, quarter, zero, nought, score*, etc. which have no ordinal opposites, but possess plural opposites are nouns, not numerals. The same in Ukrainian: words like *одиниця, десяток, дюжина, сотня, пара* are the numeral nouns (числові іменники).

English and Ukrainian numerals are similar as to their lexico-grammatical meanings, ways of stem-building, combinability and syntactic functions, but they differ greatly regarding their grammatical categories.

1) Unlike their English counterparts, Ukrainian numerals possess the categories of gender (*третій – третя – третє*), case (*три – трьох – трьом*), and number (*перший – перші*).

2) There is a great difference between ordinal and cardinal numerals in Ukrainian as far as their categories are concerned. Ordinal numerals resemble adjectives not only in having the categories of number, gender and case, but in the forms of the grammatical morphemes as well. Compare: *третій – мужній, третього – мужнього*, etc. Cardinal numerals do not possess the categories of number and gender (with the exception of *один, два*). Therefore, the numeral in English is an indeclinable part of speech, whereas in Ukrainian it is declined according to the same six cases as nouns.

In both languages numerals expressing the number as the characteristic feature of some object do not have the category of number themselves. In Ukrainian only the numeral *один* somehow retains the correlation of singular and plural forms, though in reality its plural form is reconsidered (переосмислений). Thus in combination with nouns, which do not have the singular number, it really renders the singleness of the object (одичність предмета) (compare: *одні сани, одні окуляри*), but in other cases it acquires the meaning of pronoun (compare: *одні хлопці мені говорили*).

The category of gender is altogether absent in English numerals. In Ukrainian the majority of numerals do not have it either (from 3 to 999). The gender characteristics are differentiated only in numerals *один (одна, одно), два (дві), обидва (обидві), півтора (півтори)*. Besides the numeral *один* the rest of these numerals have the common form for the masculine and the neuter gender. The gender forms in all the numerals are expressed only in the nominative and accusative cases. For the rest of the cases all three genders coincide in one form (e.g.: *двох чоловіків, жінок, вікон*).

The declension of Ukrainian numerals is not a united consistent (послідовний) system, it contains the samples of different declensions. The numeral *один* is declined as a demonstrative pronoun *той, та, те*. The rest of numerals are declined very differently. Numerals from 5 to 90 (except 40) have in the genitive, the dative and the local cases one common form with the flexion -и. Also they have the common form for the nominative and accusative cases, and only in the instrumental case they have the separate form with the flexion -ма (*шістьма*). Numerals 40, 90, 100 have the common form for the whole rest of indirect cases (*сорока*).

Such a unification of indirect cases shows that the system of declensions in Ukrainian is being ruined. Morphological forms of numerals transfer their semantic load onto the syntactic forms.

The collective numerals *двоє, троє* and others have only the nominative case, in other cases the forms of usual cardinal numerals are used instead of them (*двох, двом, двома*). The collective numerals *обидва, обидві, обоє* have the forms of the numeral *об* in indirect cases, which was widely used in older times.

The numerals *нівтора, нівтору, нівтораства* are not declined altogether.

In both languages numerals can be used independently without the modified noun. In such cases they are somehow substantivized, performing different syntactic functions, typical for nouns. In Ukrainian the collective nouns of the type *двоє, троє, четверо* and others and their diminutive forms *двійко, трійко* are very often used without nouns.

The peculiarity of the English language is the often use of cardinal numerals in the role of ordinal ones. It happens usually by denoting the year, the chapter of the book, the page, the number and so on, e.g.: *page five (п'ята сторінка), number six (шостий номер), lesson two (другий урок), in the year nineteen seventeen (у 1917 році)*. In Ukrainian such a usage is only possible with the word *номер (аудиторія номер десять)*. In other cases ordinal numerals are always used.

Ordinal numerals are most often used in the function of attribute in both languages: *the first floor, другий поверх*. The forms of ordinal numerals, similar to forms of adjectives, are wholly syntactic ones: they are revealed only as a consequence of existing of certain categories by the corresponding nouns with which these ordinal numerals are agreed (Форми порядкових числівників, як і форми прикметників, цілком синтаксичні: вони виявляються виключно як наслідок існування певних категорій у відповідних іменниках, з якими ці порядкові числівники узгоджуються) [2, 58-59].

The combinability of English and Ukrainian numerals is rather limited. As a rule, they form combinations with nouns. Numerals usually precede the nouns they modify, e.g.: *three boys – три хлопці, first day – перший день*. Numerals, as a rule, are not modified by other words. This negative combinability is also a characteristic feature of the part of speech.

5. Pronoun as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian languages

PLAN

1. Definition of the pronoun.
2. Classifications of the pronouns.
3. The peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words.
4. The role of pronouns.
5. Grammatical categories of pronouns.
6. Classes of pronouns.

Concepts and terms: *pronoun, noun pronouns, adjective pronouns, classes of pronouns, personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, indefinite, negative, personal, connective, reciprocal, generalizing, quantitative, contrasting, simple, complex and compound pronouns, category of number, personal pronouns, personal-demonstrative pronouns, conjoint possessive pronouns, absolute possessive pronouns, reflexive and strengthening pronouns.*

References: 1, 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15

Words fall into classes known as parts of speech in accordance with their lexicogrammatical meanings, morphological categories, typical stem-building elements, combinability and functions.

The peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words is that they are not united by any of the above-mentioned features. True, they have certain grammatical peculiarities, but what unites them is the way they denote reality.

Pronouns are words serving to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances, etc. not by naming or describing them, but by *indicating* them.

As words of the vocabulary pronouns have extremely general meanings. But in speech pronouns indicate particular objects or qualities. When a speaker says I, he refers to himself, that is to a particular person of definite age, height, colour of hair, etc. When another speaker says I, he also refers to himself, but this time it is another person, with other features. Thus, the meaning of I, general as it is, remains the same, but the objects referred to are different.

The meaning of the pronoun *such* is of “the same kind”, but one speaker may use *such* to indicate a definite colour, another speaker may use it with reference to some size, a third one to indicate a particular temperature, etc.

On the other hand, one and the same person may be referred to as *I, you* or *he*, depending upon who speaks. *This* and *that* may indicate the same object, depending on the relative position of the speaker and the object. Thus, *pronouns* can be defined as *words whose meanings are very general and stable, but whose references in speech are particular, variable and relative with regard to the speaker and the situation of speech.*

We insist on the stability of meaning and the variability and relativity of reference, because many authors speak of the relative meaning of pronouns. But when we ask *What is this?* referring now to the blackboard, now to a piece of chalk, we use the word *this* with the same meaning, “the object I point at” or “the object I

demonstrate”, and not with the meanings of “blackboard”, “piece of chalk”, etc. Those are only the objects of reference and not the meanings of the word *this*.

Etymologically the word “pronoun” means “a word used instead of a noun”. This meaning reflects to some extent the role of pronouns in language. Owing to the exceptional variability of reference a pronoun may replace hundreds of nouns with comparatively stable or limited references. This explains the fact that pronouns are used very frequently and form a considerable part of any text; though as a class of words they are not numerous.

The role of pronouns is much greater than it can be inferred from the meaning of the word *pronoun*. It is not always that a pronoun is substituted for a noun. For instance, what noun does the pronoun *it* replace in *It rains*?

What is more important, pronouns can be substituted not only for nouns, but for other parts of speech as well. Traditionally, pronouns are divided into “noun pronouns”, and “adjective pronouns”. In reality pronouns may also be used instead of numerals (compare: *twenty books – several books, many books*) and adverbs (*here, there, now, then*). Using the prefix *pro-* in its meaning “instead of, we may, therefore, classify pronouns with regard to the parts of speech into *pro-nouns, pro-adjectives, pro-numerals* and *pro-adverbs*.

Thus, pronouns are a collection of words correlated with different parts of speech, which accounts for their not being united by any morphological categories or syntactical functions.

Sometimes a pronoun is correlated with one part of speech only. But very often this is not so. In a part of speech, as we know, variants of the same lexeme may belong to different subclasses. The peculiarity of pronouns is that variants of the same lexeme may be correlated with different parts of speech. *This* in the sentence *Is this a bike?* is a pronoun, while in a sentence *He gave me this bike* it is a pro-adjective. *Here* in *He lives here* is a pro-adverb, but in *from here to Kyiv* it is a pronoun.

As pointed out by A. Smirnitsky, the boundaries of pronouns and those parts of speech with which they are correlated are rather indistinct. The word *this* in *this bike* may be regarded both as an adjective pronoun and as a pronominal adjective, the word *here* – as a pronominal adverb and as an adverbial pronoun [1, 96-99].

According to Yu. Zhluktenko [3, 59] in grammars of both languages there are differentiated the following classes of pronouns: 1) personal (особові), 2) possessive (присвійні), 3) reflexive (зворотні), 4) demonstrative (вказівні), 5) interrogative (питальні), 6) relative (відносні), 7) indefinite (неозначені), 8) negative (заперечні). The class of English pronouns which in some grammars are referred to as generalizing (узагальнюючі) (*all, each, every, both, either* and others) have a lot in common with such Ukrainian pronouns which are distinguished into the class of defining pronouns (означальні: *весь, всякий, сам, кожний, інший* etc.). The pronoun *сам* belonging to this class corresponds in English to the whole class of pronouns which are called strengthening (підсильні) (*myself, yourself* and others). Besides the mentioned ones in English there are still distinguished the reciprocal pronouns (взаємні) (*each other, one another*), distinguishing (видільний) (*other, another*), and indefinite-personal (*one*) (неозначено-особові) pronouns. The

mentioned classes are not distinguished among Ukrainian pronouns by existing grammars.

Nevertheless, views concerning the number of classes of pronouns in both contrasted languages differ from scholar to scholar. Thus, unlike Yu. Zhluktenko, B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya differentiate the following classes of English pronouns, taking into account their semantic peculiarities as well as some grammatical peculiarities: 1) personal, 2) possessive, 3) reflexive, 4) demonstrative, 5) interrogative, 6) connective, 7) reciprocal, 8) indefinite, 9) negative, 10) generalizing, 11) quantitative, 12) contrasting. Also they state that a pronoun may belong to more than one group at the same time. The pronoun *whose* may be treated as interrogative (or connective) and possessive. The pronouns *one*, *one's*, *oneself* may be grouped together as indefinite personal, or they may be classified separately: *one* as personal, *one's* as possessive, *oneself* as reflexive, etc. [2, 99].

In his turn the Ukrainian linguist O. Ponomariv (with co-authors) [6, 162-168] presents the following subdivision of Ukrainian pronouns into classes (розряди займенників) in the book "Modern Ukrainian language": 1) personal pronouns (особові займенники); 2) the reflexive pronoun (зворотний займенник *себе*); 3) possessive pronouns (присвійні займенники); 4) demonstrative pronouns (вказівні займенники); 5) defining pronouns (означальні займенники); 6) interrogative pronouns (питальні займенники); 7) relative pronouns (відносні займенники); 8) indefinite pronouns (неозначені займенники); 9) negative pronouns (заперечні займенники).

It must be mentioned that in Ukrainian the pronoun is also a notional part of speech which does not name objects, their qualities and quantities but only indicates them. So the differentiation of a pronoun as a part of speech is based upon its peculiar semantics – the high level of the meaning generalization (висока узагальненість значення). Ukrainian pronouns are different in regard to their word-building and word-changing characteristics (різноманітні за формами словотворення і словозміни). Ukrainian pronouns are declinable, though each separate group of pronouns has its own peculiarities of declining, for example personal pronouns are characterized by: suppletivism – *я, мене, мені*, the availability of prepositional and non-prepositional case forms – *його, до нього*; the Ukrainian reflexive pronoun *себе* does not have the nominative case form.

In both languages we differentiate simple, complex and compound pronouns according to their morphological structure (прості, складні і складені займенники). There are no derivative pronouns (похідні займенники) in these languages since affixation is not used to form pronouns both in English and in Ukrainian.

Grammatical categories of pronoun. The category of number is only characteristic of the English demonstrative pronouns (*this, that*), the differentiating pronoun (*other*), reflexive and strengthening pronouns (*myself – ourselves*).

In Ukrainian the category of number is expressed by demonstrative pronouns (*той, цей, такий*), possessive pronouns (*мій – мої*), some interrogative and relative pronouns (*який, чий, котрий*) and created from them negative pronouns (*ніякий, нічий*) and indefinite pronouns (*деякий, абиякий*), as well as in some defining pronouns (*всякий, кожний, інший, сам, весь*).

All the mentioned Ukrainian pronouns also have the category of gender, which is absolutely missing for English pronouns.

The category of case is expressed in the system of English pronouns also unequally. Some part of pronouns have like nouns the common and possessive cases (indefinite, reciprocal, the indefinite-personal and defining pronouns), the rest (personal, interrogative and relative pronouns) have unlike English nouns the nominative and the objective cases (називний та об'єктний відмінки). In Ukrainian pronouns have the same six cases as the nouns. But similar to numerals, Ukrainian pronouns do not have the common system of declination. A lot of pronouns are characterized by the suppletivism in their declension (the absence of the stable stem to which the case endings are added: *я – мене, він – його, хто – кого, що – чого*). To some extent, it is characteristic also of some English pronouns (compare: *I – me, she – her, we – us*).

1. Personal and possessive pronouns

English personal pronouns are the nucleus of the class. They are: *I (me), he (him), she (her), it, we (us), you, they (them)*.

Personal pronouns serve to indicate all persons and things from the point of view of the speaker who indicates himself/herself or a group of persons including him/her by means of the personal pronouns of the first person – *I, we*. The speaker indicates his/her interlocutor or interlocutors by means of the pronouns of the second person – *you*. All other persons or things are indicated by him/her with the help of the pronouns of the third person – *he, she* (for persons), *it* (for things), *they* (for both).

In Modern English personal pronouns have the category of case represented in two-member opposeemes. But these opposeemes differ from the case opposeemes of nouns. The general meaning of “case” manifests itself in the particular meanings of the “nominative” and “objective” cases.

Person	Singular	Plural
1.	I – me	we – us
2.	you –you	you – you
3.	he – him	they – them
	she – her	
	it – it	

Case, as we know, is a morphological category with syntactical significance. The opposition of the nominative and the objective case is realized syntactically in the opposition of the subject and the object of the sentence, e.g.: *She asked her*.

With nouns it is different because a noun in the common case fulfills the functions of both the subject and the object. The pronouns *you* and *it* having only one form for both cases seem to resemble nouns in this respect.

As to the category of number, it should be observed that, strictly speaking, personal pronouns have no category of number, *I* and *we* or *he* and *they* cannot be

treated as number opposites inasmuch as they differ from each other not only grammatically, but lexically as well. We is not *I + I* but rather *I and you, I and she, I and they*, etc. *They* is not always *he + he*, it may as well mean *he + she*. *You* is said to indicate both the singular and the plural. So it ought to be similar to cases like *sheep, deer*. But it is not *2 sheep = 1 sheep + 1 sheep*, in other words *sheep pi. = sheep sg. + sheep sg.* With *you* it is different. *You pi.* Does not always indicate *you sg. + you sg.* It may indicate *you sg. + he, you sg. + they*, etc.

Since *I* and *we* differ lexically, they do not belong to the same lexeme, they do not form an opposeme, and their number meanings are not grammatical. But *I, he, she, it* form a group of words whose combinability resembles that of singular nouns. Compare: *I, he, she, it, John, the student... was (not were) ...* the pronouns *we, you, they*, on the contrary, have the combinability of plural nouns. We may then regard the pronouns of the first group as *singularia tantum*, and those of the other group as *pluralia tantum*. In other words, the personal pronouns possess oblique or lexico-grammatical meanings of number.

Similarly we speak of the lexico-grammatical meaning of person. The words *I, me, we, us* (as well as pronouns of other groups: *my, mine, our, ours, myself, ourselves*) are united by their reference to the first person, the speaker. Of these only *I* has grammatical combinability with *am*. Only the “singulars” (*I, me, my, mine, myself*) refer to the first person alone. The “plurals” include, besides the first person, reference to the second (*/ and you*), or the third (*I and he, she, or they*), or both.

The words *you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves* are united by their reference to the second person, the hearer. But all of them (except *yourself*) may include reference to the third person as well (*you and he, she or they*). So, in fact, they are united negatively by not including reference to the first person.

The words *he, him, she, her, it, they, them* (also pronouns of other groups) are united by their reference to the third person, the “spoken-of”, or negatively by not including reference to the first and second persons, the speaker and the hearer. Of these words *he, she* and *it* have explicit grammatical combinability (*he speaks, she has ..., it is ...*).

According to O. Ponomariv Ukrainian personal pronouns are subdivided into two groups: personal and personal-demonstrative (особові та особово-вказівні). Personal include such pronouns as *я, ти, ми, ви*, personal-demonstrative – *він, вона, воно, вони*.

Personal pronouns do not substitute nouns but serve to name a person: the pronoun of the first person singular *я* denotes a person that is speaking; the pronoun *ти* denotes an addressee to whom the speaker refers. Pronouns *я, ти*, and pronouns *ми, ви* are opposed as singular and plural forms, though have the following meanings: *ми* – this is me and somebody else (*я і їде хтось*); *ми* as the author’s plurality (авторське “я”) used in the publicistic and scientific styles, e.g.: *ми опрацювали великий матеріал ...*. The pronoun *ви* indicates a lot of persons to whom the author’s words are directed.

Personal-demonstrative pronouns denote persons who come out of boundaries of the communicative situation, or they denote some notions or objects mentioned during the conversation.

Ukrainian personal pronouns are declined according to six cases and have two numbers singular and plural. Personal-demonstrative pronouns are also characterized by the category of gender.

Following is the contrastive analysis of personal pronouns in both languages. The number of personal pronouns is similar in both languages. Here belong first of all the proper personal pronouns: я, ти, ми, ви, вони; I, you, we, they. Their characteristics and meanings basically coincide, but the role of personal pronouns in the English sentence is considerably bigger than in the Ukrainian one. Whereas in Ukrainian the person and the number are expressed with the help of endings (*читаю, читаєш, читає, читаємо* тощо) in English the indexes of the verb's person and number are the personal pronouns (*I read, you read, we read* and so on). In English we cannot use the verb-predicate without the subject as in Ukrainian, e.g.: “*Каже*”, “*Підходить і питає*”, we necessarily should use the pronoun in the function of subject: *He says; He comes up and asks.*

The personal pronoun *they* can also be used with the impersonal meaning. In Ukrainian in such cases the pronoun is usually not used, e.g.: *they say – кажуть.*

Pronouns of the third person are of the person-object type (особово-предметні) in both languages. In singular they have the meaning of gender: *він, вона, воно; he, she.* Ukrainian pronouns *він, вона* unlike English ones *he, she* can point out towards both the living being and the inanimate object. The English *it* and in many cases Ukrainian *воно* denote everything that does not belong to the notion of “person”.

But the Ukrainian pronoun *воно* cannot be fully referred to object pronouns (предметний займенник). It is widely used to denote small according to their age creatures (*теля, лоша, кошеня*) and even persons (*дитя, хлоп'я, дівча*). It is also used to render the indefiniteness of some creature (*Курить щось по дорозі. Що воно біжить так прудко? М. Коцюбинський.*) or to render some disrespect towards it (*Таке воно плюгавеньке!...*). The peculiar feature of this pronoun is its wide usage as a particle: *Вже воно щось є; Щось воно та вийде.*

The English *it* has a much more distinct demonstrative meaning, than the Ukrainian *воно* (compare: *It is a table “це стіл”*).

In Ukrainian the majority of nouns – names of inanimate objects have the grammatical gender. That is why the English pronoun *it* corresponds in Ukrainian not only to *воно*, but also often to *він, вона* (e.g., *стіл, лава*). Whereas English pronouns *he, she* have always the Ukrainian correspondences *він, вона*.

The English *it* is widely used in the function of the formal functional subject (формальний службовий підмет) in impersonal sentences. Here this pronoun loses any lexical meaning, being transformed into a purely functional word, e.g.: *it rains “іде дощ”, it is cold “холодно”, it is interesting “цікаво*”. In Ukrainian such a usage of pronouns is impossible; they always retain their lexical meaning.

The peculiar feature of Ukrainian personal pronouns is the fact that the forms of the genitive case of the third person pronouns *його, її, їх* can be used in the meaning of possessive pronouns (*його хата, її доля*). In such a function they considerably differ from the proper personal pronouns [5, 60-61].

English possessive pronouns are usually treated as adjective pronouns, whereas they are in reality noun pro-nouns or pro-nouns, but they replace only possessive case

nouns with which they are correlated. Compare: *This is the teacher's (his, her) bicycle. This bicycle is the teacher's (his, hers).*

The combinability and functions of the possessive pronouns and the “possessive case” nouns are almost identical, which justifies the view that the pronouns in question are possessive case opposites of the personal pronouns. The only argument we can put forward against that view and in favour of the opinion that possessive pronouns are a separate group, is as follows.

Modern English differs from Old English and from other Modern Germanic languages in having two sets of possessive pronouns – the conjoint possessive pronouns *my, his, her, its, our, your, their* and the absolute possessive pronouns *mine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs*.

Therefore, it would, probably, be more in keeping with language facts (a) to treat *my (mine), her (hers), our (ours)*, etc. not as the possessive case of personal pronouns but as a subclass of pronouns; (b) to regard *my – mine, her – hers*, etc. as a kind of case opposemes.

Ukrainian possessive pronouns include: *мій, твій, ваш, наш, свій, його, її, їх, їхній*. According to their grammar characteristics they are close to adjectives, e.g.: *бажаю щастя всім вашим родичам*. Possessive pronouns have the categories of gender and number and are declined according to six cases (*мій, моє, моя, мої; мій, його, моєму...*).

Following is the contrastive analysis of possessive pronouns in both languages. In both languages they render the belonging and perform the function of attribute or the nominal part of the compound predicate.

The English language has a particular form of the possessive pronoun for each of the mentioned functions: for the attribute – *my, his, her, its, our, your, their*, for the nominal part of predicate – *mine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs* (these forms are sometimes used in the role of the postpositive attribute with the preposition “of – *the house of mine*).

In Ukrainian both functions are performed by one form of possessive pronouns – *мій, твій* and others. The pronoun of the third person plural has two parallel forms *їх* and *їхній*.

Ukrainian grammars point out among possessive pronouns only such words as *мій, твій, наш, ваш, їхній, свій*. What concerns the words *його (книжка), її (кімната), їх (інститут)* that are actually the reconsidered forms of the genitive case of personal pronouns of the third person they are referred to as possessive pronouns but with some warning. From the proper possessive pronouns they differ by the fact that they are indeclinable and are not coordinated with the modified noun in number, gender and case.

In Ukrainian when there appears the need to render the belonging of some object to some person, the possessive pronoun *свій* is used. It is used irrespective of the doer's person, e.g.: *я виконав свою роботу; ти взяв свій зошит; він відкрив свій портфель* and so on. In English we do not have the direct correspondence to the pronoun *свій* and in each case the possessive pronoun of the person who is the doer of the action is used, e.g.: *I did my work; you took your book; he opened his bag*. In the majority of cases (e.g., before nouns denoting parts of clothing or parts of the

body, family relations and others) the usage of possessive pronouns is a norm. In such combinations possessive pronouns are very close to articles according to their usage. Compare: *Він поклав руку в кишеню. – He put his hand into his pocket. Зніміть пальто. – Take off your coat.*

Я говорив про це батькові. – I told my father about it [5, 61-62].

2. Reflexive and strengthening pronouns

English reflexive pronouns are compound noun-pronouns whose second element *-self* expresses the anaphoric relation of the first element; that is it shows that the first element refers to the person mentioned previously in the sentence. In English there are eight reflexive pronouns: *myself yourself himself herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*. Similar to possessive pronouns they correlate with personal pronouns, at this the personal pronoun *you* correlates with two reflexive pronouns: in singular with *yourself* and in plural with *yourselves*. English reflexive pronouns have the category of number and differentiate between the person and “non-person” (compare: *himself, herself* and *itself*).

The Ukrainian reflexive pronoun *себе* indicating towards some person or object does not have the nominative case form, as well as it does not possess the categories of gender and number. It can denote in certain contexts any gender in singular and in plural, replacing all personal pronouns in indirect cases, e.g.: *Я знаю себе. Ти знаєш себе. Вони знають себе. Ти будеш працювати у себе вдома (а не у тебе).*

Compare Ukrainian *Він захищав себе. Вона захищала себе* and in English *He defended himself. She defended herself*.

Following is the contrastive analysis of reflexive pronouns in both languages. English reflexive pronouns are also used to form together with the verb analytical forms of the reflexive state (аналітичні форми зворотного стану), e.g.: *he amused himself, "він розважався"*. The Ukrainian pronoun *себе* cannot be used in this function, it is replaced by the suffix *-ся*. It is created from the former pronoun object (займенниковий додаток) which in Western Ukrainian manner of speaking (західноукраїнська говірка) still can be met very often separately from the verb, e.g.: *Він ся миє* (compare the generally used Ukrainian *Як ся маєте?*). In the literary language this element has been finally merged with the verb and functionally does not differ from suffixes. But formally it differs from suffixes in the way that it is joined not to the root but to flexions (compare: *мию-ся, миєш-ся, миєм-ся, мистеся* and so on).

It should be kept in mind that the affix *-ся* has several meanings in Ukrainian and in some cases it cannot coincide with English reflexive pronouns, e.g.: *Сховайтеся за деревом. Hide behind the tree. Я люблю купатися в морі. I like to bathe in the sea.*

English reflexive pronouns include one more similar by its structure generalizing-personal and indefinite (узагальнено-особовий та неозначений) pronoun *oneself*. It corresponds to the most general meaning of the pronoun *себе* or the affix *-ся* in combination with the infinitive of the verb, e.g.: *to defend oneself захищати себе, захищатися* [5, 63].

Strengthening pronouns. The English reflexive pronouns are the homonyms of the similar by their quantity group of strengthening pronouns. In grammars these

pronouns are sometimes united into one class of reflexive-strengthening pronouns. But in reality these pronouns are of different types.

The difference between the reflexive and strengthening pronouns is determined syntactically: when *myself*, *himself* and others are used in connection with the verb (e.g.: *He put himself a question "він запитує себе"*), then their meaning is reflexive. When the same words are used in combination with the noun or pronoun, they have the strengthening meaning (e.g.: *I myself saw it or I saw it myself "я сам це бачив"*).

In Ukrainian the strengthening function is performed by only one defining pronoun (означальний займенник) *сам*. It has the category of gender (*сам, сама, само*) and number (the plural form *самі*) [5, 64].

3. Demonstrative pronouns

In English usually only the pronouns *this (these)*, *that (those)*, *such* and *the same* are regarded as demonstrative. The sphere of *this* or *these* is the space and time close to the speaker and the moment of speech, whereas the sphere of *that* and *those* is the time or space farther away from the speaker and the moment of speech. The pronouns *such* and *(the) same* indicate objects or qualities by comparison with those pointed at by the speaker.

Ukrainian demonstrative pronouns *той, отой, цей, оцей, такий, отакий, сей (ся, сі, се)* and their variants *тая, тую, тії, цяя, ції, стільки* (нестягнені форми) indicate towards the objects and their qualities. The demonstrative pronoun *скільки* correlates with the cardinal numeral. In combination with the word *самий (той самий, цей самий, такий самий)* they not only point towards the object but also identify it.

Following is the contrastive analysis of demonstrative pronouns in both languages. English pronouns *this* and *that* have the category of number (plural: *these, those*) and usually correlate with the modified nouns in number. Other demonstrative pronouns are indeclinable.

Ukrainian demonstrative pronouns (except *скільки*) have the category of gender and number and are declined similar to adjectives.

The English pronoun *this (these)* points to something closer to the speaker, and *that (those)* – to something more distant from it. Approximately the same meanings are expressed by the Ukrainian pronouns *той, цей*, though in Ukrainian this difference is not as distinct as in English. Ukrainian *цей* can be used also for denoting more distant objects, or the objects which are not available, also for denoting past and future moments or time periods – in all these cases the English pronoun *that* is used, e.g.:

Ви бачите там під горою білий будинок? У цьому будинку живе мій товариш.

Do you see the white house down there? My friend lives in that house.

The pronoun *такий* is often used with adjectives for the strengthening of their quality: *такий молодий, такий страшний*. In English in such cases we use the adverb *so*: *so young, so terrible* [5; 64-65].

4. Interrogative and relative pronouns

English interrogative pronouns are united by the meaning of an inquiry about some object (*what, who*), its properties (*whose, which, what*), place of some event

(*where*), its time (*when*), cause (*why*), manner of existence (*how*).

Ukrainian interrogative pronouns include: *хто, що, який, чий, котрий, скільки*. They contain the question about a person, an object, some quality, possession and quantity of objects.

Following is the contrastive analysis of interrogative pronouns in both languages. In both languages interrogative pronouns express the question concerning the object (*who, what, хто, що*), its quality (*what, який*), belonging (*whose, чий*), the place it takes among similar to it objects (*which, який, котрий*). Part of these pronouns correlates with nouns (*who, what, хто, що*), and others – with adjectives (*what, whose, which, який, чий, котрий*). From them *who* is used regarding living beings (first of all human beings), *which* – regarding inanimate objects. The pronoun *whose* can sometimes be used regarding inanimate objects.

In English only one of these pronouns has forms of the nominative and objective cases (*who – whom*). But in conversational language there is a tendency to use the nominative case instead of the objective one (*Who (whom) did you ask about it?*). So this pronoun also becomes indeclinable similar to other interrogative pronouns.

In Ukrainian all interrogative pronouns are declinable. Pronouns *чий, який, котрий* have the forms of gender, number and are declinable similar to adjectives.

The peculiarity of English *what* are its different meanings. This pronoun can be used as a noun (*What has happened? “Що трапилось?”*) and as an adjective (*What books did you buy? “Які книжки ви купили?”*); it can refer to objects (*What have you brought?*) and to persons (*What is he? – What is his occupation?*); this pronoun is used in interrogative and in exclamatory sentences (*Whatfine weather!*).

English pronouns *who, what, which, whose, that, where, when, why, how* are called “connective” when they serve to connect clauses in complex sentences. In accordance with their meaning and the types of clauses they introduce they fall into two groups: conjunctive and relative pronouns [29; 108-109].

Ukrainian relative pronouns. If the mentioned above interrogative pronouns join the subordinate clause to the main one, that is perform the function of linking words and correlate with nouns or pronouns of the main clause then they become relative pronouns. They have certain peculiarities concerning their sphere of usage.

The pronoun *який* is used in all styles of a language when it is necessary to point towards the qualitative character of some characteristic, e.g.: *Природно, яка позиція – такі й результати* (журн.).

The pronoun *котрий* is used in the case when it is necessary to underline the choice of some persons, objects or qualities in a row of homogeneous persons, objects or qualities, e.g.: *Полювання з крякухою дуже добутливе, спокійне полювання, особливо для мисливців, котрі вже в літах, котрим уже бродити по болотах та лазити по очеретах, сказати би, важкувато* (О. Вишня).

The relative pronoun *чий* points towards the object belonging and is used mainly in bookish style. Pronouns *хто, що* correlate with nouns:

хто with the person, *що* – either with a person or with some object; *скільки* correlates with the numeral [20; 165].

Following is the contrastive analysis of relative pronouns in both languages. In English the role of relative pronouns that are used as a means of joining complex sentences is performed by interrogative pronouns *who, which, whose, what* and pronouns *that, as*; in Ukrainian – only interrogative pronouns *хто, який, котрий, що*. Being used in the function of the connecting word they at the same time perform the function of the subjective member of the sentence (the subject or the attribute).

Relative pronouns similar to interrogative pronouns differentiate the person and the non-person (особу і не особу). In English this differentiation is revealed in contrasting of *who* and *which* (and by interrogative *who – what*), in Ukrainian *хто – що*. *Who* (Ukr. *хто*) is used regarding persons, and *which* – regarding inanimate objects and animals.

The pronoun *whose* is usually placed before the noun, whereas the corresponding Ukrainian pronoun is mainly put after the noun:

That is the girl **whose** brother works at our institute. – Це дівчина, брат **якої** працює в нашому інституті.

The pronoun *that* can refer both to living beings and to inanimate objects. In this respect it reminds of the Ukrainian relative pronoun *що*:

The article that I translated ... – Стаття, що я переклав

The doctor that I visited... – Лікар, що його я відвідав ... [6; 65-66].

5. Indefinite and negative pronouns

English indefinite pronouns. In grammatical tradition the class of indefinite pronouns is said to include *some, any, every* (and their compounds *something, anything, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone*) *all, each, either, much, many, few, little*, etc., that is words of different lexical and grammatical nature.

Ukrainian indefinite pronouns: *дехто, дещо, хтось, щось, хто-небудь, що-небудь, який-небудь, будь-хто, будь-що, казна-що, казна-хто, абихто, абиякий*, etc. are built from the corresponding interrogative pronouns by adding particles *-небудь, казна-, хтозна-, аби-, де-, -сь*. They are used to point towards unknown, indefinite objects and their qualities, e.g.: *Хтось задихається над ними – хто це, хто це?* (І. Драч).

Following is the contrastive analysis of indefinite pronouns in both languages. These pronouns in English and in Ukrainian leave the unclear or non-defined notion about some object, person or quality, characteristics or quantity of objects.

The characteristic feature of these pronouns in both languages is the tendency to differentiate the person and the non-person (compare in English *somebody, something*; in Ukrainian *дещо, дехто; щось, хтось*).

In English the meaning and the usage of pronouns of this class often depends on syntactic factors: pronouns *some, any; something, anything; somebody, anybody* and others can render the similar meaning in different types of sentences (*some* and its derivatives – in affirmative sentences, *any* and its derivatives – in interrogative and negative sentences). On the other hand, pronouns that have *any* in their structure have different meanings in interrogative or negative and affirmative sentences. Ukrainian indefinite pronouns, vice versa, have stable, forever attached to them lexical meaning, which does not depend on the syntactic context and is not

changed according to the sentence type.

The English indefinite pronouns *somebody*, *anybody* and *someone*, *anyone*, which denote the person, have the forms of common and possessive cases and can be used in the function of attribute (*somebody's bag* “*чийсь портфель*”). The rest of pronouns of this type are unchangeable.

In Ukrainian all indefinite pronouns have the category of case, and those with interrogative pronouns *чий*, *який* in their structure – also have the category of gender and number. Altogether, Ukrainian interrogative, relative and indefinite pronouns possess the category of case, e.g.: *хто*, *кого*, *кому*, *кого*, *ким*, *на кому* (*на кім*). Ukrainian interrogative-relative pronouns of the type *чий* have categories of case, *number and gender*, e.g.: *чий*, *чиє*, *чия*, *чий*; *чий*, *чийого*, *чийому*, *чийім*, *на чийому*.

English indefinite pronouns *some*, *any* are often used as noun determiners, being almost similar to articles [6; 66-67].

English negative pronouns are *no*, *nobody*, *nobody's*, *none*, *nothing*, *neither*, *nowhere*.

Ukrainian negative pronouns include such words as *ніхто*, *ніщо*, *ніякий*, *нічий*. They are built from the corresponding interrogative pronouns by adding the particle *ні-* and point towards the total absence of some object or quality. Therefore they possess grammar categories characteristic of interrogative pronouns.

Following is the contrastive analysis of negative pronouns in both languages. Pronouns of this type denote the absence of some object or quality. In both languages they correlate with indefinite pronouns, in English also with the so-called “generalizing” pronouns (*all*, *everybody*, *everything*, *both* (the meaning of collectiveness), *every*, *each either* (the meaning of separateness), and in Ukrainian – with the part of defining pronouns, objecting to the availability of the notion, expressed by the mentioned above pronouns.

The number of such pronouns in both languages is not large; in English here belong *no*, *nobody*, *nothing*, *none*, *no one*, *neither*; in Ukrainian – *ніхто*, *ніщо*, *нічий*, *ніякий*, conversational *нікотрий*. English negative pronouns are created by joining together the main negative pronoun *no* with nouns of a very abstract meaning: *body*, *thing* and the indefinite pronoun *one*. Corresponding Ukrainian pronouns are formed by adding the negative particle *ні* to interrogative pronouns *хто*, *що*, *який*, *чий*.

In English negative pronouns are unchangeable, except *nobody* and *no one*, which have common and possessive cases. Ukrainian negative pronouns are all declined in a similar way to interrogative pronouns, from which they are created. Two negative pronouns *нічий*, *ніякий* have the forms of gender and number.

The English pronoun *none* is often used to replace the word combination “*no + noun*”, e.g.: *There was no apparent slope downward, and distinctly none (no slope) upward* (Th. Dreiser).

In both languages negative pronouns serve in the sentence as a lexical means to express negation (оформлення заперечення). In English their presence is enough to make the sentence a negative one, and that is why the predicate is not put into the negative form (*I know nobody here*). In Ukrainian the grammatical and

the lexical expression of negation in the sentence are distinctly differentiated. The negative form of the predicate is obligatory even in cases when we have the negative pronoun in the sentence (*Я не знаю нікого*) [6; 67].

Allomorphic classes of pronouns in English and Ukrainian languages

English reciprocal pronouns are the group pronouns – *each other* and *one another*. They serve to express mutuality, as in *They helped each other or (one another)*, or point out towards the common and reciprocal character of the activity of two or more persons as the subject and the object of the action. In Ukrainian they have the corresponding pronoun word combination *один одного*.

English reciprocal pronouns have the same cases as nouns (e.g.: the possessive case *each other's hand*). They are used mainly in the function of object or attribute. These pronouns always retain their lexical meaning and do not perform functions characteristic of functional parts of speech. Prepositions referring to them are always placed before the first element (*each or one*), e.g.: *about each other* “*один про одного*”, *for each other* “*один для одного*”, *with one another* “*один з одним*”. This witnesses the fact that English reciprocal pronouns are of bigger semantic unity than the equivalent Ukrainian combination.

In some cases the English verb with the pronoun *each other (one another)* has as its Ukrainian equivalent the verb with the suffix *-ся*, which has a reciprocal-reflective meaning, e.g.:

They kissed each other. – Вони поцілувалися.

They never met each other. – Вони ніколи не зустрічалися.

But in the mentioned cases the usage of pronouns *each other* and *one another* is not obligatory in English sentences [6; 68].

Ukrainian defining pronouns (означальні займенники) *увесь (ввесь, весь)*, *усякий (всякий)*, *кожний (кожен)*, *жодний (жоден)*, *інший, сам, самий* are used in the sentence in the role of generalizing-qualitative attributes (узагальнено-якісні означення), besides in the process of substantivation they can be used in the function of subjects and objects. Ukrainian defining pronouns possess the categories of gender, number and case, e.g.: *увесь, усе, уся, усі; увесь, усього, усьому, усім, на всьому* [20; 164].

English generalizing pronouns (узагальнюючі займенники) include such pronouns as *all, each, either, every* and their compounds (*everyone, everybody, everything, everywhere*) which give a generalizing indication of persons, things, properties and circumstances [6; 67-68].

English quantitative pronouns include *much, many, (a) few, (a) little, several, enough* which may function as pro-nouns (*much, many, (a) few, several, (a) little, enough*); pro-adijectives (*much, (a) little, enough*); pro-numerals (*many, several, (a) few*); and pro-adverbs (*much, (a) little, enough*) [29; 113].

English contrasting pronouns include *other (others, other's, others')*, *another (another's)* and *otherwise*. They are united by the meaning “not the (object, property, circumstance) indicated” and contrast therefore with the demonstrative pronouns [29; 114].

English indefinite-personal pronoun. The English pronoun *one* is used with the generalizing-personal (showing that the action refers to any subject) and with the

indefinite-personal meaning (which refers the action to some person which is not exactly defined). Being used in the function of subject of indefinite-personal sentences, it performs the function, which is in Ukrainian attached to the forms of the third person plural of verbs (*One says ... Кажуть ...*) and to the forms of the second person singular (*One never knows ... Ніколи не знаєш ...*).

One always denotes some person; grammatically it always has the meaning of singularity, and is used in common and possessive cases (*One must always keep one's word. Треба завжди дотримуватися свого слова*).

This pronoun should not be confused with the word *one* which serves as replacement. It differs from the pronoun by the fact that it does not have its own meaning, performs the function of replacement and has other formal characteristics (the form of plural *ones*).

The pronoun *one* in the function of subject is widely used with the verbs *must, should, ought, can, may*. In Ukrainian the mentioned combinations are rendered with the help of unchangeable predicate words (присудкові слова) *треба, потрібно, слід, можна*: *One must take – треба взяти; one should study well – слід добре вчитися; one can find – можна знайти*.

The reciprocal pronoun *oneself* correlates with the pronoun *one*.

In Ukrainian there is not a single pronoun that could express the person in such an indefinite and generalized way, as *one*. That is why all similar notions are rendered in Ukrainian with the help of verb forms, which are used without subject [6; 69].

Summing up, we may say that pronouns are not united by any morphological categories, or syntactic functions similar to other notional parts of speech. Nevertheless they constitute a separate class of words with peculiar meanings and references to the world of reality [29; 99- 116].

6. Adverb as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian languages

PLAN

1. Definition of the adverb.
2. The main features of the adverbs.
3. The peculiarity of adverbs as a class of words.
4. The role of adverbs.
5. Grammatical categories of adverbs.
6. Classes of adverbs.

Concepts and terms: *lexico-grammatical meaning of adverbs, the degrees of comparison, qualitative adverbs, quantitative adverbs, circumstantial adverbs, primary adverbs, secondary adverbs, adverbialization, adverbs expressing comparison and similarity, words of the category of state, mental and physical states of a person or of any living creature altogether, the state of the surrounding or its evaluation, the state with some modal connotation.*

References: 3, 6, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14

Adverbs denote the quality of the action, certain characteristic, state or some property or point out towards the fact under which circumstance this or that action or state is taking place. In both languages adverbs are modifiers of verbs and adjectives, in English they are also modifiers of the words of the category of state (also called “statives” or “adlinks”).

Adverb as a part of speech is characterized by the following features:

1. Lexico-grammatical meaning of “qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states or qualities”.

2. Typical stem-building affixes, as in *quick-ly, side-ways, clock-wise, backwards, a-shore*, etc. in the English language.

In Ukrainian adverbs are often formed by adding the preposition *по-* (written hyphenated) (*по-доброму, по-батьківськи, по-вашому, по-перше*); particles *-то, -от, -таки, -будь, -небудь, казна-, хтоз- на-* (*десь-то, як-от, коли-небудь, казна-куди, хтозна-як, будь-де*, etc. written hyphenated). Particles *аби-, ані-, чи-, що-, не-, ні-* becoming prefixes are written with adverbs together (*абикуди, аби як, ані-коли, чимало, неспокійно, нікуди, щодень, нехвально*, etc.).

3. The grammatical category of the degrees of comparison.

4. Its unilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with adlinks and nouns speaking of English adverbs.

In Ukrainian adverbs usually modify verbs, showing different circumstances under which actions take place.

5. The syntactic function of adverbial complement or adverbial modifier, sometimes other functions.

As the definition of the lexico-grammatical meaning shows, English adverbs may be divided into three lexico-grammatical subclasses: qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

Qualitative adverbs like *loudly, quickly, brightly*, etc. usually modify verbs, less often adlinks. They show the quality of an action or state much in the same way as a qualitative adjective shows the quality of some substance. Compare: *speak loudly* and *loud speech, walks quickly* and *a quick walk*.

The connection between qualitative adverbs and adjectives is obvious. In most cases the adverb is derived from the adjective with the help of the most productive adverb-forming suffix *-ly*. Like the corresponding adjectives qualitative adverbs usually have opposites of the comparative and superlative degrees.

Quantitative adverbs like *very, rather, too, nearly, greatly, fully, hardly, quite, utterly, twofold*, etc. show the degree, measure, quantity of an action, quality, state, etc.

The combinability of this subclass is more extensive than that of the qualitative adverbs. Besides verbs and adlinks quantitative adverbs modify adjectives, adverbs, numerals, modals, even nouns. E.g.:

You have quite hurt him.

Rather disconsolate she wandered out into the cathedral.

She knew it only too well.

He had become fully aware of it.

It was nearly ten.

He is wholly master of the situation.

Very probably he won't interfere.

Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote various circumstances (mostly local and temporal) attending an action. Accordingly they fall into two subclasses:

a) adverbs of time and frequency (*yesterday, tomorrow, before, often, again, twice*, etc.);

b) adverbs of place and direction (*upstairs, inside, behind, homewards*, etc.).

Circumstantial adverbs are not inwardly connected with the verbs they are said to modify. They do not characterize the action itself but name certain circumstances attending the action described in the sentence and usually referring to the situation as a whole. Therefore a circumstantial adverb can be used in a sentence in which the only verb is a link verb, i.e. where no action is described. E.g.:

He will be ten tomorrow.

This accounts for the fact that, unlike qualitative and quantitative adverbs, circumstantial adverbs are not necessarily placed near the verb, they may occupy different places in the sentence. E.g.:

It was't any too warm yesterday. Yesterday they went there quite alone.

When Henry Sweet speaks of adverbs, as showing "almost last remains of normal free order in Modern English", it concerns mostly circumstantial adverbs.

Only a small group of circumstantial adverbs denoting indefinite time and place (*soon, late, often, near, far*) have opposites of comparison. Most adverbs of this subclass form no opposites of any grammatical category [8, 86-92].

In Ukrainian the subclasses of adverbs are presented in a slightly different way. The semantics of Ukrainian adverbs varies, that is why according to their meaning they can be subdivided into defining and circumstantial (означальні та обставинні).

Defining adverbs are divided further in their turn into qualitative, quantitative and adverbs of manner (якісні, кількісні і способу дії):

- a) qualitative – *добре зробив, щільно зачинена, весело заспівали;*
- b) quantitative – *дуже весела людина, досить пристойно, особливо активно;*
- c) adverbsofmanner – *крутився колесом, поводився по- дитячому, їхати верхи.*

Circumstantial adverbs include adverbs that denote different outside space and time circumstances (*вгорі, знизу, надворі, зверху, увечері, згодом*), circumstances caused by some inner reason and aim (*спересердя, спросоння, зопалу, навмисне, нащастя*).

According to their origin and the way of formation Ukrainian adverbs are subdivided into primary and secondary (первинні та вторинні).

Primary adverbs are those that were created so long ago and changed so much that it is difficult to define their primary form (*тут, там, завжди, де, тоді, куди, доки*, etc). They are rather few in number.

Secondary adverbs make up the main part of Ukrainian adverbs. They are formed by rather productive ways of word formation that is suffixation and prefixation. For example, such adverbs as *добре, гаряче* are formed in a syntactic-morphological way, whereas adverbs *по-латині, весело, по-ударному* belong to the morphological way of formation (6, 194-199].

When comparing English and Ukrainian adverbs as parts of speech, one may say that they differ but slightly. Their lexico-grammatical meanings, morphological categories, combinability and syntactical functions are fundamentally the same.

Nevertheless, certain distinctions are worth noting.

1. The stem-building lexico-grammatical morphemes of Ukrainian adverbs are somewhat more numerous and varied.

2. Among the adverb building morphemes we find several suffixes of subjective appraisal *-еньк-, -ісіньк-, -есеньк:* *швиденько, давненько, смачненько, точнісінько, тихесенько*, which are absolutely alien to English. Under the influence of such forms in the Ukrainian colloquial language there are also used such adverbs as *недалечко, змалечку, осьдечки* and others, without the meaning of diminutiveness. In English the following meanings are usually rendered in a descriptive way.

3. The adverbialization of substantival and adjectival grammemes (e.g. *кроком, стрілою, весною*) is a productive way of forming adverbs in Ukrainian, whereas in English it is less common.

4. The peculiarity of the English language is the presence of a rather large quantity of adverbs that are homonymous with nouns and adjectives, at that their meanings become obvious only in context. Compare: *south – південь, на південь, fast – швидко, швидкий* etc. Some simple adverbs of place and direction, for example, *away, down, in, off, over, up* coincide with the verbal postpositive attachment (дієслівні постпозитивні приставки/ після логи). Adverbs differ from postpositive attachments in a way that being the notional part of speech they have the independent meaning and are used in the function of a certain part of the sentence,

whereas postpositive attachments take part only in the word formation process of the verb (словотворення дієслова).

5. The peculiar feature of English circumstantial adverbs is their ability to render the place of some action or its direction depending on the context, compare: *here – тут, сюди; there – там, туди; where – де, куди; inside – всередині, всередину; outside – зовні, назовні; nowhere – ніде, нікуди* etc. In Ukrainian meanings of the action location or direction are rendered, as a rule, by different adverbs: *дома – додому, збоку – вбік*.

6. Among English qualitative adverbs there is a rather large and specific group of words of this category, formed with the help of the adverbial suffix *-ly* from the Participle I (*imploring – imploringly, mocking – mockingly*). This way of formation is a very productive one in English. Stemming from the verb, these adverbs modify the main action in a way that they point out as its characteristic feature towards another simultaneous action going in parallel with it (compare: *He looked imploringly at his bother. – Він благально (або з благоанням) подивився на свого брата.*)

7. The peculiar feature of the Ukrainian language is the group of adverbs, denoting manner, which are called sometimes “adverbs expressing comparison and similarity” (порівняльно- уподібнювальні). They are formed with the help of prefix *по-*: *по-дитячому, по-вовчому, по-нашому, по-козацьки*, also without the prefix from the instrumental case of nouns: *Дим валить стовпом*. In English the corresponding meaning is usually rendered with the help of word combinations, e.g.: *like a child, like a wolf*.

Despite all the differences there can be differentiated the following isomorphic groups of adverbs in both languages – qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial adverbs (якісні, кількісні й обставинні прислівники) [5, 106-107].

Degrees of comparison of adverbs

The category of the degrees of comparison of adverbs is similar to that of adjectives. It is a system of three-member opposemes (*soon – sooner – soonest; actively – more actively – most actively; швидко – швидше – найшвидше; активно – більш активно/активніше – найактивніше*) showing whether the characteristic the adverb expresses is absolute or relative. The “comparative” and “superlative” members of the opposeme are built up either synthetically (by means of affixation or suppletivity) or analytically (by means of word- morphemes).

Degrees of comparison are characteristic in both languages of all the qualitative as well as some circumstantial adverbs (among the latter ones: *late, soon, near, far, often* and some others).

In English the synthetic way of degrees formation is characteristic only of one-syllable adverbs (*fast, hard, late, soon*) and some two- syllable ones (*early, often, quickly, slowly*). The majority of adverbs form their degrees of comparison analytically (*clearly – more clearly – most clearly*). In Ukrainian the synthetic way of degrees formation is prevailing.

In both languages there is a suppletive way of degrees formation: *добре (гарно) – краще – найкраще, погано – гірше – найгірше; well – better – best, badly – worse – worst, much – more – most; little – less – least* etc.

With regard to the category of the degrees of comparison adverbs (like adjectives) fall into comparables and non-comparables. The number of non-comparables is much greater among adverbs than among adjectives. In other words, there are many adverbs whose lexemes contain but one word (*yesterday, always, northward, upstairs, etc*).

Though this category is not pertaining to all adverbs, it still plays an important role for this class of words. Therefore, there exists the view that it is not correct to define adverb as an unchangeable part of speech.

Words of the category of state (statives or adlinks)

In Modern English there exists a certain class of words such as *asleep, alive, afloat*, which is characterized by:

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning of “state”. *He is asleep = He is in a state of sleep.*
2. The productive prefix *a-*: *swim – aswim, shiver – ashiver, etc.*
3. Peculiar combinability: words of this class are associated almost exclusively with link-verbs: *to be alive, to fall asleep, to be adrift, etc.*
4. The main syntactic function of a predicative complement.

Therefore, in the sentence they are used in the function of the predicative member of the compound nominal predicate (предикативний член складеного іменного присудка), the objective predicative member, as well as a postpositive attribute. These words are never used as pre-positive attributes.

As we know, a class of words united by such features may be regarded as a separate part of speech. B. Ilyish has called it “a category of state” by analogy with a similar class of words in the Russian language. Compare: *мне было приятно, грустно, обидно*, where the last three words ending in -o denote different states and are associated with link- verbs. V. Vinogradov, for example, calls them “words of the category of state”, though many linguists object to their being considered a separate part of speech. Other Russian linguists B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya use a handier term “adlinks” by analogy with adverbs. English adlinks do not have grammatical categories [5, 199-202].

The peculiar feature of the Ukrainian language concerning the state expression is the fact that here the state is represented as something closer to the action and is rendered with the help of words, meant to express the action, that is verbs. It becomes obvious if we compare the following examples [5, 104-105]:

The air was agleam with diamonds. Повітря сяяло діамантами.

She was astir. Вона заворушилася.

He was asleep. Він спав.

He is unaware of that. Він не знає про це.

The question of singling out the category of state as a separate part of speech has not been finally solved yet by Ukrainian grammarians. For example, B. M. Kulyk treats positively the issue concerning singling out of the category of state in Ukrainian and includes into this class the following groups of words:

a) words expressing the mental and physical states of a person or of any living creature altogether, e.g.: *боязко, приємно, досадно, страшно, тривожно, чутно, жаль, охота, шкода* and others;

b) words denoting the nature state: *темно, зелено, барвисто-*,

c) words expressing the state of the surrounding or its evaluation: *гарно, пусто, тихо, рано, пізно-*,

d) words expressing the state with some modal connotation: *треба, слід, необхідно, доцільно, можна, не можна* and others.

According to B. Kulyk, the category of state in Ukrainian is all the time renewed, especially with the help of adverbs ending in *-o, -e*.

The abovementioned groups of words, referred by B. Kulyk to the category of state, differ from the English words of the category of state by such features:

1) they are used mainly in impersonal sentences, whereas English words of the category of state are used in personal sentences;

2) they do not explain any words in the sentence, whereas English words of the category of state can be used in the role of the postpositive attribute and the objective predicative member;

3) Ukrainian words of the category of state in *-o, -e* can have the forms of comparison degrees (*весело – веселіше, легко – легше*). English words of the category of state are altogether unchangeable [5, 105-106].

There is another hypothesis about the Ukrainian “statives” which is also worth considering. It is presented in the textbook “The Modern Ukrainian Language”, edited by the Ukrainian linguist O. Ponomariv. According to this point of view, in Ukrainian there is a separate group of words called “words of the category of state” (слова категорії стану). These are unchangeable words of the adverbial or substantival origin which render the state and perform the function of the main member of the sentence in impersonal sentences. They are rather few in number.

According to their meaning Ukrainian words of the category of state can be subdivided into the following groups:

a) words expressing the physical and the psychic state of a person: *важко, легко, боляче, страх, досадно, шкода, боязко,*

b) words denoting the state of nature: *тихо, темно, видно, холодно, тепло,*

c) words expressing different modal meanings of possibility, impossibility, necessity: *можна, слід, потрібно, треба, необхідно.*

The majority of Ukrainian linguists do not consider this class of words to be a separate part of speech and refer them to adverbs [6, 199-200].

7. Verb as a part of speech in English and Ukrainian languages

PLAN

1. Definition of the verb.
2. The main division within the verb system.
3. The peculiarity of verb as a class of words.
4. The role of verb.
5. Grammatical categories of verb.
 - a) category of person
 - b) category of number and gender
 - c) category of aspect
 - d) category of tense
 - e) category of voice
 - f) category of mood
6. Classes of verb.

Concepts and terms: *finite verbs, finites, non-finite verbs, non-finites, verbids, conjugated verb forms, non-coniugated verb forms, personal and nonpersonal verb forms, the first conjugation, the second conjugation, the lexico-grammatical meaning of "action/process", typical stem building elements, the category of aspect and voice, the category of mood, the category of tense, the category of person, the category of number, category of gender, simple verbs, derived verbs.*

References: 1, 6, 7, 10, 12, 13, 14

The verb is a system of systems. The main division within the English verb system is that between the finite verbs (finites) and non-finite verbs (non-finites or verbids). The finites can further be subdivided into three systems called moods (indicative, conditional (subjunctive), imperative). The infinitive, the gerund and the participle are also three systems within the verbids.

In Ukrainian this system is arranged in a slightly different way. The Ukrainian verb includes the conjugated verb forms (відмінювані форми) – the verbs and participles (дієслова та дієприкметники) and non-coniugated verb forms (невідмінювані форми) – infinitives, participles, and forms ending with *-но, -то* (інфінітиви, дієприслівники та форми на *-но, -то* (окрема група пасивних дієприкметників: *завдання виконано, лист написано*). The subdivision can also be named in another way, that is: personal and nonpersonal verb forms. Depending on the system of endings of personal form verbs (both singular and plural) of the present and future tenses (simple form) Ukrainian verbs are subdivided into two conjugations. The first conjugation (перша дієвідміна) includes verbs that in the third person plural (in present and future tenses) have the endings *-уть, -ють* (*читають, везуть*); the second conjugation (друга дієвідміна) includes verbs that in the third person plural (in present and future tenses) have the endings *-ать, ять* (*роблять, побачать*).

The verb as a part of speech is characterized by the following properties in English and Ukrainian:

1) the lexico-grammatical meaning of “action/process” in both languages.

2) typical stem building elements, such as the suffixes *-ize, -en, -ify*, the prefixes *re-, under-, over-, out-, de-, sub-, mis, un-* in the English language;

• typical Ukrainian verb building elements are: suffixes *-ти (платити), -ати (запитати)*, or the combination of suffixes *-уєа* and *-ти* in derivative verbs (*перечитувати, пересилювати*); prefixes: *-о (оминати), у- (уможливити), об- (обробити), пере- (перебільшувати), ви- (видужати), з- (звукити, знеболити)* and the peculiar Ukrainian postfix *-ся (недорозвинутися, митися)*.

One more peculiarity of English verbs is their ability to be combined with the lexico-grammatical word-morphemes *up, in, off, down, out*, etc. which together with verbs form the so-called “phrasal verbs”, e.g.: *put down, set off*, etc.

3) grammatical categories: out of the six categories of the English verb (the categories of person, number, aspect, tense, mood and voice three are found not only in the finites, but in English verbids as well. The category of voice (*asks – is asked, to ask – to be asked, asking – being asked*) is found in all the English verbids, and the that of aspect (*asks – is asking, to ask – to be ask- ing*) – in the infinitive.

In Ukrainian, grammatical categories of the verb are closely connected with its meaning and its syntactic function. The category of aspect and voice (категорії виду і стану) are characteristic of all verb forms. The category of mood (категорія способу) is characteristic of verbs that can be conjugated (*читає, читай, читав би*), the category of tense (категорія часу) – of the indicative mood verbs (*читає – читав – читатиме*), the category of person (категорія особи) – of the imperative and indicative mood verbs (*читаєш, читаєте, читай, читайте*), the category of number (категорія числа) – of all verb forms that can be conjugated. The Ukrainian language also possesses the seventh grammatical category, that is the grammatical category of gender. Nevertheless this category is used only with the conjugated verb forms of the past tense, compare: in the past – *він читав, вона читала, воно читало-*, in the present – *він / вона/ воно читає*, in the future – *він / вона/ воно читатиме / буде читати*.

4) its typical combinability: a verb can be associated with nouns (noun-equivalents) denoting the doer (agent) and the recipient of the action expressed by the verb; it is regularly modified by adverbs. Some classes of verbs can have their own peculiarities of combinability.

5) its typical syntactic function of the predicate (possessed by the finites only, in Ukrainian by the conjugated form of verbs). Verbids have other syntactic functions, but they can be secondary predicates in secondary predication structures.

As we know, it is the stem that unites words into lexemes. Therefore, though stem-structure is not a reliable criterion for distinguishing parts of speech, it can show whether certain words belong to the same lexeme or not. Now finites and the corresponding verbids have identical stem-structure, which characterizes them as words of the same lexemes, in spite of certain differences in combinability, function, etc. Compare: *gives – giving, gives up – giving up, nationalizes – nationalizing, whitewashes – whitewashing; стояти – стояв, стояв – стоячи*, etc.

In accordance with their stem structure verbs, like other parts of speech, fall under the following groups:

a) Simple verbs (*write, know, love; ўму, їсму*).

b) Derived verbs (*organize, rewrite, purify, underestimate; викорі- нити, пересунути*).

It should be mentioned here that among the English affixes used to form new verbs prefixes are of greater importance than suffixes. The most common derivational prefixes, in order of frequency of occurrence, are: *re-* (*reabsorb, rebuild*), *dis-* (*disarm, disconnect*), *over-* (*overcome, overhear*), *un-* (*unbend, unfold*), *mis-* (*misbehave, misinform*), *out-* (*outdo, outgrow*). Other derivational prefixes include: *be-*, *co-*, *de-*, *fore-*, *inter-*, *pre-*, *sub-*, *trans-*, *under-*. There are fewer derivational suffixes for verb formation, although some of these are quite productive. The suffixes, listed in order of frequency of occurrence, are the following: *-ize/-ise* (*characterize, computerize*), *-en* (*awaken, broaden*), *-ate* (*alienate, captivate*), *-(i)fy* (*beautify, exemplify*). The prefix *re-* and the suffix *-ize* (or *-ise*) are by far the most productive, both in terms of the total number of verb lexemes formed and in terms of the number of relatively rare coinages.

Typical Ukrainian verb-building affixes have been shown above, among them prefixes are of greater variety as well.

Sound-interchange is unproductive (*food – feed, blood – bleed*), so is the change of stress, as in ‘*export – (to) ex’port, transport – (to) transport*. In Ukrainian the following types are not characteristic of the verb.

The most productive way of forming verb lexemes in English is conversion: (*a*) *book – (to) book, (a) man – (to) man, better – (to) better*. In Ukrainian it is absent in regard to verbs.

c) Compound verbs consisting of two stems, as in (*to*) *broadcast, (to) whitewash, (to) blindfold*. Composition is of low productivity in the class of verbs. In Ukrainian this type of verb formation is also rare, e.g.: *благодіяти, боготворити, зубоскалити, хліборобствувати*.

d) Composite verbs – made up of a verb with a lexico-grammatical word-morpheme attached to it, as in *give up, give in, take off, put on*. This way of forming verbs is productive.

Before discussing the grammatical categories we shall consider some general classifications of English verbs based on their formal, semantic and functional properties, and thus the division of verbs into standard and non-standard, notional and semi-notional, subjective and objective, terminative and non-terminative. In Ukrainian there are usually differentiated two groups of verbs: transitive and intransitive (перехідні і неперехідні дієслова: *написати листа, розповідати казку, зеленіти, дякувати*). Comparing English and Ukrainian classes of verbs, what is lacking in Ukrainian is the subdivision of verbs into standard and non-standard (that is regular and irregular); the mentioned transitive and intransitive verb groups are correlated with the corresponding subjective and objective verbs.

The peculiar group of Ukrainian verbs is the so called reflexive verbs (зворотні дієслова) formed with the help of postfix *-ся*. They can be found of different kinds:

1) reflexive proper (власне зворотні: *умиватися, взуватися*);

2) indirectly reflexive (непрямо зворотні: *запасатися (їжею), поратися (біля печі)*);

3) generally reflexive (загальнозворотні: *сміятися, журитися*);

4) objectless reflexive (безоб'єктно-зворотні: *(корова) б'ється, (собака) кусається*);

5) reciprocal-reflexive (взаємно зворотні: *листуватися, зустрічатися*).

One more peculiar group of Ukrainian verbs is impersonal verbs (безособові дієслова). From the semantic point of view they can be subdivided into the following groups:

1) verbs of the physical state (дієслова фізичного стану: *морозить, трясє*);

2) verbs of the mental state (дієслова психічного стану: *спить, сниться*);

3) verbs denoting nature phenomena (дієслова, що означають явища природи: *свіжіє, смеркає, похолодало*);

4) verbs denoting disasters (дієслова, що означають стихійні явища: *вигоріло, висушило, залило*);

5) verbs denoting existence or the degree of availability (дієслова, що означають буття, міру присутності (відсутності): *сталося, минулося, бракує*);

6) verbs denoting success (дієслова успіху: *пощастило, повелося*) [6, 179].

Although based on grammatical meanings and categories, these classifications of verbs and the terminology they involve will come in useful when we discuss the categories themselves and the functioning of verb grammemes in speech.

The overwhelming majority of English verbs resemble the verb *ask* in building their “past form” and “Participle II form”, that is with the help of the suffix *-ed*, and therefore they are called standard or regular.

Some two hundred verbs deviate from the standard verbs and are called non-standard or irregular. They do not present a uniform group. Some of them resemble the verb *write* (*speak, drive, eat, etc.*). Others form the “past” and “Participle II” without affixation (*cut, put, shed, etc.*). Still others use both vowel and consonant change and affixation to form the “past” and “Participle II” forms. Some make use of suppletivity (*go, be, etc.*).

As we see, the difference between the standard and the non-standard verbs is purely formal. We should therefore call this classification formal rather than morphological as the tradition goes.

Semantically verbs are divided into notional and semi-notional. Some linguists speak also of the third group, auxiliary verbs, completely devoid of lexical meanings, as, for instance, *has* in *has written*. As shown, they are words in form only. As to their meaning and function they are grammatical morphemes, parts of analytical words, hence the name – grammatical word-morphemes. In Ukrainian the analytical verb form of the future tense can be regarded as an example of this type: *буду читати*.

The majority of English as well as Ukrainian verbs are notional, that is they possess *full lexical meaning*. Connected with it is their isolatability, that is the ability to make a sentence alone (*Come! Read! Приходь! Читай!*). Their combinability is variable.

Semi-notional verbs have very general, “faded” lexical meanings, as in *be, have, become, seem, can, may, must, etc.*, where the meaning of action is almost obliterated. Semi-notional verbs are hardly isolatable. Their combinability is usually

bilateral as they serve to connect words in speech. They are comparatively few in number, but of very frequent occurrence, and include two peculiar groups: link verbs and modal verbs [5, 116-121]. Ukrainian verbs possess the mentioned two groups as well (link verbs: *бути, ставати*-, modal verbs – *могти, мусяти*). Unlike English ones Ukrainian modal verbs are conjugated (*він може читати, вони мусять робити*).

Similarly to other parts of speech variants of the same verb lexeme may belong to different subclasses. The verb *grow* in the meanings “develop”, “increase in size”, etc. belongs to the class of notional verbs, e.g.: *How quickly you are growing!* In the meaning “become” it belongs to the link verbs, e.g.: *He is growing old.*

When the verb *have* means “possess”, it is a notional verb, e.g.: *How much money do you have?* When it expresses obligation, need or necessity, it is a modal verb, e.g.: *He had to make the best of the situation.*

Verbs can be also divided into subjective and objective, depending upon their combinability with words denoting the subjects and the objects of the actions they name.

Objective verbs are mostly associated with two nouns (or nounequivalents) denoting the subject and the object of the action named by the verb. Subjective verbs are associated only with nouns (nounequivalents) denoting the subject of the action.

In the sentence *She sat up and kissed him tenderly* the verb *kissed* is an objective verb because it is associated with the pronoun *she* denoting the subject of the action of kissing and with the pronoun *him* denoting the object of the same action. The verb *sat up* is a subjective verb since it is associated only with the person *she* denoting the subject of the action.

In the sentence *You are interfering with him* the verb form *are interfering* is also objective because it is associated with the pronoun *him* denoting the object of the action of interfering. But there is some difference between the two verbs in *kissing him* and *interfering with him*. The first verb is associated with the word denoting the object of an action (let us call it the “object word”) directly, the second verb is connected with the object word by means of a preposition.

Objective verbs that are connected with their object words directly are called transitive verbs. All the other verbs, both subjective and objective, are called intransitive.

As usual, variants of a verb lexeme may belong to different subclasses. Compare:

He opened the door (objective, transitive).

The door opened (intransitive, subjective).

Add some more water (objective, transitive).

The music added to our enjoyment (objective, intransitive).

The figures would not add (intransitive, subjective).

Verbs can be classified in accordance with the aspective nature of their lexical meanings into terminative (термінативний, кінцевий, той, що вказує на межу завершення певної дії) and non-terminative.

Terminative verbs denote actions which cannot develop beyond a certain inherent limit. The actions denoted by non-terminative verbs have no inherent meanings. Compare the two sentences:

He was carrying a box on his shoulders.

Take this empty box away and bring me a full one.

The verbs *to carry* and *to bring* may denote the same kind of action. But *carry* does not imply any time or space limits when or where the action would naturally stop, while *bring* does. So *carry* is a non-terminative verb and *bring* is a terminative one. *Live, love, stand, sit, work, walk*, etc. are non-terminative verbs. *Come, take, stand up, sit down*, etc. are terminative verbs.

As usual, variants of the same lexeme may belong to different subclasses. When meaning “(to) engage in physical or mental activity”, the verb (*to*) *work* is non-terminative, e.g.:

I have been working hard all day.

But when (*to*) *work* means “to produce as a result”, it is terminative, e.g.:

The storm worked great ruin [6, 122-125].

English terminative and non-terminative verbs can be to some extent correlated with Ukrainian verbs expressing the perfective and imperfective aspects (дієслова доконаного та недоконаного виду: *нести – принести, любити – розлюбити, сидіти – прусісти*).

Following is the brief summary of the general characteristics of English and Ukrainian verbs. In comparison with other parts of speech in modern English the verb has the most developed system of the word-change (словозміна), in which the grammatical categories of person, number, aspect, tense, mood and state (категорії особи, числа, виду, часу, способу і стану) are revealed.

In Ukrainian the verb as well forms a rich and complex system of forms, which express the same grammatical categories. Besides, some Ukrainian verb forms also express the category of gender.

In both languages the verb has the meaning of transitivity and intransitivity (перехідність та неперехідність).

Grammatical categories in both languages are expressed with the help of synthetic and analytical forms. The difference is that in the system of English verb analytical forms are dominant ones, whereas in Ukrainian synthetic forms are prevailing.

Verb forms in English and in Ukrainian are divided into personal and non-personal verbs (особові та неособові дієслова). Personal are those forms which perform only the function of predicate, and nonpersonal are those that are never used in this function and can be other parts of sentence. There is a great difference both in the composition of personal and non-personal verb forms and in their characteristics in English and Ukrainian [5, 70].

1. The category of person

In the Indo-European languages the category of person serves to present an action as associated by the speaking person with himself/herself (or group of persons including the speaker), the person or persons addressed, and the person or thing

(persons or things) not participating in the process of speech. Thus, in Ukrainian it is represented in sets of three-member opposeemes such as:

Читаю – читаєш – читає – читаємо – читаєте – читають.

Likewise in Modern German we have: *gehe – gehst – geht gehen – geht – gehen.*

In Modern English the category of person has certain peculiarities:

1. The category of person is practically represented by two-member opposeemes: *speak – speaks, am/ is – are.*

2. Person opposeemes are neutralized when associated with the “plural” meaning. A.I.Smirnitsky thinks that owing to the presence of the plural personal pronouns (we, you, they) person distinctions are felt in the plural of the verb as well, e.g.: *we know – you know – they know.*

The idea is open to criticism. If the verb itself (in the plural) does not show any person distinctions we are bound to admit that in Modern English the verb in plural has no person characteristics.

3. Person distinctions do not go with the meaning of the “past tense” in the English verbs, e.g.: *I (he) asked ...* (compare the Ukrainian, e.g.: *я (ти, він) спитав – вона спитала, воно спитало, вони спитали*) [8, 148-149].

In Ukrainian the category of person is closely connected with the category of person of pronouns. Its meaning is based on the opposition of six interconnected forms: 1, 2, 3 persons singular and 1, 2, 3 persons plural (*я читаю – ми читаємо, etc.*).

In Ukrainian personal forms are one of the main morphological characteristics of the verb: “due to their ability to point out the person as the doer or the source with which the action or the state is connected, these verb forms always perform the function of predicate in the sentence [8, 70].”

Almost all personal forms of Ukrainian verbs (except forms of the past tense and conditional mood) have personal endings of the first, second and third persons of singular and plural. These endings create the system of verb forms: *пиш-у, -єш, -є, -ємо, -єте, -уть; чита-ю, -єш, -є, -ємо, -єте, -ють; крич-у, -иш, -ить, -имо, -ите, -ать; сто-ю, -їш, -їть, -їмо, -їте, -ять.*

According to Yu. Zhluktenko [3, 70], unlike the Ukrainian language in English the category of person has only one formal expression, that is only in the third person singular of the Present Indefinite tense, where the ending -s is added to the verb stem, e.g.: *he writes*. This verb form is opposed to all other forms which do not have personal endings and so do not express the category of person. Besides, there are several verbs (*can, may, must, ought, sometimes also need and dare*) which do not have even this ending, and are not conjugated according to the person altogether.

In Ukrainian the forms of the past tense and conditional mood do not express the category of person. The meaning of person is rendered by these verbs by lexical means, by usage of the corresponding personal pronouns, e.g.: *я знав, ти знав, він знав, ми знали, ви знали; я знав би, ти знав би, ми знали б, ви знали б.*

In English forms of the past tense of verbs do not have any special characteristics either. In future tense forms there has been retained the difference of the first person from the forms of the second and the third persons in singular and in plural: *I (we) shall write; he (you, they) will write*. Correspondingly, this difference is

brought upon the forms of the conditional mood with help verbs *should* and *would*. But in speech this difference is also lost due to the fact that help verbs *shall* and *will* are shortened into one auxiliary element 'll (*I'll help, he'll write*), and *should* and *would* are shortened to 'd (*'d (h'd) like to see him*).

The function of person expression in the system of English verb has come over to the subject (as the main part of a sentence) to a large extent: in the first and second person this function is performed by the pronoun, and in the third person — both by the pronoun and by the noun. That is why in English the verb form is not practically used without a subject (except the imperative mood), e.g. when we have the question *What does he do?* we cannot answer simply **reads* or **sleeps*, we should necessarily say: *he reads* or *he sleeps* (compare in Ukrainian: *Що він робить? – Спить.*).

In Ukrainian personal verb forms are much more independent. They are very often used without the subject, at this the meaning of the personal verb form is not changed, e.g.: *За всіх скажу, за всіх переболію ...* (П. Тичина).

In these cases the person, having some connection with the action, can be clarified from the context. When this form cannot be clarified then the form of the third person plural acquires the non-personal or indefinite-personal meaning, e.g.: *У нас встають рано.* Also the second person singular without the verb acquires the generalized-personal meaning: *Без науки не обійдеши* [5, 70-71].

Impersonal verbs (безособові дієслова). In English and in Ukrainian there is a group of the so-called impersonal verbs, which, though can be used in the sentence in the personal form, “denote the action or the state not connected with any doer”, the action which is as though happening by itself.

In Ukrainian such verbs are used in the present and the future tense in the form of the third person singular, which is the least connected with defining some person – the doer, e.g.: *вечоріє, світатиме*. In the past tense they have the form of the third person singular, neuter gender: *світало, смеркало*. Also these verbs can be used in the form of the infinitive, which altogether denotes the action or the state beyond any connection with the person, e.g.: *починало вечорити*. So these verbs are not conjugated according to the person altogether.

In English impersonal verbs are also always used in the third person singular, e.g.: *it rains, it is snowing* or in the form of the infinitive: *it began to rain*.

Ukrainian impersonal verbs are never used with the subject, whereas English verbs of such a type are necessarily used with the formal subject, expressed by the pronoun *it*.

Ukrainian impersonal verbs are much more numerous than English ones. They include a bigger number of different semantic groups. For example, here belong the verbs having the following meanings:

1) natural phenomena: *морозить, похолодало, світає, вигоріло, вибило (градом)*;

2) some notions concerning the destiny, chance or independence of events from the person: *пощастило, не щастить, не вистачило*;

3) physical senses: *нудить, трясє, пече, коле*;

4) emotional states or the general state of the person: *гнітить, не терпиться, не спиться, добре працювалося* and others. English impersonal verbs include only

such verbs that denote nature phenomena: *it rains "іде дощ", it snows "іде сніг", it was freezing "морозило", it is getting dark "стає темно"* and others.

Alongside with such verbs that are used only in impersonal meaning in both languages there are verbs that can be met in the personal and in the impersonal meaning: *голка коле, в боці коле*; in English: *I am getting home – it is getting cold*.

In Ukrainian impersonal verbs can be created from personal ones with the help of the reflexive affix *-ся*: *спить – спиться, оре – орється, сіє – сіється, живе – живеться* and others. This way of formation is very productive, but in English there is no similar way of formation of impersonal verbs [5, 71-72].

2. The category of number and the category of gender

The category of number shows whether the action is associated with one doer or with more than one. Accordingly, it denotes something fundamentally different from what is indicated by the number of nouns. We see here not the “oneness” or “more-than-oneness” of actions, but the connection with the singular or plural doer. For example, *He eats three times a day* does not indicate a single eating but a single eater.

The category is represented in its purity in the opposeme *was – were* in the English language and accordingly in all analytical forms containing *was – were* (*was – writing – were writing, was written – were written*).

In *am – are, is – are* or *am, is – are* it is blended with person. Likewise in *speaks – speak* we actually have the “third person singular” opposed to the “non-third-person singular”.

Accordingly, the category of number is represented not fully enough in Modern English. Some verbs do not distinguish number at all because of their peculiar historical development: *I (we) can ..., he (they)*

must..., others are but rarely used in the singular because the meaning of “oneness” is hardly compatible with their lexical meanings, e.g.; *to crowd, to conspire*, etc. [29; 148-150].

In Ukrainian the category of number is expressed in the forms of three pairs of opposition: 1 person singular – 1 person plural, 2 person singular – 2 person plural, 3 person singular – 3 person plural (*я читаю – ми читаємо, etc.*).

Thus, it can be stated, that in both languages the category of number is tightly connected with the category of person. The system of the Ukrainian verb expresses the category of number very distinctly: the forms of singular and plural are characteristic of the majority of Ukrainian verbs in all three moods – indicative, imperative and conditional (дійсний, наказовий, умовний).

In some cases, though, the difference in verb forms has a purely formal character. Such is the usage of the first person plural with the generalizing meaning (*побачимо, instead of побачу*), the “authors” plurality (*ми переконалися у доповіді чи науковому творі, instead of я переконався*). The so called polite forms are, to some extent, close to them: *ви говорите* (addressing one person) and *ви говорите* (addressing a lot of persons).

In English the category of number is expressed still less distinctly than the category of person. In the forms of past and future tenses it is not revealed all together. In the present indefinite tense the expression of the category of number

can be the same form of the third person singular: (*he*) *writes*. But here the ending *- (e)s* does not involve all the singularity and the form *writes* is opposed not only to plural forms but also to other singular forms, e.g.: (*I*) *write*.

Somehow more distinctly the category of number is expressed in the forms of the verb *to be*, which has in present and past tenses the singular (*am, is, was*) and plural (*are, were*) forms. But here the forms of number are expressed in a suppletive way, that is not morphologically but lexically [6; 72-73].

The category of gender. The English verb does not have any forms which would express some gender characteristics. In Ukrainian the category of gender is expressed only by verb forms of the past tense (*брав, брала, брало*) and by the conditional mood (*взяв би, взяла б, взяло б*). In plural in all these cases we have the common form for all three genders (*брали б, взяли б*).

Gender forms are created in both cases with the help of the special suffix *-в-* (*-я*) and gender flexions *-а* (feminine gender), *-о-* (neuter gender), *zero flexion* (masculine gender). According to their origin these gender forms are by themselves the forms of short participles that entered the structure of ancient analytical forms of the past tense (*єсмь писаль*).

Verbal gender forms express the person, denoted by the personal pronoun or noun that fulfills the function of the subject. So, the verbal gender forms are the forms of coordination of the verb with the subject and that is why to a large extent they have the formal meaning (but of course there is no difference in the character of the action performed, dependent on this or that person) [6; 73].

3. The category of aspect

The category of aspect is a system of two member opposemes in the English language such as *works — is working, has worked — has been working, to work — to be working* showing the character of the action, that is whether the action is taken in its progress, in its development (*continuous aspect*) or it is simply stated, its nature being unspecified (*non-continuous aspect*).

In Ukrainian it is also a system of two member opposemes represented by the verbs of *perfective* and *imperfective aspects*. Verbs having similar lexical meanings often create aspect pairs (видові пари: *писати — надписати, читати — прочитати*).

In the English grammar the problem of aspect is a controversial one. There is but little consensus of opinion about this category in Modern English.

One meets different approaches to the English aspect which can be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Aspect is interpreted as a category of semantics rather than that of grammar.
2. Aspect is not recognized at all as a category of Modern English grammar.
3. Aspect is blended with tense and regarded as a part of the tense- aspect system.
4. Aspect and tense are recognized as two distinct grammatical categories.

According to the opinion of B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya [29; 135-136] the category expressed by the opposition of the continuous and non-continuous forms is not that of tense, for example, the forms *wrote — was writing* are opposed

not as tense forms. Both of them express the same tense – the past.

Likewise it would be correct to disagree that aspect as a grammatical category cannot be separated from tense. As we know, in actual speech all the grammatical meanings of a word always go together in a bunch. Thus in *tells* we find a) present tense, b) active voice, c) indicative mood, d) singular number, etc.

It does not follow, however, that we are unable to separate the category of mood from the category of tense or the category of voice from that of aspect. By opposing *tells* to *told* and *will tell* we single out the category of tense; by contrasting *tells* with *is telling* we bring to light the category of aspect. Thus aspect is as closely connected with tense, as it is with voice, mood, person, number, etc.

The categories of tense and aspect characterize an action from different points of view. The tense of a verb shows the time of action, while the aspect of a verb deals with the development of action.

With regard to the category of aspect verbs are divided into those that have aspect opposites and those that do not have. The latter are united by the oblique or lexico-grammatical, or potential meaning of “non-continuous aspect”. As usual, the neutralization of “aspect” opposeemes depends on the lexical meanings of the corresponding verbs.

Here is a brief enumeration of some groups of verbs usually having no aspect opposites in English:

a) Verbs presenting diverse relations as actions – belong, contain, consist, date, possess, resemble, result, etc.

b) Certain link-verbs (mostly those of “seeming”) such as *appear, look, prove, seem, turn out*, etc.

c) Verbs of “physical perception” (*see, hear, feel, smell*), denoting constant properties viewed as actions.

d) Verbs of “mental perceptions” (*believe, dislike, distrust, hate, hope, know, like, trust, understand*, etc.) which are likewise, verbs of weak dynamic force.

e) “Point-action” verbs, denoting instantaneous acts of very short duration, unless such acts are repeated (*burst, jump, drop, pick up*, etc.).

Sometimes, however, the potential meanings are actualized by the use of a “continuous aspect” opposite showing the progress of the action at a given moment or during a certain period and stressing its temporary, transient nature, as in *She was not hating him any more at that crucial moment* [29; 134-138].

In Ukrainian there can be met one-aspect verbs of the imperfective type (одновидові дієслова недоконаного виду: *базікати, почитувати*) as well as one-aspect verbs of the perfective type (одновидові дієслова доконаного виду: *розговоритися, начитатися, поподумати*).

Ukrainian verbs of the imperfective aspect have three tense forms: present, past and future, verbs of the perfective aspect – only the past tense form and the simple form of the future tense.

Ukrainian verbs of the perfective aspect (доконаний вид) point out towards certain limits in revealing of the denoted by them action or state, or certain limit in time of their revealing; we as if feel here the beginning and the end of certain action, the certain result either in the form of the past or the future tense (compare:

взяти, написати, підрахувати).

Verbs of imperfective aspect (недоконаного виду) express the unfinished character of some action, its durability; they do not show the limits of certain action; also they do not point towards the limits of some action from its beginning to the end even in the form of past tense, but the process of action is stressed here, e.g.: *брати, писати, рахувати*.

As a rule, Ukrainian verbs of perfective and imperfective aspects go alongside in pairs, and between them there is no other difference, besides the aspect characteristics. Aspect meanings are expressed not by endings, but by the stem of the verb.

Morphological means of the Ukrainian aspect form building are various: 1) prefixation (*питати – спитати, розпитати*), 2) suffixation (*списувати – списати, нагадувати, нагадати*), 3) vowel alternation (*вмирати – вмерти, везти – перевозити*), 4) stress shifting (*виміряти – виміряти, розкидати – розкидати*), 5) the use of different stems (*брати – взяти, говорити – сказати*) and others.

The aspect meaning of the verb influences its form structure. Verbs of perfective aspect that do not denote the process of action durability do not have forms of the present tense (compare: *написати, сказати*). Verbs of imperfective aspect have the forms of all three tenses. Besides, verbs of different aspects create their forms of the future tense unequally. Verbs of imperfective aspect can have two forms – synthetic and analytical: *казатиму, буду казати; стоятиму, буду стояти*; and verbs of perfective aspect can have only the synthetic form of the future tense: *сказати – скажу, стати – стану*. So, the aspect in Ukrainian is a lexical-grammatical category.

Ukrainian linguist Yu. Zhluktenko sums up the main peculiarities of the category of aspect expression in the contrasted languages in the following way [6; 74-75]:

1. The characteristic common feature of aspect forms in English and Ukrainian is their close connection with tense forms. Each tense form is simultaneously some aspect form and vice versa.

2. The essential difference between aspect forms in both languages concerns the correlation of the common and perfective aspects (співвідношення загального та доконаного видів). In this respect, the following fact is the most outstanding one: the action which happens regularly or is a repeated one, is rendered in English usually by forms of the common aspect, whereas in Ukrainian such an action cannot be rendered with the help of the perfective aspect and is regularly rendered by forms of the imperfective aspect.

It is explained by the fact that in Ukrainian in the forms of the perfective aspect the attention is paid to the fact of the action realization itself and simultaneously towards the full revealing of its content. In English for the forms of the common aspect the fact of the action realization itself comes to the first place, and the fact, whether it is fully realized or not, comes to the second place. That is why the perfective aspect should necessarily point out towards the full realization of the action. It naturally cannot render the action which is a repeated one, since it

cannot be considered as the action which is fully completed. That is why in such a sentence as *The sun rises in the East.* – *Сонце сходить на сході.*, in which it is spoken about the action which happens regularly, the action is rendered in English with the help of the common aspect form, whereas in Ukrainian – with the help of the imperfective aspect form. The perfective aspect cannot be used in such cases.

3. The English continuous aspect is “narrower” by its power of expression than the Ukrainian imperfective aspect. It is caused by the fact that forms of the continuous aspect in English do not only stress the process of action but also bring attention towards its concrete character, its visual expression (наочність), demonstrativeness, and present this action in the way as if it is happening before the speakers eyes. In its turn in Ukrainian the imperfective aspect points only towards the process of the action development, not singling out separately the meaning of concreteness. Depending on the context the Ukrainian imperfective aspect can express either the concrete action, happening at the moment of speaking, or the action of a more general and abstract character. Compare, e.g.:

• Take the kettle off the stove, the water is boiling. – *Зніміть чайник з плити: вода кипить.*

• Water boils at 100 degrees Centigrade. – *Вода кипить при 100° Цельсія.*

• Are the children already sleeping? – *Діти вже сплять?*

• In summer we sleep here. – *Влітку ми спимо тут.*

The complexity of the category of aspect lies in the fact that besides the mentioned basic kinds, we have a number of smaller aspect groups in both languages. Of course, they belong to some of the two basic types of aspect. For example, in English such subtypes are the following:

a) the subtype of repetition in usage (множкратність), which is expressed morphologically with the help of auxiliary verbs *will, would, used to*;

b) the subtype of the one-time short action: *have a smoke, give a smile*;

c) the subtype of the action beginning: *begin reading, grow dark*;

d) the subtype of the unlimited duration: *continue speaking, keep silence*;

e) the subtype of the action finishing: *stop smoking, come true*.

In Ukrainian such a subtype in the imperfective aspect are the verbs denoting the repetitive use: *приспівувати, примовляти, вибирувати*. The perfective aspect has the following subtypes:

a) the subtype of the action beginning: *зашуміти, заспівати*;

b) duration of the completed action: *поснав, посидів*;

c) achieving the result of the completed action: *вивчити, виконати*;

d) the sudden character of some action: *зрюкнути, стукнути*;

e) the suddenness or sharpness of the completed action: *рубонуту, ишовхонуту*;

f) the repetitive character of the limited in time action: *попереписувати, пороздавати, понаносити* [6; 76-77].

Therefore, the grammatical category of aspect of the English verb is usually revealed by the so called aspect-tense forms (видо-часові форми). Usually there are two basic kinds differentiated: 1) the common aspect (загальний вид, by the terminology used above – non-continuous aspect (нетривалий вид)) expressed by

Indefinite verb forms, and 2) continuous aspect (тривалий вид) expressed by Continuous verb forms. Forms of the common aspect render the mere fact of action whereas the forms of continuous aspect point out towards the process of some action, its development. Unlike the Ukrainian aspect, by expression of which a great role is played also by lexical means (word building affixes, usage of different stems), in English the mentioned above aspect forms are formed by morphological means.

Some grammars though express a different view concerning the types of the English aspect, witnessing again the controversial nature of this grammatical category. Thus “The Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English” expresses the view that there are two aspects in English: perfect and progressive (also known as continuous). Verbs that do not have aspect marked on them are said to have simple aspect.

The perfect aspect most often describes events or states taking place during the preceding period of time. The progressive aspect describes an event or state of affairs in progress or continuing. Perfect and progressive aspect can be combined with either present or past tense:

We have written to Mr. Steven, but he *has ignored* our letters (perfect aspect, present tense).

He had seen him picking purses (perfect aspect, past tense).

Jeff is growing his beard out (progressive aspect, present tense).

That’s why I *was thinking* I might hang onto the Volvo (progressive aspect, past tense).

Verb phrases can be marked for both aspects (perfect and progressive) at the same time:

God knows how long *I’ve been doing* it. *Have I been talking* out loud (present perfect progressive)?

He had been keeping it in a safety deposit box at the Bank of America (past perfect progressive).

Mind also that the authors of this grammar Douglas Biber, Susan Conrad and Geoffrey Leech do not speak about the expression of these aspects in combination with the future tense. They are of the opinion that verbs in English have only two tenses marked on them: present and past. Future time is usually marked in English with modals and semi-modals [32; 156-157]. Similar idea is expressed by the authors of “Cambridge Grammar of English” though its authors Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy do not discard altogether the idea of combination of the mentioned aspects with the future tense, presenting such examples as:

I’ll be working when you get home (will/shall + progressive aspect, often called future progressive).

We’ll have been living here twelve years soon (will/shall + perfect progressive aspect, often called future perfect progressive).

In three years’ time, we’ll have lived here 20 years (will/shall + perfect aspect, often called future perfect) [31; 405, 411, 412, 415].

4. The category of tense

The category of tense is a system of three member opposemes in the English

language such as *writes – wrote – will write, is writing – was writing – will be writing* showing the relation of the time of the action denoted by the verb to the moment of speech.

In Ukrainian the category of tense is closely connected with the category of person and is manifested via the personal forms. The tense of the Ukrainian verb is expressed morphologically in the indicative mood. The following tense forms can be distinguished: the present tense of the synthetic character (теперішній: *читаю*), the past tense of the synthetic character (минулий: *читав*), the pluperfect past tense (A. Levytsky uses the term “plyuskvamperfekt” to denote the Ukrainian past perfect forms [13; 134]) of the analytical character (давноминулий: *був читав*) and future tense of both the synthetic and the analytical character (майбутній: *читатиму, буду читати*). The imperative and the conditional moods do not possess the tense differentiation.

The time of the action or the event can be expressed lexically with the help of such words as *yesterday, next week, now, a year ago, at half past seven, on the fifth of March, in 1999*, etc. It can also be shown grammatically by means of the category of tense.

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical expression of time is somewhat similar to the difference between the lexical and the grammatical expression of number:

a) Lexically it is possible to name any definite moment or period of time: *a century, a year, a day, a minute*. The grammatical meaning of “tense” is an abstraction of only three particular tenses: the present, the past and the future.

b) Lexically a period of time is named directly (e.g. *on Sunday*). The grammatical indication of time is indirect: it is not time that a verb like *asked* names, but an action that took place before the moment of speech.

c) As usual, the grammatical meaning of “tense” is relative. *Writes* denotes a “present” action because it is contrasted with *wrote* denoting a “past” action and with *will write* naming a “future” action. *Writing* does not indicate the time of the action because it has no tense opposites. *Can* has only a “past tense” opposite, so it cannot refer to the past, but it may refer to the present or future (* *can do it yesterday* is impossible, but *can do it today, tomorrow* is normal).

The correlation of time and tense is connected with the problem of the absolute and relative use of tense grammemes.

We say that some tense is absolute if it shows the time of the action in relation to the present moment (the moment of speech). This is the case in the Ukrainian sentences:

Він працює на фірмі. Він працював на фірмі. Він буде працювати на фірмі.
The same in English, e.g.:

He works in a firm. He worked in a firm. He will work in a firm.

Quite often tense reflects the time of an action not with regard to the moment of speech but to some other moment in the past or in the future, indicated by the tense of another verb, e.g.:

Він сказав (скаже), що він працює на фірмі (працював, буде працювати на фірмі).

Here the tenses of the principal clauses *сказав (скаже)* are used absolutely, while all the tenses of the subordinate clauses are used relatively. For example, the present tense of *працює* does not refer to the present time but to the time of the action *сказав* in the first case and *скаже* in the second case.

In English such a relative use of tenses is also possible with regard to some future moment, e.g.:

He will say that he works (worked, will work) in a firm.

But, as a rule, this is impossible with regard to a moment in the past, as in *He said that he works (will work, worked) in a firm*. Instead an English speaking person should use *He said that he worked (would work, had worked) in a firm*. The point here is that in English tenses, as a rule, are used absolutely, that is with regard to the moment of speech [29; 142-146].

Such linguists as B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya besides the category of tense differentiate two more verb categories: 1) the category of posteriority, and 2) the category of order.

The category of posteriority (слідування) is the system of two-member opposemes, like *shall come* and *should come, will be writing* and *would be writing*, showing whether an action is posterior with regard to the moment of speech or to some moment in the past.

As we know, a “past tense” verb denotes an action prior to the moment of speech and a “future tense” verb names a posterior action with regard to the moment of speech. When priority or posteriority is expressed in relation to the moment of speech, we call it absolute. But there may be relative priority or posteriority, with regard to some other moment. A form like *had written*, for instance, expresses an action prior to some moment in the past, that is it expresses relative priority. The form *should enter* expresses posteriority with regard to some past moment, that is it expresses relative posteriority.

This category is not distinguished by all linguists since the issues presented here are very often discussed within the category of tense (sequence of tenses of the English language) [29; 146-147].

The category of order (time correlation) (категорія часової співвіднесеності) is a system of two-member opposemes, such as *writes – has written, wrote – had written, writing – having written, to be written – to have been written*, etc. showing whether an action is viewed as prior to (“perfect”), or irrespective of (“non-perfect”), other actions or situations. The interpretation of this category also belongs to controversial problems of the English grammar [29; 130].

Summing up the main points concerning the category of tense expression in the contrasted languages, the following should be stated.

The grammatical category of tense expresses the relation of the action or state to the moment of speaking. In both languages it is closely connected with the category of aspect and is expressed by the majority of forms.

In Ukrainian the verb has the forms of the present tense (*роблю*), the future tense (two forms: *робитиму, буду робити*), the past tense (*робив*) and the pluperfect tense (давноминулий) (*був робив*). From these forms the present, past and future of the type *робитиму* are synthetic ones and the composite future tense

as well as the pluperfect tense are analytical.

In English the verb has three main tenses: the present, the past and the future. Each tense form has the common (or non-continuous) and the continuous aspect. Only in the common aspect the present and the past tenses are synthetic ones in the affirmative form. In the interrogative and in the negative forms these tenses, similar to other tense forms and tense-aspect forms, are analytical ones.

According to the linguist A. Smirnitsky in English there is a special grammatical category of **tense reference** (часова віднесеність) which is expressed with the help of special tense forms, known as Perfect and Perfect-Continuous forms. This category is by itself the mediate (опосередкований) complex form of tense reference. The reference to some tense is complicated by the fact that by this it is pointed out to the antecedence/precedence (передування) to some event or phenomena. Unlike this imperfect forms are the categorical forms of the immediate, simple tense reference (безпосередня, проста часова віднесеність).

The special class of verb forms is created by four English tense forms of the so called "Future-in-the-Past". Their basic meaning is the action which is happening during the time, which was future from the point of view of the past moment, that is from the point of view of the speakers who produced their utterance in the past [6; 78].

4.1. The Present Tense

In Ukrainian the forms of present tense are characteristic only of the verbs of the imperfective aspect (*пишу, думаю*). In English all the verbs without exception can be used in the present tense.

According to the character of personal endings in the present tense Ukrainian verbs of the imperfective aspect (as well as the verbs of the perfective aspect with the future meaning) are subdivided into two conjugations (дієвідміни). The first conjugation (перша дієвідміна) includes the verbs, which in the third person plural have endings **-уть (-ють)** and in other personal forms the vocal **-е (-є)**, e.g.: *везуть – везе, везеш, веземо; читають – читає, читаємо* and so on. The second conjugation includes the verbs, which in the third person plural have the endings **-ать (-ять)** and in other personal forms the vocal **-и (-ї)**, e.g.: *лежать – лежиш, лежить, лежимо; стоятъ – стоїш, стоїть, стоїмо* and others.

The English language has four present tenses: Present Indefinite, Present Continuous, Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous. The difference between all these forms is caused by the general content of the grammar category to which they belong, that is the category of aspect or the category of time reference.

The basic meaning of the Present Indefinite tense is the action which is happening at the time always including to some extent the moment of speaking. The character of the course of action (характер перебігу дії) can be different: it can be the continuous action (*the sun shines – світить сонце*), the completed action (*I meet him again я знову з ним зустрічаюсь*), the action indefinite concerning its duration or completeness (*I understand you – я вас розумію*). Sometimes it renders the repeated character of the action: *I often notice things that escape you – я часто помічаю речі, на які ви не звертаєте уваги*.

Similar to Ukrainian present tense it often renders past or future events. Due to this, events acquire a more vivid character, e.g.; *Then he comes to me and says ... I от він приходить до мене і каже. Tomorrow I go home. Завтра я їду додому.*

The Present Continuous tense renders the action as the process, which is actually happening at the moment of speaking: *He is looking at you. – Він дивиться на вас.* The action expressed by this tense is regarded to some extent as a temporary one and its duration is considered as a limited one. For example, we can say: *The man is standing in the garden. – Людина стоїть у садку.*, but we can hardly say: *The house is standing in the garden. – Будинок зараз стоїть у садку.* This tense form can also be used in the future meaning: *He is coming tomorrow. – Він приїздить завтра.*

The meanings of the Present Perfect tense are very different. In many cases it has the relative-tense meaning (відносно-часове значення), e.g.: *He has just passed. – Він щойно тут пройшов.* In other cases the meaning of the action result is rendered: *He has arrived. – Він уже прибув.* That is why some linguists consider perfect forms as a separate resultative aspect. Usually the Perfect Tense renders the single action, not included into the sequence of successive events that happen one after another that is why it is not used in story telling. In Ukrainian it is usually rendered with the help of the past tense.

The Present Perfect Continuous renders the action as the process, which is brought maximally close to the moment of speaking. Here the duration of process is stressed, e.g.: *I have been living here for two months. – Я живу тут уже два місяці.* Sometimes it can be substituted by the Present Perfect in such situations: *I have lived here for two months. – the meaning remains the same.* In Ukrainian it is usually rendered with the help of the present tense.

One more peculiar feature of the English aspect-tense system is the availability of special “expressive forms”, which render the same action that the corresponding tense form but with the greater emotionality and intensity. Such an expressive present tense is formed with the help of the auxiliary verb “do”, e.g.: *I do know him. – Я таки знаю його [6; 78-80].*

4.2. The Past Tense

In Ukrainian we have two verb forms of the past tense: the past and the pluperfect tenses (минулий та давноминулий).

The past tense is formed from the base of the infinitive with the help of the suffix -в (-л) as well as gender flexions: the *zero flexion* for the masculine gender, -а for the feminine gender and -о for the neuter gender. When the base of the infinitive finishes with the consonant, then the suffix -в is absent in the masculine gender (e.g.: *нести – ніс, сікти – сік, взяти – віз, but грати – грав*). If the base of the infinitive contains the suffix -ну it is omitted in the past tense: *мерзнути – мерз, сохнути – сох* (except the stressed position: *тягнути – тягнув*).

The Ukrainian pluperfect tense (давноминулий) is created analytically by combining the forms of the past tense form of the verb — the carrier of the lexical meaning, with the corresponding form of the past tense of the auxiliary verb *бути*, e.g.: *ходив був, ходила була, ходили були; пішов був, позичив був.* Such forms are

more often created from imperfective verbs and are used to denote an action which happened a long time ago, or to denote an action which happened before another past action or was completed under the influence of another subsequent action.

In modern Ukrainian forms of the pluperfect tense are gradually becoming less used, being substituted by usual past forms. Very often the pluperfect tense can be met in the deformed form: the help verb *бути* is used in similar impersonal form *було* in singular and in plural for all genders, e.g.: *Коли було він приходив до нас ...; Коли було вона співала ...; Коли було вони спитають ...*. According to its meaning this form renders the common or the repeated action in the past.

In English we have two aspect forms of the past tense: the Past Indefinite and the Past Continuous tenses. Besides there are two forms of the past tense that reveal the category of tense reference: the Past Perfect and the Past Perfect Continuous.

The Past Indefinite tense denotes the action which happened during the period of time in the past, usually indicating the completed character of the action. This verb form is widely used in narrations, where it renders the subsequent bound with each other events. According to the formation of its aspect-tense form all English verbs are subdivided into two groups of regular and irregular verbs.

The Past Continuous tense underlines that the action is in the process and shows its concrete character. It usually shows the simultaneous course of action with another past action or some definite past moment. This verb form can be compared with the past form of the imperfective aspect, but the latter one has a wider meaning, which is not limited by the simultaneous character of the action.

Of the two relative past tenses Past Perfect is more often used, showing that the action happened before another past action or before some definite moment in the past. The characteristic feature of this tense form is its ability to render the complete character of the action, whereas the Ukrainian pluperfect means first of all the uncompleted action, and secondly it only stresses the remoteness of some past action comparing to the moment of speaking. Formally these two tenses differentiate themselves also by different help verbs (*had* in English and *був* Ukrainian).

Another relative past tense – the Past Perfect Continuous – renders the course of the action from its beginning till the end in the past; the starting point of such an action is usually indicated and goes before some definite moment upon which actually the action is centered. This tense form is used rather seldom.

The expressive form of the past tense is also widely used. It is formed from the auxiliary verb “*to do*” in the past tense (“*did*”) and the base of the infinitive, e.g.: *But he did see them.* – *Але він таки побачив їх.* In Ukrainian such shades of meaning are rendered with the help of the corresponding situation as well as lexical means – adverbs *дійсно, справді*, particles *таки, же, ж* and others [6; 80-82].

4.3. The Future Tense. The tense form “Future-in-the-past” and sequence of tenses of the English language.

The Future Tense. In Ukrainian forms of the future tense are not created equally for all verbs. Verbs of the perfective aspect, which do not have forms of

the present tense, form the future tense with the help of personal endings of present tense, e.g.: *прочитаю, напишеш, розкажу* (compare: *читаю, пишеш, кажу*). So the meaning of the future tense is connected here not with endings but with the word formation means: prefixation, change or addition of the suffix, the change of the root vowel, the stress change and different combination of these means.

Verbs of the imperfective aspect have two forms of the future tense:

1) the analytical one which is created from the personal form of the future tense of the help verb *бути* and the infinitive of the conjugated verb, e.g.: *буду працювати, будемо співати*; 2) the synthetic form, which is formed by adding to the infinitive base of the conjugated verb personal endings, created from the former forms of the verb *яти* (*иняти, йняти*), e.g.: *писати-му, -меш, -ме, -мемо, -мете, -муть*.

In English all verbs form their future tense analytically. According to the character of the course of action in English there are several aspect-tense forms to denote the action taking place in the future.

The Future Indefinite is formed with the help of auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will* with the infinitive of the verb which expresses the lexical meaning of this construction. This form can render either the single or the repeated action. In Ukrainian it corresponds to the future of both the perfective aspect and the imperfective aspect, depending on the content of a sentence.

The Future Continuous tense is formed by the combination of the auxiliary verb “*to be*” in the Future Indefinite and the Present Participle of the verb expressing the lexical meaning. This form renders the action as a process that will be taking place during some limited period of time, including some definite future moment.

One more future tense – the Future Perfect – is formed with the help of the auxiliary verb “*to have*” in Future indefinite and Past Participle of the verb, expressing the lexical meaning. This verb form renders the action that should finish before a definite moment in the future. The form of the Future Perfect Continuous is used much more rarely.

Unlike the English language where the usage of the future tense is impossible in conditional and some other tense sentences, in Ukrainian sentences the usage of the future tense is not limited by the type of the sentence.

The tense form “Future-in-the-past” and sequence of tenses of the English language. The typical feature of tense forms of the English verb is the fact that many of them render the action that happened not according to the moment of speaking but in accordance with some “center” of the corresponding tense. The vivid example of it is the Future-in-the-Past tense, which renders the action that should take place after some definite past moment; in this case such a point is considered as a “tense center”. These tense forms are created with the help of auxiliary verbs “*should*” and “*would*” and the corresponding infinitive form of the verb, expressing the lexical meaning. Such tense forms are used in Indefinite and Continuous aspects, also in the category of tense reference (the Future-Perfect-in-the-Past). The peculiarity of “future-in-the-past” forms is the dependable

character of their usage: these forms are usually used in complex sentences, when the so called sequence of tenses takes place.

The phenomenon of sequence of tenses is the characteristic regularity of English syntax. Its sense is that the verb-predicate of the subordinate sentence renders the action not in accordance to the moment of speaking, but in accordance to the action expressed by the verb in the main sentence (if the later one is used in the past tense). That is why in such complex sentences the predicate is as if coordinated with the form of the past tense, by which the predicate of the main sentence is expressed, and is also expressed by the past tense or “future-in-the-past” form.

In Ukrainian in such cases we can observe another usage of tense forms. For example, in the sentence with indirect speech *Він сказав, що ця дівчина вчиться в школі* the action *вчиться* is considered as such that is happening simultaneously with the action of the verb-form *сказав*. Using forms of the present tense *вчиться*, the author as if considers the action of the subordinate sentence from the point of view of the moment, when there happened the action expressed by the verb-form *сказав*. So, in such a case the author of the sentence uses in the indirect speech this or that tense form as if being carried in his thoughts into the past [6; 83-86].

5. The category of voice

The category of voice is the system of two member opposemes (*loves – is loved, loving – being loved, to love – to be loved, has loved – has been loved, etc.*) which show whether the action is represented as issuing from the subject (**the active voice**) or as experienced by its object (**the passive voice**).

In Modern Ukrainian there are two voices differentiated: active and passive. The separate group includes reflexive verbs with the postfix-*ся* (*голитися, гніватися*). The passive voice can also be formed by the passive participle and non-personal form of participle ending in *-НО, -то* (*товариство організоване, товариство організовано*). In Ukrainian the category of voice is characteristic only of transitive verbs.

Voice is one of those categories which show the close connection between language and speech. A voice opposeme is the unit of a language system, but the essential difference between its members is in their combinability in speech. The “active voice” member has obligatory connections with subject words and optional ones with object words. The “passive voice” member, on the contrary, forms obligatory combinations with object words and optional ones with subject words. Compare:

He loves (her).

She is loved (by him).

I want John to read (the letter).

I want the letter to be read (by John).

The category of voice also shows the links between morphology and syntax. Being a morphological category, voice often manifests syntactical relations. The voice opposites of Unites indicate whether the subject of the sentence denotes the doer or the recipient of the action. Compare: *She asked ...* and *She was asked*.

With regard to the category of voice verbs are divided into those that have voice opposites and those which do not have. The second subclass comprises subjective verbs and some objective verbs denoting actions of weak dynamic force (in which the meaning of “action” is hardly felt) like *belong, become* (“be suitable”), *cost, fail, lack, last, own, possess, resemble*, etc.

The content of all voice opposemes is the same: two particular meanings of “active” and “passive” voice united by the general meaning of “voice”. All the other meanings found in both members of the opposeme are irrelevant within the opposeme.

The form of voice opposemes in English seems to differ considerably. In the opposeme *ask – am asked* the “active” member has a zero grammatical morpheme and the “passive” member has a complicated positive morpheme (*am ... -ed*). In *asks – is asked* both members have positive grammatical morphemes (*-s*) and (*is ... -ed*). In *will ask – will be asked* the forms of the grammatical morphemes are still more complicated. But this variety of forms can be generalized. Then the “active” member can be regarded as unmarked and the “passive” member as marked by the combination of one of the forms of the lexeme “*be*” used as a grammatical word-morpheme and the grammatical morpheme of Participle II, in the formula representation *be + PII*. Compare: *to write – to be written*.

Opinions differ as to the voice system of Modern English. Though most linguists, apparently, recognize only two voices in Modern English – the active voice and the passive voice, some speak also of the reflexive voice expressed with the help of the semantically weakened self-pronouns, as in *He cut himself while shaving*.

Besides the three voices mentioned above, B. Illyish finds two more voices in Modern English – the “reciprocal” voice expressed with the help of *each other, one another* and the “neuter” (“middle”) voice as seen in *The door opened, The numbers would not add, The college was filling up*, etc.

According to B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, these theories do not carry much conviction:

1) In cases like *He washed himself* it is not the verb that is reflexive but the pronoun *himself* used as a direct object.

2) *Washed* and *himself* are words belonging to different lexemes. They have different lexical and grammatical meanings.

3) If we regard *washed himself* as an analytical word, it is necessary to admit that the verb has the categories of gender (*washed himself – washed herself*), person – non-person (*washed himself – washed itself*), that the categories of number and person are expressed twice in the word *washes himself*, etc.

4) Similar objections can be raised against regarding *washed each other, washed one another* as analytical forms of the reciprocal voice. The difference between “*each other*” and “*one another*” would become a grammatical category of the verb.

5) A number of verbs express the “reflexive” and “reciprocal” meanings without the corresponding pronouns, e.g.: *He always washes in cold water. Kiss and befriends* [29; 125-130].

According to Yu. Zhluktenko [6; 86], the issue concerning forms of the voice expression in the system of English and Ukrainian verb cannot be considered a finally solved problem. The majority of grammars express the opinion that the English language has three voices:

1) the active voice, which shows that the object or the person, expressed by the subject, performs the action; 2) the passive voice, which shows that the action of the predicate is directed towards the person or the object, expressed by the subject, but this action is not performed by them; 3) the reflexive voice, which shows that the action is centered upon the doer of the action himself/herself.

V. Ilyish believes that there are five voices or states in English: indicative (дійсний), reflexive (зворотний), medium (середній), passive (пасивний) and reciprocal (взаємний). O. Smirnitsky claims that the so called reflexive and reciprocal states are not the grammar forms, these are the combinations of the active state of transitive verbs with pronoun objects (займенникові додатки) and the difference between them is only in the object character (характер додатка). According to his opinion in English there are only two states: the active and the passive ones.

The Ukrainian language has four major states: 1) the active/ or the indicative state (активний, або дійсний), which includes all the transitive verbs; 2) the medium (середній), which includes all intransitive verbs with the meaning of movement or state (*бігти, летіти, спати, хворіти*); 3) the passive state (пасивний), which includes the verbs that render the action performed upon the object (*розмиватися, відбудовуватися*); they usually have the ending *-ся*; 4) the reflexive state (зворотний), also including the verbs in *-ся*, which render the action, the object of which is the acting person (*повертатися, роздягатися, вмиватися, чепуритися*) [6; 86-87].

Besides these mentioned groups there are differentiated some smaller state groups of Ukrainian verbs. For example, the separate group of verbs renders the reciprocal action, which is happening between two, or among a bigger number of acting persons, e.g.: *зустрічатися, листуватися, умовлятися*. Other verbs render the active-non- object/objectless action (активно-безоб'єктна дія), which is spread upon certain objects that are not mentioned: (*собака*) *кусається*, (*кінь*) *брикається*. The verbs with the ending *-ся* of the type (*не*) *хочеться*, (*не*) *спиться*, (*не*) *лежиться* are close to the medium state.

The Ukrainian grammarian M. Zhovtobryukh finds only three states in the Ukrainian language: the active (the indicative), which includes all transitive verbs, the reflexive-medium and the passive states. The last two include verbs with the ending *-ся*. According to his opinion intransitive verbs, rendering the movement or the state (*іти, спати, сміятися*), do not possess the category of state.

The peculiarity of the Ukrainian language is the multiple meaning (багатозначність) of the verbal suffix *-ся*. Verbs with this suffix belong to different states, for example: a) the passive state: *змінюється, затверджується*; b) the reflexive: *умиваюся*; c) the reciprocal: *змагаються, б'ються*; d) the active-non-object: *кусається, ганяється*; e) the passive-non-object: (*скло*) *б'ється*, (*стіл*) *розсувається* and others [6; 87].

Some verbs in Ukrainian have only the reflexive form, that is they are used only with the suffix *-ся*: *любуватися, боятися, надіятися, сміятися* and others. Also there are a lot of verbs which cannot be combined with this suffix, that is they are unable to create the form of the reflexive state: *лягти, сохнути, сісти, виснути, гнити, вмерти, пахнути, шуміти* and others.

When we compare the building of the state forms in English and in Ukrainian (I defended him “я захищав його”, I was defended by him “мене захищав він”, I defended myself “я захищався”) then it can be easily noticed that in English the state is a more grammatical category than in Ukrainian, where it has a lexical-grammatical character. In Ukrainian we cannot build forms of different states from one and the same verb with such an ease as we do it in English. Besides in English a big number of verbs can act both as transitive and intransitive depending on the context where they are used, whereas in Ukrainian the meaning of a certain state is attached to a certain verb and determines the whole system of its forms [6; 87].

In Ukrainian the forms of the verb state are mainly synthetic ones, and in English analytical forms are prevailing.

5.1. The passive voice (state)

In English the passive state of the verb is formed by combining of the help verb “*to be*” in the corresponding tense form with the Participle II of the main verb, which expresses its lexical meaning: *He was invited*. The peculiarity of such a passive construction is that it renders two different meanings: a) the meaning of the state passiveness (пасив стану), e.g.: *The house is built* “*будинок (є) збудований*”, b) the meaning of the passiveness of the action (пасив дії) – “*будинок будується*”. This contradiction between the form and the content of the grammar category is especially obvious if we take into consideration other European languages, which have different forms to express the passiveness of the state and the passiveness of the action.

Thus in Ukrainian the passiveness of the state is expressed analytically. This form is built by combining the help verb *бути* in the corresponding tense with the past participle of the verb, expressing the lexical meaning: *був розроблений, був побудований*. This form is created only by verbs of the perfective aspect. They also create a widely used construction with the passive meaning with non-personal indeclinable forms in *-но, -то*, e.g.: *будинок було збудовано, статтю було опрацьовано, роботу буде розпочато* and others.

The absence of such outer characteristic features in English is compensated by the system of other language means: 1) context; 2) the form of the auxiliary verb; 3) semantics of a participle.

One more essential characteristic feature and striking difference in building passive in English and Ukrainian is the different way of usage of the meaning of verb transitivity to form the passive state.

The Ukrainian language forms the passive state mainly from the verbs which have the direct transitive meaning (прямо-перехідне значення), that is they transform the direct object of the active state construction into the subject of the passive construction: *сонце освітлює долину – долина освітлюється сонцем*. In Ukrainian there are also parallel constructions bearing the passive meaning:

долина освітлювана сонцем/була/буде освітлена сонцем (constructions with passive participle), долину освітлювано/освітлено сонцем (forms with -но,- то) [15; 310-311].

A special and very characteristic feature of the modern English language is the fact that it uses all the meanings of the verb transitiveness to form the passive: the direct transitiveness, the indirect transitiveness without the preposition and the indirect transitiveness with the preposition. In other words English passive constructions are formed with the usage in the subject role of any object of the active construction: the direct object, the indirect object or the prepositional object.

So, in the English language we have the following typical passive constructions:

a) with the usage of the direct-transitive meaning of the verb: *The house was built of stone* (Будинок будувався з каменю).

Such constructions are also characteristic of the Ukrainian language.

b) with the usage of the indirect-transitive meaning of the verb: *She was given a book* (їй дали книжку).

Such constructions are impossible in Ukrainian. The main peculiarity of such a usage of the passive state in English is the fact that in such cases the passive is formed from verbs which have two objects: the direct and the indirect one (*to give something to somebody*). The subject of the passive construction corresponds to the indirect object of the active construction whereas the direct object remains without changes and functions in the passive construction as the so called retained object (“утриманий” об’єкт).

c) with the usage of the indirect transitiveness with the prepositional form of government (керування), e.g.: *The doctor was sent for* (За лікарем послали).

Such forming of passive is altogether uncharacteristic of other Indo-European languages.

Especially peculiar are passive constructions used not with a transitive meaning of the verb but its circumstantial relations (з використанням не перехідного значення дієслова, а його обставинних зв’язків), e.g.: *The room has not been lived in* (У кімнаті ніхто не жив); *This bed was not slept in* (На цьому ліжкові ніхто не спав).

Here the role of the subject of passive construction is performed not by a former object of the active construction but by a former circumstance of place: *Nobody has lived in the room. Nobody slept in this bed*. In Ukrainian such a passive construction is rendered either by an active one: *У цій кімнаті ніхто не жив*, or by the indefinite-personal construction: *У цій кімнаті не жили* [6; 88-90].

In English there can be met one more passive construction – the so called “get-passive” (*get* + Participle II). The peculiarity of such a construction is that verbs have a different emphasis when used with the get-passive rather than the fie-passive. With fie, they express a state, such as the state of ‘being married’ or ‘being involved’. With get, they are dynamic, describing the processing of getting into that state. Compare the examples:

I was married for a couple of years in the seventies. – *She got married* when she was eighteen.

They *weren't involved* for that long. – And then we start to *get involved* in local society.

You wouldn't *be stuck* at home. – My head *got stuck* up there.

Get-passives are typical only in conversation. The written registers usually use *become* instead [32; 171-172].

5.2. The reflexive voice (state)

The meaning of reflexiveness is rendered in English with the help of combining the transitive verb with the reflexive pronoun of the corresponding person and number, e.g.: *he hides himself* (*він ховається*). In grammars of the English language this combination is considered to be the analytical form of the reflexive state of the verb.

There are some other views concerning this issue. For example, O. Smirnitsky denies the existence of the special grammar form for the reflexive state in English and considers that in the mentioned above examples the simple combination of the verb with its object takes place.

Linguists supporting the first point of view do not deny that the reflexive pronoun, used with the verb in this combination, is not to the same degree syntactically independent as other objects (compare: *he dressed himself* “*він одягнувся*” and *he dressed the child* “*він одягнув дитину*”). Such an object cannot be used in the role of the subject of the passive construction (we cannot say: *himself was dressed*), we cannot put a question to it similarly as to the other direct object (we cannot answer the question: “*Whom did he dress?*” with: *himself*).

Among the forms of the reflexive state in English there are differentiated two main cases:

1) the proper reflexive meaning of such forms (власно зворотне значення) if they show that the subject has as the object of its action itself, e.g.: *I dress myself* (*я одягаюся*), *we wash ourselves* (*ми вмиваємося*) etc. With the verbs that render regular, often repeated actions, the pronoun can be absent: *I dress*, *we wash*.

2) the medium-reflexive meaning (середнє-зворотне значення) of these forms when they show that the action is not transferred upon some other object or person, but is closed upon the subject itself, is centered upon it, e.g.: *stretch oneself* (*протягтися*), *enjoy oneself* (*одержувати задоволення*), *worry oneself* (*турбуватися*).

In Ukrainian the reflexive state is formed in a synthetic way. The affix *-ся*, which is added to transitive verbs, has become abstract to such an extent that it has almost lost its former pronoun meaning *себе* (compare: *кусався* and *кусав себе*).

Ukrainian verbs of the reflexive (or as they are sometimes called of the reflexive-medium state) are also subdivided according to their meaning into several groups:

1) proper reflexive (власне зворотні): *умиватися*, *взуватися*, *голитися*, *одягатися*;

2) indirectly reflexive (непрямо-зворотні): *готуватися* (до зими), *запасатися* (їжею), *збиратися* (в дорогу);

3) reciprocal-reflexive (взаємно зворотні): *боротися*, *змагатися*, *зустрічатися*, *листуватися*;

4) general reflexive (загальнозворотні): зупинятися, просуватися, турбуватися, журитися, дивуватися, сердитися;

5) active-non-object (активно-безоб'єктні): кусатися, дряпатися, жалитися, ганятися, щипатися;

6) passive-qualitative (пасивно-якісні): рватися, гнутися, розбиватися;

7) reflexive passive (зворотно-пасивні): пригадуватися, уявлятися.

In terms of their structure English reflexive forms differ from the corresponding Ukrainian forms, that is English reflexive pronouns are not deprived of their semantics and have not acquired the grammatical character to such an extent as the Ukrainian suffix *-ся*. That is why they have not merged with the verb into one whole as it happened in Ukrainian [6; 90-91].

Ukrainian forms with *-ся* can be met in passive constructions in which the name of a person acting as an action doer is in the instrumental case and the name of an object upon which the action is directed is in the nominative case. Thus, such constructions as *бюджет засвідчується Прем'єром, курсова робота пишеться студентом, заява підписується завідувачем* are considered to be the violation of language norms. One should use instead: *Прем'єр засвідчує бюджет, студент пише курсову роботу, завідувач підписує заяву*. One more type of constructions, presenting the action as if happening by itself, is also not typical for the Ukrainian language. Thus, instead of *договори укладаються, планується робота секцій, видання друкувалися* we should use *договори укладають/укладаємо, заплановано/плануємо роботу секцій, видання надруковано/надрукували* [15; 311-312].

6. The category of mood

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view.

In the sentences *He listens attentively; Listen attentively; You would have listened attentively if you had been interested*, we deal with the same action of listening, but in the first sentence the speaker presents the action as the one taking place in reality, whereas in the second sentence the speaker urges the listener to perform the action, and in the third sentence the speaker presents the action as imaginary. These different relations of the action to reality are expressed by different mood-forms of the verb: *listens, listen, would have listened*. Similar examples can be found in Ukrainian (*Сонце сходить. Зійди сонце! Якщо би сонце зійшло*).

The meaning of the three moods is distinguished in the language structure not so much by the opposition of individual forms (as in the case in the opposemes of other categories), as by the opposition of the systems of forms each mood possesses.

One of the most important differences between the indicative and other moods is that the meaning of "tense" does not go with the meanings of conditional and imperative mood. "Tense" reflects the real time of a real action. The imperative and conditional moods represent the action not as real, but as desired or imagined, and the notions of the real time are discarded.

Thus, the category of mood reveals the relation of the denoted action (позначувана дія) to reality. In both languages there are verb forms of the

Indicative mood (дійсний), the Imperative mood (наказовий) and the Conditional mood (умовний).

6.1. The Indicative and Imperative moods

The Indicative mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed system including all the categories of the verb. Semantically it is a fact mood. It serves to present an action as a fact of reality. It is the “most objective” or the “least subjective” of all the moods. It conveys minimum personal attitude to the fact. This becomes particularly obvious in such sentences as *Water consists of oxygen and hydrogen* where *consists* denotes an actual fact, and the speaker’s attitude is neutral.

Forms of the indicative mood serve to denote the action or the state that correspond to the actual reality (відповідають реальній дійсності).

All the forms of the Indicative mood in English and Ukrainian have already been considered by us previously, when we dwelled upon the categories of person, number, tense and state. The characteristic feature of the Indicative mood is its connection with the category of tense: it is expressed by the forms of the present, past and future tenses.

The imperative mood represents an action as a command, urging, or request to ones interlocutor. It is a direct expression of one’s will. Therefore it is much more “subjective” than the indicative mood. Its modal meaning is very strong and distinct.

The imperative mood is morphologically the least developed of all moods. In fact, the grammeme *write, know, search, do*, etc. is the only one regularly met in speech. The “continuous” and “passive” opposites of this grammeme (*be writing, be searhing*, etc.; *be known, be warned*, etc.) are very rare.

Some linguists are of the opinion that Modern English possesses analytical forms of the imperative mood since the first and the third persons are built up with the help of the semantically weakened unstressed *let*, as in *Let him come, Let us go*, etc. [29; 140-156].

Ukrainian verb forms of the imperative mood similar to English ones also render the order, wish, appeal, demand, request or some other types of inducement (спонукання) to perform some action.

In Ukrainian forms of the imperative mood are built from the base of the present tense:

a) for the second person singular with the ending *-и* (*пиши, іди*) or without endings (*сядь, встань, читай*);

b) for the first person plural with the ending *-імо* (*несімо, ходімо*) or *-мо* (*читаймо, станьмо*);

c) for the second person plural by means of adding the endings *-іть* (*несіть, ідіть*) or *-те* (*читайте, станьте*).

The third person singular and plural forms of the imperative mood are built analytically by combining forms of the third person of the present or future tense of the indicative mood with the particle *хай* (*нехай*): *Хай він робить (зробить). Нехай вони прийдуть (приходять). Хай живе Україна!* Attention should be paid to the fact that in Ukrainian such forms as *давайте знайомитися, давайте зроби-*

мо, давайте прочитаємо etc. are absent. The lexeme *давайте* can be used only in its direct meaning, for example: *Давайте дітям садовину й городину*. We regard as normative the following constructions: *будьмо знайомі, зробімо, прочитаймо* [15; 316].

In the modern English language the system of forms of the imperative mood is much simpler than in Ukrainian. In relation to the second person singular and plural only one common form of the imperative mood is used. It coincides with the infinitive and differs from it only by the absence of the particle “to”. Not rendering the category of number this form is used at addressing both one person and several persons: *Go “Іди/Ідіть”*. *Take “Візьми/Візьміть”*.

Order or request to the first and third persons singular and plural is expressed analytically with the help of the verb “let” and the infinitive of the notional verb. These two parts of the analytical form are usually separated by the corresponding personal pronoun in the objective case or the noun in the common case: *Let me/us do it (Зробімо це)*. *Let him/them/your brother come (Нехай він/вони/ваш брат прийде/прийдуть)*.

The peculiarity of the English imperative mood is its expressive or emphatic form used to denote the strengthened kind of request: *Do come tomorrow! (Обов’язково приходьте завтра!)*.

In Ukrainian there are also widely used the so called intimate or unceremonious / unofficial forms of the imperative mood, which are created by adding particles of the intimate character to the common form of the imperative mood (інтимізуючі частки) *-но/-бо: іди-но сюди, скажи-но мені, скажи-бо швидше*.

The use of the infinitive with the imperative meaning is also spread in Ukrainian: *Встати!* Most often such forms can be met in different slogans, newspaper headlines, military commands: *Виконати план достроково! Підготуватися до жнив! Почистити казарми!* [6; 92-93].

6.2. The Conditional mood

Probably the only thing linguists are unanimous about with regard to the conditional mood is that it represents action as a “non-fact”, as something imaginary, desirable, problematic, contrary to reality.

In modern Ukrainian the conditional mood is formed analytically by the way of adding the particle *би* (after the vocal *б*) to the form of the past tense or the infinitive of the conjugated verb *читав би, прочитала б, погуляти б*. This particle is written separately from the verb, it can easily move in the sentence, being placed either before the verb or after it, or can be separated from the verb by other words (*він би вже давно прийшов*). With some conjunctions it is joined into one word, e.g.: *щоб, якби, начебто, мовби* and others.

The characteristic feature of the whole analytical form of the conditional mood in Ukrainian is its atemporal (позачасовий) meaning. The form *писав би* can be easily referred to any time (the present, past or future), being joined with any adverb of time: *сьогодні, завтра, зараз, учора*.

Besides the forms with the particle *би* in Ukrainian there is also used the peculiar form of the conditional mood with the particle *бодай*. It renders the

meaning of the wish of great intensity (побажання великої інтенсивності): *Бодай ви терном поросли ...* (Т. Шевченко).

In modern English the system of forms of the conditional mood is rather a complicated one. Meanings of the conditional and unreal action are rendered in English by the following verb forms:

1) the outdated synthetic forms: *be, have (take* and other forms of the third person without the ending -s as the forms of the so called Present Subjunctive); *were* (for all the persons as the Past Subjunctive form);

2) forms of the indicative mood – the past tense of the common aspect (Past Indefinite) and Past Perfect that in certain syntactical conditions acquire the meaning of the unreal action;

3) analytical forms of the conditional mood, built by using the auxiliary verbs *should* and *would* and different forms of the infinitive of notional verbs;

4) combinations of modal verbs *may (might), can (could)* with infinitives of notional verbs, which acquire the meaning of the unreal action depending on the type of the sentence. But in these combinations modal verbs do not lose completely their lexical meaning as it happened with *should* and *would* that have acquired a totally grammatical meaning.

Synthetic forms of the conditional mood in English are outdated ones, and are used mainly in writing, whereas analytical forms are spread in all spheres of language use.

The conditional mood is the category which is closely connected with the structure of the complex sentence (складнопідрядне речення). In all its usages there is a direct dependence on the type of the sentence in which it is used. Though this peculiarity is characteristic of both languages, it is revealed much more distinctly in English wherein even the form of the conditional mood is determined by the type of the sentence, in which it is used. Since the form cooperates with its meaning this or that shade of mood is caused by the syntactic conditions in which this form is used. A vivid example of this are analytical forms of the conditional mood “*should/would + infinitive*” that in certain types of sentences can be used as the forms of “Future-in-the-Past”, as well as “*were*” and forms Past Indefinite or Past Perfect, which in certain syntactic conditions are the forms of Indicative mood, and in others – forms of the conditional mood.

So, attachment to a certain type of a sentence is the characteristic feature of the conditional mood forms in the modern English language.

Unlike Ukrainian, the English conditional mood can express the category of tense: analytical forms *should/would + Indefinite Infinitive* and the form of the past time (*Past Indefinite*), used with the meaning of the unreal action, point towards the action that could happen in the present or future. Analytical forms *should/would + Perfect Infinitive* and *Past Perfect*, used with the meaning of the unreal action, serve to denote the action that could have happened in the past.

In both languages forms of the conditional mood have the category of state, compare: *були б запрошені, be done/ were done, should be done*, as well as the category of aspect, e.g.: *читав би, прочитав би, should be going*.

It is interesting to note that a big role in the system of conditional mood in

both contrasted languages is played by forms of the past tense. It does not happen by chance since it is explained by the near character of the past and the unreal. Even O. Potebnya pointed out that the common feature of the past tense and “ideal” moods is the fact that in both cases the action is not available in reality, and we render events that do not exist at the moment of speaking. That is why in many languages forms of the conditional mood are built on the basis of the past tense.

Summing up all the above mentioned let us consider the use of **the verb grammemes in speech**. Being used in speech a word has but one of its lexical meanings and all of its grammatical meanings. Thus, in the sentence *He writes to me every week*, the verb *writes* conveys only one of its lexical meanings (“communicates in writing”), whereas it has seven elementary grammatical meanings: 1) active voice; 2) nonperfect order; 3) non-continuous aspect; 4) present tense; 5) indicative mood; 6) third person; 7) singular number.

Since each of these elementary meanings can be singled out in a certain opposeme, the entire grammatical meaning of a grammeme as a unit of language must be regarded as the sum of its elementary grammatical meanings (present tense + active voice + indicative mood, etc.)

In diverse speech situations, in various lexical and syntactical surroundings, with verbs of different lexical meanings, a grammeme may acquire some complex meaning which cannot be directly inferred from the meanings of its constituents. In other words, the entire meaning of a grammeme in speech is often not equal to the sum of its elementary meanings and we may speak, in some sense, of idiomatic meanings of grammemes. Therefore, it is necessary to analyze the meanings of grammemes not only as units of language but as units of speech as well.

For example, in most cases imperative mood grammemes in speech serve to present order, command, request, etc. as a direct expression of the speaker's will. In certain surroundings, however, mostly in the first clause of a compound sentence or when used parenthetically, they can express condition the consequence of which is stated in the same sentence, e.g.:

Do it again and you will find it much easier.

This event, only try to see it in its true light, will show you who is at the bottom of all this.

CONTENT MODULE 2. SYNTAX

8. Syntax: introduction into basic notions

PLAN

1. The basic unit of syntax.
2. The main parts of the sentence.
3. The classification of sentences as to their structure.
4. Composite sentences.
5. One-member sentences.
6. Different types of sentences.

Concepts and terms: *sentence, communication, the act of speech, the speaker, reality, the subject, enclosure, composite sentences, subordinate clause, one-member sentences, nominative sentences, imperative sentences, infinitive sentences, impersonal sentences, indefinite-personal sentences, generalizing-personal, unchangeable verbal predicate forms, subject which is not named, contracted sentence.*

References: 1, 2, 6, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14

The basic unit of syntax is the sentence. There exist many definitions of the sentence, but none of them is generally accepted. But in the majority of cases speakers actually experience no difficulty in separating one sentence from another in their native tongue. This is reflected in writing, where the graphic form of each sentence is separated by punctuation marks (.?!) from its neighbours.

Though a sentence contains words, it is not merely a group of words (or other units), but something integral, a structural unity built in accordance with one of the patterns existing in a given language. All the sounds of a sentence are united by typical intonation. All the meanings are interlaced according to some pattern to make one communication.

A communication is a directed thought. Much in the same way as the position of a point or the direction of a line in space is fixed with the help of a system of coordinates, there exists a system of coordinates to fix the position or direction of a thought in speech. Naturally, only phenomena present at every act of speech can serve as the axes of coordinates. They are: a) the act of speech, b) the speaker (or the writer); c) reality (as viewed by the speaker).

The act of speech is the event with which all other events mentioned in the sentence are correlated in time. This correlation is fixed in English and other languages grammatically in the category of tense and lexically in such words as *now, yesterday, tomorrow*, etc.

The speaker is the person with whom other persons and things mentioned in the sentence are correlated. This correlation is fixed grammatically in the category of person of the verb and lexico-grammatically in such words as *I, you, he, she, it, they, student, river*, etc.

Reality is either accepted as the speaker sees it, or an attempt is made to change it, or some irreality is fancied. Compare: *The door is shut. Shut the door. If the door were shut...* The attitude towards reality is fixed grammatically in the category of mood and lexically or lexico- grammatically in words like *must, may, probably*, etc.

The three relations – to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality – can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech. Now the relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity (предикативність – відношення змісту речення до дійсності). This is the name of the system of coordinates directing the thought of a sentence and distinguishing a sentence from any group of words. Predicativity is an essential part of the content of the sentence. The sentence can thus be defined as a *communication unit made up of words (and word-morphemes) in conformity with their combinability, united by predicativity and intonation* [15, 220-224].

In the same way as the word serves to name certain objects of extra-linguistic reality, the sentence serves to name situations involving these objects. No object is static. Objects interact, being in constant change, movement. Thus, the relations between objects, events happening to them create the situation reflected in every act of speech.

Much in the same way as the word has its form and content, the sentence also has its form and its content, being a bilateral sign. The content of the sentence is called in other words its *deep structure*, its outer form (the string of words/word-forms, united in conformity with grammatical rules and combinability patterns) – *the surface structure*. One and the same deep structure can be expressed with the help of different surface structures, nevertheless being related by transformational rules. For example, to express the situation, where the “boy” (the doer of the action) “throws” (the action itself) the “ball” (the object upon which the action is directed) there are at least two surface structures: 1) the sentence in the active voice: *The boy throws the ball*, and 2) the sentence in the passive voice: *The ball is thrown by the boy*.

Within a sentence, the word or combination of words containing the meaning of predicativity may be called the predication, the grammatical employment of predicativity (предикація – граматичне втілення предикативності).

In the sentence *He considered it for a minute* the predication is *he considered*. *He* indicates the person, *considered* – the tense and mood components of predicativity.

In the sentence *Tell me something* there is one-word predication *tell* containing the mood component of predicativity. The person component is only implied. As we know, imperative mood grammemes have the lexico-grammatical meaning of the “second person”.

The main parts of the sentence (головні члени речення) are those whose function is to make the predication. They are the subject and the predicate of the sentence.

The subject tells us whether the predication involves the speaker (*I, we ...*), his interlocutor (*you ...*) or some other person or thing (*he, John, the forest,...*). The predicate may also tell us something about the person, but it usually does not supply any new information, neither does the predicate add information as to the number of

persons or things involved. In this sense we say that the predicate depends on the subject. But in expressing the tense and mood components of predicativity the predicate is independent.

Since a person or thing denoted by any noun or noun equivalent (except *I, we* and *you*) is the “third person” and a sentence may contain several nouns, there must be something in the sentence to show which of the nouns is the subject of the predication. The Indo-European languages use the following devices:

- a) the nominative case (*Зустрів зайця ведмідь*);
- b) grammatical combinability (*Квіти сонце люблять. Квіти сонце любить*);
- c) the position of the noun (*Буття визначає свідомість. Свідомість визначає буття*).

In English the nominative case has been preserved only with six pronouns. Grammatical combinability is important but it plays a much smaller role than in Ukrainian. It is not observed, for instance, in cases like / (*he, she, they, John, the students*) *spoke* So the position of the noun or noun-equivalent is of the greatest importance. E.g.: *John showed Peter a book of his*.

When position and combinability clash/coincide, position is usually decisive, as in the sentence *George's is the brilliant idea. Geroge's are brilliant ideas*, The subject is *George's*, though the predicates agree in number with the nouns *idea, ideas*.

The expression of syntactic relations

The character of formal means of rendering the syntactic relations is a determining one for the language structure. That is why in this respect the Ukrainian language as a flexional language differs strongly from the English language as an analytical one.

In Ukrainian the syntactic relations, that is relations between sentences and their members, are expressed with the help of flexions, auxiliary and pronoun words, the word order and intonation.

The most widespread means of expression of word relations in the Ukrainian language is the flexion. Prepositions are also widely used for this purpose. They are combined with the forms of indirect cases of nouns or pronouns (as well as numerals) since exactly in this function the mentioned parts of speech can perform functions of dependent (coordinated) sentence members. Word order in Ukrainian has mainly an auxiliary meaning.

Within grammar pairs the most widespread types of syntactic means in Ukrainian are: agreement (узгодження) [5, 118], for example: *наступного дня, усім трьом, на першому поверсі*, government (керування), for example: *корисний усім, усіх розважав, усміхнувся від задоволення*, and adjoinment (прилягання), for example: *досконало перевірити, його задум, рушив услід*. In English these types of relations between the elements of a subordinate word-group are also present: agreement (*this book*), adjoinment (*to go quickly*), government (*to be fond of smth.*). In agreement the subordinate element gets the same grammatical meaning as the kernel one. In English 24% of word-groups are joined this way, whereas in Ukrainian – 53%. When the grammatical meaning of the kernel element demands from the subordinate element one particular grammatical meaning we speak of the

government. In English 39% of word- groups have this way of connection and in Ukrainian – 32%. As for adjoinment – the elements are joined without changing their forms. Such groups are spread in English (37%), whereas in Ukrainian they present a minority – 15% [12, 197-198].

For the English language of great importance is the word order. The word order is crucial for differentiating the subject and the predicate, the subject and the object etc. Such a heavy grammatical load of the word order leads to the idea that its possibilities to be used not for grammar purposes are very limited ones. For example, in Ukrainian in order to make the story narration more vivid and lively or vice versa to give it a smooth character there is a possibility to move words. In English it is not possible since you can destroy the syntactic relations between words. For example, the sentence *Петро читає книжку* changing the word order can have six variants whereas in English it has the only possible variant *Peter reads books*.

The specific way to express word relations in English is the so-called enclosure (замикання). It is characteristic to this or that extent of all Germanic languages. In English it is mainly found in attributive word groups, the first member of which is the article or some other determiner of the noun. At enclosure the border members of the word groups are drawn apart creating as if the frame for attributes belonging to this word combination: *his long new coat*.

The classification of sentences as to their structure

Sentences with only one predication are called simple sentences. Those with more than one predication usually have the name of composite sentences. In a composite sentence each predication together with the words attached is called a clause.

Composite sentences with coordinated clauses are compound sentences, e.g.: *She is a very faithful creature and I trust her*.

Composite sentences containing subordinated clauses are complex sentences, e.g.: *If I let this chance slip, I am a fool*.

In a complex sentence we distinguish the principal clause (*I am a fool*) and the subordinate clause (*If I let this chance slip*) or clauses.

There may be several degrees of subordination in a complex sentence, e.g.: *It was almost nine o'clock before he reached the club, where he found his friend sitting alone*. The clause *where he found his friend sitting alone* is subordinated to the subordinate clause *before he reached the club* and is therefore of the second degree of subordination.

The clauses of a composite sentence may be joined with the help of connective words (syndetically) or directly, without connectives (asyndetically). E.g.:

Mike acted as though nothing had happened. You are modern; I am old-fashioned.

A simple sentence or a clause containing some words besides the predication is called extended. An unextended sentence (clause) contains no other parts but the subject and the predicate.

A sentence (clause) with several subjects to one predicate or several predicates to one subject is called a contracted one (скорочений, стягнений). E.g.: *Dianna crossed to the window and stood there with her back to Dan.*

The dominating type of sentence (clause), with full predication, i.e. containing both the subject and the predicate, is called a two-member sentence (clause). All other types are usually called one-member sentences (clauses). Here are some examples of one-member sentences, e.g.: *A cup of tea! Thanks!* [8, 240-241].

One-member sentences (однокладні речення)

In both languages two-member sentences are most widely used. These are sentences that have two main parts of the sentence: the subject and the predicate. One-member sentences, which have only one main part of the sentence, are used in English more rarely. In Ukrainian this type of the sentence is more spread and more diverse.

Common for both languages are the following types of one-member sentences:

1) Nominative sentences (називні), e.g.: *Thomas, Sir. A man of facts and calculations. Вечір. Ніч.*

2) Imperative sentences (наказові), e.g.: *Come here at once. Іди сюди негайно.*

3) Infinitive sentences (інфінітивні), e.g.: *To be lonely and to grow older and older.* Especially widespread is this kind of sentences in Ukrainian where the infinitive by its function in the sentence has become similar to the personal form of the verb. E.g.: *Що робити? За людьми їти ... Оце йробити.*

Besides, in Ukrainian there are widely used other types of one-member sentences which have as their correspondences two-member sentences in English, in particular:

1) Impersonal sentences (безособові): *Сутеніє. It is getting dark.*

2) Indefinite-personal sentences (неозначено-особові): *Кажуть, що його немає. They say he is out.*

3) Generalizing-personal (узагальнено-особові): *Дарованим конем не наїздишся. You mustn't change horses in the midstream.*

4) Sentences with unchangeable predicate-words (речення з незмінними присудковими словами): *можна, шкода, треба, слід* та ін.: *Треба йти додому. It is necessary to go home (I must go home).*

5) Sentences with adverbs of the type (речення з прислівниками): *Йому весело зараз. He is rather jolly now.*

6) Sentences with unchangeable verbal predicate forms in -но, -то (речення з незмінними дієслівними присудковими формами на -но, -то): *Під білими березами козаченька вбито. Under white birches a Cossack was killed.*

Different types of sentences with the subject which is not named or is avoided to be named (різні типи речень з усуненим або не названим підметом): *І більше його там не бачили. And he wasn't seen there any more. Кажє, приходь. They say, you can come* [9, 121-122].

9. The simple sentence. Parts of the sentence

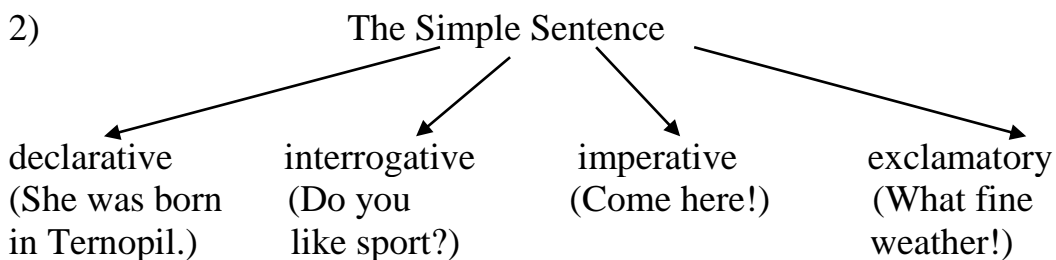
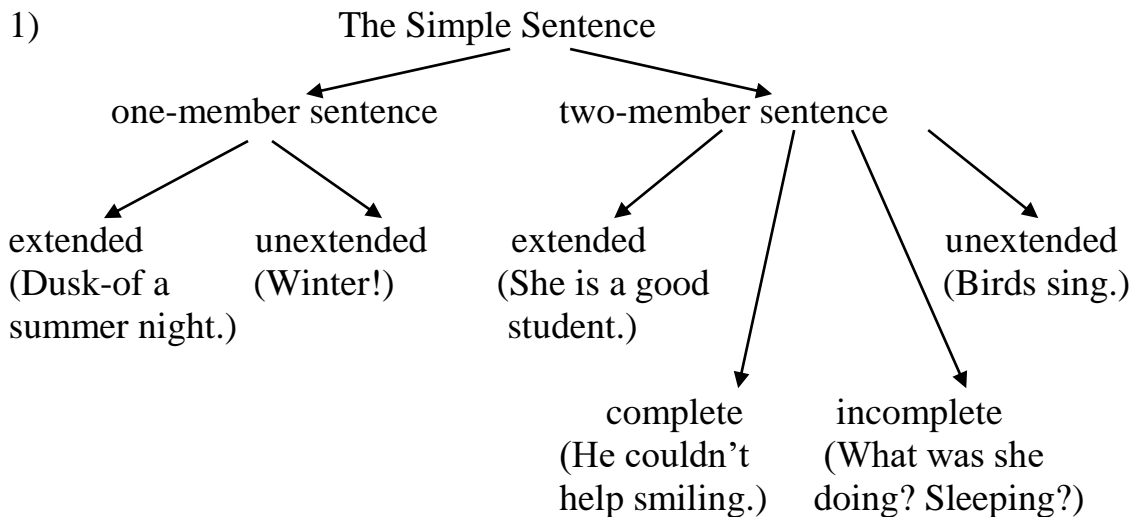
PLAN

1. Primary parts of the sentence
2. Secondary parts of the sentence
3. Notional and semi-notional words
4. The subject
5. The simple predicate
6. The compound nominal predicate
7. The compound verbal predicate
8. The object
9. The attribute
10. The adverbial modifier

Concepts and terms: *primary or principal parts of the sentence, secondary parts of the sentence, subject, predicate, head-words, notional words, semi-notional words, subject, the simple predicate, the compound nominal predicate, linking verbs, the compound verbal predicate, modal, aspect, nominal-verbal modal predicate, the object, the direct object, the indirect object.*

References: 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE



Traditionally the subject and the predicate are regarded as the **primary or principal parts of the sentence** and the attribute, the object and the adverbial modifier – as **the secondary parts of the sentence**. This opposition primary – secondary is justified by the difference in function. While the subject and the predicate make the predication and thus constitute the sentence, the secondary parts serve to expand it by being added to the words of the predication in accordance with their combinability as words. Thus the sentence combines syntactical or morphological relations.

So the chief criterion for the division of all words of a sentence into parts of the sentence is their combinability. Thus combinability is the property that correlates parts of speech and parts of the sentence as well as the functions of notional and semi-notional words.

Those notional words in a sentence which are adjuncts of certain head-words will be divided in accordance with their head-words into **attributes, complements and extensions**.

Those semi-notional words which serve to connect two words or clauses (prepositions, conjunctions) will be regarded as a separate part of the sentence, **connectives**.

Those semi-notional words that are used to specify various words or word combinations (articles, particles) will be called **specifiers**.

Finally, words in a sentence, with zero connections, referring to the sentence as a whole and known as **parenthetical elements**, are a distinct part of the sentence [7, 249-251].

1. The subject

The subject is the independent member of a two-member predication, containing the person component of predicativity. Both members of the predication *he sleeps* contain the meaning of "person". But in *sleeps* this meaning depends on that of *he* and is due to grammatical combinability. This accounts for the fact that *sleeps* cannot make a sentence alone, though it contains all the components of predicativity. *Sleeps* likewise depends on *he* as far as the meaning of "number" is concerned. The meanings of "person" and "number" in *he* are lexico- grammatical and independent.

The subject is usually defined as a word or a group of words denoting the thing we speak about. This traditional definition is rather logical than grammatical. The subject of a simple sentence can be a word, a syntactical word-morpheme (in English – *there, it*) or a complex. As a word it can belong to different parts of speech, but it is mostly a noun or a pronoun, e.g.:

Fame is the thirst of youth (G. Byron).

Nothing endures but personal qualities (W. Whitman).

To see is to believe [3, 251-252].

In Ukrainian the subject is most frequently expressed by the nominative case of the noun or personal pronoun. Other parts of speech can be used in the function of the subject only when they are substantivized. The function of the compound subject is performed in Ukrainian usually by the combination of the cardinal numeral with the noun or by the combination of two nouns, joined either by a conjunction or the

preposition “з”. At this the cardinal numeral is used in the form of the nominative predicate: *іхало двоє молодих хлопців*.

In English the nominative case is pertaining only to personal and some interrogative or relative pronouns. This nominative case is more specialized than the corresponding form of the noun in Ukrainian. It is gradually being eliminated from the compound predicate. Compare: *It's me* instead of *Its I* and its meaning is narrowed to the meaning of the subject function.

Subjectless sentences (apart from imperative sentences) are practically not used in the English sentence. The peculiarity of the English language is the existence of the formal subject alongside the notional one. It is expressed by the word deprived of its lexical meaning and is necessary only to form the sentence from the structural point of view. The notional subject (повнозначний підмет) always expresses a certain acting person (or object) and is used in personal sentences. The formal subject (формальний або службовий підмет) does not express any acting person or object. It is always used in impersonal sentences.

In Ukrainian subjectless sentences are widely used. Especially often the subject is missing in negative sentences where the center of the construction becomes the word *немає*, e.g.: *Тут немає стона*. Almost all Ukrainian subjectless sentences correspond to English sentences with the subject. Compare: *Кажуть. They say. Суменіє. It is getting dark*.

In English the formal subject *it* is widely used in sentences with predicates that have the following meaning:

1) with the simple or compound predicate that points out towards the nature phenomenon: *It was cold. Було холодно*.

2) with the compound predicate that has modal or evaluating meaning: *It was difficult. It was evident. Було важко. Було очевидно*.

3) with the compound predicate pointing out towards the time or space: *It was nine. It was five miles to the town. Була дев'ята година. До міста було п'ять миль*.

4) with the simple predicate, expressed by the passive form of the verb, which points towards the fact that the content of the sentence is some general idea: *It is said... Кажуть ...* (8, 122-125].

In the majority of cases the subject in English and Ukrainian sentences is expressed by similar parts of speech. But the peculiarities of the English language in this respect are the following:

1) The role of the subject can be widely performed by the nonverbal part of speech – gerund, e.g.: *Smoking is bad for health*.

In Ukrainian there are no such verb forms and in these cases subordinate sentences are widely used;

2) The role of the subject can be performed by the gerundial construction, e.g.: *John's coming here will spoil everything*.

To conclude, if we compare the subject in English with that in Ukrainian we shall find the following differences between them.

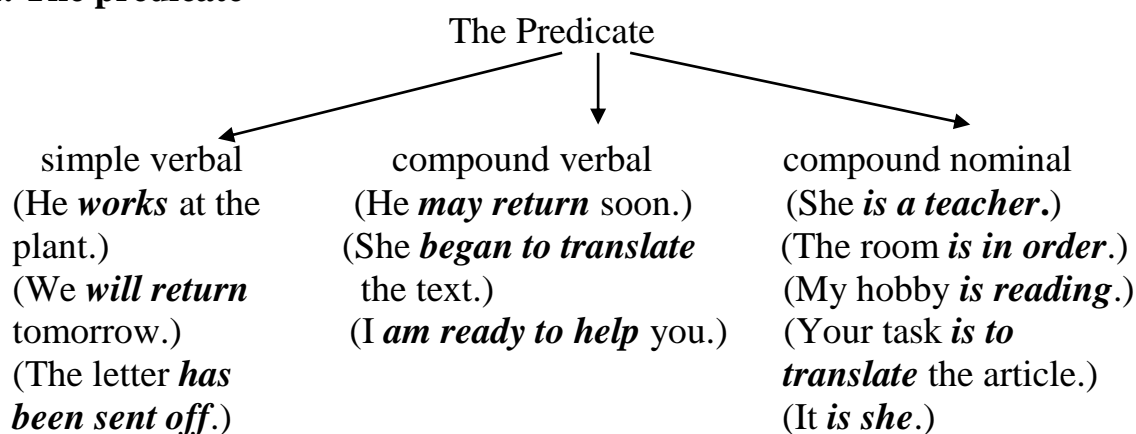
1. In modern Ukrainian the subject is as a rule characterized by a distinct morphological feature – the nominative case, whereas in English it is for the most

part (unless it is expressed by a personal pronoun or the pronoun *who* in the nominative case)¹ indicated by the position it occupies in the sentence.

2. In modern Ukrainian the subject is much less obligatory as a part of the sentence than in English. One-member sentences are numerous and of various types, among them sentences like *Прійди. Пише*. In English a finite verb (except the ‘imperative mood’ forms) does not, as a rule, make a sentence without a subject.

3. In English the subject may be a syntactical word-morpheme, a gerund or a complex, which is naturally alien to Ukrainian.

2. The predicate



2.1. The simple predicate

The predicate is the member of predication containing the mood and tense (or only mood) components of predicativity. E.g.: *I would hate to make you cry*.

The predicate can be a word or a syntactical word-morpheme (in English – *does, will*).

When a predicate is a semi-notional verb or a syntactical word-morpheme, it is only a structural predicate and is usually connected with a notional word which makes the notional predicate, e.g.: *He was strong enough for that. Does anyone know about it but me?* [5, 254-255].

Since the conjugation of the English verb has a lot of analytical forms the characteristic feature of the English simple predicate is the fact that it can be expressed in many cases by analytical verb forms. In Ukrainian it happens rather rarely since the availability of analytical verb forms is not numerous here.

The simple predicate of the English sentence includes as well predicates expressed by the verb with the postpositive attachment of the type *stand up*, as well as idiomatic word combinations, which have the meaning of the common verbal lexeme, e.g.: *give way – поступатися, take courage – зважитися, have a smoke – покурити* etc. In connection with this the analytical expression of the predicate is still more widespread in English.

In both languages the predicate reveals its syntactic connection with the subject by means of the grammatical agreement with it (узгодження). But since the English verb has much fewer categorical forms (in particular the form of person, gender and number) the possibilities of coordination between the subject and the predicate are much fewer.

The predicate in the English sentence always has its certain place depending on the type of the sentence. In the affirmative sentence it stands after the subject, e.g.: *He came here in the morning*. In interrogative sentences the simple predicate is mainly expressed analytically, where the help verb is placed before the subject, whereas its notional part stands after it: *Did he come here in the morning?*

By this fact the English language differs not only from the Ukrainian, but also from a lot of other languages: Russian, French, German and others. While in these languages at questioning only the intonation and the word order is changed, in English the form of the verb itself is changed: instead of the synthetic form the analytical one is used: *You know him. Do you know him?* [5, 125-126].

When comparing the predicates in English and in Ukrainian, we must first of all note the absence of syntactical word-morphemes used as predicates and the scarcity of word-morphemes in Ukrainian. So the division into structural and notional (parts of) predicates is not as essential in Ukrainian as it is in English.

Secondly, there are many more sentences without finite verbs in Ukrainian than in English. *Він студент. Вона красуня. Кому їхати?*

Thirdly, Ukrainian predication contains a predicate without a subject much more often than in English.

2.2. The compound nominal predicate (складений іменний присудок).

The peculiarity of all eastern-Slavonic languages, including Ukrainian, is the fact that they mostly do not use the linking verb *бути* in the present tense: *Скромність – його характерна риса*. In English the linking verb *be* is never omitted since it is caused by the necessity of finishing the sentence structurally.

Among linking verbs of the Ukrainian language the linking verb *бути* has the smallest lexical load. The rest of linking verbs point towards the character of the realization of some characteristics of the subject expressed by the nominal part of the predicate, that is predicative.

According to their meaning Ukrainian linking verbs are subdivided into such main groups:

1) Linking verbs showing the availability of a certain characteristic or state or the name of some object: *бути, значити, зватися, називатися*: *Вона була вдовою*.

2) Linking verbs showing that the object characteristic is the process of formation and is new to it: *стати, ставати, робитися, зробитися, опинитися*: *Дуже ти став розумний*.

3) Linking verbs showing the preservation of the previous state: *лишатися, зостатися*: *Лице його зоставалося спокійне*.

4) Linking verbs showing the characteristic feature as unreal or ascribed: *здаватися, вважатися, уявлятися*: *Він здавався мені хоробрим* [5, 126-127].

The peculiarity of English linking verbs is the availability of such of them that are maximally expressing only the grammar meaning, not a lexical one: *be, become, grow*.

The classification of English linking verbs is in many ways similar to the mentioned Ukrainian one:

1) Linking verbs of “existence” (“буття”) showing the availability of a certain characteristic, its belonging to a certain class: *be, feel, go, come, stand*: *The boy felt cold.*

2) Linking verbs of “retaining” (“збереження”) of a certain characteristic: *remain, keep, hold, stay, rest, continue*: *they hold strong in spite of difficulties.*

3) Linking verbs of “becoming” (“становлення»): *become, turn, get, grow, come, go, make* (and others): *Becoming aware of the approaching danger she turned pale.*

2.3. The compound verbal predicate (складений дієслівний присудок).

This type of compound predicate also consists of two parts: the auxiliary part expressed by the verb in the personal form and the notional part expressed by the infinitive (sometimes gerund) of another verb rendering the action of the subject.

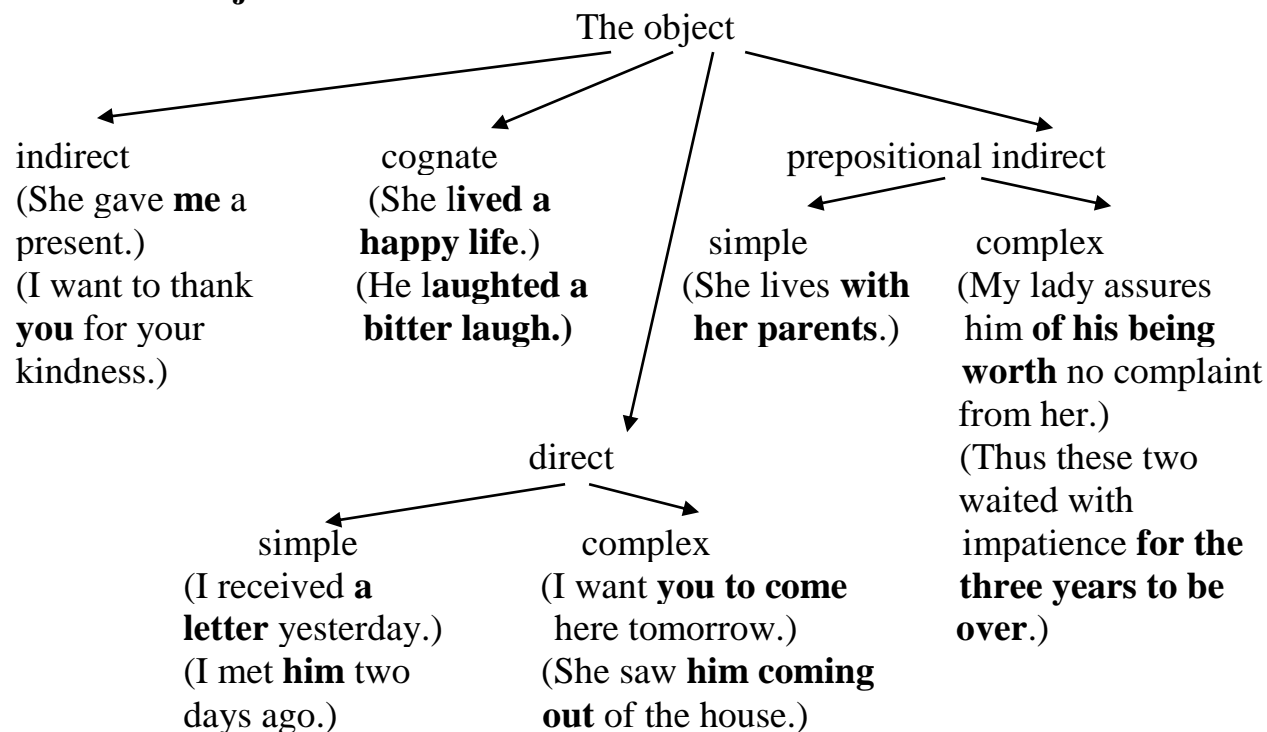
In both languages the compound verbal predicate can usually be of three kinds:

1) Modal, formed by combining of the modal verbs with the infinitive: *We can speak English. Ми можемо відпочити.*

2) Aspect, in which the auxiliary part points towards the beginning, end, continuation, repetition or becoming of some action performed by the subject: *She began singing. Сонце почало підніматися.*

3) Nominal-verbal modal predicate, in which the infinitive is attached to the compound nominal predicate, the nominal part of which is expressed by adjective or participle and points towards relation to the action expressed by the infinitive: *I am obliged to do my best. Необхідно рушати вперед* [5, 128— 129].

3. The object



In both contrasted languages there can be distinguished the following types of objects: 1) according to the type of connection with a verb or some other governing word – prepositional object and non-prepositional object (прийменниковий та

безприйменниковий додатки); 2) according to the grammatical meaning – direct and indirect objects (прямий та непрямий додатки).

3.1. *The direct object*

In Ukrainian the direct object is as a rule expressed by the form of the accusative case of the noun, pronoun or some other substantivized part of speech. It is used without a preposition and depends directly on the transitive verb, for example: *Я бачив давнийсон* (І. Франко).

The peculiarity of the Ukrainian language is the fact that in negative sentences (similar to the Russian language) the direct object can be expressed in the form of the genitive case, for example: *Він не читав газет*. The object is expressed via the same form when the action, expressed by the transitive verb, is directed not at the whole object, but only at its part, for example: *Я дав йому води. Ми купили меду*.

The specific features of the Ukrainian language are:

1. The parallel use of two forms in plural in order to define the names of living beings (except people's names). While the direct object, used to define the names of people, has the form of the accusative case, common with the form of the genitive case, to define the names of animals, it is used both in the form common with the genitive case, and in the form common with the accusative case: *виховую дітей*, but *доглядаю овець (вівці), кіз (кози)*.

2. The usage of the direct object in the form of the genitive case singular to define the temporary causation of the action directed at the object or sometimes altogether without any special features: *взяв ножа, попросив олівця, одержав листа*.

The usage of the direct object in the form of the genitive case is met at defining inanimate objects in plural: *співали веселих пісень* (in parallel with *співали пісні*).

In English the direct object can be expressed by the noun only in the common case or the pronoun in the objective case. It is one of the subtypes of non-prepositional objects.

In English there are a lot of verbs that have either a very indistinct meaning or a lot of different meanings, which because of the mentioned fact require the obligatory use of some object. Such are the verbs *take, make, give, hold, know, have, find, introduce, put on, take off* etc. In case when an object is absent there should be used a formal object expressed by the pronoun *it*, for example: *I find it strange that he did not come*.

The formal object of such a type is also used after the verbs, formed by the way of conversion from nouns, and that is why they cannot be perceived without an object in their new function. Compare: *... we would sleep out on fine nights and hotel it, and inn it, and pub it... when it was wet* (Jerome K. Jerome).

The direct object always occupies a certain position in the sentence. If there are no other objects besides it, the direct object is, as a rule, situated immediately after the verb. The separation of the direct object from the verb is witnessed when there is an indirect object before a direct one or when there is some stylistic purpose because of which secondary parts of the sentence cannot be separated from the predicate (compare: *She took out of her bag an envelope*).

The English direct object reveals such a peculiarity that it can be complex. The complex object of such a type is as a rule expressed by the predicative construction with the infinitive, for example: *I saw him go home* (Я бачив, як він пішов додому). Besides, there are complex objects expressed by predicative constructions with the participle or the gerund, for example: *We watched her going away. My lady assures him of his being worth no complaint from her* (Ch. Dickens) [5, 131– 133].

3.2. The indirect object

In Ukrainian the indirect object is used in the form of any indirect case either with the preposition or without it (except the accusative case without the preposition, which serves to express the direct object): *Електростанція буде нам посилати енергію по проводах*.

While the direct object depends only on the verb, the indirect object can be dependent also on the noun or the adjective, for example: *близький нам, керівник гуртка, найкращий з усіх, гірший над усе*. Most often these are nouns or adjectives that have the base common with the verb, besides them these are also adjectives in the comparative and superlative degrees.

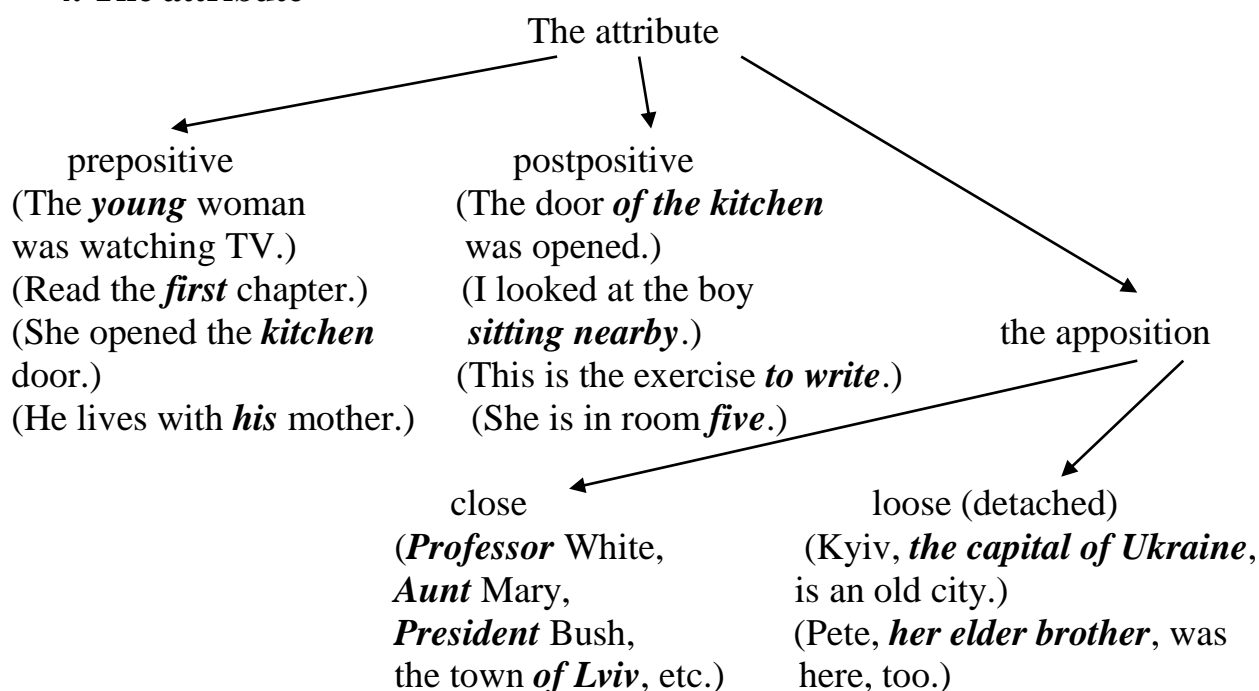
In English the indirect object does not differ formally from the direct object: both of them are expressed by the form of the common case (in pronouns – by the objective case). That is why the grammatical means of expressing the indirect object are the position of a word in a sentence as well as the structural completeness of a word-group. First of all, the indirect object is used only in a three-member word-group, that is at the obligatory presence of the direct object and it is necessarily positioned before the direct object: *I give him a letter*. As a rule the indirect object denotes a person to whom some action is addressed or because of whom the action takes place.

The interesting peculiarity of the English language is the fact that here the object with the preposition can serve as an equivalent of the subject of some passive construction, for example: *He was laughed at*.

Generally speaking, in English prepositional objects are especially widely used. Among them the most characteristic are objects with the prepositions *by*, *to* and *with*. The object with the preposition *by* denotes not the object of the action, but the doer himself/herself, and is used with the passive predicate (or with the passive participle). The preposition in this case is almost fully grammaticalized and devoid of lexical meaning. This cannot be said about the preposition *with*, which alongside the instrumental meaning (*with a knife – ножом*) can have the meaning of commonness (*with my friend – з моїм другом*). The object with the preposition *to* is sometimes equaled to the indirect object. In reality it has a wider meaning than the indirect object and that is why it cannot be always used instead of it. Besides, these two kinds of objects occupy a different position in the sentence.

Objects with prepositions are, as a rule, placed after direct and indirect ones. In the first position in a sentence they can be met only in case when there is an emphasis (the expressive strengthening of the meaning) connected with it, for example: *From her we've never got any letters* [5, 133-134].

4. The attribute



In Ukrainian there are distinguished two types of attributes – agreed and non-agreed (узгоджені та неузгоджені означення). This is the main difference of the Ukrainian attribute from the English one, which is altogether not agreed with a word it modifies (the only exception are the attributes expressed with the help of demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that*, which are agreed with the word they modify in number, compare: *this book* – *these books*).

The agreed attribute can be expressed by an adjective, a participle, a pronoun, an ordinal numeral, as well as by a detached participial construction. With the modified word it is agreed in case and in number, and in singular – as well in gender, for example: у *рідну* країну, *малий* хлопець, *чудна* дівчинка.

The function of the non-agreed attribute is most often performed by a noun (*хата без дверей*, *люди доброї волі*), a pronoun of the third person with the possessive meaning (*його зошит*, *п посмішка*), an infinitive (*бажання вчитися*, *вміння любити*), an adverb (*читання вголос*, *кохання всупереч*), a participle (*відповідь сидячи*, *байдики лежачи*).

In both languages the attribute can be positioned either before the modified word or after it, but this position is, as a rule, attached to certain types of attributes.

The specific feature of the Ukrainian language is a wide usage of agreed attributes, expressed by possessive adjectives, for example: *дідусів* кожух, *пастушкова* сопілка.

The attribute in the English language is expressed mostly by the same parts of speech as in Ukrainian. The characteristic feature of the English language in this respect is the possibility to use a noun in the common case in the function of an attribute: *a stone house* (кам'яний будинок). The function of such a noun in the sentence is established only by its position before the modified noun, compare: *export oil* (експортна нафта) and *oil export* (експорт нафти). The function of an

attribute can be fulfilled by two or more nouns, for example: *a steam engine cylinder* (циліндр парового двигуна).

The attribute expressed by a noun in the form of a possessive case is put in English unlike in Ukrainian before a modified noun (compare: *my father's room* – кімната *мого батька*).

In both languages there is spread such a type of attribute as an apposition (прикладка). There are no special differences in the expression of an apposition, not taking into account the following two types spread in the English language:

a) A special type of apposition, pointing towards the name of an object. It is expressed with the help of a prepositional word combination with the preposition *of* for example: *the continent of Europe, the city of London, the name of Lincoln* and so on. In Ukrainian in such cases the apposition is attached to the modified noun: *місто Львів, село Іванівка, ім'я Лінкольн*.

b) Similar to it is the word combination with the preposition *of* where the main noun renders the characteristic of some notion, expressed by the subordinated noun. Such attributive word combinations correspond in Ukrainian to negative comparisons of the type *не ..., а ...*. Compare: *a brute of a man* — *не людина, а звір; a jewel of a picture* — *не картина, а перл* [6; 135-136].

5. The adverbial modifier

The adverbial modifier

<i>of time</i>	(I'll go to Lviv <i>next week</i> .)
<i>of frequency</i>	(She has music lessons <i>thrice a week</i> .)
<i>of place and direction</i>	(The magazine is <i>on the shelf</i> .)
<i>of manner</i>	(They walked <i>in silence</i> .)
<i>of attending circumstances</i>	(Now I can go to bed at last <i>without dreading tomorrow</i> .)
<i>of degree and measure</i>	(It is <i>rather</i> strange.)
<i>of cause</i>	(<i>Because of the rain</i> we stayed at home.)
<i>of condition</i>	(<i>But for his help</i> , I couldn't manage to do it.)
<i>of comparison</i>	(She was crying <i>like a child</i> .)
<i>of concession</i>	(<i>In spite of the nasty weather</i> we went to the forest.)
<i>of purpose</i>	(They opened the way for her <i>to come to him</i> .)
<i>of result (consequences)</i>	(She is too fond of the child <i>to leave it</i> .)

According to their meaning adverbial modifiers are subdivided into many types, which are basically similar in English and in Ukrainian. These are adverbial modifiers of: place (місця), time (часу), manner (способу дії), measure and degree (ступеня й міри), reason (причини), purpose (мети), result (наслідку), condition (умови), concession (допусту). Besides in English there is one more type of adverbial modifier – the adverbial modifier of attending circumstances (обставина супровідних умов).

In Ukrainian adverbial modifiers are not attached to any particular position in a sentence, whereas in English adverbial modifiers have their certain position in a sentence. For example, the adverbial modifier of place is most often placed at the end of the sentence, but if there is a necessity to point out towards the connection with the

previous sentence it is placed at the beginning of the sentence: *Here we began making fire. He made notes in a little book.* The adverbial modifier of time is not so tightly connected with the predicate as the adverbial modifier of place that is why it can be easier put at the beginning of the sentence. Nevertheless it usually stands at the end of the sentence: *He came home in the morning.* Adverbial words, denoting time as a very general characteristic, for example: *never (ніколи), ever (коли-небудь), always (завжди), often (часто)* etc., are put before the simple predicate, and in the analytical form of the verb – inside this form: *I never laugh at anybody. We have never laughed at him.*

Widely used are adverbial modifiers expressed by English gerundial constructions, for example: *He passed without speaking to anybody. On his entering the room, the light went out.* Their equivalents in Ukrainian are subordinate sentences.

Unlike English in Ukrainian there are widely used adverbial modifiers, expressed by different case forms of a noun without a preposition. The main of them are the following:

1) The instrumental case for the adverbial modifier of place, for example: *Дивлюся: так буцім сова летить лугами, берегами, та нетрями, та глибокими ярами, та широкими степами та байраками* (Т. Шевченко).

2) The accusative case for the adverbial modifier of place, for example: *Їдуть вони поле, їдуть і друге. Дунай-море плисти, три річеньки брести.*

3) The genitive case for the adverbial modifier of time, for example: *одного вечора, наступного дня, пізньої ночі.*

4) The instrumental case for the adverbial modifier of time, for example: *весною, літом, вечорами, ночами, ранками.*

5) The accusative case for the adverbial modifier of time, for example: *Чи буде та чорнобривка сей рік молодця?* (Т. Шевченко). *Ітимуть всю ніч ...* (О. Гончар).

6) The instrumental case for the adverbial modifier of manner, for example: *Іду я тихою ходою* (Т. Шевченко). *... Стали попід нею величезним гомінким табором* (О. Гончар).

7) The instrumental case for the adverbial modifier of comparison, for example: *Він сидить, згорнувшись бубликом над апаратом* (О. Гончар).

All the mentioned Ukrainian adverbial modifiers have as their equivalents in English prepositional constructions (except the adverbial modifier of time with attributes *this, next, last* as well as the adverbial modifier of measure of the type *We walked miles. It weighs a pound*).

The main peculiarity of the English language as compared with Ukrainian is the availability of complex adverbial modifiers, expressed with the help of predicative constructions. Here belong:

a) The adverbial modifier of attending circumstances, expressed by the participial construction with the preposition *with*: *We saw a thick forest, with the red sun hanging low over it.*

b) The detached adverbial modifier of reason, time or attending circumstances, expressed with the help of the so called “absolute participial construction”: ***The lesson being over**, I decided to speak to the professor* [6; 136-138].

In the described above examples adverbials occur in clauses as optional elements; therefore quite often adverbial modifiers are also termed as "optional adverbials". They are rather loosely attached to the rest of the clause and can be added to clauses with any type of verb. They are usually adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, or noun phrases. Optional adverbials, as it was illustrated above, can be placed in different positions within the clause – in final, initial, or medial positions.

Some verbs take an adverbial in order to complete their meaning. This is known as an "obligatory adverbial". Obligatory adverbials can occur with two patterns: the copular pattern and the complex transitive pattern (consider the information about the valency patterns in Chapter 5). Obligatory adverbials usually express place or direction, although they can also express time or manner meanings:

Your toast is on the table. (S + V + A)

The pleasant summer lasted well into March. (S + V + A)

She placed the baby on a blanket in the living room. (S + V + DO + A) *I treated her badly, very badly.* (S + V + DO + A)

In these clause patterns, the adverbial has to be present in order to complete the structure and meaning of the verb. This may be tested by removing the adverbial (in bold), resulting in an incomplete clause (*e.g. your toast is or she placed the baby*) [32; 50-51].

10. The composite sentence. The compound sentence

PLAN

1. Definition of the composite sentence.
2. Structural types of the composite sentence.
3. The nature of the composite sentence.
4. The copulative compound sentence.
5. The disjunctive compound sentence.
6. The adversative compound sentence.
7. The causative-consecutive compound sentences.
8. Compound sentences with the meaning of suddenness.
9. Compound sentences with asyndetically joined clauses

Concepts and terms: *composite sentence, the compound sentence with conjunctions, the copulative compound sentence, proper copulative, adjoining meaning, meaning of recounting, meaning of consequence, the composite conjunction, copulative-negative meaning, the disjunctive compound sentence, adversative compound sentence, contrasting, sequence of events, separate fulfilling of events, conclusion.*

References: 1, 2, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15

A composite sentence (складне речення) in English and Ukrainian, like in all other languages, contains two or more primary predication centers mostly represented by as many corresponding clauses. Structural types of the composite sentence are identified on the ground of the syntactic reflection (and connection) of its predicate parts which are not always distinctly identified. Thus, common in the syntactic systems of English and Ukrainian are sentences that are semantically intermediate between simple extended on the one hand and composite sentences on the other. These are the so-called semi-compound and semi-complex sentences. For example, the sentence “*One doesn’t give up a god easily and so with White Fang*” (J. London) cannot be treated as a simple extended one. Neither can it be identified as a composite sentence since the second part in it (and “*so with White Fang*”) contains no subject and no predicate and wholly depends on the predicative center of the first clause, though the implicitly perceivable subject is the demonstrative pronoun “*it*” which logically requires the predicate verb “*be*”. Compare: *One doesn’t give up a god easily, and so (it is/ it was) with White Fang*. In Ukrainian equivalents are as follows:

1) *Не так легко відмовитися від свого власника – бога, саме такі в Білозубця.*

2) *Не так легко відмовитися від свого власника – бога, саме так (було це) і в Білозубця.*

Similarly with English extended sentences containing the secondary predication constructions or complexes, as they are traditionally called, that represent semi-complex sentences as well. They mostly correspond to Ukrainian complex sentences. Compare: *White Fang felt fear mounting in him again* (J. London). *Білозубець*

відчув, що “ним опановує страх”. The construction *fear mounting in him* becomes an object clause: *White Fang felt/ how/that fear was mounting in him*.

Present-day Ukrainian has only some similar constructions of this nature. Compare: *Він застав двері відчиненими. = Він застав двері (вони були) відчиненими.*

The absence of the secondary predication constructions in Ukrainian makes it impossible to obtain direct correlative transforms of some simple and composite sentences. Hence, English compound sentences containing secondary predication constructions may have complex sentences for their equivalents in Ukrainian. Compare:

He leaned far out of the window and he saw the first light spread (J. Galsworthy).

Він висунувся далеко з вікна і помітив, що починають пробиватися перші промені.

Because of the Objective-with-the-Infinitive construction in the second English clause of the compound sentence above the Ukrainian equivalent of it can be only an object subordinate clause.

Nevertheless, the nature of the composite sentence is quite similar in English and Ukrainian. Similarity is observed first of all in the nomenclature of the major syntax units represented by the compound and complex sentences [10, 388-389].

2. The compound sentence with conjunctions

There are several types of the compound sentence depending on the meaning of the conjunction in English and in Ukrainian: *copulative (єднальні), disjunctive (розділові), adversative*, as well as compound sentences with *causative and consecutive interrelations* between clauses (*складносурядні речення з причинно-наслідковими відношеннями між складовими частинами речення*).

2.1. The copulative compound sentence

In the English language the copulative sentences are joined by conjunctions *and, neither... nor, now... now, not... but*. In Ukrainian the typical conjunctions in this type of the sentence are: *і (ї), та, та й, і... і..., ні... ні..., ані... ані...* and others.

The most widespread of them are the English conjunction “*and*” and the Ukrainian conjunction “*і (ї)*”. They render a variety of relations between sentences.

The peculiarity of the Ukrainian conjunction *і* is the fact that it has its phonetic variant *ї* with which it alternates depending on the phonetic syllable of the closest to it surrounding words. Sometimes the conjunction *ї* has also a semantic difference, pointing towards the closer connection in comparison to the conjunction *і*.

The main shades of meaning of the Ukrainian conjunction *і* and the English *and* coincide. They render first of all the following meanings:

a) The proper copulative meaning (власно-єднальне значення) when there is a connection of very close according to their content sentences. Compare: *Гриміло потьмарене море здаля, і жаром чадила зруділа земля* (М. Бажан). *I heard a click, and a little glow lamp came into being* (H. Wells).

b) The adjoining meaning (приєднувальне значення) when the first sentence is accompanied by the second sentence for the completion or development of the idea expressed by the first sentence. In English grammars this meaning is also sometimes

called a copulative-relative meaning (єднально-відносне значення). Compare: *Мені чомусь здавалось, що треба йти додому, і це було єдиним мотивом, який змусив мене піти. I had a vague idea of going on to my own house, and that was as much motive as I had* (H. Wells).

c) The meaning of recounting (перелічувальне значення). Compare: *I тіло в них міцне, і плечі в них широкі, і мисль*

оформила опуклі їх лоби (М. Бажан). *The sun set, the window- shutters were closed, and the street was empty.*

d) The meaning of consequence (наслідкове значення), when the second sentence is the result or consequence from the idea expressed in the first sentence. *У мене дуже мало часу, і я ніяк не можу сказати вам про все* (Ю. Корнійчук). *But he was sick and weary; and he soon felt sound asleep* (Ch. Dickens).

Unlike Ukrainian *і* (*ї*) the English conjunction *and* is also widely used with the copulative-adversative meaning (в єднально- протиставному значенні) which mostly corresponds to the Ukrainian conjunction *а*. Compare: *You have your opinion, and I have mine. У тебе своя думка, а у мене своя.*

The Ukrainian conjunction *та й* is used less frequently in the Ukrainian language than the conjunction *і* (*ї*) though it can render the same shades of connection.

The composite conjunction (складений сполучник) *та й* is used mainly in the copulative function, denoting the transfer to some action which either finishes the development of events or intervenes in it. For example: *Ото дививсь Івасик, дививсь, та й заболіла голова* (П. Тичина).

The copulative-negative meaning (єднально-заперечний зв'язок) is formed in the English language with the help of negative conjunctions *neither, nor, not only... but*; in Ukrainian — *ні..., ніані ...» ані ...; не тільки ...» а (але) і (ї)*. Compare:

Mrs. Septimus small let fall no word, neither did she question June about him (J. Galsworthy).

She would not put him off; nor would she make a scene in public (J. Galsworthy).

Ніде ні собака не гавкне, ні вартових немає (Ю. Янковський).

Ані шелесту не було чути, ані коливання не було помітно (Марко Вовчок).

The Ukrainian conjunction *не тільки ..., а (але) і (ї)* has as its correspondence close in the meaning the English conjunction *not only ... but*, which shows that the action in the second sentence goes in parallel with the first sentence and does not contradict it. Compare:

Не тільки жайворонки нас, мене й товаришів, вітали, але й гречки в той само час рожевим гомоном співали (М. Рильський).

And Germany had not only violated the Treaty of London, but she had seized a British ship on the Kiel Canal (H. Wells).

The negative conjunctions in English *neither... nor* and in Ukrainian *ні ...ні, ані ...ані* are antonyms to the English conjunction *both ... and* and the Ukrainian conjunction *як ..., так і*, which in both languages are more widely used in a simple sentence with homogeneous members (однорідними членами) but sometimes also

join parts of the compound sentence, for example: *Як ти чоловік, так і я чоловік* (А. Тесленко) *Both he will come there, and I will call on them* [5, 138-139].

2.2. *The disjunctive compound sentence*

The disjunctive compound sentences are joined in English with the help of the conjunctions *or, either ... or*, and in Ukrainian – *або; або ...або; чи; чи ...чи; то ...то; не то ... не то; чи то ... чи то* and others. In both languages the connection between parts of such a sentence is very close; if there is omitted one part of such a sentence, the other will lose its sense, e.g.:

The boy's wife might have died; or he might have come back and said, «Father, I have sinned» (W. Thackeray).

Чи підпалено, чи може самі необережними були (М. Коцюбинський).

In Ukrainian the number of disjunctive conjunctions is a bigger one than in English, but the most spread of them are the conjunctions *або* and *чи*. The conjunction *або* has the most general meaning, pointing towards the separation of things or ideas, whereas the conjunction *чи* is derived from the interrogative particle and that is why it retains the interrogative shade of meaning. Compare: *Рантом хурчав автомобільний мотор, або сурмив клаксон* (Ю. Смолич). *Часом качка в повітрі дзвенить, чи кажан проти місяця грає* (М. Рильський).

The double conjunctions *або ...або; чи ...чи; то ...то; не то ... не то; чи то ... чи то* denote these parathions in the facts alternation (*То ми до них сходили, то вони до нас.* – (Ю. Корнійчук)). The conjunction *не то ... не то* renders simultaneously doubt and hesitation: *Не то осінні води шуміли, збігаючи в Дунай, не то вітер бився в заламах провалля* (М. Коцюбинський) [5, 139-140].

2.3. *The adversative compound sentence*

This type of sentence connection is rendered with the help of conjunctions *a, але, та (але), так, зате, проте, однак, все ж* and others in Ukrainian; *but, while, whereas*, or as well as with the help of connective adverbs (сполучні прислівники) *yet, still, nevertheless, however, otherwise* in English.

The main expression of such relations between sentences is performed in English by the conjunction *but*. In Ukrainian it has as its correspondence the conjunction *але*. Both these conjunctions are used in the following main meanings:

a) The limiting meaning (обмежувальне значення), when the idea expressed in the second part of the compound sentence limits the possibility of happening of some event expressed by the first part of the sentence, or altogether interrupts this action. Compare: *He said he would stay quiet in the hall, but he simply couldn't any more* (J. Galsworthy). *Він міг би залишитися, але йому не вистачало мужності.*

b) The concessive meaning (допустове значення), when in the second part of the sentence the expressed idea is opposite to what is expected on the basis of mentioned in the first part ideas. Compare: *Twilight gave place to night, but he didn't turn on the light* (H. Wells). *Стемніло, але він не засвітив лампи.*

c) The relative meaning (відносне значення), when the second part explains one of members of the first part or the whole of it. Compare: *Some people likened him to a direction post..., but these were his enemies* (Ch. Dickens). *Противник кинувся до апаратів, але вони мовчали.*

In Ukrainian besides *але* there is also widely used the adversative conjunction *а*. It has more shades of meaning than the conjunction *але*, e.g.:

- Contrasting (протиставлення): *І на оновленій землі врага не буде, супостата, а буде син, і буде мати, і будуть люди на землі* (Т. Шевченко).
- Sequence of events (послідовність подій): *Він ішов попереду, а я позаду*.
- Separate fulfilling of events (роздільність дій за характером виконання): *Ти молотом дзвени, працюй, а ти, поете, співай, завжди співай* (В. Сосюра).
- Conclusion (висновок): *От і станція Сокопгорна, а у грудях вже серцю тісно* (М. Нагнибіда) and others.

The English conjunction *while* has the meaning of opposing, similar to some meanings of the Ukrainian adversative conjunction *а*. Compare:

Jos went into a collapsed state to an inn, while Dobbin escorted the ladies (W. Thackeray). *Він пішов додому, а я лишився в клубі*.

Somehow similar in their meaning are the English conjunction *or* and the Ukrainian conjunction *а то*. Compare: *It's lucky they took off their boots, or we should fill the place with clatter* (H. Wells). *Добре, що вони роззулися, а то нарobili б шуму*.

The English conjunction *otherwise* also has the meaning close to it, e.g.: *You have no documents – otherwise you would have handed them to the Colonel* (Heym). *Нема в тебе документів, а то (інакше) б ти показав їх полковнику*.

English connective adverbs *yet, still, nevertheless* have the adversative meaning with the shade of concession, which corresponds to some meanings of the Ukrainian adversative conjunction *та*. Compare: *That train would bear her away from him; yet he could not help fidgeting at the thought that they would lose it* (J. Galsworthy)... *Ще клевета на нас не замовкає, – та стоїмо ми табором одним ...* (М. Рильський).

The characteristic feature of Ukrainian adversative sentences is the close connection and cooperation between conjunctions and modal words and particles. For example, the word *проте* functions both as a conjunction and as a modal word. The particles *тільки, лише, таки* can also function as coordinating conjunctions (сурядні сполучники) with the general adversative meaning, e.g.: *Ніч була темна, тільки на небі ясно блищали зорі* (І. Нечуй-Левицький) [5, 140-141].

2.4. The causative-consecutive compound sentences

The causative and consecutive connection in compound sentences is rendered in Ukrainian with the help of the conjunctions *і, а* and in English – *so (that), for*, and the connective adverb *therefore*. At such a connection the second sentence expresses explanation, confirmation, conclusion or consequence of the idea expressed in the first part of the compound sentence. The coordination (сурядність) in such a case renders the relations more characteristic of complex sentences (властиві підрядним реченням). Each part of such a sentence retains the meaning of an independent unit, though connected with the other one.

The consecutive connection is rendered in English with the help of the conjunction *so* (less often *therefore*), in Ukrainian – with the help of the conjunction *а*, e.g.:

She hasn't much strength in her, so I easily kept her quiet (Ch. Dickens).

Повернувся козак Нечай на лівее плече, а вже з ляшків, вражих синів. Кров ріками тече (Нар. пісня).

The causative connection in the compound sentence is rendered with the help of the English conjunction *for* and the Ukrainian conjunction *і*, e.g.:

It was not yet day light, for the candle was burning (Ch. Dickens).

Андрій почув у руці одрізані пальці, і злість туманом піднялась йому до мозку (М. Коцюбинський) [5, 142].

2.5. Compound sentences with the meaning of suddenness (складносурядне речення із значенням раптовості)

The peculiarity of the Ukrainian syntax is a wide usage of compound sentences with the meaning of suddenness. They are formed most often with the help of the conjunctions *аж*, *коли*, *як* and are used in the emotionally coloured speech. Such sentences usually render the action and its sudden character. Compare:

Ой пішла я у яр за водою, аж там милий гуляє з другою (Т. Шевченко).

Сьогодні вранці я спокійно сиджу вдома, коли дзвонить твій секретар (Ю. Корнійчук).

Widely spread in modern Ukrainian is a subtype of such sentences, where in the first part the verbs of physical perception are used (*дивитися*, *глянути*, *бачити*, *слухати*, *чути* and others), and the second part starts with the conjunctions *аж*, *коли*, e.g.:

Дивлюсь – аж он передо мною неначе дива виринають (Т. Шевченко).

Коли гляне – поперед старший їде (Т. Шевченко).

Similar connection is also rendered with the help of asyndetic (безсполучниковий) connection. Compare: *Бачить – ліс чорніє* (Т. Шевченко) [5, 142-143].

3. Compound sentences with asyndetically joined clauses (складносурядні речення без сполучників)

Basic means of expression of grammar relations between parts of the compound sentence when they are not joined with the help of conjunction is their adjoining and corresponding intonation (зіставлення та відповідна інтонація). In comparison with compound sentences joined by conjunctions, compound sentences with the asyndetic type of connection have a more independent character of their constituent parts.

With the help of asyndetic connection the compound sentences are able to render the same type of relations as the compound sentences joined by conjunctions, apart from the disjunctive meaning (розділове значення). In both these cases such sentences are represented by two common subtypes:

a) Compound sentences with an implicit though quite transparent copulative interrelation between the constituent clauses and with close semantic and syntactic ties between the succeeding and preceding clauses. As a result, asyndetically adjoined clauses in the sentences of this subtype can be substituted for syndetically connected clauses (that is with the help of the copulative conjunction “and”). Compare: *She's worthy, she's provincial. – She is worthy, and she is provincial. Similarly in Ukrainian: Вона гонориста; (і) вона провінціалка.*

b) Compound sentences of the second subtype are characterized by a still looser connection between the adjoined clauses which is marked by a comma or a semicolon. The syntactic interrelation between the component clauses in the sentences of this subtype may be of copulative or adversative nature. Compare: *Young John has never studied a doctrine for himself; he has never examined a doctrine for any purpose* (M. Twain). – *Young John has never studied a doctrine for himself, (and) he has never examined a doctrine for any purpose.* The coordinate copulation is also preserved in Ukrainian: *Молодий пастор Джонніколи не вивчав якоїсь віри, (і) він ніколи не заглиблювався в неї з якоюсь певною метою* [10, 401-402].

11. The composite sentence. The complex sentence.

PLAN

1. Definition of the complex sentence.
2. Isomorphic features of the complex sentence.
3. The nature of many logical-grammatical relations of the complex sentence.
4. The subject clause.
5. The predicative clause.
6. The object/objective clause.
7. Attributive clauses.
8. Adverbial clauses.

Concepts and terms: *complex sentence, isomorphic features, the subject clause, the predicative clause, the object/objective clause, attributive clauses, descriptive attributive clauses, attributive clauses, principal clause, connective word, restrictive attributive clauses.*

References: 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15

The complex sentence, like the simple and compound sentences, presents a universal unit in the syntactic systems of all [5, 65] languages of the world. Consequently, this type of the composite sentence has some isomorphic features of its own. In the contrasted languages they are as follows: 1) the complex sentence has a polypredicative nature; 2) it is characterized by the subordinate way of joining the clauses to the principal/matrix clause; 3) it may consist of homogeneous clauses or of consecutively dependent clauses joined to the matrix clause or to each other syndetically or asyndetically; 4) the arsenal of syndetic means of connection includes conjunctions, connective pronouns, connective adverbs and subordinating connective words; 5) the connectors join clauses and express some logical-grammatical relations formed within the complex sentence. These include predicative, objective, attributive and various adverbial relations expressed by the corresponding clauses which may occupy either the preceding or the succeeding position/place in regard to the matrix clause [10, 408].

According to I. Korunets [10, 408-409], the nature of many logical-grammatical relations created between the subordinate and the matrix clause generally corresponds to the nature of relations created between the adjuncts/complements and their heads in subordinate word-groups. Hence, there are distinguished the following groups of subordinate clauses:

In English	In Ukrainian
1. Substantive-nominal: a) subject subordinate clauses, b) predicative subordinate clauses, c) objective subordinate clauses.	1. Субстантивно-номінативні: а) підметові підрядні речення, б) присудкові підрядні речення, в) додаткові підрядні речення.

<p>2. Qualitatively-nominal: a) descriptive attributive clauses, b) restrictive/limiting attributive clauses.</p>	<p>2. Квалітативно-номінативні: а) описові атрибутивні підрядні речення, б) обмежуючі атрибутивні підрядні речення.</p>
<p>3. Adverbial clauses: of time, place, purpose, cause, attending circumstances, condition, concession, result, etc.</p>	<p>3. Адвербіальні підрядні речення: часу, місця, мети, причини, способу дії, умови, допусту, наслідку тощо.</p>

Similar ideas are expressed by another Ukrainian scholar Yu. Zhlyuktenko, who claims that the structure of complex sentences and the types of complex sentences do not show much difference in English and in Ukrainian. The peculiarity of Ukrainian complex sentences is a wider use of the complex sentences in the principal part of which there is a correlative or relative (or demonstrative) word (корелятивне, або співвідносне або вказівне слово) which is concretized or specified by the subordinate clause [5, 143].

1. The subject clause / Підметове підрядне речення

This type of subordinate sentence or clause performs the function of the subject in regard to the principal clause. If such a type of clause is eliminated then the principal clause becomes incomplete and loses its sense.

In English such sentences are joined with the help of the conjunctions *that*, *whether*, *if* and the connective words (сполучні слова) *who*, *what*, *which*, the pronouns *whatever*, *whoever*, *whichever*, the pronominal adverbs *where*, *when*, *why*, *how*, e.g.:

that he has made this mistake is strange. Whether he will come is uncertain.

Ukrainian subject clauses are most often connected with the help of relative pronouns *хто*, *що* in the form of different cases. The main clause necessarily contains the correlative (or demonstrative) word which performs the function of the formal subject, most often these are such words as – *той*, *та*, *те*, *ті*, or *весь* (*вся*, *все*, *всі*). Compare: *Перемагає той, хто невідступно бореться. Всі, хто побачив його, вклонилися.*

When a demonstrative word is absent the connection between the principal and subordinate parts of the sentence becomes closer and acquires the adversative meaning, e.g.:

Що не вклонилось – ожило, що не скорилось – не зійшло з народної дороги (А. Малишко) [5, 143-144].

2. The predicative clause / Присудкове підрядне речення

Clauses of this type are connected with the help of auxiliary part of the compound predicate of the principal clause and substitute or complement its predicative member (that is the nominal part of the compound nominal predicate). In English such sentences are connected with the help of the conjunctions *that*, *whether*, *if*, *as if*, and the connective words *what*, *who*, *why*, *where*, *how*, *when*, e.g.:

This is what I have thought for the last fifteen years.

The weather is not what it was yesterday.

The authors of different grammars do not agree in their views regarding the type of such subordinate sentences which refer to the principal clause with the formal subject *it*, e.g.: *It is strange that he should behave so*. The majority of linguists consider such clauses to be subject subordinate clauses. The linguist L. L. Ioffic is of the view that such sentences can be regarded as predicative subordinate clauses. He considers that the principal clause has the impersonal character and the relations between the adjective of the principal clause and the subordinate clause are similar to the relations between the parts of the compound predicate.

In Ukrainian predicative clauses are connected with the principal clause by means of the conjunctions and the connective words *хто, що, який, щоб* and others. The principal clause contains necessarily the correlative word *той (та, те, ті)*, or *такий (така, таке, такі)*, e.g.:

Він не такий, щоб без діла сидіти. Ми – ті, що ви хотіли бачити [5, 144].

3. The object/objective clause / Підрядне додаткове речення

English object clauses are connected by means of the conjunctions *that, whether, if* and those connective words that are used for subject and predicative subordinate clauses. The asyndetic connection of object clauses is also widespread.

In Ukrainian the most characteristic conjunctions of object clauses are *що* and *щоб*. Besides, the following connective words are also widely used: pronouns *хто, що, який, чий, котрий, стільки-*, adverbs *як, де, куди, звідки, коли, чому, нащо*. Compare:

We didn't forget that our destination was far away.

Ми не забували, що до мети ще далеко.

As well as in other types of subordinate sentences main sentences can have demonstrative or correlative words *той, та, те, ті*: *Скориставшись з того, що я відвернувся, він проскочив у хату*.

In object clauses which present the indirect speech in English the phenomenon of sequence of tenses is widely spread. In Ukrainian this phenomenon is absent [5, 146-147].

4. Attributive clauses / Підрядні означальні речення

In English attributive clauses are joined to the principal clause with the help of the following connective words: relative pronouns *who, which, that*, relative adverbs *when, where, why* or they can be joined without conjunctions at all.

In the Ukrainian language the attributive clause is typically connected with the principal clause with the help of the connective words *який, чий, хто, що, котрий* in different forms. More rarely they are joined with the help of the connective words *де, куди, звідки, коли, як*. Sometimes attributive clauses are connected with the help of the conjunctions *як, ніби, наче, неначе, мов, немов*, and others.

In both languages attributive clauses are not homogeneous in their grammatical nature and are subdivided into two distinct groups – restrictive/limiting (обмежувальні) and descriptive (описові).

Restrictive attributive clauses are tightly connected with a certain word of the main clause performing the function of its attribute. Moreover, the idea expressed by the main clause does not finish on its boundary with the subordinate clause; when the subordinate sentence is removed the meaning of the principal clause becomes blurred, unclear. Compare:

There was a small stone at that corner of the room which was the nearest to the master's desk (Ch. Dickens).

У тому кутку кімнати, що був найближче до столу вчителя, був невеликий камінь.

Descriptive attributive clauses also belong to one member of the main clause but are not connected with it so tightly. Such subordinate clauses can be easily omitted without distorting the content of the main clause. Compare:

The manager of our office, who is a highly educated man, speaks several foreign languages.

Менеджер нашої установи, який є високоосвіченим, розмовляє кількома іноземними мовами.

The connective word in sentences of such a type can be easily replaced by the coordinating conjunction (сурядний сполучник) and the pronoun, e.g.:

In the street I met some children, who (= and they) showed me the way to the station.

На вулиці я зустрів дітей, які (= і вони) показали мені дорогу на станцію.

In English restrictive attributive clauses are more tightly connected with the main clause than in Ukrainian. In terms of punctuation, it is revealed in the way that English restrictive attributive clauses are not separated by commas whereas in Ukrainian all attributive clauses are separated by commas [5, 144-145].

5. Adverbial clauses / Підрядні обставинні речення

Such clauses are of various types in both languages.

5.1. Adverbial clauses of place / підрядні речення місця

In both languages the sentences of such a type characterize the action of the main or principal clause, pointing towards its place or direction.

English sentences are joined to the main clause with the help of connective words *where, wherever, whence*.

Ukrainian adverbial clauses of place are connected with the principal clause with the help of connective words *де, куди, звідки* (розм. *відкіль, звідкіль*). Unlike English in the Ukrainian main clauses there can be observed the use of the so-called demonstrative words — adverbs, having spatial meaning, — *там, туди, звідти* (розм. *звідтіль, відти*), for example:

Звідти, звідки на темному фоні неба все частіше спалахувала блискавка, загуркотів грім.

English main clauses do not use demonstrative words of such a meaning in similar cases; the relations of place and direction are rendered with the help of connective words and context. Compare:

I shall go where my brother lives. Я поїду туди, де живе мій брат [6; 147-148].

5.2. Adverbial clauses of time / підрядні речення часу

The adverbial clauses of time are joined in English to the main one with the help of conjunctions *when, while, as, after, before, till, until, since, as long as*, etc. In Ukrainian the adverbial clauses of time are joined with the help of the following connective words and conjunctions: *коли, відколи, поки (розм. покіль), аж поки, доки (розм. докіль), аж доки, як після того як, в міру того як, тільки, як тільки, тільки що, щойно, ледве, скоро* and others.

In English the function of conjunctions of adverbial clauses of time can be also fulfilled by some adverbs, for example, *directly, immediately*:

I recognized the place *directly I saw it*. – Я пізнав це місце, *як тільки його побачив*.

Immediately he received the telegram, he started for Kyiv. – *Як тільки (ледве, щойно) він одержав телеграму, він виїхав до Києва*.

The connective function with the meaning of time is performed in modern English also by some nouns or word-combinations: *the moment (в ту мить як), the day (в той день коли), the evening (у той вечір коли), the next time (наступного разу), at the time (в той час як), by the time (до того часу коли)*, etc.:

The moment I saw him I understood everything. – У ту мить, *як я його побачив*, я все зрозумів.

The peculiarity of Ukrainian adverbial clauses of time are the composite conjunctions of the type *після того як, відтоді як, з того часу як, в той час як* etc. The first part of such a conjunction can be placed in the main clause, whereas the second part *як (коли)* — is in the subordinate clause and is separated from the first one by the intonation pause, and by comma in writing, e.g.:

Зробимо це *після того, як* усі матеріали будуть перевірені [6; 147-149].

5.3. Adverbial clauses of manner (attending circumstances) / підрядні речення способу дії (супровідних обставин)

Adverbial classes of manner are joined in English with the help of conjunctions *as, the way, as if, as though*. They point out in what way the action of the main clause takes place. Rather often such a sentence bears in its meaning some sort of comparison, connected with the *shade of suggestion*, e.g.: *You speak so as if you did not know me*. – Ви говорите так, *ніби ви мене не знаєте*.

In Ukrainian such subordinate sentences are joined with the help of the connective word *як* and conjunctions: *як, ніби, мов, немов, наче, неначе, ніж (розм. аніж), що* and others. All of them (except *ніж*) have a correlative word *так* in the main clause, which is concretized by the subordinate sentence: *Він ішов так, наче добре знав дорогу*.

There are three subtypes of the adverbial clauses of manner in both languages:

a) Adverbial clauses of manner proper (власне способу дії), joined in English with the help of conjunctions: *as, as ... as* and others; in Ukrainian – *як, що, щоб*, e.g.: *You ought to write as he does*. Буде так, *як хотіла ти*

(В. Сосюра).

b) Adverbial clauses of comparison (порівняльні) with conjunctions *as if, as though* in English; *як, ніби, мов, немов, наче, неначе* in Ukrainian, e.g.: I remember this story *as if (as though) I had just read it*. А він, мов нічого не чув, іде собі далі (А. Малишко).

The peculiarity of English adverbial clauses of comparison is that their predicate is used in the form of conditional mood: He spoke *as if (as though) he knew this question very well*.

In Ukrainian the adverbial clauses of comparison are also widely used in conditional mood, where almost all conjunctions can be joined with the particle *бу/б*: По траві плили хвилі, *начебто* це був не луг, а річка.

c) Adverbial clauses of result (наслідкові) with conjunctions: in English *so ... that*: in Ukrainian *що, аж*, for example: He played *so that we admired him*. Вода б'ється в береги, *аж осока шумить* (Леся Українка) [6; 149-150].

5.4. Adverbial clauses of measure or degree / підрядні речення міри або ступеня

These adverbial clauses are very close in their meaning to adverbial clauses of manner. While the latter usually explain the verb-predicate of the main clause, adverbial clauses of measure or degree refer to some adjective or adverb in such a sentence.

In English such sentences are connected with the main clause with the help of conjunctions *as ... as, so ... as, as, as if, as though, not so ... as* and others, e.g.: He played *so well that everybody admired him*. — Він грав *так гарно, що всі ним захопилися*.

In Ukrainian the adverbial clauses of measure or degree also include clauses joined with the help of double conjunctions *чим ... тим, що... то, чим... то* and others, for example: *Чим* вище дерево, *тим* глибше йде коріння. *Що* далі ми заглиблювалися в ліс, *то* темніше ставало навкруги [6; 150-151].

5.5. Adverbial clauses of purpose / підрядні речення мети

English adverbial clauses of purpose are joined with the help of conjunctions *that, in order that, so that, lest, for fear (that)*. Predicates of such clauses have a special modal expression. Quite often predicates are used in the analytical form of conditional mood: I speak slowly *so that you may understand me*. Я говорю повільно, *щоб ви мене зрозуміли*.

In Ukrainian such clauses are joined most often by conjunctions *щоб* and *для того щоб*, less often by – *аби*, for example: Він піде туди, *щоб почути все самому* [6; 151].

5.6. Adverbial clauses of cause / підрядні речення причини

Adverbial clauses of cause are joined in English to the main clause with the help of conjunctions *because, as, since, now that*. Sentences with the conjunction *because* point towards the immediate cause of action or state, which is spoken about in the main clause, while the adverbial clause of cause with the conjunction

as usually motivates the content of the main sentence. Compare:

I went away *because there was no one there*. – Я пішов, *бо там не було нікого*.

As *there was no one there*, I had to work alone. – *Оскільки там не було нікого*, я мусив працювати один.

Besides the mentioned conjunctions the adverbial clauses of cause are joined with the main clause by means of composite conjunctions, which originated from the substantival and participial word combinations, for example: *for the reason that, on the ground that, seeing that, considering that*.

In Ukrainian conjunctions, most frequently used in adverbial clauses of cause, are as follows: *бо, тому що, через те що, тим що, від того що, що, а що, а як* and others. The most typical of them are *бо, тому що, через те що*, for example: Він не ходить на збори, *тому що боїться критики* [6; 152].

5.7. Adverbial clauses of condition / підрядні речення умови

In English the adverbial clauses of condition are joined with the help of conjunctions *if, unless, but that, in case, provided, suppose, supposing* and others. The most frequent of them is the conjunction *if*. The conjunctions *unless* and *but*, having negative meaning point, to the fact that the action of the main sentence is possible only in case, when the action of the subordinate sentence does not take place, for example:

He is sure to come *unless he has some urgent work to do*. – Він обов'язково прийде, *якщо тільки в нього немає якої-небудь дуже термінової роботи*.

Adverbial clauses of condition are characterized by distinct modality. That is why they are so widely used in conditional mood.

In English complex sentences with adverbial clauses of condition are characterized by asyndentic connection often accompanied by inversion, for example: *Had it not been so late*, I should have stayed longer.

Elliptical clauses of condition are also widely spread in English: *If necessary*, I shall do it. I am sure you would act in the same way *if in his place*.

In Ukrainian adverbial clauses of condition are connected with the help of conjunctions *коли, якщо, як, як тільки, аби, скоро, раз* and others. When the adverbial clause of condition is placed before the main one, then the latter starts with the conjunction-equivalent *то*: *Якби я знала, що діждуся, що побачу, то ще б підождала* (Т. Шевченко) [6; 153].

5.8. Adverbial clauses of concession / підрядні речення допусту

Adverbial clauses of concession are joined in English with the help of conjunctions and connective words *though (although), in spite of the fact that, notwithstanding that, whoever, whatever, however, no matter that*.

Though it was only nine o'clock, there were few people in the streets. – *Хоч була лише дев'ять година*, на вулицях було мало людей.

He went out *in spite of the fact that he was quite ill*. – Він вийшов, *хоч був зовсім хворий*.

In Ukrainian adverbial clauses of concession are joined with the main clause

by means of the conjunctions and connective words *хоч (хоча), хай (нехай), дарма що, незважаючи на те що, як не, скільки не* and others. These conjunctions can correlate with adversative conjunctions *а, але, однак, проте* etc., for example: *Хоч уже листя падало, осінню пахло, а проте було тепло та ясно* (П. Мирний) [6; 156].

5.9. Adverbial clauses of result / підрядні речення наслідку

Adverbial clauses of result are joined in English to the main sentence with the help of the composite conjunction *so that* or the conjunction *that*, which correlates with the demonstrative adverb *so*, compare:

She sat behind *me so that I couldn't see her face*. – Вона сиділа позаду мене, *так що я не міг бачити її обличчя*.

The weather was *so bad that the plane could not start*. – Погода була *така погана, що літак не міг вилетіти*.

Ukrainian adverbial clauses of result have the same type of conjunction *так що (й)*: Підхопили всі, всі враз і з усіх сил, *так що коні шарахнулися набік* (Ю. Смолич).

In both languages adverbial clauses of result usually occupy the position after the main clause [6; 155-156].

Questions for self-control

1. State the difference between the notions “language” and “speech”.
2. Name the basic units of language and speech. Give their definitions.
3. Determine the difference between “paradigmatic” and “syntagmatic” relations.
4. Define the term “grammar”. What are considered to be the subfields of grammar? What types of grammar can be mentioned?
5. What is meant by a word structure as a basic language unit?
6. Dwell upon the classes of nouns differentiated according to different criteria. Provide examples.
7. State the difference between countable and uncountable nouns. Are there any similarities and differences in these groups of nouns in the contrasted English and Ukrainian languages?
8. Describe the noun as a part of speech according to the five characteristics. Compare the English noun with the Ukrainian noun in regard to their grammatical paradigm, grammatical categories, combinability potential, ways of functioning in the sentence.
9. Provide examples of nouns containing typical stem-building elements in English and Ukrainian.
10. Describe the typical oppositions within the system of the English noun and the Ukrainian noun. Show differences and similarities.
11. Mention the groups, into which adjectives are subdivided as a class of lexemes, taking into account their grammatical and semantic characteristics. Provide examples.
12. What are the peculiarities of the Ukrainian qualitative adjectives? Is there any difference between Ukrainian and English qualitative adjectives?
13. Mention the allomorphic groups of adjectives in both contrasted languages.
14. What groups are Ukrainian adjectives divided into according to their morphological structure?
15. Characterize adjective as a part of speech (think of the number of grammatical categories, typical stem-building elements, combinability, syntactic functions). Do these characteristics differ in the contrasted languages?
16. Characterize the groups of numerals in English and Ukrainian languages.
17. What are the peculiarities of Ukrainian collective numerals?
18. What are the groups of English and Ukrainian numerals according to their stem-structure?
19. Compare the group of fractional numerals in both contrasted languages.
20. What are the peculiarities of Ukrainian ordinal numerals in comparison with the English ones?
21. Present the general characteristics of pronoun as a part of speech. Do pronouns differ from other classes of words?
22. Enumerate the classes of pronouns in the contrasted English and Ukrainian languages. Does their number differ?
23. Highlight the opinions of different linguists concerning the issues of differentiating classes of pronouns.
24. Dwell upon the grammatical categories characteristic of English and Ukrainian

pronouns.

25. What are the peculiarities of English versus Ukrainian personal pronouns?
26. Compare the English verb system with the Ukrainian verb system.
27. Characterize the verb as a part of speech (think of the number of grammatical categories, typical stem-building elements, combinability, syntactic functions). Do these characteristics differ in the contrasted languages?
28. What is the subdivision of verbs according to their stem structure? Does it coincide in English and Ukrainian languages?
29. Mention the groups, into which verbs are subdivided as a class of lexemes, taking into account their grammatical and semantic characteristics. Provide examples in English and Ukrainian languages.
30. Describe the category of person of the verb. Does it differ in two languages under study?
31. Mention the groups, into which adverbs are subdivided as a class of lexemes, taking into account their grammatical and
32. Semantic characteristics. Provide examples in both contrasted languages.
33. Mention the allomorphic groups of adverbs in both contrasted languages.
34. Characterize adverb as a part of speech (think of the number of grammatical categories, typical stem-building elements, combinability, syntactic functions). Do these characteristics differ in the contrasted languages?
35. Describe the grammatical categories of adverb as a part of speech. Does their number differ in the contrasted languages?
36. Define the category of the degrees of comparison of adverbs as a grammatical phenomenon. State the basic similarities and differences in its manifestation English and Ukrainian languages.
37. Define the sentence as the basic unit of syntax.
38. What are the phenomena, present at every act of speech?
39. What is the relation between such notions as “predicativity” and “predication”?
40. Dwell upon the expression of syntactic relations in both contrasted languages.
41. How are sentences classified as to their structure?
42. Describe the nature of a simple sentence. What parts of the sentence are usually enough to make a simple sentence?
43. State the difference between the principal parts of the sentence and the secondary parts of the sentence.
44. Define the subject of the sentence. Are there any differences in the subject expression in English and Ukrainian languages?
45. What are subjectless sentences?
46. Define the predicate of the sentence. Are there any differences in the predicate expression in English and Ukrainian languages?
47. Define the composite sentence and its subtypes.
48. What is meant by “semi-complex” and “semi-compound” sentences? Are these types found in both contrasted languages?
49. Dwell upon the compound sentence with conjunctions in English and Ukrainian; state main similarities and differences.
50. Describe the copulative compound sentence in both contrasted languages. Name

the types of relations between the constituent parts of the copulative compound sentence expressed with the help of the most frequent coordinative conjunctions. Provide examples in both languages.

51. Dwell upon the disjunctive compound sentences in English and Ukrainian. What are the most frequent conjunctions that unite the constituent parts of such a sentence in both languages? Provide examples.

52. Dwell upon the nature of complex sentences in English and Ukrainian.

53. Describe the subject subordinate clause in both contrasted languages.

54. Are there any difficulties in singling out predicative subordinate clauses in English and Ukrainian?

55. Compare the means of joining object clauses to the matrix clause in contrasted languages.

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Остапеко Світлана Анатоліївна
Дмитрук Лілія Анатоліївна
Бондаревська Олена Михайлівна

Кафедра іноземної філології, українознавства та соціально-правових дисциплін

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