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DISCIPLINES**

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**BASICS OF LINGUISTICS:
COMMUNICATION FOR MEDICAL PROFESIONALS**

*Course of lectures on the discipline "Ukrainian as a Foreign Language"
for medical students of the 4th year*

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Liakh T. O., Malets N.B. Basics on Linguistics: Communication for Medical Professionals. Course of lectures on the discipline "Ukrainian as a Foreign Language" for medical students of the 4th year/ Основи мовознавства: мова професійного спілкування в медицині. Курс лекцій із дисципліни «Українська мова як іноземна» для студентів-медиків 4 курсу. Ужгород: ДВНЗ «УжНУ», 2022. 180 с.

У навчальному посібнику висвітлено важливі аспекти мовознавства, зокрема зв'язок мовознавства і медицини, представлено основні одиниці і явища мовних рівнів (фонетики, морфеміки, морфології, синтаксису, лексикології, культури мовлення) у зв'язку із навчанням іноземних студентів-медиків навикам фахової комунікації українською мовою: засвоєння/вдосконалення орфоепічних норм української літературної мови, способів словотвору у фаховій мові лікаря; формування та вдосконалення професійних мовленнєвих навичок з урахуванням основ української морфології, синтаксичних особливостей фахового медичного тексту української мови; функціонування у професійній мові лікаря лексико-семантичних груп слів української мови; вдосконалення культури спілкування лікаря з пацієнтом. Посібник може використовуватися для самостійного опрацювання матеріалу, а також для дистанційної форми навчання.

Пропоноване видання рекомендовано іноземним студентам медичних спеціальностей, які вивчають українську мову на завершальному етапі, набувають навичок професійного мовлення, викладачам дисципліни «Українська мова» («Українська мова як іноземна»).

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Вивчення української мови іноземними студентами надає їм можливість адаптуватися в новому інакомовному середовищі, засвоїти комунікативні навики, що у свою чергу збагачує уявлення про світ, формуючи відповідну мовну картину. Тому у ході викладання дисципліни «Українська мова як іноземна» важливо надати студентам інформацію про зв'язок мови з позамовною дійсністю (історією, культурою, філософією тощо), мовознавства і медицини, висвітлити основні аспекти теорії мови з метою вдосконалення практичних комунікативних умінь у навчально-професійній сфері.

Мета пропонованого навчального видання – сформувати у студентів базові знання про мову як систему, основні лінгвістичні концепції і поняття у процесі засвоєння ними української мови як засобу спілкування та фахової мовленнєвої діяльності лікаря. Курс лекцій відповідає навчальній програмі дисципліни «Українська мова як іноземна» для здобувачів (іноземців) вищої освіти другого (магістерського) рівня галузі знань 22 «Охорона здоров'я» спеціальності 222 «Медицина» та вимогам освітнього стандарту мовної підготовки іноземних студентів.

У навчальному виданні висвітлено важливі аспекти мовознавства, представлено основні одиниці і явища мовних рівнів (фонетики, морфеміки, морфології, синтаксису, лексикології, культури мовлення) у зв'язку із навчанням іноземних студентів-медиків навикам фахової комунікації українською мовою: засвоєння/вдосконалення орфоепічних норм української літературної мови, способів словотвору у фаховій мові лікаря; формування та вдосконалення професійних мовленнєвих навичок з урахуванням основ української морфології, синтаксичних особливостей фахового медичного тексту української мови; функціонування у професійній мові лікаря лексико-семантичних груп слів української мови; вдосконалення культури спілкування лікаря з пацієнтом. Навчальний матеріал може використовуватися для самостійного опрацювання, а також для дистанційної форми навчання.

Пропоноване видання рекомендовано студентам медичних спеціальностей, які вивчають українську мову на завершальному етапі, набувають або вдосконалюють навички професійного мовлення, викладачам дисципліни «Українська мова» («Українська мова як іноземна»).

PREFACE

Ukrainian language helps foreign students studying in Ukrainian universities to adapt in a new foreign-language environment, to acquire communication skills. Learning of Ukrainian language enriches their perception of the world, forming an appropriate language picture. Therefore, in the course of the discipline "Ukrainian language as a foreign language", it is important to provide students with information that appears the connection of language with extra-linguistic reality (history, culture, philosophy, etc.), linguistics and medicine, shows up the main aspects of language theory in order to improvement of practical communication skills in educational professional sphere.

The purpose of this educational edition – to form students' basic knowledge of the language as a system, study basic linguistic concepts in relation to communication and the professional speech activity of a doctor. The course of lectures conforms to the syllabus of the discipline "Ukrainian as a foreign language" for seekers (foreigners) of the second educational degree (master's) of the subject area 22 "Healthcare", specialty 222 "Medicine", educational program "General Medicine" and correspond to the requirements of the educational standard of language training for foreign students.

An important aspects of linguistics, the main units and phenomena of language levels (phonetics, morphemics, morphology, syntax, lexicology, speech) are presented in this book in relation to professional communication skills: mastering/ improvement of orthoepy norms of the Ukrainian language, study of word formation in the professional speech of a doctor; formation and improvement of communication skills according to the basics of Ukrainian morphology, syntactic features of specialized medical texts in the Ukrainian language; study of the lexical-semantic groups of words functioning in the Ukrainian language in relation to the professional speech of a doctor; improvement of the doctor-patient communication. The educational material can be used for independent study, as well as for distance learning.

This edition is recommended for foreign medical students who are studying the Ukrainian language at the final grade level, acquiring or improving professional speaking skills, for those persons, who teaches the discipline "Ukrainian language" ("Ukrainian language as a foreign language").

I. THE ORIGINS, ESSENCE AND FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE. LANGUAGE AND THOUGHT. LANGUAGE AND SPEECH. PHILOSOPHY OF LANGUAGE. LINGUISTICS IN RELATION TO MEDICINE

- ➤ The origins of Language.
- ➤ Definition of Language.
- ➤ Functions of Language.
- ➤ Language and Thought.
- ➤ Language and Speech.
- ➤ Philosophy of Language.
- ➤ Linguistics in relation to medicine.

The origins of language

Language is central to the essence of humankind and the purpose behind this unique creation. It is the prototypical resource for human articulate discourse and intelligence, thought and communication, power and often survival. Language is essential to human existence. It is also essential for fulfilling the purpose behind such existence. It is the primary faculty behind the supremacy and vicegerency of humankind on earth.

"In the beginning was the Word", reads the Gospel of John 1:1. But what was this word? And where was it spoken? And how did humans come to speak it? Indeed, the origin of language is one of the greatest mysteries in human science, if not *the* greatest.

Scholars and scientists have been arguing for centuries about the origins of language and all the questions that tie into this. The Linguistic Society of Paris – an organisation dedicated to the study of languages – actually banned any debate on the issue in 1886 and did not retract it for several years. But why is it such a topic of debate?

Perhaps it's because language is such a unique and complex skill. It is something that only humans are able to do. Over the years there have been numerous attempts to teach apes to speak, and in particular chimpanzees – which are human's closest living relative. However, no other animal has the vocal pathology necessary to speak the way we do. Even attempting to teach chimps sign language has proven fruitless, with no animal demonstrating skill above the level of a two-year-old human. It seems the three things a creature needs to speak like a human is a human's brain, a human's vocal cords and a human's intelligence.

Modern theories sit in one of two camps: **Continuity** or **Discontinuity**. Continuity theories of language evolution hold that it must have developed gradually,

starting among the earliest ancestors of humans, with different features developing at different stages until people's speech resembled what we have today. Meanwhile, Discontinuity Theory suggests that because there is nothing even remotely similar to compare human language to, and it is likely to have appeared suddenly within human history. This may have been as a result of a genetic mutation within one individual, which was passed on through their ancestors and eventually became a dominant ability.

Before we explore these theories in more detail, let's look at some of the earliest ideas in the study of language origin.

The early theories of the origin of language all focus on where the first words came from that developed into the rich vocabularies spoken today. They are certainly imaginative – and all have whimsical names to match. *Max Müller (1823 – 1900)*, a philologist and linguist, published a list of these theories in the mid-19th century:

- Bow-wow
- Ding-Dong
- Pooh-pooh
- Yo-he-ho

Bow-wow was the theory that, much like the lyrebird, humans started out mimicking the noises and animal calls around them. From these noises, words developed. The Ding-dong theory is based on the idea of sound symbolism, and that small or sharp objects are named with words with high front vowels, compared to large or circular objects that have a round vowel at the end of the word. Pooh-pooh holds that the first words evolved from the natural verbal interjections humans make, such as exclaiming when surprised or yelping in pain. If Ye-he-ho makes you think of the Seven Dwarfs working in the gem mine, you're not far off; it's the theory that language started with the rhythmic noises made when doing manual labour, which allow muscle effort to synchronise.

Another early theory, albeit one not to appear on Müller's list, was Ta-ta. This was the idea that primitive people used their tongues to mimic hand gestures and the words came from there. So, a person might wave their hand up and down to say good-bye and making the same movement with the tongue results in a "ta-ta" sound.

These are all fun theories, but each of them has been almost entirely discounted by today's linguists and anthropologists.

The Gesture Theory

This holds that **language originates in gesture**. This theory was formulated and advanced by Wilhelm Wundt and Sir Richard Paget. The gesture-theorists opine that the primitive people communicated with one another by means of gestures made by hand, and ultimately the language-equivalents were substituted for these gestures. Sir Percy Nunn in his book "Education, its Data and first Principles" develops his theory

in full, and Macdonald Critchley deals with it elaborately in his work, "The Language of Gesture". They seem to point out that in saying 'I' and 'me' the lips are drawn inwards as if hinting at the speaker, and in saying 'you' and 'thou' the lips are moved outwards as if hinting at the person addressed. Similarly, in saying 'here' and 'there' the lips are drawn inwards and thrown outwards respectively.

Divine source theories

Some of the oldest theories regarding language are known as 'Divine source theories'. According to these ideas, the gods bestowed humans with the power to communicate.

Of course, the other earliest theory of language evolution is that it is a God-given ability. Let us peep into the Biblical account of the origin of language which is contained in the second chapter in the book of Genesis. According to this account, "the Lord God formed man of dust from the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life, and man became a living being". Afterwards he created trees and rivers. And then *"out of the ground the Lord God formed every beast of the field and every bird of the air, and brought them to the man to see what he would call them; and whatever the man called every living creature, that was its name. The man gave names to all cattle, and to the birds of the air, and to every beast of the field…."* It is an account of the birth of language in man, who is placed at the centre of the world.

Genesis states that Adam and Eve, the first man and woman, were immediately able to understand what God said to them and could communicate with each other in this same language. According to Christianity, all of mankind spoke this one same language for generations more until the rebellion of Babel.

According to the Book of Genesis, as the waters of the Great Flood receded, humankind came together in Shinar. Here, they took advantage of the fact they all spoke one language by banding together to build a huge tower that would let them reach God in heaven. Seeing this, He confounded their speech by giving them different languages and then scattered them across the Earth. As a result, they were unable to work together to complete the tower. According to the Bible, God became enraged one day as mankind was constructing the Tower of Babel, so he confused humans by giving them various languages so that they couldn't communicate with one another. God then spread these humans along with their new languages across the world. This biblical narrative can indeed explain the current language variety that we see in our modern world.

The language phenomena are discussed in the verses of the Qur'an. As a sacred book that is believed as the guideline for human life, the Qur'an surely also contains verses on the language phenomena, both regarding the origin of human language, the diversity of human languages, and ethics of using language.

In the perspective of the Qur'an, the human ability to speak and the diversity of languages are the form of God's power and love. Language varieties, both geographical and temporal parameters, and changes, can be studied in terms of the existence of God. In addition, language is meant to be used as part of "worship" because it is a tool to earn God's graced and blessing.

In the view of Qur'an, since language is one of the most important things for humans, it becomes the first thing which is taught by God to Adam as the first human. Qur'an states that the origin of spoken language is the instruction from God as said. And He taught Adam all the names (of everything), then He showed them to the angels and said, "Tell Me the names of these if you are truthful". They (angels) said: "Glory is to You, we have no knowledge except what you have taught us. Verily, You are the Knower, the Wise". He said: "O Adam! Inform them of their names", and when he had informed them of their names, He said: "Did I not tell you that I know the Ghayb (unseen) in the heavens and the earth, and I know what you reveal and what you have been concealing" (Noble Qur'an, al-Baqarah,2:31- 33). *According to Ibnu Abbas that God taught Adam all the names that people use, such as human, animal, sky, earth, land, sea, horse, donkey, and so forth, including the names of the other species.*

In philosophy, the term of name is used sometimes to describe any word or phrase that can refer and sometimes in the more restricted sense of a word that uniquely identifies an individual. Moreover, learning the names of all things refer to learning the sentences that describe conceptions or meanings as whole. When humans use a name of "horse" for a group of certain animals, they indeed use a symbol of language which indicates a concept or a whole meaning which are apropriate with others horse. Thus, the verse which states that God taught Adam the names of all things can be understood that He taught him a language which is used to name all things. Briefly, He taught Adam all names which describe the existing concept.

The origins of spoken language can be traced back to **Egypt's Twenty-sixth dynasty**. The earliest known human language experiment was undertaken by Pharaoh Psammetichus I.

Another analogy goes according to Greek mythology with the earliest humans who spoke Zeus' own language. Their belief is that language was a gift from the deity Vé, who was Odin's brother.

Additionally, another theory, according to the Wa-Sania people of East Africa, is that all our human ancestors once spoke a single vocal language. But then an illness struck, causing them to go insane and speak new words. And this resulted in the development of diverse languages.

There is also a detailed account of another emerging **theory from Aboriginal Australian traditio**n. It is said that an elderly woman named Wurruri died. As a result of her death, many different tribes of people gathered to devour her carcass.

Each tribe that came to the gathering spoke a different language after consuming a different section of Wurruri's body. And this is how dialects in a language evolved.

Noam Chomsky (born 1928) – an American linguist, philosopher, cognitive scientist, political activist, author, and lecturer – is among the world's leading linguists and acknowledges that his field of expertise is home to some seemingly unsolvable mysteries; namely, where language came from and how. His theory is that a possible genetic mutation in one of our human ancestors gave them the ability to speak and understand language, which was passed on to their offspring. Because of the usefulness of this ability, Darwinist evolution meant that it became a dominant feature throughout humanity.

A **UCLA/Emory study** published in the journal Nature in 2009 seems to back up the theory. It revealed FOXP2, the gene essential to the development of language and speech, differs significantly depending on whether it is human or chimpanzee. Not only might this explain why the mutation of this gene results in language being disrupted, but also how we can talk and animals can't. Dr Daniel Geschwind of the David Geffen School of Medicine at UCLA said: "Earlier research suggests that the amino-acid composition of human FOXP2 changed rapidly around the same time that language emerged in modern humans". The scientists discovered that the gene functioned and looked different in humans and chimps, and this difference meant a human brain was wired for language and a chimp's was not. Could it be that an early mutation of this single gene is what ultimately separates us from all other life on Earth?

Of course, **Chomsky's** theory is not the only possible answer to how language evolved. Many more experts follow the Continuity Theory that it evolved among human ancestors from pre-linguistic sounds. There are so many ideas within this field, among them is the *'putting the baby down'* hypothesis. Anthropologist *Dean Falk* suggests that as early humans lost their fur, it became more difficult for mothers to carry their babies on their backs as they gathered food and foraged. To reassure the baby she had not abandoned them, the mother would call to it and use facial expressions, body language and tactile communication like tickling. From this, Falk theorises language evolved.

Another theory put forward by anthropologist **Robin Dunbar** is that as the human communities grew larger, people needed to find a more efficient form of grooming in order to keep their peers on their side. As a result, a type of vocal grooming developed – and it is likely these very early conversations would have been similar to the gossip we still indulge in today.

Another theory to be mentioned was adduced over a century ago in the early days of modern linguistics. In 1823 was published in Edinburgh *The History of the European Languages* by **Alexander Murray (1775 – 1813)**, professor of Oriental

Languages at the University of Edinburgh. Murray should fix his attention on the acquisition and comparison of languages. When he applied to enter the University of Edinburgh, at the age of 18, he already had a thorough knowledge of French, Latin, Hebrew, Greek and German, and had somehow picked up a smattering of Arabic, Abyssinian, Welsh and Anglo-Saxon. By the end of his life it is reported that he knew most (if not all) of the European languages, ancient and modern, and – of course – numerous Oriental languages.

In 1812 – the same year he won the Chair of Oriental Languages at Edinburgh – Murray completed work on his magnum opus, *History of the European Languages: Researches into the Affinities of the Teutonic, Greek, Celtic, Slavonic, and Indian Nations*. He finished the book one year before his death, and four years before the German philologist *Franz Bopp* – the founding father of Indo-European Studies – published his influential comparative grammar. Sadly, Murray's book did not see print before 1823, and so his pioneering contribution to Comparative Linguistics has been somewhat overlooked.

As early as 1808, Murray wrote that "Greek and Latin are only dialects of a language much more simple, regular, and ancient which forms the basis of almost all the tongues of Europe and… of Sanskrit itself".

There were several different theories and analogies for us to take into consideration on our journey of trying to understand the origin of language. Of course there are a number of theories claiming to explain the origin and evolution of language. But based on what we know to be the languages of today, there was much to be desired from the conclusions these theories made on language origin. At this time, we still can't say exactly how and when language developed. But we do know that communication is needed for humans to function together. We know for sure that language has come a very, very long way!

Definition of language

Language is the most influential way to communicate with each other. But many of us want to answer the question 'what is the definition of language'? We cannot find a single definition of language that has wholly explained the phenomenon in that particular question and give us satisfaction and stopped scholars, authors, and linguists from defining the exact answer to that question.

However, language is a complex human phenomenon, as all attempts to define it have proved inadequate. In brief, we can say, language is an 'original noise' used in actual social situations by human beings. Language is a system of conventional, spoken, or written symbols utilizing which human beings are used to communicate.

Let us now go through the definition of language delivered by different scholars, linguists, authors, and reference books.

Aristotle (384–322 BC) was a Greek philosopher and polymath during the Classical period in Ancient Greece. Speech is the representation of the experience of the mind. According to Aristotle, language is a speech sound produced by human beings to express their ideas, emotions, thoughts, desires, and feelings.

Indian linguist and philosopher *Patanjali (200 BC – 150 BC)* utters that language is a human expression produced by different speech organs of human beings. Through speech organs, humans produce several expressions converted to language.

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857 – 1913) – the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern linguistics. According to de Saussure, Language is an arbitrary system of signs constituted of the signifier and signified. In other words, language is first a system based on no logic or reason, and secondly, the system covers both objects and expressions used for objects. Thirdly objects and expressions are arbitrarily linked. And finally, expressions include sounds and graphemes used by humans for generating speech and writing, respectively, for communication.

Edward Sapir (1884 –1939) was an American Jewish anthropologist, linguist, who is widely considered to be one of the most important figures in the development of the discipline of linguistics in the United States. According to Sapir, language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires through a system of voluntarily produced sounds. The definition of Sapir expresses that language is mainly concerned with only human beings and constitutes a system of sounds produced by them for communication.

Leonard Bloomfield (1887 –1949) was an American linguist who led the development of structural linguistics in the United States during the 1930s and the 1940s. He made significant contributions to Indo-European historical linguistics, the description of Austronesian languages. Bloomfield's definition of language focuses on the utterances produced by all the community's people Bloomfield's definition of language focuses on the utterances produced by all the community's people. The totality of the utterances that can be made in a speech community is the language of that speech community. Bloomfield's definition of language focuses on the utterances produced by all the community's people and hence overlooks writing. Besides, he stresses form, not meaning, as the basis of language.

Noam Chomsky (born 1928) – an American linguist, says the language is the inherent capability of native speakers to understand and form grammatical sentences. A language is a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite length constructed out of a limited set of elements. This definition of language considers sentences as the basis of a language. Sentences may be limited or unlimited and are made up of only minor components.

Ronald Wardhaugh (born 1932) – an American linguist, says that the language is a system of arbitrary vocal sounds used for human communication. This definition

of language by Wardhaugh mainly insists on arbitrariness, vocal sounds, humans, and communication.

After Ukrainian linguist **M. P. Kochergan**, language is a system of communication units and the rules of their functioning.

According to the definition of ***Encyclopedia Britannica***, language is a system of conventional or written symbols through which human beings, as members of social groups and participants in their culture, communicate. In other words, it says language is a system of communication through which human beings express themselves.

Thus, we can say that language is a system of communication or arbitrary vocal sounds through which human beings communicate and interact with each other in their everyday lives. There are approximately 6,500 spoken languages available in the entire world used by different social groups and cultures.

Functions of Language

What utterances make up our daily verbal communication? Some of our words convey meaning, some convey emotions, and some actually produce actions. Language also provides endless opportunities for fun because of its limitless, sometimes nonsensical, and always changing nature.

There are the seven main functions of language. The functions are:
1. Expressive and communicative functions
2. Interpretative function
3. Control function
4. The functions of remembering and thinking
5. The discovery of One's Name
6. Social function of language
7. Creative function.

Function 1. Expressive and Communicative Functions
The most basic function of language as we can guess, is that of the expressive function, an attempt to express a sudden change of state, fear, delight, pain or confusion. Whatever it is, such an expression is not a deliberate, conscious expression, but a spontaneous, immediate response not directed towards any other object.

Incidentally, in many cases this also serves as a communication to other members of the group or species, particularly in situations of danger. Most probably, these functions are automatic instinctual functions, and found in lower organisms also. However, at the human level, the communicative role assumes more crucial importance.

Function 2. Interpretative Function

It may be seen that when a particular occurrence or expression serves as a stimulus to others it also serves a function of becoming aware of interpreting a particular situation. Thus, the cry of one animal in the face of danger is interpreted by other members of the species. The interpretative function is very obvious at the human level.

The interpretative function serves to restore a state of cognitive equilibrium. While the stimulus itself creates a condition of uncertainty or novelty, the interpretation serves to clarify the situation and restore the equilibrium. Such an interpretation helps to place the information in an appropriate position or slot in one's cognitive world.

Thus, when an offspring gets separated from the mother and suddenly finds her again the sound that may be made is different from the one that would have been made if a strange animal is seen. The sounds on the two occasions, may be phonetically similar, but there is a difference in the meanings of the two sounds meaning in a very elementary sense.

One may question whether one can attribute qualities like meaning, cognition, etc. to animals. But one may also ask why not? Thus, the second major function of the language is to help the organism to interpret and organise cognitive experiences and position them in one's cognitive world.

Function 3. Control Function

When one talks of the function of control, there emerges a social dimension apart from the individual dimension. Gradually, as associations get established between certain states of existence and a stimulus on the one hand and certain sounds, there results a reproducibility of a reaction. Thus, the child cries when he is hungry or suffering from pain. This cry in turn makes the mother, or even the animal mother to rush and help. Here is the beginning of control.

The cry brings the mother's attention and hope, and in later years the attention of those who are dear and close and those who are in a position to support. This is the first experience of mastering the environment and ability to control. Here it may be seen that at simple levels, this control function may not be deliberate and conscious, but as one grows and the environment becomes more organised, the control function of language becomes more and more central.

Function 4. The Functions of Remembering and Thinking

Imagine our being able to think and remember without the use of words. It is almost impossible to recall or remember or think without the use of words and therefore, language. It is language, which helps us to encode experiences, store them and retrieve and decode. It is language, which helps us to translate experiences into thought and engage in processes of different types.

Function 5. The Discovery of One's Name

One of the important milestones in the development of the child is the discovery that he or she has a name and, this is the beginning of the sense of self- identity which leads to feelings like me, mine, others, not me, etc. The discovery of one's name plays a very crucial role in the overall psychological development of the individual.

It is the beginning of self-identity, and an attempt to look at oneself as an object. It is this which essentially makes for a difference between human organism and the non-human organism and between a very young child and an adult and mentally disturbed adult.

This issue of formation of self-concept and self-identity is the very critical role played by language in the development of the self and overall psychological development.

Function 6. Social Function of Language

In addition to these individual functions, language performs a very important social function. While promoting a sense of personal identity language also serves to develop a sense of social identity, a sense of belongingness to a particular group, marking out different degrees of social proximity and distance.

All of us belong to social groups speaking the same language. Similarly, the national anthem which is nothing but a set of words creates and maintains a sense of social identity.

Apart from the common functions of expression and communication, the psychological and social functions played by language are very crucial and are becoming more and more important in today's world.

Function 7. Creative Function

Language plays a very crucial role in imaginative and creative activity. Is it possible to think of writing a novel or poetry without language? Language, then not only helps us to control and regulate our cognitions but also enables us to break free and engage in creative imagination. Here again, paradoxically, language also contributes to the emergence of very 'creative' delusions and belief systems in the mentally ill.

On the whole, one can see the very critical and crucial role played 'by language in our life. It is perhaps, impossible to think of any place or situation in life where one can function without the help of language.

This discussion of the functions of languages is rather brief, and has been attempted only to highlight the major functions. Perhaps, one can highlight many more functions of language. No wonder, freedom of speech is regarded as the most fundamental right.

Jakobson's functions of the language and theory of communication

Roman Jakobson (1896-1982) – a Russian-American linguist and literary theorist. We'll discuss Jakobson's functions, or factors, that all languages need in order to communicate effectively. Roman Jakobson was a linguist who studied the structure of language and was particularly interested in the difficulties that appear in many languages. He was one of the pioneers in structural linguistics, which is the theory that language is a structured system of interrelated formal units. Structural linguistics analyzes how units such as word structure, sentence syntax, and phonetics relate to each other.

Jakobson was also interested in philology – the study of literary texts, and oral and written records, as well as establishing their authenticity. His work eventually led to creating a theory of communication in which he established what he called the six functions of language.

The word communication comes from the Latin word *communicare*, which means "to share" or "to be in relation with". This makes sense because sharing and relations sort of form the basis of communication. You need at least one person to share information, and at least one person to receive that information, to participate in the communication process.

Jakobson's theory looks at what needs to be present in the process of linguistic communication, beyond the simple relationship of sending and receiving information. Jakobson establishes that there are six functions of language that are needed for communication to occur. In addition, there are six elements, or factors, in the communication process. Each function focuses on and interacts with a factor of the communication process.

In Jakobson's theory, there are six factors that are required for communication:

- *Addresser:* This is the person who delivers a message to a specific audience.
- *Addressee:* This is the audience that receives the message. Must consist of at least one person but could include many people.
- *Context:* The context forms the setting or the reason for the message that will be communicated.
- *Contact:* There needs to be a relational channel and connection between the addresser and the addressee. This connection keeps the lines of communication open.
- *Common code:* The code includes the rules that combine to form the message and correspond to the type of language used.
- *Message:* The message is what is sent by the addresser and corresponds to an experience, idea, explanation, and so on.

Basically, these factors work together to enable the communication process. They are the steps to successful communication, which looks like this:

1. Every communication includes a sender and a receiver (addresser and addressee).

2. The sender establishes the context of the message so it can be understood. This includes the environment it's given in, the conditions, and where and when the message is given. It can also include the potential for interference during the communication.

3. The addressee gives feedback to the addresser during and after the delivery of the message. This establishes the contact that keeps the communication channel open. Feedback can be verbal or nonverbal, such as nodding agreement or stating that the message is understood.

4. To make the communication clear and easier to understand, a common code is used. For example, developers working in an agile environment understand Scrum, iteration, and standup meetings.

Language is more than just knowing a lot of different words and what those words mean. If we don't know how to put those words together, they won't have much meaning. We learn how to form sentences and phrases by listening to others and by studying grammar. It's the grammar that helps us to understand the system, structure, and meaning of written or spoken sentences.

Jakobson's theory of communication includes six functions of language. If the grammar tells us what the message means, the functions tell us the purpose of the addresser who is using the language.

Following are the 6 functions of language that Jakobson described:

- **Referential**: One of the main functions of language is sharing information with an audience. This is the language you use to convey information in an objective way. For example: *Sales are up 3% this quarter*.
- **Emotive**: Also called expressive, this function helps us to interpret emotions, feelings, desires, and moods of the subject. The emotive function gives us direct information about the sender's tone. For example: *I'm excited about the new car I bought*!
- **Conative**: This function focuses on the receiver of the message. The language used with this function is meant to get the attention of or a reaction from the addressee. For example: *Can you show John where to find the paper clips?*
- **Phatic**: The phatic function is used to establish a social connection without really communicating any meaningful information. This type of language is used to start or stop a conversation or to check the connection between the sender and receiver. For example: *"How are you?" "I'm fine." "See you later."*
- **Poetic**: This one is also known as the aesthetic function of language. This function focuses on the message as well as the way the message is communicated. This means that the message might be embellished with rhetorical figures of speech

or "flowery" language. You will find the poetic function in quotations and colloquial sayings. For example: *"It is a far, far better thing that I do, than I have ever done; it is a far, far better rest that I go to than I have ever known."*

• **Metalingual**: Meta is basically defined as self-awareness. So metalingual refers to talking about the language itself – its features, word definitions, clarifying ambiguity, and describing deliberate word play are metalingual functions. The metalingual function is also relevant in translation if foreign words are used to give special meaning or emphasis. For example: *I couldn't help but feel a touch of Schadenfreude (a sense of pleasure or joy from the failure of others) when the other team lost by 50 points.*

Language and Thought

We are all aware that language is not only essential to specialised disciplines such as linguistics and translation but is, in all its forms, at the core of human experience and civilisation. It is such an integral, natural part of our cultures and social lives. How it is related to our thought process and interpretation of reality?

The correlation between language and thought has been the focus of many researchers in the past century and is still open for discussion nowadays. The relationship between language and thought have been discussed and investigated by a broad range of scientists including linguists, philosophers, cognitive scientists, psychologists, and anthropologists. Many have indeed referred to the debate as a *chicken-egg* situation, to point to the famous impossibility of determining which one of the two processes shapes the other. How are language and thought related? Is language shaping our cognitive processes, are we talking about a mutual influence? Is there a universal language system, or is language completely relative?

Aristotle viewed that thought is prior to language and that languages have developed the properties they have in order to express ideas. Behaviorist theory treated the mind as unknowable, and some of itsexponents suggested that thought was nothing more than internalized speech. Piaget saw the development of language as determined by the stages at which cognitive concepts are acquired. Vygotsky believed that in the early years of life speech and thought are independent. Sapir and Whorf made strong claims that the characteristics of the language we speak determine the way in which we think and view the world. Language, speech, and cognition are mutually supportive. Language is anintegral component of thought, but neither language nor speech can beequated with thought.

Language is a symbolic tool that we use to communicate our thoughts as well as represent our cognitive processes. Language is the mirror of thinking, and it is one of the ways in which we communicate our rich cognitive world. As Wittgenstein suggests, we may see the world within the boundaries of our language, and we think

that way. Therefore, we can argue that the language we speak not only facilitates thought communication but also shapes and diversifies thinking.

Can we understand a concept that does not exist in our language? For example, the German word "schadenfreude" consists of the words "schaden (evil)" and "freude (pleasure), and it means "being pleased because others experience bad things." Does it mean that we do not understand this feeling, or we have not experienced it because no word in English gives the same meaning? Or one more example, in many Native American languages, the Great Spirit is not a noun as in European languages but a verb. This concept of a supreme being is totally different from that of Europeans. As a speaker of English, can you even imagine god as a verb? It changes the whole concept of a supreme being. Above all, how can we think without language? More importantly, can we even think?

We can talk about three different interactions when we investigate the complex relationships between language and thinking. First, the existence of language as a cognitive process affects the system of thinking. Second, thinking comes before language, and the learning of a language interacts with the conceptual process that is formed before language use. Third, each language spoken may affect the system of thinking. Here we will discuss these three interactions under these subsections: "thinking without language," "thinking before language," and "thinking with language."

From a communicative point of view, language possesses the duality of connecting people together when shared and creating barriers when intercomprehension fails. This duality is perfectly illustrated by the field of translation, whose purpose, as the etymology of the name itself suggests (lat. *translatio, translationis* originally meant *carry across, convey*), is to remove language barriers and allow people to communicate across them while still using non-universal target languages.

Those who regard it as beneficial to human society and defend its preservation alongside ethnic, cultural and biodiversity, due not only to the traditions and knowledge that all languages encapsulate, but also to the multiplicity of thought patterns and interpretations of reality that they reflect. For instance, time can be perceived as linear, circular or cyclical, fixed or continuous, as moving from left to right, from front to back or back to front according to different cultures and languages; while Western cultures tend to compartmentalise time in smaller units and refer to it as a valuable entity that must not be wasted (think about expressions such as *time is money*, *a waste of time*), in cultures where time is seen as cyclical, the latter is not divided into small units such as minutes or hours, but is told, for instance in the Masai culture, by the cycle of rainfall. In that perspective, being multilingual would therefore allow us to have access not only to different cultures, but also to different perceptions of "reality".

Jean William Fritz Piaget (1896-1980) was a Swiss psychologist. Piaget's saw the development of language as determined by the stages at which cognitive concepts are acquired. Piaget's theory proposes that language is preceded by thought during development. Moreover, children's ability to use language is constrained by their stage of cognitive development.

The Sapir-Whorf[1] hypothesis proposes that the language we use determines how we think of the world around us, affecting cognitive processes like memory and perception. The central idea behind the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is that our native language affects how we think about the world. The words we use to create narratives about the world influence how we represent it internally. According to this view, we can only hold mental representations of the concepts we can name. The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis supports the idea of linguistic determinism.

The idea of equating language and thought can be found in works by Ukrainian linguist ***Oleksandr Opanasovych Potebnia (1835-1891).*** In his famous work *«Думка і мова» ("Thought and Language") (1862)* he explored the question of the relationship between language and thought.

Linguistic determinism is the idea that the language we use determines and constrains how we think about the world. The weaker version of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis has been termed **linguistic relativity**, this idea proposes that while language may not completely determine our thoughts it can influence them to some extent.

Whorf supported his claims with research on native American cultures. He proposed that differences in language can change how a culture understands the concept of time or how it perceives natural phenomena. Whorf argued that the Native American Hopi culture lacks an understanding of the concept of time. He attributed this to the lack of terminology that places events in time in their language. According to his theory, the lack of linguistic expression of time changed the way this culture thought of and understood time.

The original examples in support of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis have been refuted. It was found that the Hopi language does have a way of expressing time. However, later psycholinguistics research has found some evidence of differences in memory and perception across speakers of different languages, supporting linguistic relativism. Studies have found that our native language can influence how we remember past events as well as how good we are at recognising differences between colours.

Chomsky proposed that language acquisition is an innate ability. Children are already born with the ability to acquire the rules that govern languages. Grammatical

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[1] ***Edward Sapir (1884 –1939)*** – an American Jewish anthropologist, linguist; ***Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1941)*** – an American linguist, is widely known for his idea that differences between the structures of different languages shape how their speakers perceive and conceptualize the world.

rules are common to all languages even though they might differ across them. An innate ability to acquire grammatical structures of a language allows children to quickly learn the language, even based on the limited linguistic input they receive in infancy.

According to *Lev Vygotsky (1896 – 1934)* – Russian psychologist and linguist, known for his work on psychological development in children, language plays a key role in development. Language can be used to provide children with verbal guidance. Later, when children internalise it, language helps them solve problems and regulate their behaviour. According to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of cognitive development, in early development speech and thought are independent. The two processes merge when speech is internalised. In Vygotsky's theory, language is considered to be a cultural tool that plays a key role in development. Firstly, verbal guidance from adults supports children's learning and development. Language allows adults to share their knowledge and communicate with the child. Secondly, when language becomes internalised and develops into inner speech, it allows children to guide themselves when making decisions, problem-solving or regulating their behaviour.

Can we think about something without knowing its name? Does the language we speak change how we see the world? The relationship between thought and language might be a complicated one. Psychologists often attribute varying degrees of importance to the role of language in the development of cognition and vice versa. In conclusion, there is a nested relationship between language and thought. In the interaction processes mentioned above, the role of language changes. Even though the limits of our language are different from the limits of our thinking, it is inevitable that people prioritize concepts in their languages. This, however, does not mean that they cannot comprehend or think about concepts that do not exist in their language.

Speech, language, communication

The distinction between language and speech was made by *Ferdinand de Saussure (1857 – 1913)*. **Language** is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. **Speech** is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess. Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units. The language unit **phoneme** is opposed to the speech unit – **sound**: phoneme /s/ can sound

differently in speech – /s/ and /z/). The **sentence** is opposed to the **utterance;** the **text** is opposed to the **discourse**.

Speech is the expression of thoughts and feelings by humans through articulated sounds that come out of our mouths and noses (with help from our cranial nerves, lungs, vocal cords, throats, soft palates, teeth, facial and neck muscles and tongues). Speech is one way that we express language.

Language is considered to be a system of symbols whereby we can communicate our thoughts and emotions to others and at the same time understand others. Thus language is a means of human **communication**. Characteristic features of language are the high degree of abstraction and, related to this, the stability, wide combinability, high degree of internal organization and orderedness of its elements, to mention only the most important ones. Language is essentially a general human semiotic system.

On the other hand, speech is a means of the functioning of language. Speech is the realization of the semiotic system by biological means, i.e., the material reality of the acoustic vibrations produced by the articulatory organs and perceived by the hearing organs of man are stimuli which can be grasped by the brain centre. Thus speech is that form of language which can be produced by our articulatory organs and perceived by our senses. And perhaps we are not far from the truth if we think of the relationship between language and speech in terms of the relationship between content and form, as well as of that between the general and the particular.

Speech is a verbal means of communicating. Other ways of communicating include but are not limited to writing, drawing, and manual signing. The result of planning and executing specific motor sequences, speech is a process that requires very precise neuromuscular coordination. Each spoken language has specific sounds or phonemes, plus sound combinations that are characteristic of that language. In addition, speech involves other components, such as voice quality, intonation, and rate. These components enhance the meaning of the message.

Individual speech sounds are meaningless noises until some regularity is added. The relationship between individual sounds, meaningful sound units, and the combination of these units is specified by the rules of a language. *Language* can be defined as a socially shared code or conventional system for representing concepts through the use of arbitrary symbols and rule-governed combinations of those symbols. In other words, the symbols or words are arbitrary but speakers know the meanings of these symbols, which are, in turn, organized in certain ways to convey ideas.

Following is *the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association definition of language* (Committee on Language, 1983). The result of a committee decision, this definition has a little of everything, but it also is very thorough.

✓ Language is a complex and dynamic system of conventional symbols that is used in various modes for thought and communication.

✓ Language evolves within specific historical, social, and cultural contexts.

✓ Language, as rule-governed behavior, is described by at least five parameters – phonologic, morphologic, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic.

✓ Language learning and use are determined by the intervention of biological, cognitive, psychosocial, and environmental factors.

✓ Effective use of language for communication requires a broad understanding of human interaction including such associated factors as nonverbal cues, motivation, and sociocultural roles.

Both speech and language are parts of a larger process called communication. **Communication** is the exchange of information and ideas, needs and desires, between two or more individuals. The process is an active one that involves encoding, transmitting, and decoding the intended message. It requires a sender and a receiver, and each must be alert to the informational needs of the other to ensure that messages are conveyed effectively and that intended meanings are preserved.

The degree to which a speaker is successful in communicating, measured by the appropriateness and effectiveness of the message, is called **communicative competence**. The competent communicator is able to conceive, formulate, modulate, and issue messages and to perceive the degree to which intended meanings are successfully conveyed.

Speech, language, and communication are distinct aspects of understanding how people convey information. Understanding their differences can help people to know how they are trying to share information.

✓ Speech is a motor act and a mode of communication, but not the only one.

✓ Language is the code used in communication. More specifically, it is a set of symbols and the rules for using them.

✓ Communication is the act of transferring information between two or more people. Speech and language are two of the tools used to communicate.

Philosophy of language

Is language a simple tool which we use for communication or is it an advanced instrument for expressing our thoughts? According to the hermeneutic notion, language is something more than an instrument of communication. The problems of dealing with dichotomized concepts like thinking and language, thought and world, have been basic philosophical issues since the beginning of Western thought, especially in works of Wilhelm von Humboldt, Martin Heidegger, Hans-Georg Gadamer.

Wilhelm (Friedrich Wilhelm Christian Karl Ferdinand) von Humboldt (1769–1869), German man of letters extraordinary, close friend of the poets Goethe and Schiller, whose life's work encompasses the areas of philosophy, literature, linguistics, anthropology, education, and political thought as well statesmanship. Among the European and Indo-European languages Humboldt knew and studied classical Greek and Latin, Sanskrit, all of the Romance languages, English, Basque, Old Icelandic, Lithuanian, Polish, Slovenian, Serbo-Croatian, Armenian but also Hungarian. He was familiar with Hebrew, Arabic and Coptic (of which he wrote a grammar). From among the Asian languages he studied Chinese, Japanese, Siamese and Tamil. Yet in the center of his work stood, besides Basque (he is considered the founder of Basque Studies), the native languages of South, Central and North America, and increasingly from 1827–28 the languages of the Pacific from the East Coast of Africa to Hawai'i and the South Sea Islands. In his private and public life he mastered and used (besides his native German) French, English, Italian and Spanish.

In June 1820 he was able to submit to the Berlin Academy a bold plan for the creation of the new discipline of comparative linguistics and to outline the philosophy and methodology on which it was to be built in a paper entitled: "On the Comparative Study of Language and its Relation to the Different Periods of Language Development" ("*Ueber das vergleichende Sprachstudium in Beziehung auf die verschiedenen Epochen der Sprachentwicklung*", GS Vol 4: 1–34). In this compact yet highly complex presentation he offered a brief summary of his previous endeavors. Humboldt viewed the function of language as not limited simply to representing or communicating existing ideas and concepts but as "formative organ of thought" (*das bildende Organ des Gedankens*, GS Vol 6: 152) and thus instrumental also in the production of new concepts that would not come into being without it. The differences between languages for him were not those of "sounds and signs" (*Schällen und Zeichen*) but ultimately of "differences of representing the world" (*Verschiedenheit der Weltansichten*, GS Vol 4: 27).

Wilhelm von Humboldt's philosophy of language refused the even-then-canonical concept of a "sign" by questioning the universal conceptual image of a language as representation.

Beneath the semiotic aspect of language – the "common sense" idea of language as utterance, signalling, communicating, "saying" – Humboldt catches sight of a more profound function of language, where it is no longer understood primarily as communication, but rather as itself an originary and formative "organ of thought" not in any sense limited to representation, but which on the contrary is instrumental in the genesis of (new) concepts themselves.

Rather than being a form for thoughts, an essence subtracted from the heterogeneous field of actual languages, Humboldt proposes instead a generative

prototype of language based not on substance but generation, the series of rules and structures by which thought divides and rearranges itself 'between' us.

In catching sight of this difference 'between' languages (as classically understood,) by taking empirical account of the qualitative break between various representations of reality, we suddenly discover the question of language has carried us all the way to the essence of language and reason at once, the heart of the metaphysical decision.

There are glimmering shades of Babel in Humboldt's "radical" linguistic empiricism. Each language is a fragment of a universal human language.

For Humboldt, language is a procedural rule, an instruction or order word – a univocal direction "given" rather than, say, a given graphic, sonic or material shape "formed." Signs are in the forms of orders: we cannot gather from deliberately "constructed" forms (grammar) the underlying essence of language.

Language is the formative organ of *thought. Intellectual activity,* entirely mental, entirely internal, and to some extent passing without trace, becomes, through *sound,* externalized in speech and perceptible to the senses. Thought and language are therefore one and inseparable from each other. But the former is also intrinsically bound to the necessity of entering into a *union* with the verbal sound; thought cannot otherwise achieve clarity, nor the representation become a concept. The inseparable bonding of *thought, vocal apparatus* and *hearing* to language is unalterably rooted in the original constitution of human nature, which cannot be further explained.

But language does not merely implant an indefinable multitude of *material elements* out of nature into the soul; it also supplies the latter with that which confronts us from the totality as form. Nature unfolds before us a many-hued and, by all sensory impressions, a diverse manifold, suffused with a luminous clarity Our subsequent reflection discovers therein a regularly congenial to our mental form. Aside from the bodily existence of things, their outlines are clothed, like a magic intended for man alone, with external beauty, in which regularity and sensory material enter an alliance that still remains inexplicable to us, in that we are seized and carried away by it. All this we find again in analogous harmonies within language, and language is able to depict it. For in passing, by means of it, into a world of sounds, we do not abandon the world that really surrounds us. The regularity of language's own structure is akin to that of nature; and in thereby arousing man in the activity of his highest and most human powers, it also brings him closer, as such, to an understanding of the formal impress of nature, since, the latter, top, can after all be regarded simply as a development of mental powers. Through the rhythmical and musical form whose linkages are peculiar to sound, language enhances the impression of beauty in nature, transposing it into another sphere, but acts, even independently of this, through the mere cadence of speech upon the temper of the soul.

The content of language engenders a special relationship between it and the *speaking generation.* There is generated within it a stock of words and a system of rules whereby it grows, in the course of millennia, into an independent force. Now since, in writing, it also keeps slumbering thoughts ready for arousal to the mind, it comes to enjoy a peculiar existence, which in every case, admittedly, can only hold good in the current act of thinking, but in its totality is independent of this.

Heidegger and Language

Martin Heidegger (1889–1976) was a German philosopher whose work is perhaps most readily associated with phenomenology (phenomenology is the study of structures of consciousness as experienced from the first-person point of view. The central structure of an experience is its intentionality, its being directed toward something, as it is an experience of or about some object) and existentialism (Existentialism is the philosophical theory which holds that a further set of categories – dread, boredom, alienation, the absurd, freedom, commitment, nothingness, and so on – governed by the norm of *authenticity*, is necessary to grasp human existence). His ideas have exerted a seminal influence on the development of contemporary European philosophy. They have also had an impact far beyond philosophy, for example in architectural theory, literary criticism, theology, psychotherapy and cognitive science.

For Heidegger (as for Gadamer, Heidegger's student), language constitutes the world. Heidegger and Gadamer do not have a theory of the genesis and development of language. According to Heidegger and Gadamer we always find ourselves *in- the-world* with language and with others. Outside the world is nothingness. Heidegger and Gadamer agree that language is something other than an instrument for communication. They support a socio-cultural theory of language, in which language and thought are closely intertwined. Relations between thought and word cover dynamic process where a continual movement goes back and forth from thought to word and vice versa. This is a dialogical process. Relations between language and thought are a continuous process going from external speech to thinking (internal speech) and from thinking to external speech.

It is firmly established that Being is central to Heidegger's thinking. But language, if not equally important to Heidegger, comes an extremely close second. This does not make language just a subsidiary element of his thinking. The study of language was important to Heidegger from the beginning of his career, and remained integral to the end. Heidegger continually develops his reflections in line with an ongoing task to rethink the nature or essence of Being and language that go hand in hand. Some commentators would say that the philosophy of the later Heidegger is nothing if not a philosophy of language.

Furthermore, it is in language that thoughts are. For Heidegger, thought and language are strictly inseparable as 'speech-thought' or 'language-consciousness'.

The emphasis is given to language, again to overturn the dominant view that language merely expresses thoughts that are seen to self-subsist in the form of subjectivity. For Heidegger it is language as logos that forms and discloses meaning.

In Being and Time, published in 1927, Heidegger returned (albeit briefly) to the theme of language's relation to Being.

For Heidegger, the human subject had to be reconceived in an altogether new way, as "being-in-the-world." With it went the assumption that specific mental states were needed to mediate the relation of the mind to everything outside it. The human subject was not a mind that was capable only of representing the world to itself and whose linkage with its body was merely a contingent one. According to Heidegger, human being should instead be conceived as *Dasein*, a common German word usually translated in English as "existence" but which also literally means "being there". By using it as a replacement for "consciousness" and "mind," Heidegger intended to suggest that a human being is in the world in the mode of "uncovering" and is thus disclosing other entities as well as itself. *Dasein* is, in other words, the "there" – or the locus – of being and thus the metaphorical place where entities "show themselves" as what they are. Instead of being sealed off within a specially designed compartment within a human being, the functions that have been misdescribed as "mental" now become the defining characteristics of human existence. Heidegger believes humans have a distinctive relationship to language, one not reducible to communication, and his goal is to think the nature of this unique relationship. *Language, according Heidegger, brings beings out into the open; it "shows" beings.*

Heidegger's concern in his thinking of language is twofold: he wants to 1) think language in a manner more fundamental than the one entailed by the sign relation framework, and 2) think the originary openness that makes language possible. Words, in the sense of standardized units of verbal meaning, play a derivative role in his thinking of language. Heidegger wants to think what makes it possible to speak in the first place, and this he attributes to a particular sort of openness to beings. By "speaking" Heidegger has a somewhat specialized meaning in mind. Rather than the rote use of verbal units (what Heidegger might call "employing" language), speaking implies a bringing to presence of beings that opens up a world. It is a type of speaking that Heidegger characterizes as poetic language. This capacity for language marks *Dasein* as having a distinctive relationship to being and to beings.

According to Heidegger, language has been traditionally understood within the framework of the sign relation. "Letters are the signs of sounds, the sounds are the signs of mental experiences, and these are the signs of things. The sign relation constitutes the struts of the structure" ("The Nature of Language," *On the Way to Language,* p. 97). But for Heidegger, language is not primarily about sign relations. Nor is language to be viewed merely as a set of words (for example, those found in the dictionary). If we think of language only in these terms, Heidegger contends that

we have not yet experienced "the real nature of sounds and tones of speech." ("The Nature of Language," *On the Way to Language,* p. 98). Instead, language is a "showing": it "makes something come to light, lets what has come to light to be perceived, and lets the perception be examined" ("The Way to Language," *On the Way to Language,* p. 115). Language shows, it has been understood to show in the same way that the sign relation does; *but Heidegger claims this relation does not speak to the essence of language.* Heidegger hopes to think what makes language possible, i.e. about the human beings relationship to language at its most fundamental level. For Heidegger, language calls beings into presence from out of an originary openness to beings; language depends on this openness, which is characterized as the surpassing of beings. One can speak of beings only if those beings have already, in a certain sense, revealed themselves. As such, language is a "showing" inasmuch as it shows beings ("The Way to Language," *On the Way to Language,* p. 123 "The essential being of language is Saying as Showing"). Heidegger characterizes language as a naming power, with the capacity to open up a world within which beings appear and are set into relation. This naming power calls beings to presence from the pre-cognitive, pre-linguistic understanding where they had lain unnoticed.

For Heidegger language constitutes the world. According to Heidegger we always find ourselves *in- the-world* with language and with others. Outside the world is nothingness. Nevertheless Heidegger says that the little child takes part in the mother's *being-in-the-world* because the child is a *being-in-the-world.* At the same time the child is tied to the ways of another human being's *being-in-the-world.* This, if anything, is the social start of human development, an idea of the development of social speech.

Language speaks, says Heidegger and this means that language does not have any other ground than itself. Language is not the production of a need for communication. Neither is it based on thinking. Is thinking based on language? Heidegger did not take a stance on this question. Heidegger wrote: "And only when man speaks, does he think – not the other way round". Without speaking there is no thinking.

The question of language for Heidegger is perhaps as important as the question of Being, precisely because it is chiefly in language that Being is shown to exist, that is, 'stand out' of Being so as to be. For Heidegger, the relation between Being and language is an guiding formula, 'The being of language: the language of being' shows. Language is the language of Being, said Heidegger, as clouds are the clouds of the sky.

Hans-Georg Gadamer (1900 – 2002) – a German philosopher, the decisive figure in the development of twentieth century hermeneutics (hermeneutics is taken to have its origins in problems of biblical exegesis; in the hands of eighteenth and early nineteenth century theorists, H. was developed into a more encompassing

theory of textual interpretation in general; in modern studies H. is the method proper to the recovery of meaning) – emphasises the role of dialogue in constructive thinking and hermeneutical experience. According to the hermeneutic notion, language is something more than a tool or instrument of communication, language and thought are intertwined. The basic model of understanding that Gadamer finally arrives at in *Truth and Method* is that of dialogue or *conversation*. A conversation involves an exchange between conversational partners that seeks agreement about some matter at issue; consequently, such an exchange is never completely under the control of either conversational partner, but is rather determined by the matter at issue. Conversation always takes place in language and similarly Gadamer views understanding as always linguistically mediated. Since both conversation and understanding involve coming to an agreement, so Gadamer argues that all understanding involves something like a common language, albeit a common language that is itself formed in the process of understanding itself (and that, one might argue, is also constantly formed and reformed in that very process).

Gadamer claims that language is the universal horizon of hermeneutic experience; he also claims that the hermeneutic experience is itself universal. This is not merely in the sense that the experience of understanding is familiar or ubiquitous. The universality of hermeneutics derives from the existential claim for hermeneutics that Heidegger advanced in the 1920s and that Gadamer made into a central idea in his own thinking. Hermeneutics concerns our fundamental mode of being in the world and understanding is thus the basic phenomenon in our existence. We cannot go back 'behind' understanding, since to do so would be to suppose that there was a mode of intelligibility that was prior to understanding. Hermeneutics thus turns out to be universal, not merely in regard to knowledge, whether in the 'human sciences' or elsewhere, but to all understanding and, indeed, to philosophy itself. Philosophy is, in its essence, hermeneutics.

Linguistics and its relation to medicine

There are many applied disciplines in linguistics which are related to medicine. Let's consider some of them.

Clinical linguistics is the branch of linguistics that applies linguistic concepts and theories to the study of language disorders. As the name suggests, clinical linguistics is a dual-facing discipline. Although the conceptual roots of this field are in linguistics, its domain of application is the vast array of clinical disorders that may compromise the use and understanding of language. Both dimensions of clinical linguistics can be addressed through an examination of specific linguistic deficits in individuals with neurodevelopmental disorders, craniofacial anomalies, adult-onset neurological impairments, psychiatric disorders, and neurodegenerative disorders.

Clinical linguists are interested in the full range of linguistic deficits in these conditions, including phonetic deficits of children with cleft lip and palate, morphosyntactic errors in children with specific language impairment, and pragmatic language impairments in adults with schizophrenia.

Like many applied disciplines in linguistics, clinical linguistics sits at the intersection of a number of areas. The relationship of clinical linguistics to the study of communication disorders and to speech-language pathology (speech and language therapy in the United Kingdom) are two particularly important points of intersection. Speech-language pathology is the area of clinical practice that assesses and treats children and adults with communication disorders. All language disorders restrict an individual's ability to *communicate* freely with others in a range of contexts and settings. So language disorders are first and foremost communication disorders. To understand language disorders, it is useful to think of them in terms of points of breakdown on a communication cycle that tracks the progress of a linguistic utterance from its conception in the mind of a speaker to its comprehension by a hearer. This cycle permits the introduction of a number of important distinctions in language pathology, such as the distinction between a receptive and an expressive language disorder, and between a developmental and an acquired language disorder. The cycle is also a useful model with which to conceptualize a range of communication disorders other than language disorders. These other disorders, which include hearing, voice, and fluency disorders, are also relevant to clinical linguistics.

Clinical linguistics draws on the conceptual resources of the full range of linguistic disciplines to describe and explain language disorders. These disciplines include phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and discourse. Each of these linguistic disciplines contributes concepts and theories that can shed light on the nature of language disorder. A wide range of tools and approaches are used by clinical linguists and speech-language pathologists to assess, diagnose, and treat language disorders. They include the use of standardized and norm-referenced tests, communication checklists and profiles (some administered by clinicians, others by parents, teachers, and caregivers), and qualitative methods such as conversation analysis and discourse analysis. Finally, clinical linguists can contribute to debates about the nosology of language disorders. In order to do so, however, they must have an understanding of the place of language disorders in internationally recognized classification systems such as the 2013 *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM-5) of the American Psychiatric Association.

Neurolinguistics, the study of the neurological mechanisms underlying the storage and processing of language. Although it has been fairly satisfactorily determined that the language centre is in the left hemisphere of the brain in right-handed people, controversy remains concerning whether individual aspects of

language are correlated with different specialized areas of the brain. One kind of research carried on in this field is the study of *aphasia*, a condition of the brain in which language ability is impaired or destroyed. Temporary aphasia has been induced by electrically stimulating the cortex of conscious patients in order to determine the location of the various functions of language. Although very general centres of language have been proposed, it seems that there are no highly specialized centres. Several cases have been reported of patients who, after having their left hemisphere of the brain removed, adapted in the right hemisphere the language function that the left hemisphere had had. In general, however, though progress is being made in this field, very little is known for certain about the neurological aspects of language. The neurolinguistic approach stresses the role of language in aphasia and analyzes it according to principles of theoretical linguistics.

The first linguistically based typology of aphasic impairments is probably that of Roman Jakobson (1964), although Alajouanine and colleagues (1939, 1964) had already stressed the role of some linguistic phenomena in aphasia. Many authors have underlined the importance of linguistic theory for aphasia therapy (Hatfield, 1972; MacMahon, 1972; Hatfield and Shewell, 1983; Lesser, 1989; Miller, 1989), but linguistic analyses were not carried out in great detail until interest in aphasia expanded beyond the field of neurology to disciplines such as linguistics, speech−language pathology, and psychology.

Psycholinguistics. The term psycholinguistics was coined in the 1940s and came into more general use after the publication of Charles E. Osgood and Thomas A. Sebeok's *Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems* (1954), which reported the proceedings of a seminar sponsored in the United States by the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Linguistics and Psychology.

The boundary between linguistics and psycholinguistics is difficult, perhaps impossible, to draw. So too is the boundary between *psycholinguistics* and *psychology*. What characterizes psycholinguistics as it is practiced today as a more or less distinguishable field of research is its concentration upon a certain set of topics connected with language and its bringing to bear upon them the findings and theoretical principles of both linguistics and psychology. The range of topics that would be generally held to fall within the field of psycholinguistics nowadays is rather narrower, however, than that covered in the survey by Osgood and Sebeok.

Psychoanalytic conceptions of language refers to the intersection of *psychoanalytic theory* with *linguistics* and *psycholinguistics*.

Sigmund Freud (1856 – 1939) – an Austrian neurologist and the founder of psychoanalysis – offered linguistic model: **"**The word, then, is a complicated concept built up from various impressions, i.e., it corresponds to an intricate process of associations entered into by elements of visual, acoustic and kinesthetic origins. However, the word acquires its significance through its association with the 'idea'

(concept) of the object [Objektvorstellung, or object-presentation], at least if we restrict our considerations to nouns. The idea, or concept, of the object is itself another complex of associations composed of the most varied visual, auditory, tactile, kinesthetic and other impressions".

After the **Carl Gustav Jung (1875 – 1961)** – a Swiss psychiatrist and psychoanalyst who founded analytical psychology – "Language, in its origin and essence, is simply a system of signs or symbols that denote real occurrences or their echo in the human soul". The creative process, so far as we are able to follow it at all, consists in the unconscious activation of an archetypal image and elaborating and shaping the image into the finished work. By giving it shape, the artist translates it into the language of the present and so makes it possible for us to find our way back to the deepest springs of life.

Language has been an integral component of the psychoanalytic framework since its inception, as evidenced by the fact that Anna O. (pseud. for Bertha Pappenheim), whose treatment via the *cathartic method* influenced the later development of psychoanalytic therapy, referred to her method of treatment as the "talking cure".

Language is relevant to psychoanalysis in two key respects. First, it is important with respect to the therapeutic process, serving as the principal means by which unconscious mental processes are given expression through the verbal exchange between analyst and patient (e.g., free association, dream analysis, transference-countertransference dynamics). Secondly, psychoanalytic theory is linked in many ways to linguistic phenomena, such as *parapraxes* and the telling of jokes. According to Freud, the essential difference between modes of thought characterized by *primary* (irrational, governed by the id) as opposed to *secondary* (logical, governed by the ego and external reality) thought processes is one of preverbal vs. verbal ways of conceptualizing the world.

The same position is found in the work of ***Édouard Pichon (1890 – 1940)***, linguist and psychoanalyst, founding member of the Paris Psychoanalytic Society, then its president in 1938, from whom ***Jacques Marie Émile Lacan (1901 – 1981)*** – a French psychoanalyst and psychiatrist – borrowed the idea of "foreclosure" (*Verwerfung*). From de Saussure's work, Lacan derived the concepts of the "treasure of signifiers", the unconscious structured as a language, and the condition of the unconscious. From *Roman Jakobson* he derived the concepts of metaphor (paradigmatic) and metonymy (syntagmatic), and reworked the concepts of condensation and displacement. Lacan also borrowed from *de Saussure* the idea of the arbitrariness of the sign and its duality: signified and signifier. The signified is the mental image, the concept; the signifier the acoustic image (or phonetic form).

Saussurian arbitrariness – which is what makes his work so original – does not refer to the lack of motivation between object and sign (word) (*Sache/Zeichen*) but to the absence of a one-to-one relation between elements of the system of signifieds and

signifiers. For linguists no meaning can be attributed to a phoneme or letter, something a linguist shaped by psychoanalysis like *Ivan Fonagy (1920 – 2005)* rejects. For Fonagy, for example, language and unconscious, language and drive, are contiguous.

This conscious and controlling subject marks the difference between linguistics and psychoanalysis. Here, their epistemological terrain is distinct. Linguists and psychoanalysts apprehend the same words in different ways. Linguists first try to describe languages and construct a scientific theory of their workings. Their concern is one of generalized objectivity, which could be described as an Aristotelian approach. Consequently, they attempt to eliminate any subjectivity, while psychoanalysts acknowledge it as part of the process of association. The analysts' goal is not to put forth a theory of language but of the unconscious. This is why there are so many differences between the two fields in spite of the many borrowings by psychoanalysts from linguists (philologists for Freud) in the first half of the twentieth century.

Today, however, the situation is reversing itself, and some psychoanalysts consider the near "assimilation" of the mental apparatus to the language apparatus to be a failure (Green, 1984, 1989). Moreover, the number of linguists and semiologists who acknowledge the influence of psychoanalytic theory in the humanities is growing. For example, research on the contiguity between these two fields (Michel Arrivé, Jean-Claude Milner) has been conducted by linguists who have undergone analysis or who are analysts themselves; they have introduced psychoanalytic ideas into research on sign systems, writing, enunciation, modes of text analysis, meaning, and so forth. Links between the fields exist despite the fact that their founders never met. Freud may have seen de Saussure's name quoted by Meringer; de Saussure may have seen Freud's in a report on *The Interpretation of Dreams* written by one of his colleagues at the University of Geneva (Théodore Flournoy). And although Freud never read de Saussure, it is certain that he heard him referred to as the "father" and author of the *Course of General Linguistics*. For one of Freud's patients was Raymond de Saussure, the son of Ferdinand, and Freud wrote a preface to Raymond's *The Psychoanalytic Method* (1922), where his father's book is mentioned.

Issues for discussion:
1. What origins of language do you know?
2. Characterise the essence of language.
3. Tell the main functions of language.
4. What is the difference between language and thought?
5. What is the difference between language, speaking, communication?
6. How was explained the role of language in human existence by Humboldt, Heidegger, Gadamer?
7. Which disciplines in linguistics which are related to medicine do you know? How could you use them in your medical practice?

II. CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGES.
UKRAINIAN AS ONE OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES.
LANGUAGE – THE MOST IMPORTANT ETHNIC FEATURE

➢ Classification of languages
➢ Families of languages in the world today
➢ Indo-European Language Branches and Language Subgroups
➢ Common features of Indo-European languages
➢ Common features of Slavic languages
➢ The Slavic language group
➢ Ukrainian as one of the Indo-European languages
➢ Language – the most important ethnic feature

Subfields of linguistics that studies and classifies languages

Historical linguistics (also called **diachronic linguistics**) is the study of language change. It has five main concerns:
✓ to describe and account for observed changes in particular languages;
✓ to reconstruct the pre-history of languages and determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families (comparative linguistics);
✓ to develop general theories about how and why language changes;
✓ to describe the history of speech communities;
✓ to study the history of words.

Typological linguistics is a subfield of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural features. Its aim is to describe and explain the structural diversity of the world's languages.

Comparative linguistics (originally **comparative philology**) is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness.

It aims to construct language families, to reconstruct proto-languages and specify the changes that have resulted in the documented languages. To maintain a clear distinction between attested and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts. A number of methods for carrying out language classification have been developed, ranging from simple inspection to computerised hypothesis testing. Such methods have gone through a long process of development.

Comparative linguistics is that branch of one, which deals with the study of languages in terms of their history, relatedness, families and construct new forms.

Classification of languages

There are two kinds of classification of languages practiced in linguistics: **genetic (or genealogical)** and **typological.**

A typological classification groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics.

The language type is understood as a fixed set of main features of a language which are in definite relations with each other irrelatively a concrete language *e.g.* flexional, agglutinative, isolating, polysynthetic languages.

All typological classifications were almost exclusively morphological, since morphology was for a long time the most developed field of linguistics. However, morphological classification was originally not regarded as relating exclusively to the morphological level of language, but was so called because those who created the classification were concerned largely with the formal aspect of language.The basic concepts in the morphological classification of languages are the morpheme and the word. The basic criteria for classification are the nature of the morphemes (lexical and grammatical) combined in a word; the method of their combination, such as pre- or postpositioning of grammatical morphemes (which has a direct relation to syntax) and agglutination, or fusion (related to the field of morphophonemics); and the syntactically related connection between the morpheme and the word (such as isolation, when morpheme = word, or the analytic or synthetic character of word formation and inflection). Morphological classification seeks to describe not specific languages (in which several morphological types are always present), but basic structural phenomena and trends in languages. Morphological classification was founded and developed in the course of the 19th century by such German linguists as *A. Schlegel*, *H. Steinthal*, *W. Humboldt*, and *A. Schleicher*. The American linguist *E. Sapir* attempted to systematize the criteria of morphological classification; he introduced the concept of the degree of quality, based on the fact that one or another type may be present to a greater or lesser degree in a given language (for example, a language may be almost amorphous or agglutinative to the highest degree). Sapir invented a flexible classification scale and compared the data of morphological classification with actual data provided by specific languages.Since the early 20th century, that is, since the marked increase in linguistic knowledge about the structure of languages of different types and families, the creation of a general typological classification has ceased to be either the main or the most pressing task of typology. It has become obvious that a classification free from the shortcomings of the traditional morphological classification of languages – imprecision of basic concepts, lack of demarcation between classificational criteria of different types, vagueness of concepts about

essential and adequate criteria, and lack of relatedness to real language structures – and also containing phonological, syntactic, and semantic characteristics of the structure of language, cannot be created at the present time. However, there are certain trends in typology that make fruitful use of the data of morphological classification. For example, the American linguist *J. Greenberg* introduced a number of new criteria, as well as the principle of quantitative evaluation of language characteristics, into Sapir's classification. The Czech linguist *V. Skalidka* and other representatives of descriptive typology are studying the infrastructural laws by which certain typological features are combined in a given language; that is, they are working out a system for characterizing language types. The Russian linguist *B.A. Uspenskii* classifies linguistic features and groups of features according to systematized criteria. He then classifies languages according to the presence or absence of various groups of features; the languages are compared with a certain model language structured in accord with the general principles of morphological classification interpreted according to this model language.

The most famous typological classification by *Gumboldt* (by morphological criteria) is probably that of analytic (isolating), agglutinating, and inflecting (or fusional) languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development.

Analytic (isolating) languages: words consist of single morphemes; most words consist only of a root. Mandarin Chinese, Vietnamese, Cantonese, Cambodian. *Agglutinating languages*: words consist of a stem and one or more clearly identifiable affixes (Finnish, Hungarian, Estonian, Swahili, Turkish). *Inflectional (fusional) languages*: words consist of stem and affixes which often mark several grammatical categories simultaneously. Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Ukrainian. The older Indo-European languages tend to be inflecting in this sense. For example, the Latin suffix *-is* represents the combination of categories "singular" and "genitive" in the word form hominis "of the man," but one part of the suffix cannot be assigned to "singular" and another to "genitive," and *-is* is only one of many suffixes that in different classes (or declensions) of words represent the combination of "singular" and "genitive". *Polysynthetic languages*: words consist of long strings of stems and affixes, which may translate as an entire English sentence. American Indian languages.

Phonological classification of the languages

According to the phonological classification languages can be **vocalic** and **consonantal**. To the vocalic languages we can refer such languages as Dutch (the vowel inventory of Dutch is large, with 14 simple vowels and four diphthongs), English (The *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* by *John C. Wells*, for example, using symbols of the *International Phonetic Alphabet*, denotes 24 consonants and 23

vowels used in *Received Pronunciation*, plus two additional consonants and four additional vowels used in foreign words only), German, French, etc. To the consonantal languages belong Arabic (Modern Standard Arabic has only three vowels, with long and short forms of /a/, /i/, and /u/. There are also two diphthongs: /aj/ and /aw/), Persian, Atlantic group of Indian languages, etc.

Syntactical classification of languages

According to type of grammatical word-formation

1) synthetic (gramatical relations are expressed by forms of words):

2) analytic (gramatical relatioins are expressed by means of prepositions, auxiliary words and words-order):

According to the way of expressing subj-predicate relations:

1) nominative (subject stands for the doer and use in Nom. case – Indo-European, Semitic):

2) ergative (no positional difference between subject and object. Subject is in Ergative case – Caucasian languages);

3) passive (neither subject nor object have special grammatical forming up with the syntax unit, Predicate is the main component).

The purpose of *genetic classification* is to group languages into families according to their degree of diachronic relatedness. For example, within the Indo-European family, such subfamilies as Germanic or Celtic are recognized; these subfamilies comprise German, English, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and others, on the one hand, and Irish, Welsh, Breton, and others, on the other. So far, most of the languages of the world have been grouped only tentatively into families, and many of the classificatory schemes that have been proposed will no doubt be radically revised as further progress is made.

Families of languages in the world today

By common ancestors languages divided into families, groups, subgroups and more little divisions. E.g. Uzbek language – Turkic group – Uigur subgroup – Altaic family. Ukrainian language – Slavonic group – Eastern-Slavonic subgroup – Indo-European family – European branch. English language – Germanic group – Western-germanic subgroup – Indo-European family. Languages that possess genetic ties with one another belong to the same linguistic grouping, known as **a language family**.

A language family is a group of languages related by descent from a common ancestor, called **the proto-language** of that family. There are over 100 language families in the world. Language families around the world reflect centuries of geographic movement and interaction among different groups of people.

The most widespread language families are:

The Indo-European Family
The most widely studied family of languages and the family with the largest number of speakers. Languages include English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian, Ukrainian, Belarusian, Russian, Greek, Hindi, Bengali; and the classical languages of Latin, Sanskrit, and Persian.

The Uralic Family
A family found in Europe (Hungarian, Finnish) and Siberia (Mordvin) with complex noun structures.

The Altaic Family
A family spread from Europe (Turkish) through Central Asia (Uzbek), Mongolia (Mongolian), to the Far East (Korean, Japanese). These languages have the interesting property of vowel harmony.

The Sino-Tibetan Family
An important Asian family of languages that includes the world's most spoken language, Mandarin. These languages are monosyllabic and tonal.

The Malayo-Polynesian Family
A family consisting of over 1000 languages spread throughout the Indian and Pacific Oceans as well South East Asia. Languages include Malay, Indonesian, Maori and Hawaiian.

The Afro-Asiatic Family
This family contains languages of northern Africa and the Middle East. The dominant languages are Arabic and Hebrew.

The Caucasian Family
A family based around the Caucas Mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. Georgian and Chechen are the main languages. They are known for their large number of consonants.

The Dravidian Family
The languages of southern India (in contrast to the Indo-European languages of northern India). Tamil is the best known of these languages.

Austro-Asiatic Family

This family is a scattered group of languages in Asia. They are found from eastern India to Vietnam. Languages include Vietnamese and Khmer.

Niger-Congo Family

This family features the many languages of Africa south of the Sahara. The large number of languages includes Swahili, Shona, Xhosa and Zulu.

Families of languages in the world today
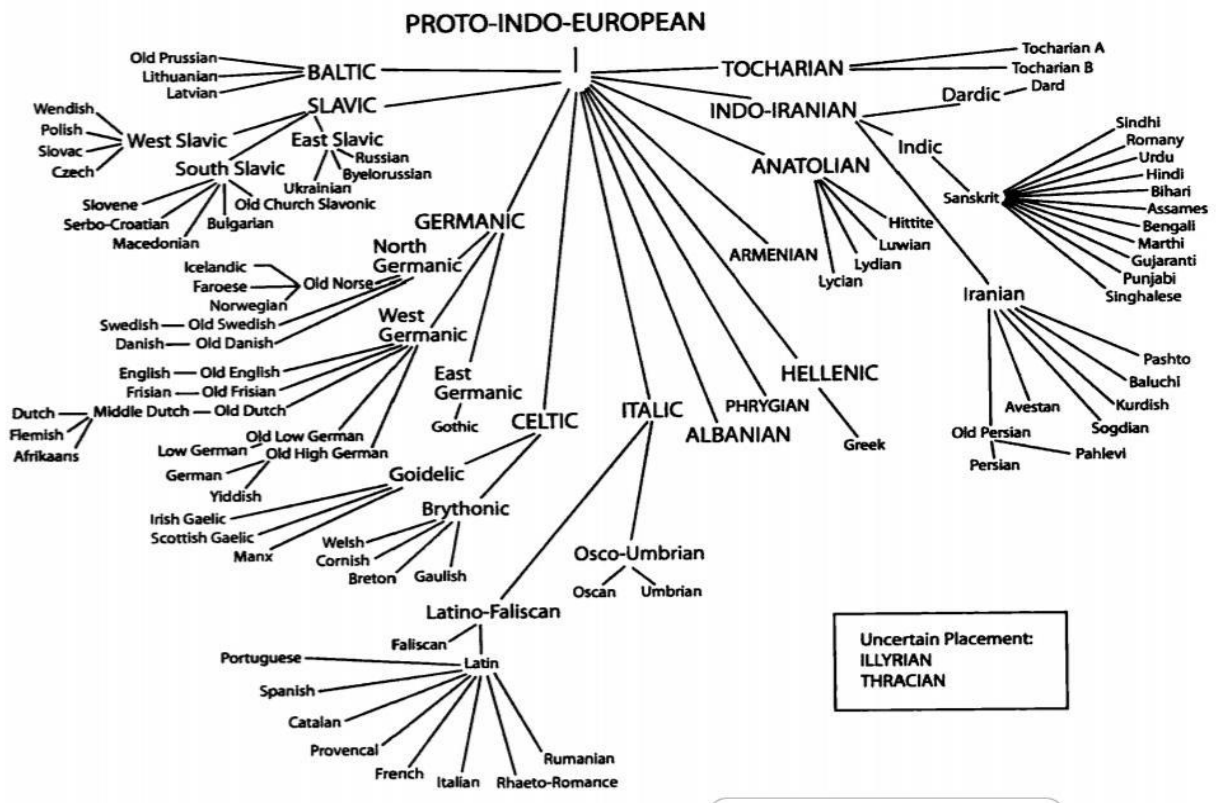
Genetic ties of languages are established through use of the *comparative method of linguistic analysis*, which relies mainly on shared phonological innovations as the test criteria. In linguistics, **genetic relationship** is the usual term for the relationship which exists between languages that are members of the same language family (Indo-European languages (Europe, Southwest to South Asia); Sino-Tibetan languages (East Asia); Niger-Congo languages (Sub-Saharan Africa); Afro-Asiatic languages (North Africa to Horn of Africa, Southwest Asia)). Two languages are considered to be genetically related if one is descended from the other or if both are descended from a common ancestor. For example, Italian is descended from Latin. Italian and Latin are therefore said to be genetically related. Spanish is also descended from Latin. Therefore, Spanish and Italian are genetically related. Contact with another language can result in influence by it. For example, English has been influenced by French, Persian has been influenced by Arabic, and Japanese has been influenced by

Chinese. However, this influence by definition does not constitute a genetic relationship. The discipline of historical linguistics rests on the notion that almost all of the languages spoken in the world today can be grouped by derivation from common ancestral languages into a relatively small number of families. For example, English is related to other Indo-European languages and more specifically to the Germanic family (West Germanic branch), while Mandarin Chinese is related to many other Sino-Tibetan languages.

Indo-European Language Branches and Language Subgroups

The Indo-European family of languages represents nearly half of the world's population. The language family dominates nearly all of Europe, significant areas of Asia, including Russia and India, North and South America, Caribbean islands, Australia, New Zealand, and parts of South Africa.

The Indo-European family of languages consists of various *language branches* (a collection of languages within a family with a common ancestral language) and numerous *language subgroups* (a collection of languages within a branch that share a common origin in the relative recent past and exhibit many similarities in vocabulary and grammar.

Germanic Branch
Western Germanic Group (Dutch, German, Frisian, English)
Northern Germanic Group (Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Faeroese)

Romance Branch
French, Portuguese, Spanish, Catalan, Provençal, Romansh, Italian, Romanian

Slavic Branch
West Slavic Group (Polish, Slovak, Czech, Sorbian)
Eastern Slavic Group (Ukrainian, Belarusian, Russian)
Southern Slavic Group (Slovene, Serbo-Croatian, Macedonian, Bulgarian)

Celtic Branch
Britannic group (Breton, Welsh)
Gaulish Group (Irish Gaelic, Scots Gaelic)

Baltic-Slavonic Branch
Latvian, Lithuanian

Hellenic Branch
Greek

Thracian-Illyrian Branch
Albanian

Armenian Branch
Armenian

Iranian Branch
Kurdish, Persian, Baluchi, Pashto, Tadzhik

Indo-Iranian (Indic) Branch
Northwestern group (Panjabi, Sindhi, Pahari, Dardic)
Eastern group (Assamese, Bengali, Oriya)
Midland group (Rajasthani, Hindi/Urdu, Bihari)
West and Southwestern group (Gujarati, Marathi, Konda, Maldivian, Sinhalese)

Other languages spoken in Europe, but not belonging to the Indo-European family are subsumed in these other families: Finno-Ugric (Estonian, Hungarian, Karelian, Saami, Altaic (Turkish, Azerbaijani, Uzbek) and Basque. Some of the language branches listed above are represented by only one principal language (Albanian, Armenian, Basque, Greek), while others are spoken by diverse groups in some geographic regions (Northern and Western Germanic languages, Western and Eastern Slavic languages, Midland and Southwestern Indian languages).

Common features of Indo-European languages

Common features of Indo-European (IE) languages (Albanian, Greek, Armenian, Asturian, Belarusian, Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, French, German, Irish, Latin, Portuguese, Ukrainian) show itself in phonetics, lexicon and grammar. Phonetics: in ancient times there were long and short vowels, monophthongs and diphthongs, but in modern languages they reserved not everywhere. In Ukrainian, e.g. there are not long and short sounds, diphthongs. In all Germanic languages (German, English) this rule now exists, in Romans as well. Indo-European languages had consonants of three types: voiceless, voiced and aspirate. Aspirate consonants remain in Indian and some of the Persian languages. Stress in all IE languages is dynamic (as in Ukrainian). Moreover there is a melodic stress (the meaning of a word depend on the high of the stress). Also there is a numerical stress (stressed vowel become longer).
Common grammatical features of IE languages:
1. All IE languages are inflectional;
2. All of them from the beginning had two genders: animate / inanimate (female, neutral). Then there was three genders.

3. There were 8 cases in ancient (7 of them still use in Ukrainian).

4. There was a system of roots: all IE languages consisted of 3 parts: root, rootmaking suffix, ending. Now we can see such rules in Ukrainian (мати – матері, небо – небеса).

Common lexical features of IE languages:

1. Common name of relatives (брат);

2. Numerals from 1 to 100;

3. Stars, sun, moon and so on and natural phenomena;

4. Domestic animals;

5. Basic verbs (брати, стояти, лежати, сидіти, любити, жити, сіяти);

6. Parts of the body.

Common features of Germanic languages

The *Germanic languages* are a group of related languages that constitute a branch of the Indo-European language family. The common ancestor of all the languages comprising this branch is Proto-Germanic, spoken in approximately the mid-1st millennium BC in Iron Age northern Europe. Proto-Germanic, along with all of its descendants, is characterized by a number of unique linguistic features, most famously the consonant change. The most widely spoken Germanic languages are English and German. The group includes other major languages, such as Dutch and Afrikaans; and the North Germanic languages including Norwegian, Danish, Swedish, Icelandic.

Germanic languages possess several *unique features*: the leveling of the Indo-European verbal system of tense and aspect into the present tense and the past tense (also called the preterite); a large class of verbs that use a dental suffix (/d/ or /t/) instead of vowel alternation (Indo-European ablaut) to indicate past tense; these are called the Germanic weak verbs; the remaining verbs with vowel ablaut are the Germanic strong verbs; the use of so-called strong and weak adjectives: different sets of inflectional endings for adjectives depending on the definiteness of the noun phrase; the consonant shift known as Grimm's Law (the consonants in High German have shifted farther yet by the High German consonant shift); a number of words with etymologies that are difficult to link to other Indo-European families, but variants of which appear in almost all Germanic languages; the shifting of stress accent onto the root of the stem and later to the first syllable of the word. Germanic languages differ from each other to a greater degree than do some other language families. Some, such as German, Dutch, and Icelandic have preserved much of the complex inflectional morphology inherited from the Proto-Indo-European language. Others, such as English, Swedish, and Afrikaans have moved toward a largely analytic type.

Common features of Slavic languages

Slavic languages, also called **Slavonic languages**, group of Indo-European languages spoken in most of eastern Europe, much of the Balkans, parts of central Europe, and the northern part of Asia. The Slavic languages, spoken by some 315 million people at the turn of the 21st century, are most closely related to the languages of the Baltic group (Lithuanian, Latvian, and the now-extinct Old Prussian), but they share certain linguistic innovations with the other eastern Indo-European language groups (such as Indo-Iranian and Armenian) as well. From their homeland in east-central Europe (Poland or Ukraine), the Slavic languages have spread to the territory of the Balkans (Bulgarian; Macedonian; Slovene; and Serbian, Bosnian, Croatian, and Montenegrin [sometimes grouped together as Bosnian-Croatian-Montenegrin-Serbian]), central Europe (Czech and Slovak), eastern Europe (Belarusian, Ukrainian, and Russian), and the northern parts of Asia (Russian). Some of the Slavic languages have been used by writers of worldwide significance (e.g., Ukrainian, Polish, and Czech), and the Church Slavonic language remains in use in the services in the Eastern Orthodox Church.

Languages of the family

The Slavic language group is classified into three branches:

1) the *South Slavic* branch, with its two subgroups Bosnian-Croatian-Montenegrian-Serbian-Slovene and Bulgarian-Macedonian,

2) the *West Slavic* branch, with its three subgroups Czech-Slovak, Sorbian, and Lekhitic (Polish and related tongues),

3) the *East Slavic* branch, comprising Ukrainian, Belarusian, and Russian.

In the spoken Slavic dialects (as opposed to the sharply differentiated literary languages), the linguistic frontiers are not always apparent. There are transitional dialects that connect the different languages, with the exception of the area where the South Slavs are separated from the other Slavs by the non-Slavic Romanians, Hungarians, and German-speaking Austrians. Even in the latter domain, some vestiges of the old dialectal continuity (between Slovene, Serbian, and Croatian on the one hand and Czech and Slovak on the other) can be traced; similar remnants of the old links are seen in comparing Bulgarian and Russian dialects.

Thus, it should be noted that the traditional family tree of the Slavic group with three separate branches is not to be taken as the real model of historical development. It would be more realistic to represent the historical development as a process in which tendencies to differentiate and to reintegrate the dialects have been continuously at work, bringing about a remarkable degree of uniformity throughout the Slavic area.

The early development of the Slavic languages

Each branch of Slavic originally developed from Proto-Slavic, the ancestral parent language of the group, which in turn developed from an earlier language that was also the antecedent of the Proto-Baltic language. Some scholars believe that, after the common Indo-European area had divided into different dialect zones (after approximately 3000 BCE), a protodialect developed in the Baltic and Slavic areas that had many features peculiar to only those two branches of Indo-European. At the same time, that protodialect was connected with certain western Indo-European protodialects called Old European that are identified as the source of a number of river names. The ancient Baltic and Slavic names of rivers (hydronyms) are of the same type as the hydronyms found in central Europe.

The separate development of South Slavic was caused by a break in the links between the Balkan and the West Slavic groups that resulted from the settling of the Magyars in Hungary during the 10th century and from the Germanization of the Slavic regions of Bavaria and Austria. The history of the Balkan Slavs was closely connected with Byzantium, in contrast to that of the Lekhitic and Sorbian subgroups of the Western Slavs, which was connected with western European culture.

An effort on the part of the Slavs to counteract the influence of the Western Christian church (which was associated with the German empire) was the motive behind the introduction of the Old Church Slavonic language into the liturgy in Great Moravia, the first Slavic national state. Founded in the 9th century, Great Moravia united different groups speaking West Slavic dialects. In 863 its prince, Rostislav, invited St. *Cyril* and his brother *St. Methodius* to create a national church with a language and writing of its own. Prior to that time some Christian texts in Moravia might have been translated into Slavic from Latin (and partly perhaps from Old High German); those have been preserved only in later copies.

The disciples of Cyril and Methodius were soon forced to leave Moravia, and mostly they went south. The second period in the history of the Old Church Slavonic language (893–1081) occurred in the Bulgarian kingdoms of Symeon (893–927) and Peter (927–969) and in the kingdom of Samuel (997–1014). It was connected with the literary activity of many Bulgarian scholars who translated numerous Greek texts into Slavic and also produced a small number of original works. In the writings of the period of Symeon and Peter, Western (Macedonian) features were replaced by Eastern (Bulgarian) ones.

Both the Western and Eastern variants of the Old Church Slavonic language are preserved in manuscripts of the 11th century, whereas the East Slavic (Russian) variant is reflected in the oldest dated Slavic manuscript, *The Ostromir Gospel* (1056–57), and in many later texts. The Moravian variant must be reconstructed on the basis of some later texts (such as the Kiev fragments from the

beginning of the 11th century), which were written after the break with the Great Moravian tradition.

The first writing system used for Slavic was the *Glagolitic* system invented by St. Cyril. Quite original in pattern, it reflected accurately the sound system of the Macedonian dialect. Some forms of its letters can be traced to several different alphabets, mainly Greek and Semitic ones. Glagolitic was widely used in the first three centuries of Slavic literature but was gradually replaced by the *Cyrillic alphabet*, created in the 10th century and still used to write all the East Slavic languages, Bulgarian, Macedonian, and Serbian. Several languages (Serbian in the 19th century, Russian and Bulgarian in the 20th) have undergone reforms, dropping superfluous letters from the Cyrillic alphabet.

Other Slavic languages use the Latin (roman) alphabet. To render the distinctive sounds of a Slavic language, Latin letters are combined or diacritic signs are used (e.g., Polish *sz* for the *sh* sound in *ship*, Czech *č* for the *ch* sound in *church*). An orthographic system devised by the Czech religious reformer Jan Hus (*c.* 1370–1415) was adopted into different West Slavic systems of writing, including Czech, Slovak, and Sorbian. Polish spelling was patterned after the pre-Hus Czech spelling of the 14th century. Most of the Slavic writing systems are constructed to symbolize the distinctive sounds of the language or to render the same morphemes by the same groups of letters despite differences in pronunciation in various forms.

Linguistic characteristics of the Slavic languages

A number of features set off Slavic from other Indo-European subgroups. The Slavic languages are an unusually numerous yet close-knit subgroup. On the whole, Slavic auxiliary words tend to be unstressed and to be incorporated into a single phonetic group or phrase with an autonomous stressed word. Inflection (e.g., the use of endings, prefixes, and vowel alternations) has persisted as the main method of differentiating grammatical meanings, although to a lesser degree in nouns than in verbs because many functions of the noun case endings may also be expressed by prepositions. Endings are largely fusional (e.g., *-te* means simultaneously 'second person' and 'plural'). Slavic more than other languages shows verb aspect overtly. The movable stress pattern common to most South and East Slavic languages has profoundly influenced their versification.

Many linguistic devices found both in the oral tradition and in literary works of the different Slavic languages may be traced to common ancestral forms. An exuberant use of diminutives and metaphoric figures marks the *Slavic oral tradition*. It seems possible to reconstruct a common Proto-Slavic model of the universe as seen through language. The main feature of such a model is recurring binary (two-way) contrasts, as is evidenced by such key words as *bogŭ* 'god' from 'a portion allotted

by the gods' and *ne-bogŭ* 'not having its portion, having bad fortune.' Such pairing of opposites recalls the ancient Iranian dualistic view of the world, a view that evidently influenced the Slavs to a degree not yet fully appreciated.

Later developments were caused largely by western European and Greek (particularly Byzantine Christian) influences and by contact with Asian and Middle Eastern cultures, which led to innovations in the vocabularies of the East Slavic and South Slavic languages. In some instances, whole series of terms for objects were borrowed into Russian and other East Slavic languages from eastern sources.

All Slavic languages are synthetic, expressing grammatical meaning through the use of affixes (suffixes and, in verbal forms, also prefixes), vowel alternations partly inherited from Indo-European, and consonant alternations resulting from linguistic processes peculiar to Slavic alone. Although analytical methods of expressing grammatical meanings (through prepositions and other "empty" grammatical words) are present in older strata of the language, they are used to the exclusion of all other means only in the case system of Modern Bulgarian and Macedonian.

Phonological characteristics

Palatalization

The systems of sounds in Slavic languages are rich in consonants, particularly in spirants (*fricatives*, like English *s, z, sh*) and *affricates*. That is especially true in comparison with the protolanguage and with other Indo-European languages. The affricates (which are consonant sounds like English *ch, ts*, begun as stops, with complete stoppage of the breath stream, and released as fricatives, with incomplete stoppage) have resulted historically from a succession of different processes of palatalization that have occurred in Slavic and are one of the most-characteristic features of Slavic phonology.

Palatalization is the process whereby the pronunciation of an originally nonpalatal sound is changed to a palatal sound by touching the hard palate with the tongue; it is also the process whereby a nonpalatal sound is modified by simultaneously moving the tongue up to or toward the hard palate. Originally, palatalization was connected with the adaptation of a consonant to the following vowel within a syllable, specifically with the adaptation of a consonant to a following front vowel. That adaptation gave rise to "soft" (palatalized) syllables, composed of palatalized consonants followed by front vowels. The *j* sound, as *y* in English *year* (from older nonsyllabic Indo-European *i*), tended to palatalize the preceding consonant either by merging with it or by giving rise to consonant groups such as *b* from *bj* (*by*). As palatalized stop consonants (for instance *k', g', t', d'*) became increasingly differentiated from the corresponding nonpalatalized series (*k, g, t, d*), the palatalized stops tended to develop further into affricates (with the

subsequent development of voiced affricates into spirants). Thus, palatalized *k'* before the ancient front vowels developed into the affricate *č* (as *ch* in English *church*), and palatalized *g'* in the same environment changed to *dž* (as *j* in *judge*), which became the spirant sound *ž* (as *z* in *azure*) in all Slavic languages.

Before front vowels resulting from ancient *diphthongs*, palatalized *k'* changed to a *ts* sound, written as *c* (e.g., Old Church Slavonic *cěna* 'price,' Serbian and Croatian *cijèna*, Russian *cena*, cognate to Lithuanian *káina*), and *g'* changed to a *dz* sound, which later changed to *z* (Old Church Slavonic [*d*]*zelo* 'very,' Old Czech *zielo*, Belarusian dialect *do zěla*, cognate to Lithuanian *gaila*). The sounds *t'* (from *tj*) and *d'* (from *dj*) changed into different stops, affricates, and spirants in the separate Slavic languages.

Such processes of assibilation of the palatalized velar (*k'*, *g'*) and dental (*t'*, *d'*) sounds happened repeatedly in the history of the individual Slavic languages. Palatalization (softness) as a distinctive feature of most consonant sounds has been preserved in East Slavic; for example, in Modern Ukrainian palatalized (or soft) *t'*, *d'*, *s'*, *z'* contrast with nonpalatalized (or hard) *t*, *d*, *s*, *z*. (The contrast between the palatalized *k'* and the hard *k* is just now in the process of development.) Some West Slavic languages also have that contrast of palatalized and nonpalatalized consonants, whereas others do not. Czech, Slovak, and Serbian and Croatian, which have the usual three sets of labial, dental, and velar consonants inherited from the protolanguage, have developed a special additional series of palatal stops. In all the Slavic languages, voiced stop and fricative consonants (pronounced with vibrating vocal cords) contrast with voiceless consonants (pronounced without vibrating vocal cords). The tendency to increase the number of different spirants (nonstops) is connected with the processes of palatalization.

Stress accents

Differences in vowel quantity have also been preserved in Czech and Slovak, in which new long vowels developed as a result of contraction (two syllables changing into one). A fixed stress accent is found in the West Slavic languages as well as Macedonian, in contrast to Proto-Slavic, Serbian and Croatian, Slovene, Bulgarian, and the East Slavic languages. In Czech and Slovak, as well as in Sorbian and Southern Kashubian, stress is fixed on the first syllable of the word, but in Polish, Eastern Slovak, and Southern Macedonian, it falls on the next to the last syllable of the word, whereas in Western and standard Macedonian, it falls on the third syllable from the end. The Slavic languages with a nonfixed placement of stress reflect the Proto-Slavic (and Indo-European) distinction between two types of noun and verb paradigms: (1) the paradigm with movable stress in which the stress (indicated here by ′) falls on the root in some forms and on the inflectional ending in others (e.g., 'head' in Ukrainian

is *golová* in the nominative case and *gólovu* in the accusative; those forms derive from Proto-Slavic **golvá*, **gólvǫ*) and the paradigm in which the stress is fixed on the stem (e.g., 'book' in Ukrainian is *knízhka* in the nominative case, *knízhku* in the accusative).

Grammatical characteristics

Cases

Most Slavic languages reflect the old Proto-Slavic pattern of seven case forms (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, locative, instrumental, vocative), which occurred in both the singular and the plural. There was also a dual number, meaning two persons or things. In the dual, the cases that were semantically close to each other were represented by a single form (nominative-accusative-vocative, instrumental-dative, genitive-locative). The dual is preserved today only in the westernmost area (i.e., in Slovene and Sorbian). The trend toward the modern, more-analytical type of construction using prepositions and away from the *synthetic* type using case endings exclusively (as in Proto-Slavic and the archaic Slavic languages) is evident in the gradual elimination of the use of the locative forms without prepositions. The end result of that development is seen in Bulgarian and Macedonian, in which noun declension has almost completely disappeared and has been replaced by syntactic combinations using prepositions (*na kniga* 'of a book, to a book'). In Serbian and Croatian and in the western part of the West Slavic area (Sorbian and Czech), the same tendency to lose some of the distinctions between cases is observed, but to a lesser degree. In the other West Slavic languages and in East Slavic, on the other hand, the old system of declension by case endings has been preserved in spite of the large number of loanwords and other neologisms that have no case distinctions at all (e.g., borrowed Russian nouns like *kino* 'cinema,' or acronyms ending in a vowel like *Rayono* 'district education department').

Noun forms

The declension of pronouns has been preserved in all Slavic languages. Old combinations of adjectives with pronouns gave rise to the definite forms of adjectives (e.g., feminine *dobra-ja* 'good-the'). Such forms still contrast with the indefinite forms in South Slavic, but in the other languages the indefinite forms either have been gradually lost or else have been preserved only to serve a special function, that of predicate after 'to be.' In Bulgarian and Macedonian, as well as in some northern East Slavic dialects, an article is used, placed after a noun or adjective (e.g., in Bulgarian and Macedonian, *kniga-ta* 'book-the,' *dobra-ta kniga* 'good-the book'). The three main genders are masculine, feminine, and neuter. Most Slavic languages distinguish animate and inanimate masculine noun forms; some (e.g., Polish) also have personal and nonpersonal masculine forms.

Verb tenses

In the modern Slavic languages the verb is inflected to show present and past tenses. In the early history of the individual languages, however, a distinction was made between two past tenses, the aorist and the imperfect (the aorist denotes the occurrence of an action without reference to its completion, repetition, or duration; the imperfect is a verb tense designating a continuing state or an uncompleted action, especially in the past); that distinction is still preserved in modern South Slavic (with the exception of Slovene). Slavic has almost no traces of the Indo-European old perfect tense but, from combinations of a participle (verb + suffix *l* + masculine, feminine, or neuter endings) and forms of 'to be,' created new perfect (and pluperfect) tenses. Thus, from *dati* 'to give' there is a form *dalŭ jesmĭ* 'I have given' for a male speaker, *dala jesmĭ* for a female. Later those perfect forms came to be used as past tense forms in different Slavic languages. Slavic verbs usually come in pairs, one of which expresses the perfective (completed) and the other the imperfective (uncompleted) aspects of the same verb – e.g., Ukrainian *daty* 'to give' (e.g., 'to complete the process of giving'), *davaty* 'to be in the process of giving'.

The present tense form of a perfective verb may be used to express future meaning in East and West Slavic. Imperfective verbs need an auxiliary to make their future tense. South Slavic future tenses use an auxiliary (mostly from 'want') in both aspects. The eastern South Slavic languages, Bulgarian and Macedonian, have lost the infinitive form of the verb through the influence of non-Slavic Balkan languages, and they have developed verb forms to differentiate between an action witnessed by the speaker and one not witnessed (hence only reported).

Syntax

A striking feature of Slavic syntax is the widespread use of possessive adjectives (e.g., Ukrainian *Bož'a mylist'* 'divine mercy') instead of the Genitive case of the noun (*mylist' Boga* 'the mercy of God'). Word order in the Slavic languages is characterized by a gradual shift of the verb from the beginning to the middle of the sentence (subject–verb–object). Other important features of Slavic syntax are related to that medial positioning of the verb and the consequent occurrence of the verb before the object. For example, modifiers and prepositions are usually placed before nouns. Today they follow nouns only in some set phrases like Church Slavonic *Boga radi* 'for God's sake', with *radi* 'for the sake of' following the noun *Boga* 'God'.

Originally the verb occupied the initial position, which throws light on the origin of the reflexive verbal forms; these may be traced to the Proto-Slavic combination of the verb with a reflexive pronoun that occurred immediately after the verb and was pronounced as one accentual unit with the verb.

The rules for the shift of the stress in syntactic combinations with enclitics (an enclitic is a word treated in pronunciation as part of the preceding word) were

identical for verbs and nouns. Depending on the accentuation of the verb or noun, the stress could be shifted either to the enclitic (as in Bulgarian *esen-és* 'last autumn') or to the proclitic, or preceding unstressed word (as *u* in Serbian and Croatian *u``* *jesēn* 'in the autumn').

Vocabulary

The original vocabulary of general terms common to Baltic and Slavic is still retained in most of the Slavic languages. In prehistoric times Proto-Slavic borrowed a number of important social and religious terms from Iranian (e.g., *bogŭ* 'god' and *mirŭ* 'peace'). Later, special terms were borrowed by East Slavic and South Slavic from eastern languages (especially Turkish) as a result of the political domination of the Tatars in Russia and of the Turks in the Balkans. After the Renaissance, loanwords were taken from classical and western European languages (especially German and French) into all the Slavic languages. Church Slavonic in its different variants remained the main source of innovations in vocabulary in East Slavic and in some South Slavic languages.

The Slavic languages make extensive use of prefixes and suffixes to derive new words and thereby enrich the vocabulary – e.g., Ukrainian *čorn-yj* 'black', *čorn-y-t'* 'to blacken', *o-čorn-y-ti* 'to slander'. Several prefixes may be combined to modify the meaning of a verb (e.g., Bulgarian *iz-po-raz-boleja se*, in which the added prefixes intensify the meaning 'for many people to fall ill'). Many derivational suffixes are common to most Slavic languages – e.g., the very productive suffix –*stvo* (as in Ukrainian *християнство*/*khristian-stvo* 'Christianity', *побратимство*/*pobratym-stvo* 'fraternity', Polish *głup-stwo* 'foolishness, trifle', Macedonian *golem-stvo* 'high status, arrogance').

The archaic type of derivation by compounding, inherited from Indo-European, was particularly productive in Church Slavonic under the stimulus of Greek. Compounding remains one of the methods of creating new terms, especially technical terms (e.g., Ukrainian *водосховище*/*vodoskhovyshche* 'reservoir' from *voda* 'water' and *skhovyshche* 'depository'), but is far less important than affixation. Some Slavic languages typically derive new words by means of a condensed suffixing (e.g., Czech *železnice* 'railroad', from *železo* 'iron' combined with a noun-forming suffix; *hledisko* 'point of view', from *hled* 'look' combined with a noun-forming suffix), whereas others tend to use combinations of words (e.g., Russian *železnaja doroga* 'iron road' combined with an adjective-forming suffix on the first word; Ukrainian *točka zoru* 'point of viewing').

Ukrainian as one of the Indo-European languages

Ukrainian (українська мо́ва) is an East Slavic language of the Indo-European language family, which means it is structurally similar to our own tongue, as well as to German, Greek, Celtic, Italian, Hindi and about 440 others. Ukrainian falls under the East Slavic sub-branch of Indo-European languages, making it a close cousin of Polish, Serbian, Czech, Russian, Belorussian and Bulgarian. Ukrainian, Belarusian and Russian, constitute the East Slavic language group. It is the native language of about 40 million people and the official state language of Ukraine in Eastern Europe. Written Ukrainian uses the *Ukrainian alphabet*, a variant of the *Cyrillic script*. Ukrainian dialects are classified into Northern, Southeastern, Southwestern, and Carpathian groups; the literary language is based on *the Kiev-Poltava dialect*. In the early 21st century more than 37 million people spoke Ukrainian in Ukraine and neighbouring countries, and there were more than 350,000 Ukrainian speakers in Canada and the United States.

The standard Ukrainian language is regulated by the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine (NANU; particularly by its Institute for the Ukrainian Language), the Ukrainian language-information fundation and Potebnia Institute of Linguistics. Historical linguists trace the origin of the Ukrainian language to Old East Slavic, a language of the early medieval state of Kievan Rus'. After the fall of Kievan Rus in the 13th century, the dialectal characteristics that distinguish Ukrainian from Russian and Belarusian emerged, but for many centuries thereafter the language had almost no literary expression, a result of Ukraine's long political subordination. It was not until the end of the 18th century that modern literary Ukrainian emerged out of the colloquial Ukrainian tongue. The Ukrainian language has been in common use since the late 17th century, associated with the establishment of the Cossack Hetmanate. The Ukrainian language has come under repeated attack for centuries. In 1863, a secret order called "The Valuyev Circular" was issued by a minister of the Russian Empire to prohibit publications in the Ukrainian language. After the Russian revolution of 1917, the Ukrainian language was afforded equal status in the region. But forced "Russification" resumed in the 1930s and more attempts to suppress Ukrainian ensued.

Ukrainian became the official language of Ukraine in 1989 – about two years before the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic claimed its independence – and was reaffirmed as the country's only official language in 1996 in the country's Constitution.

Language – the most important ethnic feature

Language is a way of expressing ethnic and social identity. Sharing common language forms creates a sense of community and belonging within a group of people.

Language and ethnicity are closely related – certain ethnic groups are identified by the language they speak, but there may also be many languages spoken by a specific ethnic group. Dialects and specific variants can also be a factor in identifying ethnic groups.

Ethnicity refers to our **social identity,** involving factors such as cultural practices, nationality, language, religious beliefs, and familial bonds. Thus, language is a big part of culture, as a vector for many cultural practices and a means to signal emotions and cultural norms in communities and build social networks.

When a group of people shares a common culture, language, ancestry, etc. they are said to belong to the same **ethnic group**. There are thousands of ethnic groups around the world, each with its own unique identity and variety of language.

Nationality has a strong link with ethnicity, as citizens of a country often share the same social factors related to ethnicity (culture, languages, religion etc.). However, there can be multiple ethnicities within one nationality. For example, India is a nation in which we can find multiple ethnicities, like Bengali, Hindi, Nepali, and many more.

Language plays a huge part in defining ethnicity as it is a factor that can indicate where someone comes from and the social group that they belong to. This is not limited to the individual languages that people speak, but also to the **varieties** and **dialects** spoken within a language community. For example, the cockney dialect of English is spoken in parts of East London and is a big part of the cockney identity. These language varieties don't just signal ethnicity, they also signal other important factors of identity such as economic class and geographical origins.

Dialect is a variety of a language that is spoken in a particular region of a country. It contains its own language features such as distinctive words, grammar, and pronunciation. A person's dialect expresses where a person is from or is currently living. People may have a mixture of dialects that they use and these make up their idiolect.

Idiolect refers to an individual's unique use of language. Our idiolect is influenced by many aspects of our lives such as where we live, our education, friendship groups, hobbies, and so on.

Our idiolect can therefore express where we were born, where we currently live, where our parents have lived, the languages we speak, our cultural practices, and other key factors that contribute to our ethnicity.

✓ Ethnicity is an important social factor and can be a big part of our identity.

✓ Language is a way of expressing our ethnic identity and our idiolect can express key factors that contribute to our ethnicity.

✓ Ethnicity refers to our social identity involving factors such as cultural practices, nationality, language, religious beliefs, and familial bonds.

An important role in the formation of national consciousness belongs to the mother tongue, which is an essential ethno-differentiating feature. The actual relationship of language and nation often occurs in the consciousness. Education and development of younger generations is provided only in the native language - this axiom has long been accepted by civilized nations.

Educational work should also be directed towards the formation of respect for the ethno-culture of other national minorities, overcoming prejudice towards them, national restrictions, and creating a positive psychological climate for their cohesion and friendship, and the formation of international communication culture. An important condition for the effectiveness of educational work is the consideration of ethnic psychosocial features, customs, moral and social values of representatives of all ethnic communities.

Historically, there are three policy models for ethno-national minorities. This is assimilation, integration and multiculturalism. Assimilation was a typical choice for countries in which there was a dominant social group that tried to impose its own culture on other social groups that were considered to be minorities in relation to it. The integration model emerged in countries where the dominant group was not primordial (for example, the United States), but nevertheless formed certain cultural frameworks that were seen as universally acceptable, and the pursuit of which was a prerequisite for the acquisition of all the rights of society members. These two models are to some extent historic, while the model of multiculturalism is a relatively new phenomenon associated with the ideas of individual freedom developed in the postwar period. The introduction of multiculturalism in countries originally formed as national projects is a complex problem that can have many specific aspects. In countries such as the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, the national character of the parent states was combined with the existence of large colonial empires with a very heterogeneous composition of the population.

Multiculturalism emphasizes cultural freedom, social justice, equality of opportunities for all within the existing political system. In practice, the policy of multiculturalism includes anti-discrimination policies and measures to increase the participation of minorities in public life (facilitating access to the labour market, education, holding positions in public administration, etc.); policy on the development of minority cultures; prohibition and persecution of political groups that seek to revive the policy of aggressive nationalism and xenophobia; criminalization of so-called "hate crimes" – crimes committed because of hatred to a person as a representative of a certain discriminated group.

Use in the formation of the national consciousness of such effective means as artistic works, art, culture, religion contributes to the development of not only intellectual but also the spiritual, emotional and moral sphere of personality. An important role in the formation of national consciousness belongs to the mother tongue, which is an essential ethno-differentiating feature. The actual relationship between language and people often occurs in consciousness. Education and development of younger generations are provided only in the native language – this axiom has long been accepted by civilized nations.

Formation of national consciousness must be considered as a psychological and pedagogical problem, which requires the awareness of its relevance by each citizen. Polycultural competence is formed in the process of learning, and includes a system of multicultural knowledge, skills, interests, needs, motives, values, multicultural qualities, experience, social norms and rules of conduct necessary for everyday life and activities in the modern multicultural society, realized in the ability to effectively solve problems of social activity in the course of positive interaction with representatives of different cultures.

The modernization of Ukrainian society on a new system of ideological coordinates is unthinkable without a state language policy, the priority of which should be the development of the Ukrainian language as a consolidating spiritual force of Ukrainian society. The Ukrainian language should provide all spheres of vital activities of the state body, it should be used by the intellectual and political strata of Ukraine.

The state ensures comprehensive development and functioning of the Ukrainian language in all spheres of social life throughout the territory of Ukraine. In Ukraine, the free development, use and protection of Russian and other languages of the national minorities of Ukraine is guaranteed. The state promotes the learning of languages of international communication. The use of languages in Ukraine is guaranteed by the Constitution of Ukraine and determined by law.

Issues for discussion:
1. What classification of languages do you know?
2. Tell families of languages in the world today.
3. What is the family and branch of Ukrainian language?
4. What is the family and branch of your native language?
5. How is language related to ethnicity?
6. What role does language play in ethnic and social identity?
7. Is language a part of culture?
8. How do you understand notion "multiculturalism"?
9. What is the role of mother tongue in national consciousness formation?

III. THE STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE. PHONETICS. ORTHOEPY OF UKRAINIAN LANGUAGE: DOCTOR'S SPEECH

 ➢ Notions of 'system' and 'structure'. General characteristics of linguistic units.
 ➢ Phonetics.
 ➢ Orthoepy.
 ➢ Orthoepic norms of Ukrainian language.
 ➢ Syllabic structure of the words.
 ➢ Word stress.
 ➢ Accentological norms of the Ukrainian language.
 ➢ Accent variants of Ukrainian medical terms.

Notions of 'system' and 'structure', linguistic units

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

Charles Hockett (1916 – 2000) was an American linguist who developed many influential ideas in American structuralist linguistics[2], discussing ways in which human languages differ from other known communication systems in the natural kingdom, pointed out a property he called double articulation to describe the two-tier relationship of form to meaning that is created by having a structural distinction between morphemes and phonemes. Morphemes are the minimal linguistic units which carry specific meanings or grammatical functions (such as tense, aspect, number, negation, possession, etc.). Phonemes are minimal units that serve to distinguish or signal differences in meaning, but carry no specific meaning of their own. Hockett's distinction obliges us to postulate at least three levels of structure in human language: the segmental (phonemic), the word (morphemic), and the sentence levels.

Language is regarded as a system of elements (or: signs, units) such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system. **System** implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds).

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[2] *Structuralism* is a general theory of culture and methodology that implies that elements of human culture must be understood by way of their relationship to a broader system. It works to uncover the structures that underlie all the things that humans do, think, perceive, and feel. Structuralism in Europe developed in the early 20th century. After English philosopher Simon Blackburn (born 1944), structuralism is: "The belief that phenomena of human life are not intelligible except through their interrelations. These relations constitute a structure, and behind local variations in the surface phenomena there are constant laws of abstract structure".

Language is a structural system. **Structure** means hierarchical layering of parts in constituting the whole. In the structure of language there are four main structural levels: phonological, morphological, syntactical and supersyntatical. The levels are represented by the corresponding level units:

The **phonological** level is the lowest level. The phonological level unit is the **phoneme**. It is a distinctive unit (*bag – back*).

The **morphological** level has two level units:

1) the **morpheme** – the lowest meaningful unit (*teach – teacher*);

2) the **word -**the main naming (nominative) unit of language.

The **syntactical** level has two level units as well:

1) the **word-group** – the dependent syntactic unit;

2) the **sentence** – the main communicative unit.

The **supersyntactical** level has the **text** as its level unit.

All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. At different levels of analysis we focus attention on different features of language. Generally speaking, the larger the units we deal with, the closer we get to the actuality of people's experience of language.

To sum it up, each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as a system of systems. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called **isomorphism**. This is how language works – a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

The notions of system and structure are not synonyms – any system has its own structure (compare: the system of Ukrainian education vs. the structure of Ukrainian education; army organization).

Any linguistic unit is a double entity. It unites a concept and a sound image. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish the **content side** and the **expression side**. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages. Thus, the English word 'dog' happens to denote a particular four-footed domesticated creature, the same creature that is denoted in Ukrainian by the completely different form. Neither form looks like a dog, or sounds like one.

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into **paradigmatic relations** (PR) with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle, cup,* etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the, this, one, same,* etc.

According to different principles of similarity PR can be of three types: **semantic, formal** and **functional**.

1. Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading.* *He <u>used to</u> practice English every day – He <u>would</u> practice English every day.*

2. Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: *man – men; play – played – will play – is playing*.

3. Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each,* etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of 'language'.

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic relations** (SR) with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group A PINT OF MILK the word PINT contrasts SR with A, OF, MILK; within the word PINT – P, I, N and T are in syntagmatic relations. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of three different types: **coordinate, subordinate** and **predicative.**

1. Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you* and *me*; They were *tired* but *happy*.

2. Subordinate SR are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach + er –* morphological level; *a smart student –* word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses – sentence level.

3. Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication.

As mentioned above, SR may be observed in utterances, which is impossible when we deal with PR. Therefore, PR are identified with 'language' while SR are identified with 'speech'.

To sum it up, as a system, language is subdivided into three basic subsystems, each of which is a system in its own turn. They are the **phonetical (phonological)**, **lexical** and **grammatical** systems.

The **phonetical system** includes the material units of which language is made up: sounds, phonemes, different intonation models, and accent models. The phonetical system of language is studied by a separate branch of linguistics called phonology. **The lexical system** includes all the nominative (naming) means of language – words and stable word-combinations. The lexical system is studied by lexicology. The grammatical system includes the rules and regularities of using lingual units in the construction of utterances in the process of human communication. **The grammatical system** is described by grammar as a branch of linguistics talk about the structure of language, which is called descriptive

linguistics. Every language on Earth has a structure. We can study the structure of language through phonology, morphology, and syntax. In this lecture let's discuss phonology.

Phonetics

Phonetics is the study of speech sounds and their acoustic effect. Phonetics is concerned with the human noises by which the thought is actualised or given audible shape: the nature of these noises, their combinations, and their functions in relation to the meaning. Phonetics is subdivided into **practical** and **theoretical**. **Practical** or **normative phonetics** studies the substance, the material form of phonetic phenomena in relation to meaning. **Theoretical phonetics** is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in the language. Theoretical phonetics regards phonetic phenomena synchronically.

Phonetics is itself divided into two major components: **segmental phonetics**, which is concerned with individual sounds (i.e. "segments" of speech) and **suprasegmental phonetics** whose domain is the larger units of connected speech: syllables, words, phrases and texts. Thus we can say that we are dealing with the system of the sounds that are used in speech.

A speech sound is an element of a speech sequence which is formed with the help of our speech apparatus.

The vocal mechanism of producing oral speech:

Psychological → physiological → physical (acoustic) → reception →
→ transmission

Human speech is a result of a highly complicated series of events. The formation of the concept takes place at a linguistic level (in the brain of a speaker). This stage is called **psychological**. It starts with an idea (prelude). The message formed within the brain, the impulse goes from the back of our mind to organs of speech (it is transmitted along the nervous system to the speech organs). The human brain controls the behaviour of the articulating organs which effects in producing a particular pattern of speech sounds. The second stage is called **physiological** when the movements of the speech apparatus disturb the air stream thus producing sound waves. We move an air around. Speech organs move. Reception starts with the **physical** (or **acoustic**) stage. Any communication requires a listener, as well as a speaker. The last stages are the **reception** of the sound waves by the listener's hearing physiological apparatus (ear drums start vibrating. While vibrating the ear drums are tuned in the same way as the tune of the speaker's voice if your hearing is not defective) and the **transmission** of the spoken message through the nervous

system to the brain (the ear drums respond to the pressure by reproducing the vibration. Thus the reception begins. The listener and the speaker sing the same tune). The **linguistic interpretation** of the information is conveyed.

Subconsciously we repeat for ourselves in inner speech what we hear (together with the speaker). Two sides of one process are very closely intervolved. It's now proved that when we listen to somebody, we actually reproduce what is being said by the speaker.

Organs of speech

Alveolar Ridge · Hard Palate · Velum (Soft Palate) · Uvula · Nasal Cavity · Oral Cavity · front · back · tip · Tongue · root · Pharynx · Nostril · Lips · Epiglottis · Teeth · Larynx · Vocal Folds · Glottis
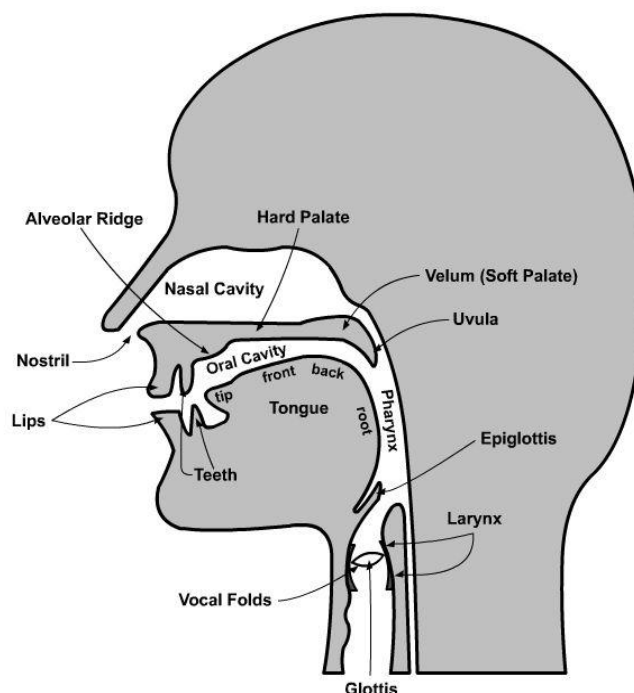
1) The respiratory (or **power**) **mechanism** furnishes the flow of air which is the first requisite for the production of speech sounds. This mechanism is formed by the lungs, the wind pipe and the bronchi. The air-stream expelled from the lungs provides the most usual source of energy which is regulated by the power mechanism. Regulating the force of the air wave the lungs produce variations in the intensity of speech sounds. Syllabic pulses and dynamic stress are directly related to the behaviour of the muscles which activate this mechanism.

2) From the lungs through the wind pipe the air-stream passes to the upper stages of the vocal tract. First of all it passes through the **larynx** containing the **vocal cords**. The function of the vocal cords consists in their role as a vibrator set in motion by the air-stream sent by the lungs.

3) The opening between the vocal cords is known as the **glottis**. When the glottis is tightly closed and the air is sent up below it, the so-called *glottal stop* is produced (it reinforces or even replaces [p], [t], or [k] or even when it precedes the energetic articulation of vowel sounds). The most important speech function of the vocal cords is their role in the production of *voice*. It effects when the vocal cords are

brought together and vibrate due to the pressure of air passing from the lungs. Compressed air forces an opening of the glottis and the following reduced air-pressure permits the vocal cords to come together again.

The more frequently the vocal cords vibrate the higher the pitch is. (The typical speaking voice of a woman is higher than that of a man because the vocal cords of a woman vibrate more frequently). But we are able to vary the rate of the vibration thus producing modifications of the *pitch* component of intonation. Even more, we are able to modify the *size* of the puff of air which escapes at each vibration of the vocal cords that is we can alter the *amplitude* of the vibration which causes changes of the *loudness* of the sound heard by the listener. If we talk about the increasing of speech, what we mean is increasing *tenseness* (pressure which is related to the listener as increase and loudness). *Loudness* is a hearer's category, and the equivalent for the speaker would be *tenseness*.

4) From the larynx the air-stream passes to **supraglottal cavities**, that is to the **pharynx**, the **mouth** and the **nasal** cavities. The shapes of these cavities modify the particular speech sound.

Speech sounds can be distinguished within a sequence. A sound becomes a speech sound if it has a certain set of basic characteristic features that make the sounds identifiable and recognizable in a speech flow, despite various changes a sound can undergo under the influence of its neighbours. Environment influences it and it is included in its definition (tone, emotions...). Sound taken isolated is not a system. We have to know its system, environment, and context. We would hardly be able to consider it because we would know next to nothing about is interrelations with its neighbours.

A sound can be perceived only when any element features are being seen against the background of the neighbouring features. We can roughly define the system as the same total or set of units or elements where quality of each element is defined and shaped by the qualities and characteristics of the other units and elements. Unlike any other sounds speech sounds, if not taken separately, can form meaningful combinations like morphemes, roots, words, endings.

Let's compare such notions as *phoneme*, *sound* and *allophone*.

Phoneme (Greek phone "sound, voice") is the smallest contrastive unit of language that may change the meaning of a morpheme and, as a pursuant, a word.

Put it simply, phoneme is a contrasting phonological unit. Let us consider several examples:
1) pig – big /p/ – /b/
2) pen – pan /e/ – /æ/
3) sink – think /s/ – /θ/

As can be seen from the examples above, the distinction between /p/ – /b/, /e/ – /æ/, and /s/ – /θ/ creates new words in English, which means that English has such phonemes as /p/, /b/, /e/, /æ/, /s/, /θ/ (among other English phonemes). When linguists construct phonological system of a language (let's say the language of a tribe), they try to find pairs of words in which the distinction is as small as in the words above. If such a pair is found, then it means that this language has such phonemes. Thus we may say that the phoneme can fulfill the ***distinctive*** function.

Sound (=phone) is a vibration or wave caused by an object.

This definition comes from acoustics and underlines physical characteristics of sounds of speech. Sounds are instances of phonemes in real speech. Put it simply, sounds are everything we hear with our ears. Here are some examples of sounds:
[k], [b], [f], [u], [d], [e], [i:]
The word "cat" consists of three sounds and can be transcribed as follows: [kæt].

In dictionary transcriptions, we have sounds, not phonemes. Sounds are physical segments. Sounds, unlike phonemes, have such concrete characteristics as duration in time and loudness. Sounds are produced by organs of speech. Sounds are quite concrete and linguists consider them to be units of speech; while phonemes are abstract (they are generalizations made on the basis of comparison of words) and linguists consider them to be units of language (of Saussurian distinction langue – parole). Sometimes, in non-linguistic circles, the word "sound" is used to name what is, in fact, a phoneme.

Allophone (Gr. allos "other" and phone "sound, voice") is a variant of a phoneme.

The phoneme is an abstract linguistic unit; it is an abstraction from actual speech sounds, that is allophonic modifications. The functionally relevant bundle of articulatory features is called the **invariant** of the phoneme.

Allophones are different pronunciations of words which do not change the meaning of these words. Let us consider the following allophones:
[pʰ] as in "pin" and [p] as in "spin"
[l] as in "lean" and [ł] as in "fill"

Whether we (or a foreigner) pronounce [pin] or [pʰin], [spin] or [spʰin]; [li:n] or [łi:n], [fil] or [fił], it does not really change the meaning in English. Therefore, we are dealing not with phonemes, but with allophones.

Allophones can be of three types (after Kocherhan):
a) individual (e.g. a foreigner or a person with a speech disorder cannot pronounce [p] correctly);
b) territorial (e.g. when in some part of a country [p] is always pronounced as [pʰ]);
c) positional (e.g. [l] at the end of words is usually pronounced as [ł]).

All the allophones of the same phoneme have some articulatory features in common, that is all of them possess the same invariant. Simultaneously each allophone possesses quite particular phonetic features which may not be traced in the articulation of other allophones of the same phoneme. Any change in the invariant of the phoneme affects the meaning. If an allophone of some phoneme is replaced by an allophone of a different phoneme the mistake called **phonological**, because the meaning of the word is inevitably affected. It happens when one or more relevant features of the phoneme are not realized. *For example*, when the vowel [i:] in the word *weak* becomes slightly more open, more advanced or is no longer diphthongized the word *weak* may be perceived as quite different word *wick*. It is perfectly clear that this type of mistakes is not admitted in teaching pronunciation to any type of language learner.

If an allophone of the phoneme is replaced by another allophone of the same phoneme the mistake is called phonetic. It happens when the invariant of the phoneme is not modified and consequently the meaning of the word is not affected. *For example*, when the vowel [i:] is fully long in such a word as *sheep* the quality of it remaining the same, the meaning of the word does not change.

Language learners are advised not to let phonetic mistakes into their pronunciation. If they do make them the degree of their foreign accent will certainly be an obstacle to the listener's perception.

Orthoepy

Orthoepy – (Greek *orthos* – direct, correct and *eros* – speech) is a set of oral speech rules that establish a uniform literary pronunciation. Orthoepic norms cover the phonetic system of the language, i.e. the composition of phonemes distinguished in the language, their quality and changes in certain phonetic positions. In addition, the content of orthoepy includes the pronunciation of individual words and groups of words, as well as individual grammatical forms in cases where their pronunciation is not determined by the phonetic system.

Orthoepy is a term that is used in 2 meanings:

1. A set of rules that establish the unity of pronunciation in the literary language (this is the rule of literary pronunciation).

2. A branch of linguistics, adjacent to phonetics, which describes the theoretical foundations, norms of the literary language in terms of pronunciation.

Orthoepy is closely related to phonetics. Both sciences study sounding speech, but phonetics describes everything that is in oral speech, and orthoepy characterizes oral speech only from the point of view of its correctness and compliance with literary norms.

Literary norm – this is the rule for the use of language units. These rules are obligatory for everyone who speaks the literary language. The norms of the literary language are formed gradually, and the possession of norms is a difficult and complex task, which is facilitated by the wide development of means of communication.

Orthoepy as a system of literary pronunciation standards regulates the use of sound sequences at syntagmatic level – from the smallest ones (syllables) to substantially bigger ones (syntagms and phrases), it organizes *rhythmical, accent and intonation structure* of an oral text.

Orthoepic norms of Ukrainian language

Orthoepic norms regulate the pronunciation of individual sounds in different phonetic positions, in combination with other sounds, as well as their pronunciation in certain grammatical forms, groups of words or in individual words.

Articulation features of the Ukrainian vowels.

Stressed vowels [а], [е], [о], [у], [и], [і] are always pronounced clearly and distinctly: *мати, сяду, город, донька, береза, ллється, ходіть*. Only initial [і] in some words is pronounced close to [и]: *инший, иноді, инколи, иній*.

Unstressed [е] is pronounced close to [и] mainly before syllables with vowels [і], [и], [у]: [веˡд'іт], [веˡд'и] [веˡд'у] and less before a syllable with another vowel, especially with [е]: [веˡла], [веˡло], [веˡде] або и [веде]. Unstressed [и] is pronounced close to [е], stronger before the syllable with [е], [а]: [миᵉритисʹа] and less before a syllable with another vowel, especially with [і], [и] and at the end of the word: [сиᵉд’імо], [групиᵉ].

Unstressed [о] acquires a slight shade [у] before a stressed syllable [у]: [тоᶸму], [коᶸжух], [гоᶸлубка].

Articulation features of the Ukrainian consonants.

The affricates [дз], [дз], [дж] are pronounced fused as one indivisible sound: [хо{дж}у], [си{дж}у],[кукуру{дз}а], [{дз}ига]. While *д* і *ж* or *д* і *з* belong to different meaningful parts of the word, their combination is pronounced as two separate sounds: [під/ живити], [над/ земний].

There are Ukrainian sounds [г] і [ґ]: *аґрус* – gooseberry; *ґава* – crow; *ґазда* – host, master*; ґандж* – imperfection; *ґанок* – annex near the entrance to the house; *ґатунок* – grade, grade of choice; *ґвалт* – shout, uproar; *ґедзь* – two-winged insect; *ґрунт* – soil; *ґудзик* – button.

For successful mastering of orthoepic norms it is necessary:
- learn the basic rules of Ukrainian literary pronunciation;
- learn to listen to your own speech and the speech of others;

- listen and study the exemplary literary pronunciation, which radio and television announcers, masters of the artistic word must master;
- consciously compare your pronunciation with the exemplary one, analyze your mistakes and shortcomings;
- correct mistakes by constant speech training in preparation for public speaking;
- incomplete (colloquial), which is common in everyday communication.
  The complete style is characterized by:
- compliance with the requirements of orthoepic norms;
- clarity and distinctness of pronunciation;
- correct arrangement of verbal and logical stress;
- at a moderate pace;
- correct speech pauses;
- neutral intonation.

With an incomplete pronunciation style, there is:
- excessive abbreviation of words, loss of consonants and whole syllables, for example: right now (now), a thousand (one thousand), a kilogram of a tomato (kilograms of tomatoes), etc .;
- fuzzy pronunciation of individual sounds and combinations;
- inconsistent pace of speech, unwanted pauses.

If in everyday speech these features of pronunciation are acceptable, then in public speaking they must be avoided.

Syllabic structure of the words

It is generally known that speech is a continuum. But it can be broken into minimal pronounceable units into which sounds show a tendency to cluster or group themselves. These phonetic groups are given the name of **syllables**. Being the smallest pronounceable units, the syllables form language units of greater magnitude, that is **morphemes**, **words** and **phrases**. Each of these units is characterized by a certain syllabic structure. A meaningful language unit has two aspects: syllable formation and syllable division.

About 78% of all syllables in Ukrainian are open. It is the dominant type of syllables. In Germanic languages the dominant type is a close one.

The *constitutive* function of the syllable is its ability to be a part of a word or a word itself. The syllable forms language units of greater magnitude, that is **morphemes**, **words** and **utterances**. We should emphasize two things:

1. the syllable is the unit within which the relations between the distinctive features of the phonemes and their acoustic correlates are revealed;

2. within a syllable (or a sequence of syllables) prosodic characteristics of speech are realized, which form the stress pattern of a word and the rhythmic and intonation structures of an utterance. In sum, the *syllable* is a specific minimal structure of both segmental and suprasegmental features.

The ***distinctive*** function of the syllable lies in its ability to differentiate words and word-forms. *For example*,

an aim – a name

nitrate – night-rate

mice kill – my skill

an ice house – a nice house

peace talks – pea stalks

plate rack – play track

Sometimes the difference in syllabic division might be the basic ground for differentiation sentences in such minimal pairs as:

I saw her eyes. – I saw her rise.

I saw the meat. – I saw them eat. or even *– I saw them meet.*

Thus the syllable could be conceived as a smallest pronounceable unit with potential linguistic importance.

Word stress

Accentology (from Lat. *accentus* – "stress" and Gr. *logos* – "word, concept, teaching") is a section of linguistics that studies the stress system of a language.

The amount of effort or energy expended in producing a syllable is called **stress**. For the hearer, stress is manifested as perceptual **prominence**, or strength. In other words, a stressed syllable seems more prominent or stronger than the other syllables in a word: it stands out. Stress is a cover term for three main features, any of which may result when extra effort is expended in producing a syllable and any of which may give an impression of perceptual prominence. These are: duration, or length; intensity, or loudness; and pitch, or fundamental frequency. According to A.C. Gimson, the effect of prominence is achieved by any or all of four factors: force, tone, length and vowel colour (Gimson A. C. An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English, Ldn, 1975). Traditionally, the word 'stress' denotes prominence referring to die syllables in words as items of vocabulary, i.e. pronounced in isolation, but not in phrases and sentences – word stress which constitutes the third component of phonic structure of language.

The problem of word stress has three aspects:

- the physical nature of word stress;

- the position of the word stress in disyllabic and polysyllabic words;

- the degrees of word stress.

Languages differ in all these aspects of word/lexical stress.The dynamic stress implies greater force with which the syllable is pronounced. In the articulation of the stressed syllable greater muscular energy is produced by the speaker.

Word stress in a language performs three **functions**:

1. Word stress constitutes a word, organizes the syllables of a word into a language unit having a definite accentual structure, that is a pattern of relationship among the syllables; a word doesn't exist without the word stress. Sound continuum becomes a phrase when it is divided into units organized by word stress into word. It fulfills the *constitutive function*.

2. Word stress enables a person to identify a succession of syllables as a definite accentual pattern of a word. Correct accentuation helps the listener to make the process of communication easier, whereas the distorted accentual pattern of words, misplaced word stresses prevent normal understanding. This function is known as *identificatory* (or *recognitive*).

3. Word stress alone is capable of differentiating the meaning of words or their forms, thus performing its distinctive function. The accentual patterns of words or the degrees of stress and their positions form oppositions. *For example*,

'import – to im'port (to differentiate the noun from the verb).

'billow – be'low;

л'ікарський (діяльність, халат, дільниця, обхід, порада, таємниця, клятва, рецепт) – which concerns the doctor (лікар) and his activities;

лік'арський (рослини, трави, препарат, ромашка, ягода) – which relates to medication (ліки).

There are *logical* and *emphatic* stresses. The main idea of the *logical stress* is to single out a word or a word combination which is the most essential from the point of view of meaning. *For example*,

This 'blackboard is \green.

The idea of this sentence is to say that the colour is *green* not red, yellow or brown. This concept is based on the contrast because the word which is marked by stress is opposed to any group of words that can be contrasted to the word in question. Thus in the sentence we contrast the word *green* to any other colour. It should also be noted that in the same sentence logical and syntagmatic stresses fall on one and the same word *green*. Thus the function of these stresses are widened and in this case when two stresses are merged in one they signal the end of the sentence, show the logical centre in the sentence and bring up the idea of contrast.

The major function of *emphatic stress* is to express emotional and evaluative overtones. *For example*,
- Where were you born?
- I was found.
- *Found*?! (Oscar Wilde)

Accentological norms of the Ukrainian language are the rules for placing stress in words:

- Most words have only one stressed syllable, and the pattern of stresses in a string of words help the listener make sense of what is being said.

- Ukrainian stress patterns are frequently (and with some justification) perceived as being unpredictable, and thus difficult to learn. Even native speakers frequently make mistakes with stress, so it is hardly surprising that learners find it difficult to acquire correct stress patterns in Ukrainian.

- It is self-evident that correct stressing of words in Ukrainian is an important part of a speaker's communicative competence and accuracy in using the spoken language. Additionally, some words change their meaning, depending on where the stress is placed. Although the meaning will normally be clear from the context, learners need to be aware of this. In printed texts, stress marks are sometimes used to avoid ambiguity. Some words like this:

  бра́ти – to take, verb

  брати́ – brothers (plural of брат), noun

  пла́чу – I cry (from пла́кати), verb

  плачу́ – I pay (from плати́ти), verb

  пе́ред – in front of, preposition

  пере́д – the front, noun

  за́мок – castle, noun

  замо́к – castle, noun

  му́ка – torture, torment, noun

  мука́ – flour (colloquial, synonym for бо́рошно), noun

  то́му – locative of той, pronoun

  тому́ – dative of той, pronoun; therefore, adverb

  пла́кати – to cry, verb

  плака́ти – posters (plural of плака́т), noun

  у души́ – in (one's) soul, noun, in locative

  у ду́ши – in the shower, noun, in locative

- The surest way to check the stress pattern of a word is to look it up in an **orthographic dictionary**, which gives information not only on stress, but on spelling, part of speech and morphology (including any irregularities in forms,

declension or conjugation of words). The normative orthographic dictionary is prepared, published and updated by the Potebnia Institute of Linguistics of the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences, in the Dictionaries of Ukraine series.

- Word distinguishing function of emphasis in the Ukrainian language
- Accent in the Ukrainian language performs various functions, one of which is *distinctive*. It is about the lexical and grammatical differentiation of words with the help of stress, *for example*:

лíкарський – doctor's, adjective

лікáрський – of treatment, adjective

шкóда – spoilage

шкодá – in vain

лýпа – magnifying glass

лупá – dandruff

хáос – chaos in mythology

хаóс – disorder

Note!

Second syllable stressed words: вимова, вимога, зупинка, ім'я, корисний, ознака, оцінка, предмет.

Third syllable stressed words: запитання, кілометр, листопад, множина, міліметр, течія, український, урочистий, черговий.

Accent variants of terms

In modern Ukrainian terminology, as well as in the general literary language, there are known accents that do not perform a word- and form-distinguishing function, but are neutral. The occurrence of parallel accents in a word is caused by its internal structure, analogies, as well as the specifics of accent functioning in oral speech.

In medical terminology, accent variation is a fairly common phenomenon. Accent variants can have both foreign language terms that are part of the term system, and actual Ukrainian ones, for example: *речовина/substance, голосова щілина/glottis* (suffix accentuation is recommended); *шлунковий/ gastric, гомілковий/ leg, зародковий/ germinal, надглотковий/ suprapharyngeal* (recommended in adjectival terminological names with the suffix -ов- is the accent on the suffix vowel).

Note:

аграфія, алкоголь, бюлетень, випадок, диспансер, запитання, медикамент, спина, феномен, щелепа, щипці, ятрогенія, в'язкий, гнійний, кров'яний, кров'янистий, ліжковий, мозковий, мозочковий, новий, очний, тонкий, черговий, шлунковий.

Rhythm

Prosodic components (pitch, loudness, and tempo) and speech rhythm work independently. But rhythm seems to be a kind of framework of speech organization. Linguists sometimes consider rhythm as one component of intonation. According to the general term for *rhythm* it is understood as periodicity in time and space. Rhythm as a linguistic notion is realized in lexical, syntactical and prosodic means and mostly in their combinations. For instance, such figures of speech as sound or word repetition, syntactical parallelism, intensification and others are perceived as rhythmical on the lexical, syntactical and prosodic levels.

Speech production is naturally closely connected with the process of breathing which is also characterized by rhythmical organization. In speech, the type of rhythm depends on the language. Germanic languages English and German, as well as Ukrainian, refer to syllable-timed languages where the speaker gives an approximately equal amount of time to each syllable, whether the syllable is stressed or unstressed and this produces the effect of even rather staccato rhythm. In these languages the rhythm is based on a larger unit than syllable. Though the amount of time given on each syllable varies considerably, the total time of uttering each rhythmic unit is practically unchanged. The stressed syllables of a rhythmic unit form peaks of prominence. They tend to be pronounced at regular intervals no matter how many unstressed syllables are located between every two stressed ones. Thus the distribution of time within the rhythmic unit is unequal. The regularity is provided by strong "beats".

Speech rhythm has the immediate influence on vowel reduction and elision. Form words such as prepositions, conjunctions as well as auxiliary and modal verbs, personal and possessive pronounce are usually unstressed and pronounced in their weak forms with reduced or even elided vowels to secure intervals between the stressed syllables.

Intonation

Intonation is variation in pitch used to indicate the speaker's attitudes and emotions, to highlight or focus an expression, to signal the illocutionary act performed by a sentence, or to regulate the flow of discourse. For example, the English question "Does Maria speak Spanish or French?" is interpreted as a yes-or-no question when it is uttered with a single rising intonation contour, but is interpreted as an alternative question when uttered with a rising contour on "Spanish" and a falling contour on "French". Although intonation is primarily a matter of pitch variation, its effects almost always work hand-in-hand with other prosodic features.

Intonation is distinct from tone, the phenomenon where pitch is used to distinguish words or to mark grammatical features.

Intonation is a language universal. There are no languages which are spoken as a monotone. That is without any change of prosodic parameters. But intonation functions in various languages in a different way. It functions as "make-up" or "decoration" and "dictates" a specific background of the communicative process. Native speakers use it subconsciously. But in print no attempt has been made to convey intonation. Whereas the orthography always reminds us of the sounds a reader should produce properly.

A few decades ago phoneticians started paying attention not only to segmental units, but to suprasegmental ones as well. Thus the auditory and acoustic factors play a great role in description of any intonation, then we can speak about its linguistic function.

On perception level **intonation** is a complex, a whole, formed by significant variation of **pitch**, **loudness** and **tempo** (i.e. the rate of speech and pausation) closely related. Some linguists regard **speech timbre** as the fourth component of intonation. It is an undisputable fact that speech timbre conveys certain shades of attitudinal or emotional meaning. Nowadays there is another term "***prosody***" which embraces the three prosodic components and substitutes the term "intonation".

Each syllable of the speech chain has a special pitch colouring. Some of the syllables have significant moves of tone up and down. Each syllable bears a definite amount of loudness. Pitch movements are inseparably connected with loudness. Together with the tempo of speech they form an **intonation pattern** which is the basic unit of intonation.

An intonation pattern contains one nucleus and may contain other stressed or unstressed syllables normally preceding or following the nucleus. The boundaries of an intonation pattern may be marked by stops of phonation, that is temporal pauses.

Intonation patterns serve to actualize syntagms in oral speech. It may be well to remind you here that the syntagm is a group of words which is semantically and syntactically complete. In phonetics actualized syntagms are called intonation groups. Each intonation group may consist of one or more potential syntagms, e.g. "I am sure they are lying" has two potential syntagms: "I am sure" and "they are lying". In oral speech it is normally actualized as one intonation group.

The intonation group is a stretch of speech which may have the length of the whole ***phrase*** (here we mean a sentence actualized in oral speech). But the phrase often contains more than one intonation group. The number of intonation groups depends on the length of the phrase and the degree of semantic importance or emphasis given to various parts of it, e.g.:

This topic is ′not ′spoken\about. – nekops′ ton si cipot′ sihTǀ \about.

An additional terminal tone on "this topic" expresses an emphasis on "this topic" in contrast to other topics.

Another example:

Last ˌspring |we spent our ′rest with the ′friends in the \Transcarpathia.‖
Last ˌspring |we spent our ′rest with the ˌfriends |in the Transcarpathia.‖

The phrases above might be pronounced with either two or three intonation groups, which obviously affects the meaning.

Among the **pitch parameters** wy shall distinguish the three of them: variations in the ***direction of pitch***, ***pitch level*** and ***pitch range***. Pitch changes usually are viewed together with the variations of **loudness**.

Intonation of Ukrainian language includes:
a) raising and lowering the tone (melody of speech);
b) acceleration and deceleration pronunciation (tempo);
c) increase and decrease in voting power (intensity of speech);
d) a specific interchange of stressed and unstressed syllables (rhythm of the speech);
e) isolating the words in the phrase by special stress – word, logical and emphatic.
Word stress – is the sound selection of one of the word in phrase (mostly the last word). This stress emphasizes the finality of expression and encourages the listener to a certain reaction.
e.g. *Щоб докладно обговорити це питання, нам треба зустрітися ще завтра.*
(in this sentence slightly increases accented syllable of the last word, and that indicates that the sentence completed.)
Logical stress – it is separation of the word which is important for the content by strengthening and increases its accented syllable in tone. Using logical stress the same sentence can provide a number of different semantic shades.
e.g. *Я допоможу Вам!*
(in this sentence depending on which word we emphasize it would have different meanings – that the speaker will help us and no one else; or that this action would be executed; or that assistance will be provided with this person and not another.)
Emphatic stress – is emotional separation of words in the phrase. In Ukrainian language it is expressed, usually by lengthening of stressed vowel and increased tone.
e.g. *Пливти влітку Дніпром – це ж чудово!*
(in this case the word чудово is emotionally stressed).

Issues for discussion:

1. What does *Phonetics* study?

2. What function does the respiratory mechanism fulfill? What are the main groups of organs of speech? What additional modifications are caused by their work?

3. Are the notions "a *sound*", "*a phoneme*" and "*an allophone*" different ones? What functions does "a phoneme" fulfill?

4. What kinds of allophones do you know? Give your examples. What is alike about *phones* and *allophone*s?

5. Which functions does a syllable possess? What is the defining characteristic of the syllable?

6. What do we contribute to the concept of *stress*? What is significant in making the sound prominent? What are the main components of word stress?

7. What are the main types of word stress? What role do they carry out?

8. What do we understand by *intonation*? What are the main intonation communicative functions?

9. What do we understand by rhythm? What does it depend on?

IV. GRAMMAR: GRAMMATICAL MEANING AND GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES. WORD FORMATION IN UKRAINIAN LANGUAGE DOCTOR'S PROFESSIONAL SPEECH AND WORD FORMATION

- ➢ Grammar and its subject
- ➢ General principles of grammatical analysis
- ➢ General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language
- ➢ Grammatical meaning
- ➢ Grammatical categories
- ➢ Morphology and word-formation
- ➢ Ways of word formation in Ukrainian
- ➢ Word formation in doctor's professional speaking

Grammar and its subject

Man is not well defined as *"Homo sapiens"* ("man with wisdom"). For what do we mean by wisdom? It has not been proved so far that animals do not possess it. Those of you who have pets can easily prove the contrary. Most recently anthropologists have started defining human beings as "man the toolmaker". However, apes can also make primitive tools. What sets man apart from the rest of animal kingdom is his ability to speak:*"Homo loquens"* – "man the speaking animal". And again, you, naturally, in their own way. But their sounds are meaningless, and there is no link between sound and meaning (or if there is, it is of a very primitive kind) and the link for man is grammar. Only with the help of grammar we can combine words to form sentences and texts. Man is not merely *Homo loquens*, he is *Homo Grammaticus.*

The term **"grammar"** goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the "art of writing". But later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of **linguistics**.

The term *"grammar" has two meanings*: 1) a branch of linguistics that studies language structure; 2) grammatical structure inherent in every language, i.d. laws according to which language units function.

The fundamental purpose of language is to make sense – to communicate intelligibly. But if we are to do this, we need to share a single system of communication. It would be no use if one person were using Japanese and the other were using English, or one knew only Morse code and the other knew only semaphore. The rules controlling the way a communication system works are known as its grammar, and both sender and recipient need to use the same grammar if they are to understand each other. If there is no grammar, there can be no effective communication.

We can see this by dipping into the vocabulary of English and trying to do without grammar. With hundreds of thousands of words contained in the lexicon, it is certainly the most prominent aspect of the language, yet without grammar the value of this remarkable resource becomes so limited as to be almost worthless. We might believe that "making sense" is a matter of vocabulary – that meaning lies in the lexicon. This is certainly the superficial impression we receive whenever we use a dictionary, and "look up a meaning". However, all the lexicon provides is a sense of a word's meaning potential – its semantic possibilities. To draw out this potential we need to add grammar. A dictionary does this unobtrusively, through its definitions and citation. When we use a dictionary, we are being fed grammar all the time, without realizing it.

The grammatical system breaks up into subsystems owing to its relations with vocabulary and the unity of lexical meaning of the words of each group. Grammar and vocabulary are organically related and interdependent but they do not lie on one plane. As a bilateral unity of form and content the grammar of any language always retains the categories underlying its system.

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

General principles of grammatical analysis

The word is considered to be the central (but not the only) linguistic unit (одиниця) of language. Linguistic units (or in other words – signs) can go into three types of relations:

a) The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us (objective reality). E.g. the word 'table' refers to a definite piece of furniture. It may be not only an object but a process, state, quality, etc. This type of meaning is called **referential** meaning of a unit. It is **semantics** that studies the referential meaning of units.

b) The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units). No unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called **syntactic**. Formal relation of units to one another is studied by **syntactics** (or **syntax**).

c) The relation between a unit and a person who uses it. As we know too well, when we are saying something, we usually have some purpose in mind. We use the language as an instrument for our purpose. One and the same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called **pragmatic**. The study of the relationship between linguistic units and the users of those units is done by **pragmatics**.

Thus there are three models of linguistic description: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic.

The first part of the 20th century can be characterized by a formal approach to the language study. Only inner (syntactic) relations between linguistic units served the basis for linguistic analysis while the reference of words to the objective reality and language users were actually not considered. Later, semantic language analysis came into use. However, it was surely not enough for a detailed language study. Language certainly figures centrally in our lives. We discover our identity as individuals and social beings when we acquire it during childhood. It serves as a means of cognition and communication: it enables us to think for ourselves and to cooperate with other people in our community. Therefore, the pragmatic side of the language should not be ignored either. **Functional** approach in language analysis deals with the language 'in action'. Naturally, in order to get a broad description of the language, all the three approaches must be combined.

General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language

The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones, in other words – the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means.

Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – **synthetic** and **analytic**. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of 'internal' grammar of the word – most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Ukrainian – *зроблю*, Russian, Latin, etc). Analytical languages are those of 'external' grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic – the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way.

Morphology and syntax as two parts of linguistic description

As the word is the main unit of traditional grammatical theory, it serves the basis of the distinction which is frequently drawn between morphology and syntax. **Morphology** deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories and their semantics while traditional syntax deals with the

rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics). We can therefore say that the word is the main unit of morphology.

It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word. First of all, it is the main **expressive** unit of human language which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic **nominative** unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of 'language' and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept (поняття, ідея) and a sound image and thus has two sides – the content and expression sides (план змісту та план вислову): concept and sound form.

Grammatical meaning

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings – lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table*). **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun (*table*) we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun *'table'* has the grammatical meaning of a subclass – countableness. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of verbiality – the ability to denote actions or states. An adjective combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives – qualitativeness – the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of adverbiality – the ability to denote quality of qualities.

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group – articles, particles, prepositions, etc.

Types of grammatical meaning

The grammatical meaning may be explicit and implicit. The **implicit** grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate). The **explicit** grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically – it has its marker. In the word *cats* the grammatical

meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; *cat's* – here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form *'s*; *is asked* – shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness.

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types – general and dependent. The **general** grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns – the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The **dependent** grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity, terminativeness/non-terminativeness, stativeness/non-stativeness; nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of contableness/uncountableness and animateness/inanimateness. The most important thing about the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. Thus the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns, the grammatical meaning of animateness/inanimateness influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, teminativeness/non-terminativeness – the category of tense, transitivity/intransitivity – the category of voice.
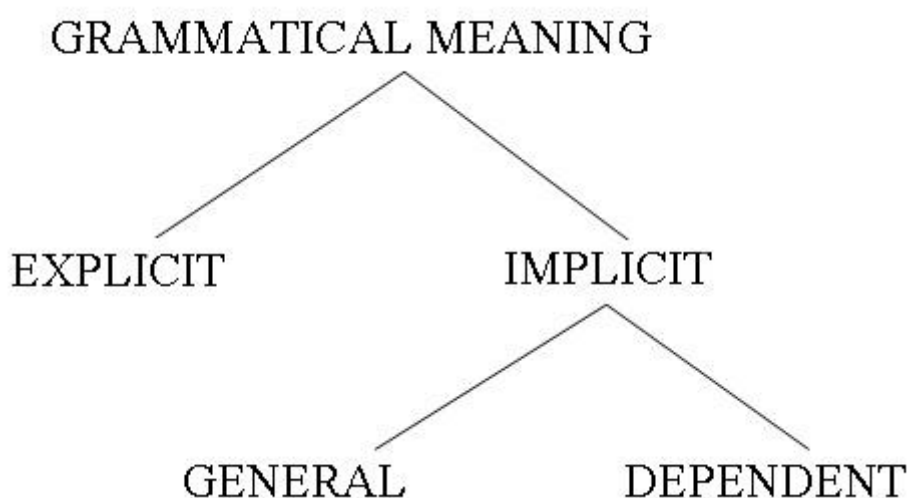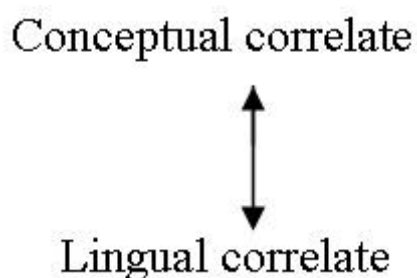

Grammatical categories

Grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (e.g. singular : plural). Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality. It may be shown with the help of a triangle model:

Conceptual reality   Conceptual category

Objective reality   Lingual reality   Objective category   Grammatical category
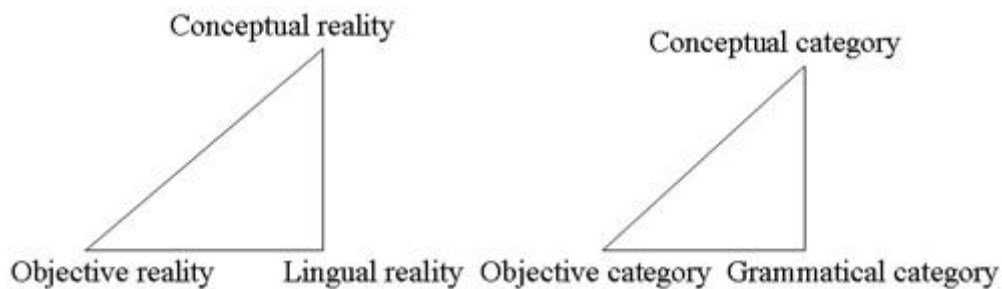
It follows that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of **time** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **tense**, the objective category of **quantity** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **number**. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential** grammatical categories. However, not all of the grammatical categories have references in the objective reality, just a few of them do not correspond to anything in the objective reality. Such categories correlate only with conceptual matters:

Conceptual correlate

↕

Lingual correlate

They are called **significational** categories. To this type belong the categories of **mood** and **degree**. Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has **modality** as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality – it expresses the speaker's attitude to what he says.

Morphology and word-formation

Word-formation – the process of forming words by combining root and affixal morphemes according to certain patterns specific for the language (affixation, composition), or without any outward means of word formation (conversion, semantic derivation).

The term morphology consists of two parts: μορφή ("form, shape") and λόγος ("word, doctrine") therefore morphology can be understood as the study of the internal structure of words and forms a core part of linguistic study today.

The unit (object) of the study of linguistic morphology is a **word** whose form is understood to be a **structure** whose components are **morphemes** or **complexes of morphemes**.

Elements of the lower planes consist of elements of higher planes, e.g. sentences consist of words. The plane of the building elements, which consist of words, examines the linguistic discipline **morphematics** (**morphemics**). The smallest, non-separable language units that act as building blocks of words and carry some lexical or grammatical meaning (or have a certain function) and which are repeated at least in two words or verbal forms are called **morphs**.

The boundary between the two morphs, which are part of the same word, is called a **morphemic seam** (we will mark it a dash): *вод-а, вод-н-ий*.

A set of morphs of the same kind, which have the same lexical or grammatical significance (or the same function) and which are similar to their formal structure, are called **morphemes**. Morpheme is an abstract unit that is realized through one of its morphs, e.g.: *ног-а, ніж-к-а, без-ног-ий*. Concrete morphs *-ног- [ног], -нож- [нож], -ног- [ног']* are realising here morpheme with a lexical meaning *„одна з двох нижніх кінцівок людини, а також одна із кінцівок птахів, деяких тварин“*.

The morphs belonging to such a set (which form one morpheme) are referred to as variants of the given morpheme or as an **alomorphs**, in other words *-ног- [ног], -ніж- [ніж], -ног- [ног']* are the alomorphs of the morpheme *-ног-* with a lexical meaning *„одна з двох нижніх кінцівок людини, а також одна із кінцівок птахів, деяких тварин“*.

Morph(eme)s, from which Ukrainian words and grammatical word forms are composed, are usually divided into **root word** and **affixes**. **Root morph(eme)s** (**root**) are the central type of morph(eme)s and carry the main lexical meaning of the whole word or grammatical form of word, that every word has a root morf(eme): *вод-а, жив-ий, трав-а, пис-а-ти, голов-н-ий, мій*. Or example with words that containing same root *-імун-*: *імунітет, імунодефіцит, імунолог, імунограма*.

- **Affixes** are morphemes that are located in a word in front of a root morph(eme)s or after it:
- **Prefixes** are located in front of the root, e.g.: ***під**-писати*, ***супер**-герой*, ***з**-робити*.
- **Suffixes** are found after the root or between the root and the ending, e. g.: *розум-**н**-ий, сад-ок, нов-**еньк**-ий*.
- **Postfixes** for certain types of words or grammatical forms can be attached to the so-called absolute end, i.e. behind a case, gender or personal inflexion or suffix, e. g.: *умива**ся**, хто-**небудь***.

- **Interfixes**, which are used to join the front and rear composite members into a new word, in Ukrainian most often *-о-*, *-е-*, e.g.: *пар-о-плав*, *земл-е-трус*, *вод-о-нагрівач*, *ліс-о-заготівки*.
- **Inflection** (ending, inflectional morph(eme)s), in Ukrainian they are morphemes whose change is accompanied by a change in morphological gender, numbers, case and persons, e. g.: *стін-а*, *стен-и*, *стін-і*...; *нов-а*, *нов-ий*, *нов-е*, *нов-і*; *пиш-у*, *пиш-еш*, *пиш-емо*..., *пиш-уть*.
- Inflexion morph(eme)s are at the end of a word or grammatical form, after which only postfixes can be found in Ukrainian, e. g.: *-ся*, *-сь*, *-те*, *-то*, *-небудь*: *умива-в-ся, заходь-те*.

Prefixes and suffixes can also be divided into:
- **word-forming** (derivation), which specify, modify, change the main lexical meaning of a word or word form, e.g.: *будинок – будиноч-ок* („маленький будинок"), *писати – пере-писати* („написати по-новому");
- **form-building** (derivation of word forms), which express grammatical meanings (grammatical categories) and can only be used for flexible word types, e.g. case inflections of nouns *(вод-а, вод-и, вод-і)*, verb suffix of past time *-в-* (*чит-а-в, чит-а-л-а, чит-а-л-о, чит-а-л-и*).

Form-building morph(eme)s in Ukrainian can be realized using so-called **null morphs** (morphological zero, mark Ø), in other words formally unrecognized morph, e.g. *стілØ, стол-а, стол-і* or *учительØ, учител-я, учител-ю*, where in the nominative case the ending of a masculine gender is not expressed formally (i.e. by letter or special sound), but in other cases the ending is expressed on a formal level. If the word does not decline or conjugate, we can not speak of any null morphs at its end, e.g. in the words *радіо, хакі, какаду, Брно, бордо*, but in words such *весело, сміючись* we can talk about the final suffixes/postfixes: *весел-о* (suffix *-о-*), *сміючи-сь* (postfix *-сь*).

The stem of a word or word form is the part of it that remains after separation of inflection (ending): *загадк-а*. Another branch associated with the structure of the word and its separation into morphs is **word-forming** (derivation) that deals with word-motivated words, i.e. words whose meaning and pronunciation are influenced in other words by the same root.

The term **word-forming motivation** refers to the relationship between two words with the same root, the relationship between the two words being of a dual nature:
- the meaning of one word is determined by the meaning of the second word (*вчити – вчитель* „той, хто вчить");
- the meaning of the two words is similar / the same, but each word of the pair is another part of speech (*бігти – біг, білий – біліти, швидкий – швидко*).

The underlying (motivating) word in relation to the next word may be motivated, e. g.: the word *учитель* in the pair with the word *вчителька* is underlying, but in relation to the word *вчити* is motivated. Such words form **derivation chains (word-forming chains)**: *вчити → вчитель → вчителька*. The **derivation chain** consists of words with the same root, which are related to motivation. The first member of the derivation chain is an unmotivated word, all other members of the derivation chain are determined by their distance from the first non-motivated word (so-called motivation degree):

старий → старіти (I) → постаріти (II) → старість (III).

The words of the second and the higher motivation degree can be motivated by the words of the previous motivation degree, e.g.: *викладати → викладач → викладацький*, where the word *викладацький* can be motivated both by the word *викладач* and the word *викладати*.

Another important term in the field of morphematics is a **family of words**, which means a group of words with the same root, which is organized on the basis of its motivation. The first word (vertex) of the family of words can be an unmotivated word. A family of words can also be defined as a series of derivation chains with the same first non-motivated word:

нагородити (to reward) →	нагородж-ува-ти →	нагороджувати-ся нагороджува-нн-я	
	нагород-а →	нагород-н-ий ви-нагород-а	
	нагородж-енн-я →	винагородж-ува-ти →	винагороджувати-ся
	ви-нагородити →	винагородженн-я →	винагородж-ува-ння

Ways of word formation in Ukrainian

I. Ways of derivation words having one motivating root (stem)

1. Suffixation (suffixal way of word formation). New words are created using suffixes that perform a classification function and classify words into certain paradigm, so new words created by the same suffix usually belong to the same paradigm (pattern), e.g.: *вчити – вчи-тель, аптека – аптек-ар*.

Other examples of sufixation: *вода – вод-н-ий, стіл – стол-ик, три – три-чі*.

The suffix may be null morpheme, e.g.: *виходити – вихід, синій – синь*.

Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another; a suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a

different semantic group, e.g. a concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as is the case with child — childhood, друг – дружба, etc.

2. Prefixation (prefixal way of word formation). New words are created using prefixes, e.g.: *дід – прадід, великий – превеликий, завтра – післязавтра, герой – супергерой*. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem (e.g., йти – перейти, читати – дочитати etc.), but they seldom affect the lexico-grammatical meaning of the word, they don't change the part of speech of the word.

3. Postfixation (postfixal way of word formation). New words are created by word-forming postfixes. Postfixes in Ukrainian may be form-building (e.g.: *-ся/-сь* in forms of passive voice *Дім будується рабочими*) and word-forming (*-ся/-сь, -то, -небудь*): *записувати – записуватися* (postfix - *ся* has a word-forming meaning of reciprocity).

Prefixes and postfixes, unlike suffixes, attach to the whole word, not to the root, so the words created by prefixing or postfixing belong to the same word type and paradigm as an underlying word.

4. Mixed ways:

- prefixal sufixal way of word formation (the suffix may be null morpheme): берег – *прибережний, новий – по-новому, стіл – застільний, рука – безрукий*;

- prefixal postfixal way of word formation: *бігти – розбігтися, гуляти – нагулятися*;

- sufixal postfixal way of word formation: *гордий – гордитися*.

5. Substantivation of adjectives and participles (semantic way of word formation). E.g.: хворий (хворий студент) – хворий (Лікар оглянув п'ять хворих).

Formation of Ukrainian Verbs

In Ukrainian language the verb is formed by prefixes, suffixes, prefixes and suffixes.

Prefixes

A prefix is added to verbs to make them perfective. Each imperfective base verb, like писати and читати, has one perfective mate whose meaning is identical with that of the imperfective form. Most often the perfective is derived from an unprefixed imperfective base verb by means of a prefix. For *писати* the prefix is *на-* (*на-писати*) and for *читати* it is *про-*, as in *про-читати*. The verb forms with and without the prefix in these cases form the perfective – imperfective pair required of most Ukrainian verbs.

When prefixes other than the one designated to simply perfectivize the imperfective base verb are added, however, the result is a new verb. For example, when the prefix *до-* is added to the base verb писати, the result is a new verb meaning 'to finish writing'.

The verbal prefixes vary the modality of the verb in one of two ways. When added to verbs of motion, they indicate the direction or path of the action: over, under, across, along, up to, away from, as far as, convergence and divergance. When added to other verbs, they specify the stare of the action: whether it has been begun, finished, carried through successfully, reversed, repeated, or done excessively or mildly.

We add prefixes before the base or stem of a verb: *за*йти, *при*йти, *ви*йти, **пере**йти, **під**ійти, **на**дійти, **зі**йти, **ді**йти, **віді**йти, **обі**йти.

prefixes	verbs
в- (у-, уві-)	увімкнути, в'їхати, впасти
ви-	вийти, виписати, вибудувати
від- (віді-)	відійти, відпустити, відокремити
до- (ді-)	дійти, догодити, дібрати
з- (зі-, зо-, із-, с-)	з'їздити, зів'янути, зомліти, скоїти, схрестити (руки)
за-	зайти, запасти
на-	накрити, наробити, накоїти
над- (наді-)	надкусити, надіслати
о- (об-, обі-)	охолонути, обгорнути, обігріти
пере-	перейти, переробити, переписати
перед-	передплатити, передбачити
під- (піді)	підійти, підготувати, підняти
по- (пі-)	поїхати, поїсти, підняти
попо-	попоїсти
при-	приїхати, принести, прикрити
про-	проїхати, прочитати, просидіти
роз-	роз'їхатися, розкрити, розписати

Let's look at some of the verbs that it is possible to form by adding prefixes to the imperfective infinitive писати.

Basic Perfective Infinitive	Meaning	
написати	to have wrote	
Other Perfective Infinitives	*New meaning Infinitives*	*New Imperfective*
виписати	to strike from a list, to order something, to write at great length	виписувати
відписати	to reply in writing, to copy from someone	відписувати
дописати	to finish writing, to write for a newspaper	дописувати
записати	to write down, to enroll	записувати
надписати	to inscribe	надписувати
описати	to describe	описувати
переписати	to rewrite, to recopy	переписувати
підписати	to sign	підписувати
пописати	to write all over	пописувати
приписати	to prescribe, to ascribe	приписувати
списати	to make a list	списувати
уписати/ вписати	to register	уписувати

A perfective verb with the prefix *по-* usually means to do something for a while: *по*сміятися – to laugh for while.

A perfective verb with the prefix *на-* usually implies the beginning of an action: *за*сміятися – to begin to laugh.

Suffixes
We add suffixes after the base or stem of
- verbs: стукати – стук**ну**ти, посилити – посил**юва**ти;
- nouns: зима – зим**ува**ти, коса – кос**и**ти, мова – мов**и**ти;
- adjectives: блідий – блід**ну**ти, блід**ні**ти; синій – син**і**ти, син**и**ти;
- numerals: двоє – двоїтися, четвертий – четвертувати;
- pronouns: ти – ти**ка**ти, ви – ви**ка**ти;
- exclamation: ох – ох**а**ти, ай – ай**ка**ти.

Stem of the	Suffixes	derivative verb
Noun	-и-, -і-, -а/я-, -ува-/ -юва-	щастя – щас**ти**ти сіль – сол**и**ти обід – обід**а**ти вечеря – вечер**я**ти план – план**ува**ти
Adjectives	-и-, -і-, -ну-, -ува-	білий – біл**і**ти, біл**и**ти сліпий – сліп**ну**ти мудрий – мудр**ува**ти
Numerals	-и-, -і-/-ї-	два – дво**ї**тися
Adverbs and Pronouns	-ка-, -ува-/-юва-, -а-	жалко – жалк**ува**ти ти – ти**ка**ти

Prefixes and suffixes

We add *prefixes* before the base or stem and *suffixes* after the base or stem of:

- verbs: ходити – **по**ходж**а**ти, бігти – **під**біг**а**ти, білити – **об**біл**юва**ти;
- nouns: зброя – **о**зброїти, земля – **за**землити;
- adjectives: власний – **при**влас**ни**ти, більший – **пере**більш**ува**ти;
- nouns: троє – **по**троїти;
- pronouns: свій – **за**своїти.

prefixes	suffixes	key word	derivative verb
у-	-и-	точний/ exact; precise	**у**точ**ни**ти/ to specify
з- (с-)	-и-	вільний/ free	**з**віль**ни**ти/ to dismiss
за-	-и-	повний/ full	**за**пов**ни**ти/ to fill (in, up)
о-	-и-	домашній/ domestic, home	**о**домаш**ни**ти/ to domesticate
об-	-и-	новий/ new	**об**нов**и**ти/ to renew
пере-	-и-	вищий/ higher	**пере**вищ**и**ти/ to excel, to exceed
роз-	-и-	ясний/ clear	**роз**'яс**ни**ти/ to explain
по-	-ї-	двоє/ two	**по**дво**ї**ти/ to redouble
за-	-ї-	свій/ my or your… own, "one's"; denotes possession and refers back to the subject	**за**сво**ї**ти/ to master; to assimilate
ви-	-ува-	співати/ to sing	**ви**спів**ува**ти/ to warble
при-	-ов-	танцювати/ to dance	**при**танцьов**ува**ти/ to make dancing movements

II. Ways of derivation words that have more than one motivating root (stem)

1. Composition. New words are created by compounding a few roots (stems), with the last (supporting) component equal to the whole word, the previous part(s) being equal to the stem. A derivation morpheme is an **interfix**, the order of the components is fixed, the accent is the only one, and is usually located on the last (supporting) component of the word:

перший, *джерело – першоджерело*;

глухий, німий – глухонімий;

український, англійський – україно-англійський.

2. Mixed ways (suffixal compounding way of word formation). New words are created by a combination of composition (compounding) and suffixation (which may be null morpheme): *один*, *рука – однорукий*; *хліб, пекти – хлібопічка*.

3. Abbreviation. New words come from the first letters of words, from the first syllables of words, by combining one part of the word with the whole word, or combining the beginning of the first word and the end of the second word:

США (Сполучені Штати Америки),

ЄС (Європейский Союз),

фізкультура (фізична культура),

медфак (медичний факультет).

Word formation in doctor's professional speaking

An important role in medical terminology has a word-forming chain that is formed that unites a number of related words that are in a relationship of sequential derivation (for example: *персона – персонал – персональний – персональність* / person – staff – personal – personality). Several word-forming chains arise on the basis of one word-form. Word-forming chains form a word-forming nest – a set of words with the same root, arranged according to the relationship of word-forming motivation. Words united in a word-forming nest have a substantive and material commonality.

E.g.: Вода – 1) водний розчин, водний спорт, водна артерія (which refers to water as well as the use for a specific purpose);

2) водяний знак, пухир, водяна піна, сила, водяна тварина, водяний двигун, водяне опалення, водяне зрошування (which is connected with water: which consists of water; which lives or grows in water or on its surface; which works with water);

3) водявий, водянистий – водявий виноград, водяві очі, водянисті плями, водянисті літери (which contains a lot of water; colorless).

We use different ways of formation of medical terms. E.g.: prefixation (*колінний – підколінний*), suffixation (*медицина – медичний*), prefixation and suffixation (*шлунок – підшлункова залоза*), composition (*життя, здатність – життєздатний*), compounding (*мало відомий – маловідомий*) etc.

In the medical professional vocabulary you should pay attention to abbreviated words (abbreviations). The use of highly specialized abbreviations, in contrast to the widely used and well-known ones, plays an important role in medical terminology; you can also compare Ukrainian and English terms: ШКТ (шлунково-кишковий тракт) – GIS (gastrointestinal tract); ЗАК (загальний аналіз крові) – CBC (complete blood count); ГРЗ (гостре респіраторне захворювання) – ARD (acute respiratory disease); ЛОР (ларинго-ото-рино) – ENT (ear, nose, throat); СНІД (синдром набутого імунного дефіциту) – AIDS (Acquired immune deficiency syndrome); КАТ (КТ) (комп'ютерна аксіальна томографія) – CAT (computer axial tomography); ВОТ (внутрішньо очний тиск) – IOP (intraocular pressure); E (еритроцит) – RBC (red blood cell), etc.

Another way of creating words in the doctor's speaking is the substantivation of adjectives and participles (semantic way of word formation). A new word is formed as a result of the transition from one part of the language to another. For example: *операційна, хворий* (adjective → noun), *завідуючий* (verb → noun).

Issues for discussion:
1. Speak about grammar and its subject.
2. What types of relations of linguistic units do you know?
3. What is grammatical structure of language?
4. Explain the notions 'grammatical meaning' and 'grammatical category'.
5. What is morphology and word formation ?
6. What is morpheme?
7. Tell the ways of word formation in Ukrainian.
8. What ways of word formation in doctor's professional speaking do you know?

V. GRAMMAR: THE PARTS OF SPEECH

- ➢ The parts of speech
- ➢ The Noun
- ➢ The Verb
- ➢ The non-finite forms of the verb (verbals)
- ➢ The Adjective
- ➢ The Numeral
- ➢ The Pronoun
- ➢ The Adverb
- ➢ Functionals parts of speech

The parts of speech

The parts of speech are classes of words, all the members of these classes having certain characteristics in common which distinguish them from the members of other classes. The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The attitude of grammarians with regard to parts of speech and the basis of their classification varied a good deal at different times. Only in English grammarians have been vacillating between 3 and 13 parts of speech. There are four approaches to the problem:

1. Classical (logical-inflectional)
2. Functional
3. Distributional
4. Complex

The **classical** parts of speech theory goes back to ancient times. It is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided dichotomically into **declinable** and **indeclinable** parts of speech. This system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars. The first of these groups, declinable words, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the second – indeclinable words – adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The logical-inflectional classification is quite successful for Latin or other languages with developed morphology and synthetic paradigms but it cannot be applied to the English language because the principle of declinability/indeclinability is not relevant for analytical languages.

A new approach to the problem was introduced in the XIX century by Henry Sweet. He took into account the peculiarities of the English language. This approach may be defined as **functional**. He resorted to the functional features of words and singled out nominative units and particles. To **nominative** parts of speech belonged *noun-words* (noun,   noun-pronoun,   noun-numeral,   infinitive,

gerund), *adjective-words* (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), *verb* (finite verb, verbals – gerund, infinitive, participles), while *adverb, preposition, conjunction* and *interjection* belonged to the group of **particles**. However, though the criterion for classification was functional, Henry Sweet failed to break the tradition and classified words into those having morphological forms and lacking morphological forms, in other words, declinable and indeclinable.

A **distributional** approach to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by *Charles Fries*. He wanted to avoid the traditional terminology and establish a classification of words based on distributive analysis, that is, the ability of words to combine with other words of different types. At the same time, the lexical meaning of words was not taken into account. According to Charles Fries, the words in such sentences as 1. Woggles ugged diggles; 2. Uggs woggled diggs; and 3. Woggs diggled uggles are quite evident structural signals, their position and combinability are enough to classify them into three word-classes. In this way, he introduced four major **classes of words** and 15 **form-classes**. Let us see how it worked. Three test *frames* formed the basis for his analysis:

Frame A – The concert was good (always);

Frame B – The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly);

Frame C – The team went there.

It turned out that his four classes of words were practically the same as traditional nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. What is really valuable in Charles Fries' classification is his investigation of 15 groups of function words (form-classes) because he was the first linguist to pay attention to some of their peculiarities.

All the classifications mentioned above appear to be one-sided because parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of only one aspect of the word: either its meaning or its form, or its function.

The principles on which the classification is based are three in number:

1) the **semantic** (meaning) criterion; 2) the **formal** criterion; 3) the **functional** criterion. Each of these requires some additional explanations.

1. By *meaning* we do understand not the individual meaning of each separate word (its lexical meaning) but the meaning common to all the words of the given class and constituting its essence. The definition of a noun as a word used for naming some person or thing, is thought to be inappropriate, because it excludes many nouns, which could not easily be described as 'persons, things, places', such as abstract qualities and actions".

2. By *form* we mean the morphological characteristics of a type of word. Thus, the noun is characterized by the category of number (singular and plural), the verb by tense, mood and others.

3. By *function* we mean the syntactic properties of a type of word. These are subdivided into two: a) its method of combining with other words; b) function of the words in the sentence.

The term *"part of speech"* was developed in Ancient Greece and proves that at that time no distinction was drawn between language as a system and speech as manifestation of language. Now this term is accepted by grammarians as conventional, traditional and is used to denote the *lexical-grammatical classes of words correlating with each other on the basis of their common their syntactic, morphological and semantic properties.*

Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe: a) its semantics; b) its morphological features; c) its syntactic peculiarities.

Classification of words into parts of speech must naturally proceed from a set of criteria that can be consistently applied to all lexical units of a given language. As soon as every word in a language has a lexical meaning, form and performs certain functions in the sentence it would be only natural to group the words into parts of speech proceeding from:

1) a common meaning of a given class of words abstracted from the lexical meaning of all the words belonging to this class;

2) a common paradigm, i.e. set of grammatical forms;

3) identity of syntactic functions.

The problem of dividing all the words in language into classes appeared in ancient times. In the 4th century BC, Aristotle gave an idea of parts of speech and singled out "name", "verb", "article", "conjunction", "sounds" , "syllable", "case".

The first to introduce the idea of 8 parts of speech system was **Aristarch of Samothrace** in the 2nd century BC, they were: "name" (including nouns, adjectives and numerals), "pronoun", "verb", "participle", "adverb", "preposition", "conjunction", "interjection".

No matter how disputable the question of "parts of speech" is, the fact that all the words are divided into notional and functional words is accepted by most grammarians.

Notional parts of speech are those that are independent both semantically and syntactically, i.e. can function on their own *(noun, verb, adjective, adverb, participle, numeral, pronoun, gerund /in English/, adverbial participle /in Ukrainian/).*

Functional parts of speech cannot function on their own, they are not independent semantically and syntactically, their use is predetermined by the functional part of speech they are attached to *(preposition, conjunction, particle, auxiliary verb, link-verb, article /in English/).*

Notionals	Functionals
noun verb adjective pronoun adverb numeral participle interjection	preposition conjunction particle auxiliary verb
gerund /in English / adverbial participle /in Ukrainian/	article link-verb /in English/
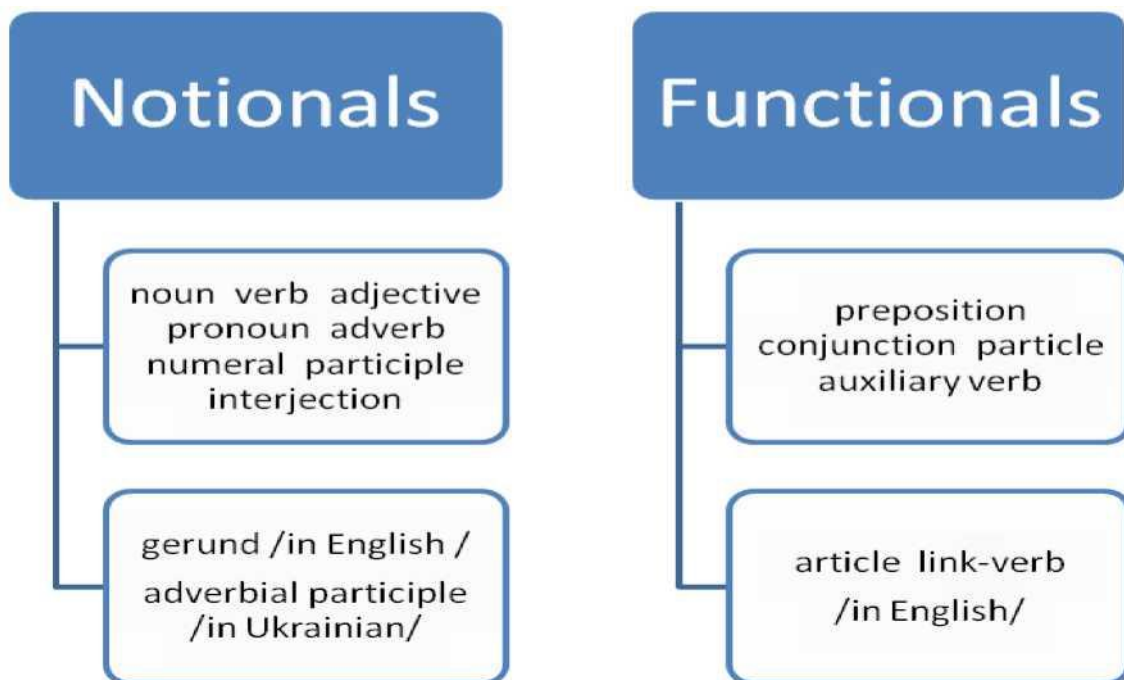
Parts of speech are lexical-grammatical word-classes which are characterized by a general abstract grammatical meaning expressed in certain grammatical markers.

However not all grammatical classes have special markers for grammatical categories, the range of word-classes capable of possessing categorial paradigms is not universal and differs in various languages. For instance, in Ukrainian adjectives, numerals, pronouns are inflected in categories of case, number and gender, whereas in English, which exposes an analytical structure, these word-classes are utterly devoid of any grammatical markers with the exception of a few pronouns.

Both in Ukrainian and English there are the following parts of speech: noun, adjective, numeral, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, particle, interjection

Only for English articles, auxiliaries are characteristic. In Ukrainian there is the adverbial participle, not found in English.

THE NOUN

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech. As any other part of speech, the noun can be characterised by three criteria: **semantic** (the meaning), **morphological** (the form and grammatical catrgories) and **syntactical** (functions, distribution).

Semantic features of the noun. The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness, substantiality. According to different principles of classification nouns fall into several subclasses:

1. According to the type of nomination they may be **proper** and **common**;

2. According to the form of existence they may be **animate**and **inanimate**. Animate nouns in their turn fall into **human** and **non-human.**

3. According to their quantitative structure nouns can be **countable**and **uncountable.**

Morphological features of the noun. The noun has morphological categories of number and case, the category of gender.

The category of number expresses the quantitative relations, existing in the real life and reflected in the conscience of native speakers, which have morphological expression in corresponding morphological forms. The meaning of singular and plural seems to be self-explanatory, that is the opposition: one -more than one.

Both in Ukrainian and English the category of number is realized synthetically: the use of zero and marked inflections.

Plural is expressed in Ukrainian by morphemes depending on the declension the noun belongs to. In English plural can be formed by sound interchange, which cannot be found in Ukrainian but this way of forming plural form is not productive and cannot be treated as typological characteristics of the English noun.

Typologically isomorphic are the classes of singularia and pluralia tantum nouns, found both in English and Ukrainian. They have either singular or plural meaning respectively.

There are certain semantic groups of singularia tantum nouns, presented in both languages:

1. Nouns denoting parts of the world: *the North, the South-East, північний захід, південний схід.*

2. Names of materials: *gold, silver, straw; золото, срібло, сіно.*

3. Collective nouns: furniture, rubbish, hair, mankind; білизна, птаство, волосся, професура, жіноцтво.

4. Abstract notions: *courage, knowledge, advice, news; відвага, знання, виховання.*

Isomorphic semantic groups of pluralia tantum nouns are:

1. Summations nouns: *trousers, shorts, scales; окуляри, ворота,*

2. Names of remnants: *scraps, sweepings, remnants; покидьки, недоїдки,*

3. Names of some games: *cards, darts, billiards; шахи, шашки, карти, кеглі.*

4. Some abstract and concrete notions: *outskirts, commas, contents, means; будні, злидні, хрестини.*

5. Geographical names: *Athens, Nethelands, Carpathians; Атени, Суми, Карпати.*

The category of gender. The category of gender is characteristic of most Indo-European languages. The nouns are grouped into types, based on the kind of endings they have or on the way they pattern with other words. They have an ability to assimilate the words dependent on it (adjectives, pronouns) in form. These types are known as morphological (grammatical) gender classes. Thus, in Ukrainian, German and other languages there are three grammatical genders -masculine, feminine, and

neuter. In Italian, Spanish, French, Danish – two genders (masculine and feminine), in Estonian, Finnish, Japanese and Turkish languages no gender distinctions are made, but in the Bantu language, as E. Sapir points out, there are about 42 genders realised with the help various inflexions.

In Ukrainian every noun has a seme of gender: masculine, feminine or neuter. This category in Ukrainian is formal, except the nouns denoting people or animals. The semes of gender, as well as the semes of case and number are inherent in the meaning of the noun inflections, for example, words *неб-ом* and *зірк-ою* have the semes of thing-ness, singular number, instrumental case, and they differ only in gender, which is expressed by the inflections *-ом* for masculine and *-ою* for feminine.

The category of gender in Ukrainian is characterized the noun correlating in form with adjectives, ordinal numerals, possessive and demonstrative pronouns and form free word-combinations. It should be mentioned that in Ukrainian, as well as in Russian nouns are correlated in gender with verbs in the past: *Місяць з'явився на небі. Дівчина опинилась у кімнаті.* Grammatical gender in Ukrainian is formally expressed in suffixes: zero morpheme usually signals the masculine gender, morphemes -а, -я, are considered to belong to feminine nouns, *-о, -е* are for neuter. This feeling of gender semes is so distinctive that borrowed words are referred by native speakers to a certain gender according to the final phonemes: *лото, кіно, бюро* acquired a neuter gender, thanks to Slavonic perception.

In Ukrainian there is a group of nouns of the common gender: *писака, задавака, стиляга, бідолаха, причепа, каліка, єхида, недоторка, замазура.* Morphologically, such nouns are differentiated by the sex of the person they are used to denote. Formally this differentiation is manifested by the gender inflections of adjectives, pronouns, etc. or just by the context. There is also a double gender (masculine or neuter, feminine or neuter): the nouns with the suffix *-ище and -о.* Formally ending *-е* usually signals the neuter gender, while the initial motivating noun: *вовчище, дубище, дівчище, річище, забудько, непосидько, базікало, ледащо.* The gender of the nouns expressing the names of professions, such as *геолог, інженер, професор* is clear from the components of the word-combination, or the context.

The category of case. The case is a grammatical category of a nominative part of speech (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals), reflecting its syntactic relation to other words in the sentence. The category of case is characteristic of inflectional languages. From the point of view of the grammar the case means the change of form of the word by adding or changing the case ending or special affixes. In Ukrainian there are seven cases: nominal, dative, accusative, instrumental, locative, vocative. Other Slavonic languages have either seven cases (Polish, Czech, Serbian) or six (Russian, Slovak), or no cases (Bulgarian). There is no case system in most European

languages (except German and Icelandic that have 4 case systems), while in English and the Scandinavian languages have just nominative and genitive cases.

The nominative case is the principle case all other cases are formed from. It expresses the agent of the action, usually the case of the subject of the sentence.

The genitive case (also called possessive case, second case) is the case that marks a noun as modifying another noun. It often marks the noun as being the possessor of another noun.

The accusative case is the grammatical case used to mark the direct object of a transitive verb. The English name "accusative" comes from the Latin *accusativus*. This word may also mean "causative", and this may have been the Greeks' intention in this name, but the sense of the Roman translation stuck and it is used in some other modern languages as the name of this case, for example in Ukrainian (*знахідний*).

The dative case is a grammatical case generally used to indicate the noun to whom something is given. For example, in "John gave Mary a book". The name is derived from the Latin *casus dativus,* meaning "the case appropriate to giving".

The instrumental case is a grammatical case used to indicate that a noun is the *instrument* or means by or with which the subject achieves or accomplishes an action. The noun may be either a physical object or an abstract concept.

The locative case is a grammatical case often denotes location (also called **prepositional case** marks the object of a preposition). This term can be used in languages where nouns have a declensional form that appears *exclusively* in combination with certain prepositions.

The vocative case is used for a noun identifying the person (animal, object, etc.) being addressed and/or occasionally the determiners of that noun. A vocative expression is an expression of direct address, wherein the identity of the party being spoken to is set forth expressly within a sentence.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used un the sentence in all syntacticfunctions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in the common and genitive case.

THE VERB

The verb performs the central role in realizing predication – connection between situation in the utterance and reality. That is why the verb is of primary informative significance in an utterance. Besides, the verb possesses quite a lot of grammatical categories. Furthermore, within the class of verb various subclass divisions based on different principles of classification can befound.

Semantic features of the verb. The verb possesses the grammatical meaning of verbiality – the ability to denote a process developing in time. This meaning is inherent not only in the verbs denoting processes, but also in those denoting states, forms of existence, evaluations, etc.

Morphological features of the verb. The verb possesses the following grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude and phase. The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, phase and finitude. The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetical and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are *grammatical affixes, inner inflexion* and *function words.* Some categories have only synthetical forms (*person, number),* others – only analytical *(voice).* There are also categories expressed by both synthetical and analytical forms *(mood, tense, aspect).*

Morphological categories of the verbs in the Ukrainian and English are tense, aspect, taxis, mood, person and number.

The category of tense is a grammatical category of the verb reflecting temporal localization of the action or state expressed by the verb. In Modern Ukrainian verb tense forms, if used directly, indicate that the action coincides with the moment of speaking ("the Present Tense"), precedes the moment of speaking ("the Past Tense") or follows the moment of speaking ("the Future Tense"). If the action is related to some other action (in subclause), it usually correlates with the verb of the main clause: *"Йому здавалось, що у кімнаті хтось дихає"*, i.e. the action of the sub-clause is thought to be simultaneous with the action in the main clause, therefore the present tense is used. If the action of the sub-clause is considered to follow that of the main clause, the verb in the sub-clause is used in the future tense-form: *"Вони були впевнені, що він з'явиться"*. The present day Ukrainian tense category is expressed by three tense forms for the imperfective verbs and two tense forms for the perfective verbs (there is no Present Tense of the perfective verbs).

The category of aspect is a lexical-grammatical category, characterizing the process or action, expressed by the verb (if the action is repeated, continuous, frequent, immediate, complete, incomplete, terminative, non- terminative). These characteristics are expressed in different languages in various morphological

(morpho-syntactic) forms, therefore we can speak about different sub-classes of aspect category.

The category of aspect Ukrainian is represented by a set of the opposed word-forms, i.e. one and the same verb cannot change from perfective to imperfective, it can be of either perfective aspect or imperfective. Therefore, the category of aspect is not a word-changing category but the characteristic feature of the individual verb.

In the Ukrainian language aspect distinctions are drawn according to the relation of the action to its own limit, and two aspect forms are singled out, perfective and imperfective aspects. The imperfective aspect expresses the action in process, no limit implied – *писати, говорити, малювати, стрибати.*

Perfective aspect expresses the action bounded by some limit, some result of it is implied – *написати, прийти, сказати, стрибнути.*

The aspect system in Ukrainian is characterized by the correlated pairs of perfective and imperfective verbs, close or similar in meaning: *носити-нести, носив-ніс.*

Ukrainian has a special morphological system for expressing aspect category, namely it is expressed by affixes, such as:

1) Suffixes *-ів, -ув* and interchange of vowels or consonants are used to form imperfective verbs: *зігрівати, показувати.*

2) Suffix *-ну-,* added to the verb stem is used to form perfective from imperfective verbs: *стрибнути.*

3) Prefixes *з-, зі-, по-, за-* and other: *з'їсти, зірвати, побудувати, занести.*

4) Change of the stressed syllable: *насипати - насипати.*

There are also pairs of verbs formed from different roots: *брати – взяти.*

The category of taxis is a lexical-grammatical category characterizing such relations between the actions as simultaneity, precedence, interruption, etc. The notion of taxis was introduced by R.Yakobson. It characterizes the action from the point of view of another action but not from the point of view of the moment of speaking. As distinct from the category of tense, closely connected with the fact of speaking (as well as other verb categories, such as person, number, mood), the category of taxis does not reflect the fact of speaking. Alongside the term "taxis" there are also other terms denoting the same notion: "relative tense", "time correlation", "order".

Taxis can be expressed by special means (morphological, syntactical, morpho-syntactical, lexical), which are closely connected with the means expressing tense and aspect categories. Taxis is found in every language, but it can be called a grammatical category only for the languages that have a special system of grammatical forms. Thus, for instance, in English it is expressed by the system of perfect forms of the verb. They are the forms of relative time, expressing the precedence of one action to the other.

In Ukrainian the verb category of taxis is expressed by means of combination of tense-forms in complex sentences with sub-clauses of time, as well as in sentences with homogeneous predicates and compound sentences if such time indicators as «спочатку», «потім» are found in them.

The category of voice is a morphological category of the verb, expressing the subject-object relations.

In most languages the relation between the subject and the action is expressed by personal inflexions of the verb; while relation between the action and the object may be expressed by case correlation and other means, due to the language typology.

On the basis of morphological means of expressing the voice, we can say that the number of voices differs in various languages. In the Ukrainian language the correlative pairs of active and passive verb forms are characteristic of transitive verbs only. The category of transitivity is based on the peculiarities of valency and meaning of the verb, so it should be treated as a lexical-grammatical, not morphological category. Thus, transitive verbs have correlative active and passive voice forms, the voice category being expressed morphologically; while intransitive verbs have no correlative passive forms and function as one-voice active verbs. However, if intransitive verbs develop their meaning and obtain some semes of transitivity (i.e. require a direct object), they have all the properties of transitive verbs, therefore can have passive forms: *to fly – to fly a plane; to run – to run a hotel.*

The Ukrainian verb in the active voice form functioning as the predicate of the indefinite-personal sentences corresponds to the English passive verb form: *нам повідомили приємну новину / we were told good news. John was given a good mark/ Джону поставили гарну оцінку.*

The category of mood is a morphological word-changing verb category, which denotes the relation of the action to reality from the point of view of the speaker.

The relations of the action to reality can be different: if the action is thought to be real, we deal with the indicative mood, if it is considered to be unreal, possible or impossible, desirable or probable, we talk about the subjunctive mood (or conditional or suppositional). The imperative mood serves to express orders or requests.

In Ukrainian subjunctive, or conditional or suppositional mood is formed by means of the past tense form of the verb and particle *би (б),* which can both precede or follow the verb. The action can be referred to the present, past or future: *він би пішов; якби ви йому все розповіли.*

Imperative mood is used to express will, request, order, command, and encouragement. The main seme of the imperative mood is "incentive" or "prohibition". In Ukrainian the paradigm of the imperative mood contains analytical and synthetic forms, derived from the present tense verb stem (for imperfective aspect verbs) and from the present and future tense forms (for perfective aspect

verbs). The simple forms of the indicative mood are the second person singular: бери, неси, знай; and first and second persons plural: робімо, ходімо, знаймо, знайте. The simple forms are directed at encouraging the addressee to do something, while the first person singular form implies that the speaker is also encouraged to do something. Analytical forms of the third person singular and plural are formed with the help of the particle *хай (нехай)* and the present tense form of the verb (imperfective aspect) and present/future tense forms (perfective aspect): *Хай нап'ються донесхочу ниви! Нехай я заплачу. Хай ми на них подивимось.*

In Ukrainian the category of mood has person and number characteristics. The second person singular and plural has the synthetic forms of *читайте, пишіть,* in English there is only one form for singular and plural: *read, write, etc.* The form of the first person plural, addressed both to one and to several interlocutors, can be expressed in two ways in Ukrainian: if the verb is perfective, the form of the imperative mood is synthetic (*підемо, візьмемо, скажімо*); whereas if the verb is imperfective, this form is expressed analytically and synthetically (*будемо писати, будемо читати, читатимемо, робитимемо, зароблятимемо).* These forms in Ukrainian correspond to the one analytical form in English: *let us read, let us go.* The imperative form of the third person singular and plural is expressed analytically in Ukrainian and English: *let him come - хай він прийде.*

Beside the main seme of "incentive", the indicative mood in Ukrainian has the semes of "condition": *знайди він цього листа, все було б краще* and the seme of "supposition": *хоч вбий, не розумію.*

The categories of person, number and gender. The category of person is a grammatical word-changing category of the verb, expressing the relation of the subject (of the action, process, quality) to the speaker. As soon as the category has a regular expression of verb forms, often in combination with personal pronouns, it is considered to be an explicit category.

Some forms of person can have an impersonal *(Розвидняється),* indefinite-impersonal one *(Його не розуміють),* generalized-personal *(Що посієш, те й пожнеш)* meaning. The category of person in connected with other verb categories, such as the category of tense, aspect, mood, voice.

The category of number, expressing the quantitative characteristics of different phenomena, depends on the number of the noun or pronoun in the function of the subject of the sentence. In Ukrainian the agreement of the subject with the predicate in person, number and gender is mandatory (the morphological paradigm according to the conjugation of the verb).

The category of gender is characteristic of the Ukrainian verb only and alongside with the categories of person and gender is included into the morphological word-changing paradigm of every verb.

THE NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB (VERBALS)

The non-finite forms of the verb, also called ***verbals*** are special forms of the verb that have a double nature. In Ukrainian they combine the features of the verb with those of the adjective (the participle) and adverb (the adverbial participle). As soon as the verbals differ a lot from the verbs, they are sometimes singled out into an individual class of words, still they do not have specific characteristics of their own (their categories coincide with those of the verb, while the functions in the sentence are the same as those of adjectives), which proves that they cannot form an individual class of words.

In Ukrainian the participle can be either active or passive (gender and number distinctions are found here: active – *сяюча посмішка, лежачий хворий;* passive – *написаний роман, написана книга, переказане оповідання, зшиті речі, etc*).

The Ukrainian adverbial participle can be active or passive, or non-perfective present and perfective past, remains an indeclinable verbal form *(несучи, працюючи, слухаючи).*

Syntactic features of the verb. The most universal syntactic feature of verbs is their ability to be modified by adverbs. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the predicate. However, this criterion is not absolute because only finite forms can perform this function while non-finite forms can be used in any function but predicate. And finally, any verb in the form of the infinitive can be combined with a modal verb.

THE ADJECTIVE

The adjective is a major part of speech, traditionally defined as a describing word or a word that tells us something about a noun'. In modern grammar Adjective is usually defined in more grammatical terms. Formally, a central adjective meets four grammatical conditions: it can 1) be used attributively in a noun phrase (*an old man);* 2) follow *be* or another link verb and occur alone in a predicative position (*He looks old);* 3) be premodified by intensifying words such as *very* (*He is very old);* 4) have comparative and superlative degree forms (an *older person, the most extraordinary).*

It is important to stress that the adjective in Ukrainian is a declinable class of words, which has the categories of gender, number and case and agree with the modified noun in all these categories which is expressed by the morphological paradigm marked by individual inflections. It is the main allomorphic featured of the Ukraianian adjective as compared to the English.

Traditionally two groups of adjectives are singled out: descriptive adjectives and relational adjectives. In Ukrainian there is possessive adjectives that indicate

belonging of an object to somebody and answers questions чий? чия? чиє? чиї? (whose?) – *мамина сумка (mother's bag), дядькова робота (uncle's work); чия це книга? – Це братова книга.*

In English and Ukrainian the descriptive adjective is characterized by the category of grading, i.e. all descriptive adjectives have degrees of comparison.

The category of grading is expressed by the positive, the comparative and the superlative degree markers. The way of grading may be synthetic or analytical. The use of the synthetic way of grading is restricted in English mostly to base adjectives and the adjectives *-able, -er, -ow, -y (big – bigger – the biggest; long – longer – the longest; young – younger – the youngest, narrow – narrower – the narrowest; happy – happier – the happiest; clever – cleverer – the cleverest)* and the two-syllable adjectives with the concluding stressed syllable *(polite – politer – the politest).* In colloquial emphatic speech base and disyllabic adjectives may be graded in the analytical way too *(The roar grew more loud).* The analytical forms of grading are more often employed in English than in Ukrainian *(important – more/less important – the most/the least important; interesting – more/less interesting – the most/the least interesting).*

In Ukrainian the synthetic way of grading is more often used. It is formed by means of the suffixes *-іш-/-ш -* and the prefixes *най-, щонай-* or *якнай- (добрий – добріший – найдобріший/якнайдобріший).*

The comparative or the superlative (or both) degrees of some Ukrainian adjectives, as was already shown above, may be formed analytically by means intensifying adverbs *більш/менш, найбільше, багато/набагато, значно, куди (більш/менш значний, багато/набагато важливіший, значно багатший).* Of isomorphic nature in the contrasted languages is the existence of suppletivity *(good – better – the best; bad – worse – the worst; little – less – the least; добрий – кращий – найкращий; поганий – гірший – найгірший; гарний – кращий – найкращий).*

Some groups of adjectives have no grading. They are a) adjectives denoting a constant feature of the noun referent *(blind – сліпий, deaf – глухий, barefooted – босий, nude – голий);* b) some colour adjectives *(lilac – бузковий, lemon – лимонний, cream – кремовий, ruby – яскраво-червоний, chestnut – темно-коричневий);* c) *adjectives expressing the intensive property with the help of suffixes or prefixes (bluish, reddish, yellowish; синявии, синюватии, жовтуватий, жовтісінький, здоровенний, злющий, прегарний, супермодний);* d) limiting descriptive adjectives which single out or determine the type of things or persons *(previous, middle, left, childless, medical, dead);* e) adjectives with comparative and superlative meaning *(former, inner, upper, junior).*

The functions of adjectives in the sentence – attribute (Ми приготували *смачну* вечерю)and predicative (Кумар – *найкращий* студент у групі).

THE NUMERAL

The Numeral is a part of speech that have a common implicit lexical-grammatical meaning of quantity *(two, ten, twenty-one, два, десять, двадцять один)* or order of some objects *(the first, the tenth – перший, десятий).* The syntagmatic properties of numerals are characterised by the identical combinability of numerals a) with nouns *(four days, the first step; чотири дні, перший крок);* b) with pronouns *(all three, some five or so; всі три, якихось п'ятеро з них);* c) with numerals *(two from ten, one of the first, the second of the ten; два від п'яти, один із перших, другий з-поміж п'яти);* d) with adverbs *(the two below/ahead, двоє спереду);* e) with the infinitive *(the first to come/to read; перша співати, другий відповідати),* etc.

All numerals in Ukrainian and English fall into two subclasses: *cardinal* and *ordinal.* Cardinal numerals denote number: three, five, ten, twenty-one, etc. три, п'ять, десять, двадцять один. Ordinal numerals denote order of persons or objects and are used in English with the definite article: *the third, the fifth, the tenth, the twenty-first, the one hundred and twenty- third,* etc. The main allomorphic feature of numerals (like other nominals) consists in morphological/categorial endings that most numerals have in Ukrainian, being a declinable class of words. They have number, case and partly gender distinctions. For example, the category of case: *двадцять, двадцяти, двадцятьом, двадцятьма;* number: *третій – треті;* gender: *перший – перша – перше.*

All other cardinal numerals have a common form for masculine and feminine genders and an individual form of the neuter gender, for instance: *три жінки, три чоловіки,* but *троє дітей; п'ять дубів/лип* and *п'ятеро курчат,* even *п'ятеро хлопців/дівчат* An exception makes the category of gender of the cardinal numerals *один* and *два* which have three gender distinctions *(один, одна, одне; два, дві, двоє).*

In the sentence the numeral performs the same function as the noun (cardinal numerals) and adjective (the ordinal numerals), i.e. it can be subject *(Four* are present), object (I like the *second),* attribute (It is my *second trip),* a simple nominal predicate *(the two there; їх десять там)* and the adverbial modifier *(they marched three and three; вони йшли по три).*

THE PRONOUN

Pronouns are the words you substitute for other nouns when your reader or listener already knows which nouns you're referring to. For example, you might say, *"I have a dog. He's brown and white"*. There's no need to clarify that you're describing your dog in the second sentence because you already mentioned him in the first.

1. Personal pronouns denote a person or object.

In the category of person there is distinction between three classes of personal pronouns denoting respectively the person (s) speaking (first person); the person (s) spoken to (second person) another person(s) or thing(s) – third person.

Person distinctions are naturally closely related to the category of number.

person	singular	plural
1st	я – I	ми – we
2nd	ти – you	ви – you
3rd	він/ вона/ воно – he (it), she (it), it	вони – they

Pronoun *ви* can be used instead of *ти*, when appealing respectfully to the elderly, seniors or strangers.

2. Interrogative pronouns are use to ask questions about someone or something.

The interrogative pronoun *хто/ who* is used to ask about a person (*Хто на прийомі у лікаря?*) and *що /what* is used to ask about a thing or an object (*Що призначив лікар?*).

The interrogative pronouns **який (m.), яка (f.), яке (n.), які (pl.)** are used in a question that asks about an attribute of a person or object: *Яка у них квартира? – У них нова квартира. What kind of flat do they have? – They have a new flat.*

Interrogative pronouns **котрий (m.), котра (f.), котре (n.), котрі (pl.)** is used in a question that asks about one item out of a group of two or more items: *Котрий костюм вона купує, рожевий чи білий?/ Which suit is she buying, the pink one or the white one?*

Also **котрий** is used in a question that is relevant to ordinal numerals: *Котра зараз година? – Третя година/ What time is it now? – Three o'clock.*

У котрій палаті лежить хворий Петренко? – Він лежить у другій палаті/ In which ward is (lie) the patient Petrenko? – He is in the second ward.

The interrogative pronouns **чий (m.), чия (f.), чиє (n.), чиї (pl.)** is used in a question that asks about belongings to somebody. To answer this question possessive adjectives or possessive pronouns are used.

Чия машина у дворі? – Братова/ Whose car is in the yard? – Brother's car.

The interrogative pronouns **який, чий, котрий** must agree in gender, number, and case with the person or object about which they are asking a question.

3. Indefinite pronouns are used when the subject is not specified: хтось, щось, хто-небудь, що-небудь, дехто, дещо: *Дехто думає, а дехто розмовляє. – Some [people] are thinking, and some are conversing.*

4. Possessive pronouns answer the question "whose?" and must agree in gender, number, and case with the person or object about which they are asking a question: *Чия це ручка – Це моя ручка/ Whose is this pen? – This is my pen.*

The possessive pronoun **свій (m.), своя (f.), своє (n.), свої (pl.)** – *"one's"* – denotes possession/ belonging and refers back to the subject in the sentence. It has the properties of an adjective that is it agrees in gender, case and number with the noun it is used with.

Ви маєте свою коробку/ You have your own box.

Ви маєте мою коробку/ You have my box.

5. Defining pronouns indicate a general feature of the person or object and must agree in gender, number, and case with that person or object: **всякий, всяка, всяке, всякі; кожний, кожна, кожне, кожні** (every, each).

6. Indefinite pronouns correlated with adjectives are used when the feature of the subject is not specified: **якийсь** (some, any, a certain), **який-небудь** (some, any = this one or that one, indifferently which one), **деякий** (some, certain), будь-який (some, any; whichever, whichever), **абиякий** (some, any, rather bad, indifferent).

7. Negative pronouns correlated with adjectives: **ніякий** (not any, none), **нічий** (belonging to nobody, nobody's), **нікотрий** (no one, not any, none, nobody).

8. The demonstrative pronouns **цей** and **той** may be used either as modifiers or as pronouns: Хто знає ту дівчину? Ніхто не знає тієї дівчини/ Who knows that girl? No one knows that girl.

9. Intensive (emphatic) pronouns are used to emphasize the fact that something is being done by a particular person. In English the pronoun oneself which is used as a r*eflexive pronoun*, is also used as an intensive pronoun.

English Reflexive Pronoun: *He bought himself a car.*

English Intensive Pronoun: *He said that he bought himself a car.*

10. Ukrainian reflexive pronoun: Він купив **собі** авто/ He bought himself a car.

11. Ukrainian intensive pronoun: Він **сам** сказав, що він купив собі авто/ He himself said that he bought himself a car.

The intensive pronoun **сам/самий** must agree in gender, number, and case with the noun or pronoun that it modifies.

Він сам може злагодити авто/ He himself can fix the car.

The intensive pronouns are also used to convey the meaning alone or by oneself: *Діти самі вдома/ The children are home alone (by themselves). Чому ти сам ходив у кіно?/ Why did you go to the movies by yourself (alone)?*

11. Reciprocal pronouns: один одного, одна одну, одне одного, одні одних (each other, one another). In Ukrainian exists in three gender forms used in singular and plural: *один одного, одна одну, одне одного, одні одних.*

In the sentence the pronoun performs the same function as the noun, adjective and numeral.

THE ADVERB

The adverb is an class of words expressing the quality or state of an action, the circumstances in which the action proceeds, or a degree of some other quality. Adverbs in English and Ukrainian are indeclinable.

Qualitative adverbs in Ukrainian and English may be used in the comparative and superlative degrees. They are formed with the help of synthetic or analytical means. Synthetic means are suffixes -er, -est in English and *-ше, -іше, -ній* in Ukrainian. Unlike English, however, in Ukrainian prefixes are also used to form the superlative degree of qualitative adverbs *(най-, щонай-, якнай-): найшвидше, найцікавіше, якнайшвидше, щонайменше, щонайбільше.*

The analytical means include auxiliary words (adverbs, particles): *more, most, still more, less, least, still less* in English and their equivalent adverbs and particles in Ukrainian *(often – oftener/more often – oftenest/most often – less often – still more/less often, slowly – more slowly – less/ least slowly, ясно – ясніше – найясніше – більш/менш ясно – найбільш/ найменш ясно; ясно – ще ясніше/трохи ясніше – набагато ясніше).*

A separate group in Ukrainian and English languages constitute suppletive adverbs, whose grading is generally achieved by synthetic means, eg: *well, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; far, further, furthest,* etc. There are fewer of such adverbs in Ukrainian: *добре, краще, найкраще; погано, гірше, найгірше; гарно, краще, найкраще.*

The specific feature of many Ukrainian qualitative adverbs is their ability to take diminutive suffixes *(-еньк-, -есеньк-, -юсіньк-, -очк-, -ечк-)* and become diminutive: *гарно – гарненько – гарнесенько – гарнюсінько – гарнюньо).*

FUNCTIONALS PARTS OF SPEECH

Prepositions show spacial, temporal, and role relations between a noun or pronoun and the other words in a sentence. They come at the start of a prepositional phrase, which contains a preposition and its object. Examples: *в/in, на/on, до/to, від, з/from, після/after, для/for, про/about, під/under, над/above, між/between.*

Conjunctions join words, phrases, and clauses in a sentence. There are coordinating, subordinating, and correlative conjunctions. Examples: і/*and, але/ but, або/or.*

Issues for discussion:
1. Explain the meaning of the term "parts of speech".
2. State the difference between notional and functional words.
3. Give characteristics to the noun as a part of speech. Characterize the morphological features of the noun in Ukrainian.
4. Tell about the grammatical categories of the verb in Ukrainian.
5. Speak on the nature of participle and adverbial participle in Ukrainian.
6. What types of adjectives you know and which of the types can have degrees of comparison?
7. What types of pronouns you know?
8. Speak on the numeral as a part of speech; tell what categories the numerals have in Ukrainian.

VI. GRAMMAR: SYNTAX. SYNTACTIC FEATURES OF UKRAINIAN PROFESSIONAL MEDICAL TEXT

- ➤ General characteristics of syntax.
- ➤ The sentence.
- ➤ Parts of the sentence.
- ➤ Composite sentence.
- ➤ Compound sentences.
- ➤ Complex sentences.
- ➤ Complex sentences without linking words.
- ➤ Actual division of the sentence.
- ➤ Syntactic features of professional medical text.

General characteristics of syntax

The grammatical structure of language comprises two major parts – morphology and syntax. The two areas are obviously interdependent and together they constitute the study of grammar.

Morphology deals with paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties of morphological units – morphemes and words. It is concerned with the internal structure of words and their relationship to other words and word forms within the paradigm. It studies morphological categories and their realization.

Syntax, on the other hand, deals with the way words are combined. It is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units – word-groups, sentences and texts. Syntax studies the way in which the units and their meanings are combined. It also deals with peculiarities of syntactic units, their behavior in different contexts.

Syntactic units may be analyzed from different points of view, and accordingly, different syntactic theories exist.

Basic syntactic notions
The syntactic language level can be described with the help of special linguistic terms and notions: *syntactic unit, syntactic form, syntactic meaning, syntactic function, syntactic position, and syntactic relations*.

Syntactic unit is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. Their main features are:

a) they are hierarchical units – the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;

b) as all language units the syntactic units are of two-fold nature:

$$\text{Syntactic unit} = \frac{\text{content side}}{\text{expression side}} = \frac{\text{syntactic meaning}}{\text{syntactic form}}$$

c) they are of communicative and non-communicative nature – word-groups and clauses are of non-communicative nature while sentences and texts are of communicative nature.

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences.

E.g.: *Green ideas sleep furiously.* This sentence is quite correct grammatically. However it makes no sense as it lacks syntactic meaning.

Syntactic form may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern). *John hits the ball* – N1 + V + N2.

Syntactic function is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit: in the word-group *a smart student* the word 'smart' is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.).

Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntactic units is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an element may determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit: *his broad **back**, a **back** district, to go **back**, to **back** sm.*

Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types – coordination, subordination and predication.

The syntactic units can go into three types of syntactic relations:

1. **Coordination (SR1)** – syntagmatic relations of independence. SR1 can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements – *pens and pencils*. Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen*. Forms of connection within SR1 may be copulative (*you and me*), disjunctive (*you or me*), adversative (*strict but just*) and causative-consecutive (sentence and text level only).

2. **Subordination (SR2)** – syntagmatic relations of dependence. SR2 are established between the constituents of different linguistic rank. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds – adverbial (*to speak slowly*), objective (*to see a house*) and attributive (*a beautiful flower*). Forms of subordination may also be different – agreement (*this book – these books*), government (*help us*), adjournment (the use of modifying particles *just, only, even, etc.*) and enclosure (the use of modal words and their equivalents *really, after all, etc.*).

3. **Predication (SR3)** – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups (predicative complexes).

Syntax is 1) a system of rules and means of creating speech units characteristic of a language; 2) a branch of grammar studying the process of speech formation: combinability and word-order; general peculiarities of the sentence as a separate language unit, and those of the statement as the part of a text.

The syntax as a branch of linguistics studies the language mechanisms that make it possible to form speech units by means of language elements (words, word-forms, word-combinations, sentences). It studies the formation of speech expressions (statements, characterized by certain intonation that can be included into a text). The syntax also studies and formulates the rules of speech formation.

The syntax is divided into three parts:

1) The syntax of the phrase, also called *Minor Syntax*. It studies the combinability of words (syntactic valency), ways of their realization (agreement, government, parataxis (примыкание). It also studies the relations they express (attributive, complementary).

2) The syntax of the sentence, also called *Major Syntax*. It studies the inner structure and communicative types of the sentence (statement, question, inducement), predicativity and modality; semantics and synonymic transformations (replacement of a clause by a participial construction); the simple and composite sentence as an integral predicative and poly-predicative unit; the ways and means to form the relations within the complex and compound sentences (coordination and subordination). Word-forms and phrases are observed as parts of the sentence.

3) The syntax of the text. It studies the modifications the syntax undergoes in the process of text formation; the rules of adopting a sentence to the context (inversion, ellipsis, meta-text parenthetic words, such as 'however', 'therefore' and others) and to the situation (addressing and authorization).

A phrase/word-group is a syntactic construction which typically contains more than one word, but which lacks the subject-predicate structure usually found in a clause. The grammatical description of phrases is sometimes called *"minor syntax"*, in distinction to *"major syntax"* studying the sentence and its textual connections.

The word-group in Ukrainian and English consists of two or more grammatically connected notional parts of speech expressing some content. Word-groups in English and Ukrainian may be:

1) syntactically free combinations of words like *to learn much, to learn hard, to learn quickly, to learn well, to learn there/here,* etc.;

2) idiomatically bound (constant) collocations, i. e. unchanged for the given sense word-combinations as *to have dinner/supper, to take measures, to throw light, Hobson's choice,* etc.

Free word-groups or word-combinations exist alongside of prepositional phrases which are often considered even to be of the same nature as the idiomatic word-groups. Genuine syntactically free word-groups, unlike prepositional phrases, are used to name actions *(quick reading),* objects *(a new hat),* state of objects *(the house ablaze),* number or quantity *(two thirds, the first three);* also they may give characteristics of an action *(singing well, going quickly, arriving first -новий капелюх, йому/Миколі страшно, дві третіх, перші три, швидко йти, гарно читати).*

Common features in the structural forms of word- groups in the Ukrainian and English:

1. Simple word-groups which consist of two immediate components connected with the help of one grammatical means (synthetic or analytical): *this book – these books, to see her; to read well; nice flowers; cotton yarn, people of rank; ця книжка – ці книжки, бачити її; гарно читати, дуже добре, зайти у фойє, вшити з метро.*

2. Word-groups of complicated structure and grammatical form, i. e. with two ways of grammatical connection of their components or expressing *different grammatical relations, e.g.:* writing and reading letters *(co-ordinate and analytical forms of connection),* these books and magazines *(synthetic and co-ordinate connection),* to see Mike driving a car *(analytical and predicative)* – ці книжки та журнали, застати двері зачиненими, бачити когось у метро, носити кімоно останньої моди.

Phrases are traditionally classified into types based on the most important word they contain: if this is a noun, for example, the phrase would be called a *noun phrase,* if an adjective an *adjective phrase,* and so on. Six word classes – nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, and prepositions – are found as the identifying elements (or *heads)* of phrasal constructions.

The difference between the phrase and the sentence is a fundamental one. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomena or processes, just as a word is. Each component of a phrase can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it, without destroying the identity of the phrase. For instance, in the phrase *write letters* the first component can change according to the verbal categories of tense, mood, etc., and the second component according to the category of number. Thus, *writes a letter, has written a letter, would have written letters,* etc., are grammatical modifications of one phrase.

The sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence.

The phrase has no intonation, just as a word has none. Intonation is one of the most important features of the sentence, distinguishing it from the phrase.

Types of phrase in English and Ukrainian

According to relations between their components all word-groups in the contrasted languages split into the following three types:

1) phrases of coordination
2) phrases of subordination;
3) secondary predication phrases.

1. **Phrases of coordination** in English and Ukrainian are comprised by components, equal in rank, which are connected either syndetically or asyndetically, e.g.: *books and magazines; to read, translate and retell; neither this nor that, книжки й журнали; читати, перекладати й переказувати, ні те й ні се.* Phrases of coordination may include several components of equal rank, though not necessarily of the same lexical-grammatical nature, e.g.:

(They were) alone and free and happy in love. (Abrahams).

Such and the like phrases in both languages perform the function of homogeneous parts of the sentence, e.g:

There they were: stars, sun, sea, light, darkness, space, great waters. (Conrad) / Тут ними були: зірки, сонце, море, світло, темінь, простір, великі води.

According to the structure of the components and their number, phrases of coordination may be simple and extended. Simple phrases consist of two components only, e.g.: *Pete or Mike, he and she, all but me; Петро чи Алекс, читати й писати, ми з тобою.*

Extended phrases of coordination consist of structurally complicated components: to speak about literature, to analyze it stylistically – говорити про літературу, аналізувати її стиль.

2. **Phrases of subordination** in all the languages consist of two parts: a head word, which is the nucleus of the phrase, and of one or more complements. They may be either a single notional word or a group of words, functionally equal to it and having the function of a notional word, e.g: *my book, his/ her house and garden, the film "Some like it hot", John's car,* etc.

Among the existing classifications of word-groups the morphological (paradigmatic) classification remains one of the most embracing. It is based on the lexical-grammatical nature of the head component or on its functional substitute. As a result, the following paradigmatic classes of word-groups can be singled out in English and Ukrainian.

Noun phrase, in which the mainly attributive complements may be in pre-position or in postposition to the noun head. Their way of connection is analytical in English and synthetic in Ukrainian, though not without exceptions. The noun phrase is the main construction which can appear as the subject, object, or complement of a clause. It consists essentially of a noun or noun like word which is the most important constituent of the phrase: a *fat cat, the horses in the stable, the poor, ten Chinese.* Sometimes the noun appears alone or accompanied by one or more other constituents, some of which are themselves fairly complex syntactic units in their own right.

Simple verb phrases with a transitive verb as a head-word contain nouns, adjectives, numerals or adverbs as subordinate elements, e.g.: *to like books, to receive four, to love her, to prefer blue (to red), to love it to be asleep; любити книжки, отримати четвірку, кохати її, любити синє, щиро любити, почуватися краще,* etc.

Adjective Phrase. Due to the restricted combinability of different notionals with the adjectival head, this paradigmatic class of word-groups has a much smaller number (and varieties) of structural models. The most productive and usual in English and Ukrainian are the following simple and extended models with different dependent components.

Ukrainian adjectival word-groups are characterised by some other features of their own. Among these, for example, is the free location of most of adjectival and complements adjuncts which is absolutely impossible in English. E.g.: *дуже добра – добра дуже; радий чути – чути радий; значно молодший за мене – за мене значно молодший, добрий до всіх – до всіх добрий.*

Ukrainian head adjectives, however, express the morphological categories of number, case and gender which is impossible in English. E.g.: *гарний зовні, гарна зовні, гарні зовні; гарної/гарній зовні, гарною зовні; добрий/добрим до всіх; рідна/рідної для нас,* etc.

Pronoun Phrases in the contrasted languages have some general features in common. Thus, most often the heads are indefinite, negative and mostly demonstrative pronouns, and much rarer personal and reflexive pronouns. The most common place of these adjuncts is postposition, though in Ukrainian they may be used in preposition as well. Besides, Ukrainian pronouns are all declinable. E.g.: *ми всі – нас усіх – нам усім – нами всіма; хто з учнів – кого з учнів – кому з учнів/з них.*

3. **Predicative word-groups.** Unlike the previous two types of word- groups, i.e. the co-ordinate and subordinate word-groups, the extensively used in English predicative word-groups are not found in present-day Ukrainian. Completely isomorphic, naturally, are primary predication word-groups, which are singled out in the sentence and comprise the subject and the predicate. For example: *The student works hard. The book was published* last year. *Студент багато працює. Книжка була опублікована* торік.

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SENTENCE

The sentence is one of the main syntactic units opposed in this system to the word (or word-form) and phrase by the form, meaning and function. In the broad sense of the word, the sentence is an utterance (an extended syntactic structure or even a single word), which can be considered to be an informative massage to be perceived by ear or eye.

Sentence is a communicative unit, built according to the definite grammatical (syntactic) pattern, which exists in the language in different forms and modifications, performing its communicative functions and having intonation of its own.

The principle property of the sentence differentiating it from all the other language units is its predicativity, i.e. reference to speech situation; it means that the sentence is a piece of communication, completing an idea by itself.

The study of the sentence belongs to Major Syntax, which studies linguistic units of communicative value. Major Syntax focuses on the rules according to which words or word-combinations are actualized in speech, i.e. used as parts of predicative units, units of communication integrated into a given situation and expressing the purposeful intention of the speaker in the form of sentences.

The problem of classification of sentences is a highly complicated one, and we will first consider the question of the principles of classification, and of the notions on which it can be based.

From the viewpoint of their role in the process of communication sentences are divided into four types, grammatically marked: declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory sentences.

A declarative sentence contains a statement which gives the reader or the listener some information about various events, activities or attitudes, thoughts and feelings. Statements form the bulk of monological speech, and the greater part of conversation. A statement may be positive (affirmative) or negative. Grammatically, statements are characterized by the subject-predicate structure with the direct order of words. They are mostly two-member sentences, although they may be one-member sentences. Statements usually have a falling tone; they are marked by a pause in speaking and by a full stop in writing.

Interrogative sentences contain questions. Their communicative function consists in asking for information. They belong to the sphere of conversation and only occasionally occur in monological speech.

All varieties of questions may be structurally reduced to two main types, general questions (also called "yes-no" questions) and pronominal questions (otherwise called "special" questions). Both are graphically identified by a question mark. The two main types have a number of structural and communicative modifications.

Imperative sentences, i. e. such sentences in which the main in centive meaning constitutes a categorial demand which is expressed through the imperative mood forms of verbs denoting order, command, request, warning, prohibition, persuasion, etc. The incentive meaning of this type is realised through a) one-member sentences, eg: Silence! Stop talking! b) through two-member sentences, eg: Vanish the dream! Van ish the idle fears! (Longfellow) Згинь, ця думко! (Згинь же, безпід ставний страх!) "Clear the road, you bums." (Caldwell) Зійдіть з дороги, волоцюги!/ Тікайте з дороги, волоцюги! Imperative sentences also show marked peculiarities in the use of modal words. It is quite evident, for example, that modal words expressing possibility, such as *perhaps, maybe, possibly,* are incompatible with the notion of order or request. Indeed, modal words are hardly used at all in imperative sentences.

Exclamatory sentences may have the form of a) affirmative or interrogative sentences: *He took no notice of Mariam! (Lawrence) Він навіть не помічав Маріам! What a medley of opinions! (Goldsmith) Яка мішанина думок! "Isn't it mar vellous?" (Parker) Хіба ж це не чудово!* b) Exclamatory sentences of this type may also have the form of unextended or extended infinitival sentences: *But to sneak her (Fleur) like this! (Galsworthy) Щоб так оце викрасти її!* c) They may also have the form/structure of nominal sentences: *The sky, the flowers, the songs of birds! (Galsworthy) – Чисте небо, квіточки, пташиний спів! The rain. The welcome rain! (Longfellow) Дощ, давно очікуваний дощ!*

From the point of view of their structure, sentences can be:

1. Simple or composite (compound and complex).
2. Complete or incomplete (elliptical).
3. Two-member (double-nucleus) or one-member (single-nucleus).

These three classifications are based on different approaches to the structural organisation of sentences and reflect its different aspects.

The difference between the **simple sentence** and the **composite sentence** lies in the fact that the former contains only one subject-predicate unit and the latter more than one. Subject-predicate units that form composite sentences are called clauses.

Honesty is the best policy. (One subject-predicate unit).

Still waters run deep. (One subject-predicate unit).

You can take a horse to the water, but you cannot make him drink (two subject-predicate units, or two clauses).

You never know what you can do till you try. (Three subject-predicate units, or three clauses).

The difference between **the compound** and **complex sentences** lies in the relations between the clauses that constitute them. Complete and incomplete (or elliptical) sentences are distinguished by the presence or absence of word- forms in

the principal positions of two-member sentences. In a complete sentence both the principal positions are filled with word-forms.

When did you arrive? I came straight here.

In **an incomplete (elliptical) sentence** one or both of the main positions are not filled, but can be easily supplied as it is clear from the context what is missing.

One-member and **two-member sentences** are distinguished by the number of principal parts (positions) they contain: two-member sentences have two main parts – the subject and the predicate, while one-member sentences have only one principal part, which is neither the subject nor the predicate.

Two-member sentences:

The magpie flew off.
We are going to my house now.

One-member sentences:

An old park.
To live alone in this abandoned house!

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.

Parts of the sentence

The traditional subdivision of them into the main parts (the subject and predicate) and the secondary parts (the object, attribute, adverbial modifier) of the sentence.

The main parts of the sentence. The subject and the predicate are considered to be interdependent parts of the sentence. They are bearers of predication forming the sentence. Predicative connection is a mandatory type of the connection in forming a sentence as a communicative unit. The reason for calling the subject and the predicate the main parts of the sentence and distinguishing them from all other parts which are treated to be secondary parts of the sentence, is as follows. The subject and the predicate constitute the backbone of the sentence: without them the sentence would not exist at all, whereas all other parts may or may not be there, and if they are there, they serve to define or modify either the subject or the predicate, or each other.

The definition of the subject would, then, be something like this. The subject is one of the two main parts of the sentence. It denotes the object of reality whose action or characteristic is expressed by the predicate. It is not dependent on any other part of the sentence.

Both in English and Ukrainian the subject is expressed by: nouns, pronouns, numerals, adjectives, adverbs, infinitive, participle, clause. Still, some ways of expressing the subject are found only in English:

- indefinite pronouns *one, you, they,* expressing an indefinite doer of the action. *They say I am like my father;*
    - impersonal pronoun *it: It was very dark,* by means of the formal *there;*
    - for-to-infinitive predicative construction;
    - gerundial predicative construction.

The two-component subject is a subject that consists of two permanent members, which cannot function independently. They are subjects expressed by attributive word-groups in Ukrainian and in English there are subjects expressed by the formal *there* and noun or adjective which follow the predicate: *there was a lengthy pause* or by the formal *it* and infinitive or gerund that follows the predicate. *It is useless to talk to him.*

The predicate is the main part of the sentence and its organizing centre, for the object and nearly all adverbial modifiers are dependent on it. The predicate can be considered from the semantic or from the structural point of view. According to the meaning of its components the predicate can denote an action, a state, a quality, process, an attitude to some action or state, expressed by the subject.

There are the *one-component and two-component* types of the predicate.
- One-component predicate is expressed by a finite form of the verb.
- Two-component predicate contains two obligatory components.

This type splits up into two sub-types according to the components it contains:
1) predicate consisting or a linking verb and predicative,
2) predicate consisting or a finite form of the verb and infinitive.

The **secondary parts** of the sentence depend on the main parts. The secondary parts are: the object, the attribute, the adverbial modifier, the paranthesis.

The Object is a secondary part of the sentence which completes a verb or sometimes an adjective and denotes state or thing. E.g. He closed the door. The object cab be: a) direct which shows a person or a thing directly affected by the action. (I helped my brother.): b) indirect which shows to whom the action is directed, (кому? кем?) - She gave him an interesting book to read; c)prepositional. If there are more than two objects in the sentence the word order is the following:

a) In Ob + D Ob - The teacher told the students a story,
b) D Obj + Prep Obj. - The teacher told a story to the students.

The Attribute is a secondary part of the sentence which qualifies a noun, a pronoun, or any other part of speech. E.g. She is a beautiful girl. The categorial meanings of English and Ukrainian adjuncts differ considerably, however, since English adjuncts can not express gender, case and only rarely number as in the example with the demonstrative pronouns *this/that+Nsing – these/those* + Nplur; *such a* + Nsing – *such*+ Nplur, many a+ Nsing- many+ Nplur

Almost all Ukrainian attributive adjuncts, however, mostly agree with the head noun in gender, case, and number. These adjuncts are: adjectives, numerals, pronouns, participles: *гарний день, мій брат, перше літо, працююча зміна, засіяне поле, моя батьківщина,* etc.

Each of these and other adjuncts has also case endings: *гарного дня, гарному дневі, гарним днем, (при) гарному дневі; мого брата, моєму братові, моїм братом, мій брате; першому дневі, першим днем,* etc.

But there are some non-declinable adjuncts in Ukrainian as well, e.g.: Number 17 was on the second floor. (Christie) *Номер 17* був на третьому поверсі. Similarly in: *Палата 17, у палаті 17,* etc.

The adjunct "17" does not agree in gender (like in English) with its head word "number" *'/номер, палата № 17).*

The Adverbial Modifier is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb. According to this we distinguish:
- the adverbial modifier of time: *We shall try it tomorrow.*
- the adverbial modifier of place: *He has spies everywhere.*
- the adverbial modifier of manner: *He walked quickly.*
- the adverbial modifier of purpose: *He got up from the sofa for her to sit down.*

Direct address and parentheses. The position of these parts of the sentence is probably more free than that of all other parts. Thus, a direct address can come in almost anywhere in the sentence, as will be seen from the following few examples: *"Child, I'll try"; "Oh, bat, Dotty, we can't go". "Look here, Renny, why don't you come and work for me?"; "Her smelling salts, Scarlett!"; "What does that mean, Mr Kennedy?"* (all from M. Mitchell) *"Instantly, Lieutenant, instantly"* (Shaw).

Much the same may be said about parentheses. Some types of parenthesis usually come in between two constituent parts of the predicate: this is especially true of parentheses expressed by modal words, such as *perhaps, probably, certainly, doubtless,* and by the phrases *no doubt, without doubt, in fact.*

However, a parenthesis may also refer to one part of the sentence only, and is then bound to come before that part, e. g. *"Tell me, she added with provoking and yet probably only mock serious eyes and waving the bag towards Roberta"; "what shall I do with him?"* (Dreiser). Here the parenthesis *probably* belongs to the attribute *only mock serious,* and it would have to go if that attribute were dropped.

The homogeneous parts of the sentence

Homogeneous parts are of identical functions, structure and nomenclature. In the sentence homogeneous may be:

• **Co-ordinate Subjects** (extended/unextended)

Example: The captain, George and I slowly turned our heads.

Капітан, Джордж та я повільно повернули голови.

- **Co-ordinate homogeneous Predicates** (simple/extended/unextended)

E.g.. He <u>lighted</u> his cigarette, <u>said</u> good night, and <u>went away.</u>

Він <u>прикурив</u>, <u>сказав</u> надобраніч, і <u>пішов геть</u>.

Isomorphic in both languages are homogeneous compound verbal and compound nominal predicates

E.g.: The dead fingers <u>could neither touch nor clutch.</u>

Замерзлі пальці <u>не могли ні відчути, ні взяти</u> (сірника).

One evening she <u>came</u> home <u>low-spirited and very tired.</u>

Одного вечора вона <u>прийшла</u> додому у <u>поганому настрої та дуже втомлена.</u>

- **Homogeneous co-ordinate objects** (extended/unextended/prepositional)

E.g.: His parents used to present him <u>books, notebooks and small souvenirs.</u>

Його батьки зазвичай дарували йому <u>книжки, записники та невеличкі сувеніри.</u>

Allomorphic feature of English – homogeneous objects expressed by gerunds (In Uk they are translated with the help of nouns and infinitives)

Ex: I simply love <u>riding.</u>

Я просто обожнюю <u>їздити верхи.</u>

- **Co-ordinate homogeneous Attributes**

In both languages the functioning of homogeneous attributive adjuncts manifests itself n the distribution (preposed/postposed) and in structural forms (extended/unextended/prepositional).

Allomorphism – in their connection with the head components – in Ukrainian – mainly synthetic or analytical and synthetic; in Eng. – analytical

Ex: He seems a very <u>silent, awkward, bashful</u> lad.

Він виглядає <u>мовчазним, незграбним, соромливим</u> хлопцем.

- **Homogeneous co-ordinate Adverbial Modifiers**

Isomorphism – in their functions and are often identical n the grammatical means and ways of their expression. The most frequently occurring are:

- *time and frequency* e.g.: We shall try it <u>tomorrow</u> – Ми спробуємо це <u>завтра</u>

- *place and direction* e.g.: Tom had spies <u>everywhere</u> – У Тома скрізь були <u>шпигуни.</u>

- *Manner or attendant circumstances* e.g.: He so <u>obviously</u> adored his wife – Він так <u>явно</u> обожнював свою дружину

- *purpose* e.g.: Ham sometimes walked with us <u>to show us the boats and ships.</u> – Хем інколи йшов з нами, <u>для того щоб показати нам човни та кораблі.</u>

- *result* e.g.: She is too fond of the child <u>to leave it</u> – Вона занадто любить дитину, <u>щоб залишити її.</u>

Types of one-member sentences for Ukrainian language

Nominative sentences (називні) the main member is expressed by a noun in the nominative case. These sentences, naming the subject, also inform about its existence, presence, which, in fact, makes them sentences and distinguishes them from other types of nominative formations in syntax:

Ніч / Night;

Місячна доріжка / Moon track;

Спокійне море / Calm sea.

The main member of such sentences can also be expressed by a pronoun:

Ось і ми!/ Here we are!

Троє коней. / Three horses.

Nominatives differ from other types of monosyllabic sentences in that they do not and cannot contain a verb.

Definite-personal sentences (означено-особові) the main member is the personal form of the verb, which defines the person who performs the action, are called.

Only verbs in the 1ˢᵗ and 2ⁿᵈ person singular and plural forms of the present and future tenses, as well as 1st and 2nd person singular and plural imperative verbs can act as the main member in such sentences:

Бери Орисю! Рятуй її! Ховай! (М. Старицький) – subject in this sentence could be only pronoun *ти*;

З нудного себе знову вислизаю, як равлик із палаючої хати (І. Малкович) – subject in this sentence could be only pronoun *я*;

Не дуже тут. затишно. Як думаєш, Чумаченку? (О. Гончар) – subject in this sentence is pronoun *ти*.

As you see, the meaning of the person is conveyed by the ending of the verb.

All one-syllable definite-personal sentences can be converted into two-syllable:

Піду в кіно. – Я піду в кіно;

Піди в кіно. – Ти піди в кіно.

Generalized personal (узагальнено-особові): the main member means an action that can apply to any person at any time. Such sentences are most often used in proverbs and sayings, as well as in poetry:

Дарованим конем не наїздишся / You mustn't change horses in the midstream.

The main member of such sentences, as a rule, is expressed by a verb of the 2ⁿᵈ person singular of the present or future tense or the imperative mood. Although less often, some other forms of the verb can be used in the meaning of generalization:

1) 1ˢᵗ person singular and plural:

Як робимо, так ходимо, як дбаємо, так маємо (Нар. тв.);

Чужого не хочу, свого не дам (Нар. тв.);

2) Past tense:

Продав – загубив, купив – знайшов (Нар. тв.);

3) 3rd person plural:

За одного битого двох небитих дають (Нар. тв.).

If sentences with the 2nd person of the active and imperative modes are used in folklore, colloquial, artistic, journalistic styles, sentences with the 1st and 3rd person are also used in business and scientific styles. With their help, in particular, they give instructions, recipes, and indicate regularities:

Насіння виймають зі зрілих плодів, сушать на повітрі, але не смажать.

In generalized personal sentences used in proverbs and sayings and fiction, if there is an opposition in them, a dash is often used:

Продав – загубив, купив – знайшов.

If there is an adverbial (or subordinating) conjunction in such a sentence, then a comma is used before it: *Не хвалися, ідучи на торг, а хвалися, ідучи з торгу.*

Indefinite-personal sentences (неозначено-особові) main member is expressed by a verb in the form of the 3rd person plural of the present or future tense or in the plural form of the past tense and the conditional:

Кажуть, що його немає / They say he is out.

The performer of the action is not named in the sentence – all attention is focused on the action itself and its result:

Дивись, усе вже розкупили / Look, everything is already sold out.

Although the performer of the action in the indefinite-personal sentence is not named, linguistic tradition assumes that he can only be a person. So, from the sentence: *У селі співають/ In the village they sing*, it follows that it is necessarily people who sing.

The main member of the sentence always has a plural form, the performer of the action can be one person: *Мені потисли руку / They shook my hand.*

This person can be the speaker himself:

Вас же по-людськи просять не заважати / You are humanely asked not to disturb.

Impersonal sentences (безособові) the main member names an action or state, which does not have a performer or carrier or is realized independently of them.

Impersonal sentences are extremely diverse, divided into a large number of structural and semantic groups. But their core consists of those sentences, the main members of which name actions and processes, which, in principle, cannot have an executor. These sentences mainly mean a change in the state of nature:

Надворі вечоріє / It is evening outside;

Уже світає./ It's already dawn.

Сутеніє. / It is getting dark.

The following parts of speech can be the main member in impersonal sentences.

1. Impersonal verbs (Безособові дієслова) which denotes:

a) natural phenomenon: Смеркає; Сутеніє; Розвидняється;

b) physical and mental states: Мені кортить їсти; Мене нудить;

c) the presence or absence of something: Води вистачає; Бракує хліба;

d) actions of uncertain forces or circumstances: Мені поталанило; Йому щастить.

2. Personal verbs as impersonal (Особові дієслова в ролі безособових). Personal verbs acquire all the grammatical features of impersonal ones (3rd person singular, neuter gender), and their semantics often undergo changes. The sentences of this group are similar in meaning to the previous one:

Надворі темніє/ It's getting dark outside;

Мене всього трусило / I was shaking all over (= I had a fever);

Мені завжди щастить/ I am always lucky.

3. In these sentences, as well as in sentences with an impersonal verb, there cannot be a real performer of the action.

Sentences with adverbs of the type (речення з прислівниками):

Йому весело зараз / He is rather jolly now.

Надворі вогко й холодно / It's damp and cold outside.

The main member of the sentence can have an auxiliary verb with it *(було / was, буде / will be, стало / became, стає / becomes, стане / will become)*.

4. 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.

Багато людей врятовано;

Місто відбудовано;

Було прийнято закон.

5. 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.: *Можна вибрать друга і по духу брата, та не можна рідну матір вибирати* (В. Симоненко).

6. Sentences with unchangeable predicate-words (речення з незмінними присудковими словами): *можна, шкода, треба, слід*, etc.: *Треба йти додому. It is necessary to go home (I must go home).*

Composite sentence

A composite sentence in English and Ukrainian, like in all other languages, contains two or more primary predication centres mostly represented by as many corresponding clauses. The 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.

Within a composite sentence clauses may be joined by means *of coordination* or *subordination,* thus forming *a compound* or a *complex sentence* respectively.

Coordination is a way of linking grammatical elements to make them equal in rank.

Subordination is a way of linking grammatical elements that makes one of them dependent upon the other (or they are mutually dependent).

A compound sentence may contain coordinate clauses extended by subordinate clauses, and the resulting structure is a compound-complex sentence.

A complex sentence may contain subordinate clauses joined by means of coordination, the resulting structure being a *complex sentence with homogeneous subordinate clauses.*

A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal rank which form one syntactical whole in meaning and intonation. Clauses that are parts of a compound sentence are called *coordinate,* as they are joined by coordination.

Coordinate clauses may be linked together with or without a connector.

Complex sentences in Ukrainian can be of two types:
1. with a conjunction / сполучникові
2. without a conjunction / безсполучникові

Sentences with a conjunction are divided into
✓ compound sentences / складносурядні
✓ complex sentences / складнопідрядні

Let's see the types within each group with some simple examples that are all based on the sentence *Іде дощ – It is raining*.

Compound sentences in Ukrainian consist of two or more independent clauses connected with conjunctions like **і, а, або, але,** etc.

There are 3 main types of conjunctions:

Type	Conjunctions	Example
Connecting/ Єднальні	**і (й, та)** – and **і… і…** – both… and… **ні… ні…** – neither… nor **не тільки… а й** – not only, but also	Іде дощ **і** дме вітер. **І** дощ іде, **і** сонце світить. **Не тільки** дощ іде, **а** й дме сильний вітер.
Opposite/ Протиставні	**а** – and/but **але** – but **зате, проте, однак** – but, however	У Києві йде дощ, **а** у Львові яка погода? Іде дощ, **але** це не проблема.
Partitions/ Розділові	**або, чи** – or **то… то…** – either… or…	Іде дощ, **чи** це мені здається? **То** дощ іде, **то** світить сонце.

Complex sentences in Ukrainian consist of one independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses (підрядні частини).

There are various types of Complex sentences. They are all grouped into three main categories.

Category	Meaning and linking words (conjunctions)	Examples
Складнопідрядні речення з підрядним означальним Complex sentences with Attributive Clause	Attributive clauses perform the function of an attribute and stands after the noun that it modifies. **що, який** – what, who, which, that (with animate and inanimate nouns) The conjunctive words **який** (m), **яка** (f), **яке** (n), **які** (pl) in a Subordinate clause may also take different cases.	Дощ, **що** розпочався позавчора ввечері, досі йде. Іде дощ, **якого** ми так довго чекали.
Складнопідрядні речення з підрядним з'ясувальним Complex sentences with Explanatory Clauses	Subordinate clauses explain the action in the independant clause. **що** – that **хто** – who **як** – how **чи** – whether and others	Я чую, **що** іде дощ. Я слухаю, **як** іде дощ. Ти знаєш, **чи** йде зараз дощ?
Складнопідрядні речення з підрядними обставинними Complex sentences with Adverbial Clauses	Adverbial clauses indicate: Час (time): **коли́** – when **по́ки** – while **до́ки** – until, till **відко́ли** – since **відто́ді як** – since **з тих пір як** – since	**Коли** йде дощ, я люблю сидіти вдома і читати. **Поки** йде дощ, ходімо в кав'ярню. **Відколи** йде дощ, ми не виходили на вулицю.
	Місце (place) **де** – where **куди́** – where to **зві́дки** – where from	Дощ іде там, **де** він потрібен.
	Умова (condition) **якщо́** – if **якби́** – if, if only	**Якщо** йде дощ, я трошки запізнюсь. **Якби** не йшов дощ, я би приїхала вчасно.

	Причина (cause) **тому́ що** – because **бо** – because, as **оскі́льки** – as far as **а́дже** – because, since	Я не буду бігати сьогодні, **тому що (бо, оскільки, адже)** іде дощ.
	Мети (goal) **щоб** – in order to **аби́** – in order to **для то́го щоб** – in order to	Дощ іде, **щоб (аби, для того щоб)** росли дерева та рослинки.
	Порівняння (comparing) **як** – as, like **мов, немо́в** – like, as if **на́че, нена́че** – like, as if	Іде сильний дощ, **наче (мов)** з неба на землю хтось ллє воду з відра.
	Допуст (concession) **хоч, хоча́** – although **дарма́ що** – notwithstanding **незважа́ючи на = по́при** – in spite of, despite	Я піду на прогулянку, **незважаючи на (попри)** те, що йде дощ.
	Міра і ступінь (degree) **що** – that **що аж** – that	Іде такий сильний дощ, **що аж** нічого не видно.
	Наслідок (consequence) **так що** – so that	Іде дощ, **так що** сьогодні не будемо бігати.

Complex sentences without linking words / Безсполучникові речення

These sentences consist of clauses that are not connected by any conjunctions, but punctuation and intonation. Unlike in English where these would be just two separate sentences, this type is very common in Ukrainian.

Some examples:

• *Іде дощ, віє вітер.*

• *Іде дощ – сьогодні не будемо бігати.*

Dash is used if the second clause is a result of the first one.

• *Погода зіпсувалася: іде дощ, віє сильний вітер.*

Semicolon is used when the second clause explains the first one.

Actual division of the sentence

By actual division we mean dividing a sentence into two sections, one of which contains that which is the starting point of the message – "the theme", and the other – the new information for which the sentence has been spoken or written – "the rheme".

The two terms are Greek in origin: "theme" comes from the Greek root the- "to set", "to establish" and means "that which is set or established". The term "rheme" is derived from the root *rhe* – "to say" or "tell" and means "that which is said or told about".

Theme and rheme concepts are applicable in a number of areas (genre-based approaches, the use of the passive, academic writing, fronting, markedness and much more). The idea is based on a functional linguistics approach, primarily the work of Halliday and subsequent authors. Within that approach, language is a **social semiotic** which means that it is the key way in which we human beings acquire knowledge, express experience, attitudes and values and construct our view of reality. Semiotics is the branch of linguistics and philosophy which is concerned with signs and symbols and language is, above all, a system of signs.

Theme is defined by Halliday as:

what the message is concerned with: the point of departure for what the speaker is going to say

For example in sentences such as:

The man told me where to go

The theme is *The man* because that is what the sentence is all about.

My house in London is valuable but not for sale

The theme is *My house in London*.

We should not, however, confuse theme with subject, which is a grammatical rather than a communicative category, or agent, which is a different grammatical category present in passive expressions, because, for example:

• in sentences such as:

Yesterday afternoon, we went to the park

The theme is *Yesterday afternoon*, because, in communicative terms, that is what the speaker is talking about. It is not, however, the grammatical subject but an adverbial noun phrase. The subject is *we* but that does not occur as the theme because it is actually part of the rheme.

• in sentences such as:

Spending time at the zoo is just what the children like best

The theme is *Spending time at the zoo* which is also the grammatical subject but formed by nominalising a non-finite verb phrase.

• in a sentence such as:

Because it was raining, we stayed in and watched TV

The theme is *Because it was raining* and that is a clause in itself and not the subject of anything. It is, however, also a subordinate clause which cannot stand alone and make sense.

• in a sentence such as:

The grass is kept short by the sheep.

The theme is *The grass* which is a noun subject but not the agent (it is the patient in a passive sentence).

• in a sentence such as:

The people who wanted a refund went to the manager's office.

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The theme is *The people who wanted a refund* because that relative clause structure is the starting point from which the rest of the utterance may be understood.

- in a sentence such as:

Over that hill and across the bridge is where you need to go.

The theme is *Over that hill and across the bridge* which is a combination of two prepositional phrases. In functional grammar, the prepositional phrases would usually be described as location Circumstances, by the way, but, in this case, Circumstances functioning as themes.

- in a sentence such as:

The car has been repaired.

The theme, rather obviously, is *the car* because that is what the rest of the clause is concerned with. It is not, however, the subject of the verb, it is, in grammatical terms, the patient (i.e., the entity on which the verb acts) and the agent (perhaps *the workshop* or *the mechanic*) is absent in this case because it is of no importance or already known to the hearer / reader and need not be made explicit.

For now we'll just consider it in relation to the communicative purpose of an utterance or written text.

It is true that in most simple declarative utterances the theme and the subject are often the same thing but that is not always the case and things can become more complex, as we shall see. So, for example, in:

My mother *did the work on Tuesday*

we have the theme (*my mother*) which also happens to be the subject of the verb, *do*. That sentence is unmarked. However, in:

The work *was done on Tuesday by my mother*

the theme is *the work* which is grammatically still the subject but functionally the patient in a passive clause. In this case, the sentence is marked because the speaker / writer has deliberately chosen to place *the work* in theme position. And in On Tuesday*, my mother did the work* the theme is *on Tuesday* because it is raised to mark it for emphasis.

The important point here is that when the theme and the subject are the same, the word order, in English, is described as unmarked, i.e., it carries no special communicative force. This is only true for declarative sentences. In interrogative sentences, the theme is the finite verb:

May we come in?

and in imperative constructions, it is usually the Predicate because the subject is generally absent:

(You) stop *that!*

When the subject is present, that becomes the theme:

You *try!*

It is also the case that the theme can be made up the whole of an adverbial, a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase including any modification.

All of these examples are of what is called, for obvious reasons, a topical theme and that may be defined as

the starting point from which experiences are unfolded in a clause

Topical themes such as the ones identified here are also all simple themes because they consist of one element only, although that element may be quite complex grammatically as the examples reveal. When a topical theme is the only theme in a clause, it is normally just called a theme. There are, however, two other types of theme that this guide will consider (eventually).

The rheme may be defined as:

everything else that follows in the sentence which consists of what the speaker states about, or in regard to, the starting point of the utterance.

So, in all the examples above, the rheme is what follows the theme (all of it).

The term rheme is another communicative category, not a grammatical one. The grammatical term with which it is sometimes confused is **predicate** which is defined as the part of the sentence which says something about the subject. So, for example the underlined parts of these sentences are the predicates:

Yesterday, Paul went for a walk

 Surprisingly*, she refused the job*

because they tell us about the subject of the sentence. However, seen communicatively, the rhemes of these sentences are:

Paul went for a walk

and

　she refused the job

because raising the adverbial to the front of the sentence has marked it as the theme and all that follows, including the subject of the verb is the rheme. In this case, we actually have a different sort of theme in the second sentence, called an interpersonal rather than topical theme (realised with the word *surprisingly*) because it expresses how the speaker feels.

Thus, in more complex arrangements, rhemes (or parts of them) may form later themes more than once and some rhemes may never become themes at all. Others have to wait in line until their number comes up. The important thing to remember in terms of teaching coherent writing and speaking is that all themes bar the first should be formed from previous rhemes. Parachuting in a new theme unrelated to what has come before just confuses the reader / listener.

A way of presenting a very simple structure to learners is:
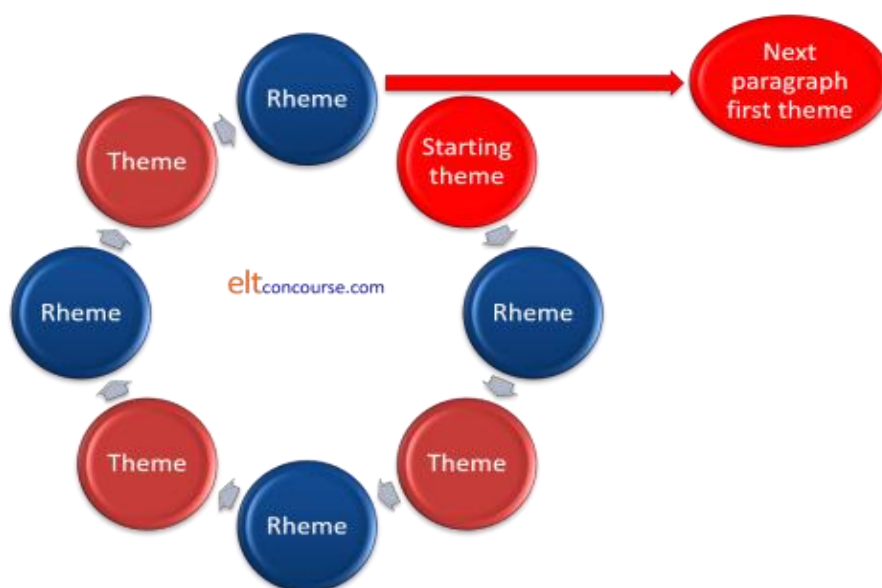
Even from an unrealistically simplified scheme like this, low-level learners can be encouraged to produce simple texts in which each theme has a rheme which forms the theme of the next sentence and so on. The text may not be terribly sophisticated but it will be coherent and, with a little training, cohesive too because rhemes often contain noun or prepositional phrases which can be substituted by various pro-forms.

So, for example, we can set up what is called a shell noun (because it encapsulates one or more propositions) by having a sentence such as:

The number of students who are using the kitchen and leaving a mess behind them as well as stealing from the fridge is becoming a serious problem.

and in that sentence we have used a shell noun (*problem*) which encapsulates the whole of the first part of the sentence. We have also made it the rheme.

Now, in what follows we can refer back to that shell noun with a pro-form such as *this* or *it* or a synonym such as *issue* and make the pro-form or the synonym the theme of each sentence as in, e.g.:

This cannot be tolerated much longer or it will result in ...
This issue has to be tackled by ...

In that way a simple noun can be used to set up a cohesive text efficiently.

We should note here that, of course, we are dealing with the relationship between the text and its context because that lies at the heart of social semiotics. And text can, naturally, be spoken as well as written. In spoken texts, because of their nature, themes may come and go quite rapidly and some rhemes may be discarded and never be elevated to themes at all. Nevertheless, in any transcript of a conversation, it is usually possible to spot the themes of each participant's contribution and the rhemes that follow them as well as seeing which rhemes are taken up as themes by subsequent speakers.

Speaker	Utterance	Theme	Rheme
Mary	*John can't come to the meeting*	John	can't come to the meeting
Pat	*That's a shame.*	that (can't come to the meeting)	is a shame
Mary	*Yes, it is*	it (a shame)	is
	His mother's ill, I hear	his mother	is ill
Pat	*Serious, is it?*	illness	is it
Mary	*Apparently so*	apparently	so

Knowledge of these phenomena can contribute very positively to helping learners of language construct and comprehend texts.

Syntactic features of professional medical text

Professional speech is part of the national language. Characteristic features of a doctor's professional speech are the interweaving and complementarity of scientific and business styles of speech, the use of linguistic means (professional terms) with a high degree of standardization, the accuracy of wording, and the appropriateness of the presentation.

The syntax of scientific prose, and in particular medical prose, is designed to logically, consistently and argumentatively present the course of thought, while avoiding excessive information. Syntactic connections are formed depending on logical connections. Therefore, in the syntax of scientific prose, those syntactic devices that serve to express logical connections between sentences and paragraphs play a particularly important role – conjunctions, interjections and clauses, adverbs, semantic agreement, as well as word order.

In the language of scientific literature, the principles of "linear" presentation of information are observed, according to which additional information is first introduced into the sentence, and then the main one (before and after the predicate). For example, in the sentence: *У лабораторії працювало 10 студентів...* / There were 10 students working in the laboratory... it is reported how many students were working in the laboratory, and in the sentence: *10 студентів працювало в лабораторії...* / 10 students were working in the laboratory... it is reported where these students worked.

Definitions expressed by nouns and adjectives are widely used in modern scientific literature; generalized clauses; verb-noun constructions with a de-semanticized verb that actually acts as a link (constructions of the type: *мати значення* / to have meaning, etc.).

Impersonal, indefinite-personal sentences are often encountered in texts – when describing facts, phenomena, processes. Incomplete sentences, exclamatory sentences (as emotionally colored) are almost never used.

Interjections and interjections play a special role in scientific prose. They are used to connect thoughts, sequence of presentation (*по-перше, отже, таким чином* / first, therefore, thus), to indicate the source of information (*на нашу думку* / in our opinion), etc.

A characteristic feature of the modern scientific style is the presence in it of multi-component complex sentences with a conjunction and limited use of non-conjunction complex sentences.

In professional tests, the so-called conditional language is widely used, which is a means of transmitting information – these are units of measurement, mass, length, etc., formulas, graphs, illustrations, schemes, diagrams and other extralinguistic (non-verbal) means.

Syntactic constructions often found in medical texts require special consideration due to their extreme sensitivity to foreign language influences.

The most basic syntactic norms of professional medical text are:

a) complex cases of management: *повідомляти когось* / report to someone (and not *комусь* / to someone); *наголошувати щось* / to emphasize something (and not *на чомусь* / on something);

b) established constructions of various types: *переважно* / mostly; *щодо* / regarding; *мати на меті* / to have a goal; *дається взнаки* / is made known;

c) constructions with prepositions: *лікар за фахом* / doctor by profession; *матеріали з питань екології* / materials on ecology; *на тему* / on the topic; *відпустка через хворобу* / sick leave;

d) features of word conjugation in some syntactic constructions:

Розповісти про результати / tell about the results;

Бути спрямованим на / to be directed to;

Вказувати на / to point at;

Лежати на поверхні / to be on the surface;

e) coordination of the predicate with the subject, which is expressed by quantitative-noun combinations (*багато студентів не з'явилось* / many students did not show up), etc.

Issues for discussion:

1. Speak on the numeral as a part of speech; tell what categories the numerals have in Ukrainian.

2. Characterize the main syntactic units from the point of view of their structure. Explain the difference between the phrase and the sentence.

3. What aspects of the sentence do you know?

4. Give classifications of the sentence you know. Name the types of sentences 1) according to their communicative purpose; 2) according to their structure.

5. Characterize the parts of sentence in the contrasted languages as whole, from the point of view of their structure, ways of expression and meaning.

6. Describe the structural types of sentence in Ukrainian.

7. What do you know about construct and comprehend texts?

8. Tell about syntactic features of professional medical text.

VII. LEXICOLOGY: WORD AS THE BASIC UNIT OF LANGUAGE. LEXICAL AND SEMANTIC GROUPS OF WORDS IN UKRAINIAN LANGUAGE AND PROFESSIONAL SPEECH OF A DOCTOR

➢ Lexicology. The definition of the word.
➢ Word meaning. Grammatical and lexical meaning.
➢ Stylistically marked and stylistically neutral vocabulary.
➢ Neologisms and archaisms.
➢ Terms and medical terminology.
➢ Synonyms. Synonymy in medical terminology of the Ukrainian language.
➢ Antonyms. Antonyms in Ukrainian modern language (human and medical characteristics).
➢ Homonyms and paronyms. Paronyms in professional medical speech.
➢ Phraseological units and the professional speech of a doctor.

Lexicology (Greek "lexis" – word, "logos" – learning) is a part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of the language. It also studies all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc.

The **object of lexicology** is the science of the word. The term **word** denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. A word therefore is at the same time a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit. So, the subject-matter of lexicology is the word, its morphemic structure, history and meaning.

The basic task of lexicology is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use. The term **vocabulary** is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses. Lexicology is concerned with words, word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes that make up words.

The term **system** as used in present-day Lexicology denotes a set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws. The lexical system of every speech contains productive elements typical of this particular period, others that are archaic and are dropping out of usage, and, finally, some new phenomena, neologisms. The elements of lexical system are characterized by their combinatorial and contrastive properties determining their syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships.

The problems associated with the definition of the word have always been most complex and remain disputable. Determining the word involves considerable difficulties for the criteria employed in establishing it are of different character and

each language presents a separate system with its own patterns of vocabulary items, its specific types of structural units and its own ways of distinguishing them. The matter is that the simplest word has many different aspects. It has a sound form because it is a certain arrangement of phonemes. It has its morphological structure, being a certain arrangement of morphemes.

Being the central element of any language system, the word is a sort of focus for the problems of phonology, lexicology, syntax, morphology and also some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech, such as philosophy, psychology and probably quite a few other branches of knowledge.

The definition of the word from the point of view of philosophy:
Words are not mere sounds but names of matter (T. Hobbes).

The definition of the word from the point of view of physiology:
A word is a universal signal that can substitute any other signal from the environment in evoking a response in a human organism (I. Pavlov).

The definition of the word from the point of view of Machine Mathematical Linguistics:
A word is a sequence of graphemes between two blanks.

The definition of the word from the point of view of syntax and semantics:
A word is a minimum sentence (H. Sweet).
A word is a minimum free form (L. Bloomfield).
A word is one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated units into which the sentence resolves itself (E. Sapir).
Words are meaningful units (S. Ullmann).

The definition of the word from the point of view of semantics, phonology and grammar:
A word is an articulate sound-symbol in its aspect of denoting something which is spoken about (A. Gardiner).
A word is the association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds susceptible to a given grammatical employment (A. Meillet).

Many scholars have attempted to define the word as a linguistic phenomenon. Yet none of the definitions can be considered totally satisfactory in all aspects. The definition which is a bit extended but takes into account different aspects and hence can be considered optimal is the definition of the word given be I. Arnold:

The word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterised by formal and semantic unity.

So, words are the central elements of language system. The definition of a word is one of the most difficult in linguistics because the simplest word has many different aspects. It has a sound form and morphological structure; when used in actual speech, it may occur in different word-forms, different syntactic functions and signal various meanings. Being the central element of any language system, the word is a sort of focus for the problems of Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Lexicology and also for some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech, such as philosophy and psychology. All attempts to characterize the word are necessarily specific for each domain of science and are therefore considered one-sided by the representatives of all the other domains.

The word has been defined semantically, syntactically, phonologically and by combining various approaches. All these criteria are necessary because they create a basis for the oppositions between the word and the phrase, the word and the phoneme and the morpheme; their common feature is that they are all units of the language, their difference lies in the fact that the phoneme is not significant, and a morpheme cannot be used as a complete utterance.

The term **motivation** is used to denote the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word, on the one hand, and its meaning, on the other. There are three main types of motivation: **phonetical** motivation, **morphological** motivation and **semantic** motivation.

1. When there is a certain similarity between the sound that make up words and their meaning, the motivation is **phonetical**. All **phonetically motivated** words have their sounding structure somewhat similar to the sounds which they convey. Due to this, some of these English, Ukrainian and other languages' words thus motivated sound almost or quite alike. For example: *to cade – кудкудакати, cock-a-doodle-doo – кукуріку, bang – бух/бухнути, bark – гав/гавкати, buzz – дзижчати, chirp/chirrup – цвірінькати, cuckoo – кукукати/ кукувати, crack – трісь/ тріщати, gagle – ґелґотати, hey! – гей!, hiss – шипіти/сичати, hoop – 'гукати (сигналити), howl - вити, smack (one's lips) цмокати, moo – мукати, mewl – нявкати, baa / bar/ бе-е, бекати (вівці), etc.* These words imitate sounds in nature because what they are referred to is a sound.

These are naturally far from all the words whose notional meaning in the contrasted languages is based on sound imitation. Nevertheless, their number in comparison to other types of motivated words is not large, constituting in English about 1.08 % and in Ukrainian only about 0.8 %.

It is also suggested that sounds themselves may be emotionally expressive which accounts for the phonetical motivation in certain words. Initial / f / and / p/, e.g., are felt

as expressing scorn, disapproval or disgust: *pooh! fie! fiddle-sticks,* etc. The sound-cluster / *iy* / is imitative of sound or swift movement: *ring, sing, swing, fling,* etc.

2. The main criterion in **morphological motivation** is the relationship between morphemes. Hence, all one-morpheme words are morphologically non-motivated. Morphological motivation is "relative", i.e. the degree of motivation may be different. The word "endless", e.g., is completely motivated as both the lexical meaning of the component morphemes and the meaning of the pattern are perfectly transparent. The word "cranberry" is only partially motivated because of the absence of the lexical meaning in the morpheme "*cran-*" The words "*matter* ", "*repeat*" are non-motivated because the connection between the structure of the lexical unit and its meaning is completely conventional.

The morphological motivation in the contrasted languages remains the major one. It is characteristic of numerous notional words, in which it is clearly indicated by the affixal morphemes. For example, by suffixes: *doer* one who does smth; *flyer* one who flies; *detainee* one who is detained; *examinee* one who is examined; *changable* that which is subjected to change/can be changed; *movable* smth. that can be moved, etc. A similar function may be performed by some prefixal morphemes in both contrasted languages. Cf: *asleep* the one who is in the state of sleeping; *bedew* to cover with dew; *overturn* to turn smth. over; *ex-president* the one who was president, etc.

Similarly in Ukrainian: *оповідач той, хто оповідає/розповідає; писар той, хто пише; співець той, хто співає; ношений якого (що) носили; смажений якого (що) смажили; читаючий який читає, носач той, що має великого носа; митець той, хто творить якийсь вид мистецтва (швидко чи дуже якісно/майстерно) малює, будує, співає, танцює; злітати підніматися вище попереднього місця перебування; переказати (щось) розповісти вдруге вже раз сказане чи написане; передісторія історія, що була перед цією/відомою історією; вчетверте те, що повторюється четвертий раз; поверх (чогось) – щось понад чимось чи додатково до чогось,* etc.

Morphologically motivated words in the contrasted languages naturally constitute the largest part of their motivated lexicons: 88,5 % in English and 91.8 % in Ukrainian.

3. **Semantic motivation** of lexical units is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning of the same word within the same synchronous system. E.g. – "mouth" denotes a part of a human face and can be metaphorically applied to any opening: the mouth of a river, the mouth of a furnace. This is expressed by many semantically motivated words and word-groups in both contrasted languages: foot of a mountain – *підніжжя гори*, hand/ hands of a watch – *стрілка/стрілки (схожі на руки) годинника*, to keep house – *вести домашнє господарство*, an ancient house – *стародавній рід (династія)*; the house of Tudor – *династія Тюдорів*; the

first/second house – *перший/другий сеанс (у кінотеатрі)*; bed of roses – *легке/розкішне життя*; bed of a river – *русло річки*; bed of honour – *поле бою*; arm – *рука*, but: secular arm – *світська влада*; the arm of the law – *сила закону*; the arm of the sea – *вузька затока*; the arms of a coat – *рукава (піджака, пальта)*; the arms of a tree – *великі гілляки дерева*; the arms of a chair – *бильця (крісла)*, a coat of arms – *герб*, etc.

Many similar examples of semantic motivation of words are also observed in Ukrainian: *легка/важка рука (легко/ дошкульно б'є), легкий/ важкий на руку, липкі руки/липкий на руку (злодій); купатися в розкошах, купатися в славі/купатися в промінні південного сонця, братися за справу (діло),* etc. Their meanings are very transparent and mostly need no further explanation.

Some words denoting in the contrasted languages popular names of flowers, trees, birds, and animals have a transparent etymological motivation as well. Thus, in English and Ukrainian bluet (flower) is *васильок*, bluebell is *дзвоник*, blue-bottle is *васильок* which is blue (*синій*), blackbird is *чорний дрізд*, blackcock is *тетерук*, black berry means *ожина*, horse-tail/cat's tail means *хвощ*, redwood means *секвоя*, umbrella-tree means *американська магнолія*, violet means *фіалка*. More similar examples may also be found in English and Ukrainian: *жовтець* (yellow gold), *чорниця* (bilberry), *чорнобривці* (French marigold), *чорногуз (чорне гузно)*, *чорнослив* (smocked prunes), *соняшник* (sunflower), *куцохвостий заєць* (hare), *круторогі воли* (oxen)*, серпокрилець (стриж)* (martlet).

A brilliant example of etymological semantic motivation present in Ukrainian and Byelorussian (or Polish) names of months: *січень (сніг січе), лютий (мороз лютує), березень (береза сік пускає), квітень (перші квіти – проліски з'являються і зацвітають), липень (липа зацвітає), серпень (серпами жали і жнуть збіжжя).*

Semantically motivated lexical units constitute in English about 10 % and in Ukrainian about 7.4 % of their total motivated lexicons.

Compound words are either morphologically or semantically motivated in the contrasted languages. Their motivation is morphological if the meaning of the whole is based on the direct meaning of the components (e.g., headache is pain in the head, air-crew is a crew of an aircraft; after-effect effect that occurs after some action; to blackboard to write on a black board.), and semantic if the combination of components is used figuratively (headache – anything or anyone very annoying, good-neighbourhood being near good neighbours, classroom (room for classes or for schoolchildren), *drawbridge, halfpenny, landowner, mine thrower (thrower of mines), note-book (book for notes), self-defense, a schoolboy, Zululand (land of the Zulus),* etc.

Or in Ukrainian: *вільнодумець (думає про волю), добродійник (робить добро), домовласник (володіє домом), електродояр, кожум'яка (мне шкуру тварин), кораблеводіння, користолюбство (любить корисливість), лизогуб*

(облизує губи), лісовоз, маслоробня, марнотратство (витрата чогось без користі, марно), etc.

Generally, however, a great many words in English, Ukrainian and in other languages have no clear motivation, i. e. their etymology remains obscure, far from explicable at present. It has been lost in the course of semantic development of these words. As a result, one can not say why the "sun" is named the sun and the "head" or the "heart" has been named this way and not otherwise. Because of the obscure etymology most words and some collocations/idiomatic expressions remain non-motivated in the contrasted languages. In other words, their motivation is impossible to identify nowadays on the basis of their componential meanings.

Word meaning

There are mainly two schools of thought in present-day linguistics representing the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem of meaning – the one is the **referential approach**, which seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and the things or concepts they denote, and the **functional approach**, which studies the functions of a word in speech and is less concerned with what meaning is than with how it works.

1) Referential approach to meaning

All major works on semantic theory have so far been based on referential concepts of meaning. The essential feature of this approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning:

1) the sound-form of the linguistic sign,

2) the concept underlying this sound-form, and

3) the actual referent, i.e. that part or that aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers.

The **sound-form of the linguistic sign** is connected with the **concept** we have formed about the thing we denote and through it with the **referent**, i.e. the actual things. The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent. The sound form is completely arbitrary (we would choose any combinations of sounds to represent the referent) and has no inherent connection with the actual referent. This can be easily proved by comparing the sound-forms of different languages conveying one and the same meaning, e.g. English – *hare*, Ukrainian – *заєць*, Bulgarian – *zaek* and so on. It can also be proved by comparing almost identical sound-forms that possess different meaning in different languages.

2) Functional approach to meaning

The functional approach to the meaning of a word is a recent new-comer in this field of science. It maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit (a word) may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units and not through its relation to either concept or referent.

In a very simplified form this view may be illustrated by the following: the combination of sounds *cat* has no meaning unless it is included in a sentence like this one: *Cats catch mice.* Then it is said to have meaning that emerges as a product of the association of the sound combination with the other words in the sentence. So meaning is understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units.

Meaning and Concept

When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them.

Concept is the category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts reflect the most common and typical features of different objects. Being the result of abstraction and generalization all concepts are thus almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of its historical development. That is to say, words expressing identical concepts in English and Ukrainian differ considerably.

The concept of the physical organism is expressed in English by the word *body*, in Ukrainian by *тіло*, but the semantic range of the English word is not identical with that of Ukrainian. The word body is known to have developed a number of secondary meanings and may denote: a number of persons and things, a collective whole (the body of electors) as distinguished from the limbs and the head; hence, the main part as of an army, a structure of a book (the body of a book). As it is known, such concepts are expressed in Ukrainian by other words.

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing the same concepts but possessing a linguistic meaning which is felt as different in each of the units under consideration. E.g.: to fail the exam, to come down, to muff; to be ploughed, plucked, pipped.

The **two main types of meaning** are the grammatical and lexical meanings.

1) Grammatical meaning

We notice, for example, that word-forms such as tables, chairs, bushes though denoting widely different objects of reality have something in common. This common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality. Thus, grammatical meaning may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. e.g.: the tense meaning in the word-forms of

verbs (asked, spoke) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (the girl's, the night's). In modern linguistic science it is commonly held that some elements of grammatical meaning can be identified by their distribution. The word-forms asks, speaks have the same grammatical meaning as they can all be found in identical distribution (e.g. only after the pronouns he, she but before such adverbs and phrases as yesterday, last month, etc.). It follows that a certain component of the meaning of a word is described when you identify it as a part of speech, since different parts of speech are distributionally different. The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possesses but one form, as prepositions, is observed only in their distribution (cf: to come in (here) and in (on, under) the table.

2) Lexical meaning

Unlike the grammatical meaning this component of meaning is identical in all the forms of the word. e.g.: the words write – writes – wrote – written possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person but in each of these forms we find the same semantic component denoting the process of putting words on the paper. This is the lexical meaning of the word which may be described as a linguistic unit recurrent in all the forms of the word and in all possible distributions of these forms.

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical component of meaning is not to be sought in the difference of the concepts underlying the two types of meaning rather in the way they are conveyed. The concept of plurality, for example, may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the word plurality. It may also be expressed in the forms of different words irrespective of their lexical meaning (girls, boards).

The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning and the role played by each varies in different word classes and even in different groups of words within one and the same class. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. The lexical meaning of prepositions is, as a rule, relatively vague (to think of somebody, independent of somebody, some of the students). The lexical meaning of some prepositions is however comparatively distinct (in, on, under the table).

The lexical meaning of the word can be of two types: **denotational** and **connotational**.

One of the functions of the words is **to denote things**, concepts, etc. Users of a language cannot have any knowledge or thought of the objects or phenomena of the real world around them unless this knowledge is ultimately embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language. This is the denotational meaning, i.e. that component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible. There is no doubt that a doctor knows more about pneumonia than a dancer does but they use the word and understand each other.

The second component of the lexical meaning is the **connotational component** which has some stylistic value of the word, the emotive charge.

Words contain an element of emotive evaluation as part of the connotational meaning. The word *hovel* denotes a small house or cottage and besides implies that it is a miserable dwelling place, dirty, in bad repair and unpleasant to live in. Many connotations associated with names of animals, birds, insects are universally understood and used.

e.g.: *calf (теля) – a young inexperienced person;*
donkey (осел) – a foolish person;
monkey (мавпа) – a mischievous child;
serpent (змія) – a treacherous, malicious person.

But it should be mentioned here that different peoples structure the world differently. E.g.: the word *bug* has such figurative meanings in the English language as a crazy, foolish person and an enthusiast, the word *shark* means a swindler. In the Ukrainian language the words *жук* and *акула* do not have such meanings. Sometimes words in different languages can have different meanings. E.g.: the word *gull* means a fool, a swindler, in the Ukrainian language the word *чайка* can be applied to a woman or a girl. The word *hawk* possesses a negative meaning in the English language (a deceiver), the word *сокіл* is applied to a handsome and strong young man.

Metals possess well-established connotations, derived from their individual qualities. The word *gold* is associated with great worth. *Iron* and *steel* connote strength, *brass* – audacity, *lead* – sluggishness or weight.

Words may also contain an element of emotive force as part of the connotational meaning. This is in fact one of the objective semantic features proper to some words as linguistic units and forming part of the connotative value. Such are, for example, stylistically coloured words synonymous with their neutral counterparts: *child – kid – kiddie; girl – lass – girlie – lassie*. In interjections this meaning is known to prevail.

We must naturally distinguish between the emotive element as inherent in some words forming part of the connotation and the subjective use of words that are not otherwise emotionally coloured.

In actual speech expressive nuances may be obtained in different ways. In various contexts, linguistic or situational, words devoid of any emotive element may be endowed with a distinct expressive function depending on the speaker's attitude towards his interlocutor or to the thing spoken about.

Connotative meanings express the speaker's attitude to the subject of speech and may be as follows:

a) **stylistic:** chap, fellow, associate; child, infant, kid;
b) **emotive**: cool, awesome, terrific;
c) **expressive:** to trudge, to march, to gobble;

d) **evaluative**: clever, silly, good, bad(rational evaluation), scoundrel (emotional evaluation);

e) **associative** (a fir-tree – forest, New Year);

f) **national and cultural** (kilt – Scots);

g) **pragmatic**: Can you open the door?

There are some other types of lexical meaning. They are abstract and concrete (hope, love – window, book); primary and secondary (wall of the room – wall of misunderstanding); bookish and colloquial (young man – chap, lad).

A word may be **polysemantic**, i.e. it may have several interrelated denotative meanings:

a) One of the meanings is called **primary**, this is the meaning in which the word made its first appearance in the language, all the other meanings which developed later are called **secondary**, e.g. chair as a piece of furniture (primary), chair as the head of some meeting, conference or chair as a department (secondary meanings).

b) One of the meanings is **central**, others are **peripheral**. As a rule, primary and central meanings coincide but it is not necessarily so. In the course of language development a secondary meaning may become the central one ousting the primary meaning to the periphery, e.g. revolution: primary meaning is that of rotary movement, revolving, secondary – social change (now central).

c) Meaning can be **direct** and **indirect** (figurative, transferred), e.g. white collar, blue collar, smoke screen, etc.

Examples to illustrate the statement are not far to seek. When watches were invented no new words were invented to denote this object and its parts. The word face meaning front part of a human head was made to serve as the name of the front part of the watch where all the changes of time were shown; the word hand meaning part of a human body used to work and indicate things with was made to serve as the name of the indicator.

Or the Ukrainian word *лінія – вузька смужка, що тягнеться на якій-небудь поверхні*. Closely connected with it are the following meanings: *уявна смужка (лінія горизонту), шлях (трамвайна лінія), послідовний ряд кровно споріднених осіб (по материнській лінії), спосіб дії (лінія поведінки)*. Thus words develop plurality of meanings, or, in other words, become polysemantic.

Words have changed their meanings in the course of their development. This change is called **semantic change**. Every word in its development has undergone many semantic changes. There are distinguished causes of semantic change, nature and results of the process of change of meaning.

A necessary condition of any semantic change is some connection, some association between the old meaning and the new one. There are two kinds of association involved in various semantic changes:

a) similarity of meanings;
b) contiguity of meanings.

Similarity of meanings or **metaphor** may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other. The word *hand,* for example, acquired in the 16th century the meaning of 'a pointer of a clock or a watch' because of the similarity of one of the functions performed by the hand ('to point to smth.') and the function of the clock-pointer.

Since metaphor is based on the perception of similarities it is only natural that when an analogy is obvious, it should give rise to a metaphoric meaning. This can be observed in the wide currency of metaphoric meanings of words denoting parts of the human body in various languages (cf. 'the leg of the table', 'the foot of the hill', etc.). Sometimes it is similarity of form, outline, etc. that underlies the metaphor.

Contiguity of meanings or **metonymy** may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. This can be illustrated by the use of the word *tongue* – 'the organ of speech' in the meaning of *language* (as in mother tongue). The word *bench* acquired the meaning 'judges' because it was on the bench that judges used to sit in the law court, similarly *the House* required the meaning of 'members of the House' (Parliament).

It is generally held that metaphor plays a more important role in the change of meaning than metonymy.

Stylistically marked and stylistically neutral vocabulary

All words are divided into stylistically neutral (basic vocabulary having no stylistic connotations) and stylistically marked.

Stylistically neutral words can be used in any styles and situations, everyday, everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, education, age group or geographical location. Their meanings are broad, general and direct. A lot of these words have synonyms, which are stylistically marked, e.g. child – infant – kid, continue – go on – proceed, begin – start – commence.

Stylistically marked words are limited in their use and include formal and informal vocabulary.

Formal vocabulary comprises:

1) official vocabulary used in documents, business transactions, diplomacy, etc. E.g. high contracting parties, hereinafternamed, etc.

2) learned words common to all fields of knowledge, e.g. synthesis, analysis, hypothesis, antithesis, etc.

3) words associated with professional communication, special terminology different for each branch of science or art, e.g. linguistic terms: inflection, euphemism, paradigm, phoneme, etc.

Informal words are traditionally divided into:

1) dialect words used within a certain territory, e.g. Cockney dialect.

2) colloquial words

3) slang.

Colloquial words serve for a comparatively wide sphere of communication. They are further subdivided into:

a) literary colloquial words used in everyday conversational speech by both cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups. It is widely reflected in fiction, especially in modern writers' works. E.g. to have a bite, to have a snack, a bit of, a lot of, to start, to finish, to give up, to make up, turn up, flu, pram, fridge, zip, etc.

b) familiar colloquial words. There is no strict border between literary colloquial and familiar colloquial words. Yet the circle of speakers using familiar colloquial words is more limited – the young and the semi-educated. E.g. doc, hi, ta-ta, to pick up somebody, shut up, etc.

Slang is controversial as to its definition, characteristics and classifications. It is usually divided into general slang and special slang (e.g. teenager slang, university slang, football slang, etc.)

Neologisms

A neologism is a newly created word or a phrase or a new meaning developed for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language.

New notions constantly come into being and require new words to name them or new meanings of old words, e.g. computer, isotope, tape-recorder, supermarket, black hole, feedback. It does not matter how important a new thing is, compare: *nuclear war* and *roll-neck*.

There may be different ways of coining new words:

a) compounding, e.g. brain-drain;

b) shortening, e.g. bionics;

c) affixation, e.g. workaholic, bookaholic, money-mad, movie-mad, speed-mad;

d) conversion (often+composition), e.g. fall-out, teach-in,etc.

As a general rule, neologisms are at first clearly motivated. Sometimes newly borrowed or newly created words very soon begin to function as indivisible signs.

In the course of time the new word is either accepted into the general vocabulary and is no longer considered new or may not be accepted and disappears from the language. So some neologisms are short-lived, others become durable.

Archaisms

Neologisms are contrasted to words that dropped from the language (obsolete words) or survive only in special contexts (archaisms and historisms).

Archaisms are words that were once common but are now replaced by synonyms. Old words become rarely used and are mostly associated with poetic diction and historic novels.

e.g. *betwixt – between, damsel – 'a noble girl', hark –listen, morn – morning, woe – sorrow.*

Thou and thy, aye, nay are certainly archaic and long since rejected by common usage. Dialects are usually more conservative and preserve some archaic words and structures.

Sometimes an archaic word may undergo a sudden revival, e.g. *kin is now widely used in American English.*

Historisms are words denoting objects and phenomena which are things of the past and no longer exist.

e.g. *types of boats : caravel, galleon : carriages : berlin, calash, gig, phaeton, diligence, landeau; clothes : doublets, tabard, bloomers.*

A great many historisms occur in historical novels.

Terms and medical terminology

Terminology is a set of special names of various branches of science and technology used in the field of professional communication. For example: byte, system, body, circulation, dizziness, dehydration, etc. Terminology, according to L.Symonenko, exists as a result of the fixation of scientific knowledge (terminological dictionaries) and functioning (scientific and educational literature).

Medical vocabulary is one of the oldest professional terminologies. It was formed on its own linguistic basis, assimilating everything that the world civilization had developed at the time of its creation. Scientific terminology is not a permanent system, it lives, changes, adapts to the needs of the present. The history of the development of this science, changes in scientific views, integration and differentiation of scientific disciplines, cultural ties, the influence of the lexical-semantic system of the language – all this is reflected in the state of both the terminological system and individual terms.

Modern Ukrainian scientific medical terminology has gone through a rather long and difficult path of development – from the terminology of common Slavic old

words through borrowing of lexical units from Latin, Greek and Western European languages to the development of its own newest word-formation models using both national and international term elements.

The terminology of medicine is heterogeneous in its origin. Foreign language terms included in the national scientific medical dictionary are genetically related to numerous source languages:

- Latin and Greek languages: травма/ trauma, діагноз/ diagnosis, артерія/ artery, etc.;
- Greek, other European languages (German, Polish, French): анемія/ anemia, бактерія/ bacteria, гормон/ hormone, діабет/ diabetes, мікроб/ microbe, etc.;
- English: гайморит, дальтонізм/ daltonism;
- Spanish: кокаїн/ cocaine;
- German: бор, бормашина/ drill, шприц/ syringe;
- French: бюлетень/ bulletin, грип/ flu, бандаж/ bandage, буж/ bouge, зонд/ probe, and other languages.

Synonyms. Antonyms. Homonyms. Paronyms. Phraseological units

1. Synonyms

a) The definition of synonyms

Grouping of words is based upon similarities and contrasts. Taking up similarity of meaning and contrasts of phonetic shape we observe that every language has in its vocabulary a variety of words kindred in meaning but different in morphemic composition, phonemic shape and usage. The more developed the language is, the richer the diversity and therefore the greater the possibilities of lexical choice enhancing the effectiveness and precision of speech.

Synonyms can be defined as two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable at least in some contexts, without any alteration on the denotational meaning, but differing in the morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, affective value, style, valency and idiomatic use.

The words to annoy, to vex, to irk, to bother are synonyms. To annoy, to vex may mean both a non-intentional influence and an intentional one. To irk, to bother presuppose only the intentional influence. To annoy is a neutral word. To vex has a stronger shade. To bother presupposes the slightest reaction. The denotational meaning of all these words is the same: to make somebody a little angry by especially repeated acts. As it is seen from the example the synonymic group comprises a dominant element. This is the synonymic dominant, the most general term of its kind

potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group. Or in the Ukrainian language the word бридкий is a synonymic dominant in the synonymic row: бридкий, огидний, гидкий, потворний, осоружний, негарний.

The majority of English words are polysemantic. The result of it is that one and the same word may belong in its various meanings to several synonymic groups.

e.g.: *to appear* may have the synonyms, *to emerge, to come into sight and to look, to seem.*

b) Classifications of synonyms

Absolute synonyms are very rare in the language. They are mostly different names for one and the same plant, animal, disease etc.

e.g.: *luce – pike, compounding – composition, castor – beaver, алфавіт – абетка, буква – літера, процент – відсоток, площа – майдан, нагідки – календула.*

In the course of time absolute synonyms come to have either a different shade of meaning or different usage. If two words exactly coincide in meaning and use the natural tendency is for one of them to change its meaning or drop out of the language.

Ideographic synonyms differ from each other in shades of meaning. Synonyms of this kind are very numerous in the English language. In such synonyms we can easily find the general and the particular. The general connects such synonyms into one group, makes them representatives of one concept whereas the particular allows every synonym of the group to stress a certain feature of the concept. Thus all the synonyms express the concept in all its many-sided variety and completeness.

Not all ideographic synonyms are of the same kind. We can distinguish between those which are very close in their meanings (horrible – terrible, screech – shriek), synonyms which differ in meaning considerably. Thus, interpreter and translator denote the same concept of a person rendering the expressions of one language into the expressions of another but the oral side of the work is associated with the interpreter whereas the translator is connected with writing. Both ladder and stairs denote a set of parallel bars used for climbing up but ladder is associated with a rope contrivance or a portable device consisting of two beams crossed by a set of parallel bars while stairs represents a permanent arrangement mostly within a building, of blocks of wood or slabs of marble joined to form a long series of steps, stairway or staircase.

Among verbs we find ideographic synonyms which differ in the manner of the action expressed by the verb: *to look* (the synonymic dominant), *to glance* (to look quickly), *to gaze* (to look with surprise, curiosity), *to stare* (to look fixedly), *to regard* (to look attentively), *to view* (to look searchingly), *to eye* (to look from head to foot), *to peep* (to look stealthily).

Synonyms can differ in **the degree of a given quality, in the intensity** of the action performed or the intensity of the emotions: *to want – to desire – to long for; to ask – to beg – to pray; to work – to toil – to slave*.

Synonyms can also differ in **the emotional colouring**: *big – great; boy – lad*.

Synonyms can differ in the volume of the concept they express: *border – frontier*. Border is wider in meaning than frontier for the latter means mostly a state border whereas border is any limit, edge, etc. *Happy* is wider than *lucky* which implies only happy circumstances attending one's undertakings.

There are synonyms where one expresses **continuity** of action or state while the other expresses a **momentary** action of the same nature: *to speak – to say; to remember – to memorise*.

Ukrainian scholars call such synonyms **semantic**: *хата – дім – будинок, череда – отара – зграя*.

Stylistic synonyms do not differ in shades of their common meaning. They differ in usage and style: *doctor* (official) – *doc* (familiar); *to commence* (official) – *to begin* (neutral). They also show the attitude of the speaker towards the event, object or process described: *to die – to depart, to expire – to kick the bucket; говорити – балакати, базікати; ходити – шкандибати, дибати, пхатися, читальний зал – читалка, здібний – кмітливий*.

Ukrainian scholars distinguish between semantic-stylistic synonyms: *архітектор – зодчий*.

Phraseological synonyms are those which do not necessarily differ materially in their meanings or stylistic value. They differ in their combinative power. Thus, in such groups as *few – little, many – much* we can speak not so much of any immediate difference in the meanings of words as of their difference in application (*much time – little water; many children – much air*). We say a sunny day, a moonlit night but we should use the solar system, a lunar eclipse.

Phraseological synonyms can replace each other in some combinations but are not interchangeable in others. Use and benefit are synonyms in such expressions as public use, public benefit whereas they are no longer synonyms and cannot replace each other in expressions like I have no use for such books, or He was given the benefit of the doubt. *Перед, напередодні* cease to be synonyms if they are used in the context: *перед мостом, напередодні свята*.

Contextual synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. The verbs to bear, to suffer and stand are semantically different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form.

c) Criteria of synonymy

Notional criterion: Synonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same notion but differing either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics.

Semantic criterion: In terms of componential analysis synonyms may be defined as words with the same denotation or the same denotative component but differing in connotations or in the connotative component.

The criterion of interchangeability: Synonyms are words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in the denotational meaning.

Synonymy in medical terminology of the Ukrainian language

The study of medical terminology is one of the advanced directions in modern science, since the vocabulary of languages, including national ones, is filled up by terminology. New terms appear as a result of new discoveries, scientific achievements in the field of medicine. The problem of the synonymy of terms, i.e. the use of several special lexical units for naming a single concept, through present continues to be one of the most important problems of terminology.

Synonymy of terms is a type of semantic relations based on the ability of different terminological units to designate one special concept, expressing various additional signs of the concept, emotional or stylistic nuance, usability and co-occurrence with other terminological units. We will talk about equivalent terms that are interchangeable, as shown in the following example, e.g." Алергічний риніт клінічно характеризується наявністю одного або кількох із наступних симптомів: свербіж у носі, чхання, закладеність носа, ринорея (передня чи задня), а іноді й *зниження нюху (гіпосмія)*"/Allergic rhinitis is clinically characterized by the presence of one or more of the following symptoms: nasal itching, sneezing, nasal congestion, rhinorrhea (anterior or posterior), and, sometimes, *reduction in smell (hyposmia)*".

The following sources of synonymy in Ukrainian medical terminology were found out:

1. Greco-Latin synonymy, e.g., *ангіопатія – вазопатія (angiopathy – vasopathy)*, etc.

2. Synonymy of borrowed and native Ukrainian terms, e.g., *ліпома – жировик (lipoma)*, etc.

3. The synonymy of the term and its equivalent from the common vocabulary, e.g., *паротит – свинка (mumps)*, etc.

4. Synonymy of native Ukrainian terms, e.g., *хвороба – захворювання (disease)*.

5. Synonymy of the term and its euphemistic meaning, e.g., *смерть – летальний випадок (death), ожиріння – надмірна вага (obesity)*.

6. Synonyms – full and short variants, e.g., *антисептичний засіб – антисептик (antiseptic)*.

7. Intra-industry synonymy, as shown in the following examples, e.g., *реакція – проба (reaction-sample), радіологія – рентгенологія (radiology-rentgenology)*.

Despite the fact that synonymy in terminology is an undesirable phenomenon, it exists and even has a positive side, especially when a doctor communicates with a patient. When translating from one language to another, the use of synonyms helps to avoid repetition. The results of this study contribute to the selection of the correct, appropriate synonym for the term.

2. Antonyms

a) The definition of antonyms
Words with diametrically opposite meanings are called antonyms. We find antonyms among words denoting:
  - quality: *hard – soft; good – bad; здоровий – кволий*;
  - state: *clean – dirty; wealth – poverty; чистий – брудний*;
  - manner: *quickly – slowly; willingly – unwillingly; швидко – повільно*;
  - direction: *up – down; here – there; тут – там*;
  - action or feeling: *to smile – to frown; to love – to hate; любити – ненавидіти*;
  - features: *tall – short; beautiful – ugly; високий – низький*.
Words which do not have relative features do not have antonyms.

b) Classifications of antonyms
Antonyms can be divided into two groups: those which are formed with the help of negative affixes (derivational) and those which are of different roots. There are affixes in English which impart to the root the meaning of either the presence or the absence of a certain quality, property or state.

The most productive antonym-forming negative prefixes are *un- (unhappy, unimportant), mis- (misfortune, misunderstanding)*. In the Ukrainian language that is the prefix *не-(неправда, неволя)*. The prefix *без-* is also rather productive: *безстрашний, безлад*.

Antonym-forming suffixes impart to the word the meaning of the presence or absence of the quality or feature indicated by the root. The most productive antonym-forming suffixes are *–ful,-less*: *fruitful – fruitless; hopeful – hopeless*.

The second group (antonyms proper) includes words of different roots: *day – night; rich – poor, радість – горе, дружити – ворогувати*.

Considered in meaning antonyms can be divided into **absolute**, **phraseological** and **complex**.

Absolute antonyms are diametrically opposite in meaning and remain antonyms in any word-combinations. These are mostly found among negative affix-formed antonyms.

Phraseological antonyms. When they become components of phraseological groups or compound words they sometimes lose their absolutely antonymic nature.

e.g.: *to give –to take: to give a book – to take a book* but to give way will not have to take way as its antonym.

Phraseological antonyms cannot be used in parallel antonymic expressions indiscriminately. We can say *The books are alike – The books* are different but we cannot say an alike book though we do say a different book.

Complex antonyms are those polysemantic words that have different antipodes for their various meanings.

e.g.: *Soft* has such meanings as
- not hard, yielding (soft seat, soft nature);
- not loud, subdued (soft voice, soft colours);
- mild, not severe (soft climate, soft punishment).

Naturally all these meanings will find different words for antipodes:
- hard (hard seat, hard nature);
- loud, harsh (loud voice, harsh colours);
- severe (severe climate, severe punishment).

The Ukrainian word сухий can have the following antonyms: *мокрий, м'який, повний, емоційний.*

c) Criteria of antonyms

Antonyms have traditionally been defined as words of opposite meanings. This definition is not sufficiently accurate, as it only shifts the problem to the question of what words may be regarded as words of opposite meanings. Two words are considered antonyms if they are regularly contrasted in actual speech. A regular and frequent co-occurrence in such contexts is the most important characteristic feature of antonyms.

Another criterion is the possibility of substitution and identical lexical valency. Members of the same antonymic pair reveal nearly identical spheres of collocation. E.g.: The adjective hot in its figurative meanings angry and excited is chiefly combined with unpleasant emotions (anger, scorn). Its antonym cold occurs with the same words. But hot and cold are used in combinations with the emotionally neutral words fellow, man, but not with the nouns implying positive evaluation friend, supporter.

Antonyms form binary oppositions, the distinctive feature of which is semantic polarity; its basis is regular co-occurrence in typical contexts combined with approximate sameness of distribution and stylistic and emotional equivalence.

Antonyms in Ukrainian modern language (human and medical characteristics)

The tendency to oppose is one of the characteristic manifestations of the natural features of human thinking. In the process of cognitive activity, the individual imaginary compares objects, properties, processes, and actions of the surrounding reality, compares them, distinguishing among them the opposite. The objective world, divided in the mind of the individual into pairs of polar concepts, is verbalized in lexical units with contrasting semantics – antonyms. Thus, antonymy as a complex and multifaceted lexical-semantic phenomenon is based on the interaction of extralinguistic categories, concepts of thinking and linguistic units.

The analyzed oppositions are used to denote a person's appearance, character, emotional state, physical properties, and so on. We distinguish antonymous that characterize the appearance of a person (*високий – низький, товстий – худий)*; the features of the character (*вдячний – невдячний, розумний – дурний, талановитий – бездарний)*; human behavior and character (*балакучий – мовчазний, добрий – злий, хороший – поганий)*; age *(молодий – старий)*; mental state, emotions, feelings: *(веселий – сумний, спокійний – неспокійний, щасливий – нещасливий)*; physical properties and human condition (*здоровий – хворий, сильний – слабкий, ситий – голодний, живий – мертвий)*; social characteristics of the person (*багатий – бідний, вільний – невільний, рідний – чужий).*

Polar concepts play an important role in the process of learning the world around us. Binary oppositions reveal the mental state of person, they measure moral and ethical principles. That's why a study of antonyms in Ukrainian modern language that denotes human characteristics helps to understand the linguistic and mental picture of the world of Ukrainians.

3. Homonyms

a) The definition of homonyms

Considering the word from the viewpoint of its semantic relations with other words we submit to our examination words having the same form but quite differing in meaning or homonyms. Saying the same form we must add that the identity of form may be complete or partial.

There are perfect homonyms, that is words having entirely different meanings but absolutely identical in spelling and sound: *ball – м'яч; ball – тюлень; деркач – птах, деркач – віник; бал – вечір танців, бал – оцінка.*

Partial homonyms are of two types: **homographs** and **homophones**. **Homographs** are words identical in spelling but different in sound and meaning: *bow [bou] – bow [bau], row [rou] – row [rau], о'бід - 'обід, за'мок -'замок.* **Homophones** are the words identical in sound but different in spelling and meaning: *knight – night; piece – peace; цеглина – це глина, потри – по три.*

b) Classifications of homonyms

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

Historical homonyms are those which result from the breaking up of polysemy; then one polysemantic word will split up in two or more separate words. E.g.: *plant (рослина) – plant (завод); pupil (учень) – pupil (зрачок).*

But sometimes it is difficult to decide whether all connection between the meanings of such words is lost and even the compilers of dictionaries hesitate how to treat such words.

Etymological homonyms are words of different etymology which come to be alike in sound or spelling. Various causes explain their appearance. Among these phonetical changes both in native and borrowed words played a great role.

E.g.: *can (могти) – Old English cunnan (знати);*

can (банка) – Old English canne (банка);

here (тут) – Old English her (тут);

to hear (чути) – Old English hieran (чути).

Sometimes a native word and a borrowed word coincide in form, thus producing homonyms.

E.g.: *to bark (гавкати) – Old English beorcan and bark (кора дерева) from Scandinavian borkr (баркас)*. Or the Ukrainian word *мул (дрібні частинки у водоймах)* coincided with *мул (назва тварини/ animal, which is a Latin word).*

In other cases homonyms are a result of borrowing when several different words became identical in sound and/or in spelling.

E.g.: The Latin word *victim (wrong, an immoral habit)* has given the English *vice (порок)*, the Latin word *vitis (a spiral)* has given the English word *vice (лещата)*. The Latin word *vice (instead, in place)* is found in *vice-president.*

In the Ukrainian language the word *гриф (міфічна істота, which is a borrowing from Greek), гриф (частина струнного музичного інструмента, a borrowing from German), гриф (штемпель на документі,a borrowing from French).*

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Considering homonyms in their morphological aspect prof. Smirnitsky classifies them into lexical and lexico-grammatical. Lexical homonyms are of two types: perfect and partial. **Perfect homonyms** belong to the same part of speech with all forms coinciding: *case (випадок) – case (сумка)*. **Partial homonyms** belong to the same part of speech but coincide only in some of their forms: *to lie –lay – lain; to lie – lied – lied*. **Lexico-grammatical homonyms** are represented by:

a) words belonging to the same part of speech but homonymic in their grammatical forms (excluding their initial forms): *bore –to bore (the Past Indefinite of to bear)*;

b) words belonging to different parts of speech and homonymic only in some of their forms: *I – to eye; nose – knows*.

4. Paronyms

Paronyms (Greek: para – beside, and onyma – name) are words that are pronounced or written in a similar way but which have different lexical meanings. Paronyms contrast with homonyms, which are words with different meaning having the same pronunciation or spelling. In a broader sense, paronyms may refer to words that are linked by a similarity of form.

E.g.: English – *affect/effect*; *feminine/feminist*.

"I am a slow *walker*, but I never *walk* backwards" (Abraham Linkoln).

Ukrainian:

дискваліфікація – декваліфікація.

Дискваліфікація – declaring someone unworthy or unable to perform a certain job or duty due to professional lack of training.

Декваліфікація – a person's loss of professional knowledge, due to which he becomes unable to perform his work or duties.

подразнення – роздратування

Подразнення – the physiological term, which means two concepts. First of all, it is the effect of some factor or substance on the body or on a separate organ, tissue, cells, as a result of which pain, itching, inflammation or some other specific reaction occur:

І. Павлов ти його співробітники показали, що процес збудження в корі великих півкулі, головного мозку розвивається залежно від сили подразника («Медичний вісник»).

Подразнення also means a state of inflammation, redness due to the action of some factors on the skin or mucous membrane: *За останні дні подразнення па руці хворого зменшилося.*

Роздратування – this is a state of acute nervous excitement, feelings of anger, dissatisfaction, annoyance.

So, when it comes to physiological processes, it is incorrect to use the word *"роздратування"*, you should use *"подразнення"*.

Paronyms in professional medical speech

Активація – активізація – активність

Активація – excitement of something, increased activity of the body: *рівень активації, енергія активації.*

Активізація – prompting someone, something to activity, greater manifestation of something: *активізація діяльності кори головною мозку (організм), психічних процесів.*

Активність – active, energetic participation in something: *біологічна активність, висока активність.*

Апендикс – апендицит

Апендикс – appendix of the cecum of man and some animals: *здоровий апендикс.*

Апендицит – inflammation of the appendix: *хронічний апендицит, хворіти па апендицит.*

В'язи – м'язи

В'язи – cervical vertebrae, the back of the neck: *міцні, сильні в'язи.*

М'язи (м'яз) – tissue of a living organism capable of contraction, providing the function of movement of a body part: *сильні, треновані м'язи, м'язи живота, ноги, руки.*

Гамувати – тамувати

Гамувати – weaken, reduce the appearance of something; calm down: *гамувати стукіт серця, хвилювання.*

Тамувати – to stop, restrain the flow, the movement of something, not to let something happen to the full extent: *тамувати кров, біль, кашель, плач, сміх, стогін, страх, подих, спрагу.*

Кривавий – кровний – кров'яний

Кривавий – blood-soaked, associated with bloodshed, cruel: *кривава земля, кривава помста, криваві мозолі.*

Кровний – which has common ancestors: *кровний брат, кровна рідня.*

Кров'яний – which is contained in the blood or originated from the blood: *кров'яна плазма, кров'яне русло, кров'яний тиск.*

Лікарняний – лікарський – лікарський – лікувальний

Лікарняний – which concerns the hospital: *лікарняне містечко, заклад, одяг, режим; лікарняний лист (бюлетень)* – a document certifying the right of a worker or employee to be temporarily dismissed from work.

Лікарський – which concerns the doctor and his activities; sometimes – treatment: *лікарська діяльність, праця, обхід, консультація, етика, таємниця*.

Лікарський – which relates to medication: *лікарські рослини, препарати*.

Лікувальний – which is related to treatment, are used for treatment: *лікувальний режим, ефект, харчування, фізкультура*.

Пітний – потовий

Пітний – covered with sweat, sweaty: *пітне тіло, лоб, голова, рука, шия*.

Потовий – associated with sweat as a physical process: *потові виділення, потові залози*.

Їда – їжа

Їда – food consumption, eating: *їда повільна, швидка, всухом'ятку*.

Їжа – food, nutriment: *їжа багата, різноманітна, рослинна, суха, пісна*.

Сердечний – сердешний – серцевий

Сердечний – full of kindness, sensitivity: *сердечна людина*.

Сердешний – which causes sympathy, poor, unfortunate: *сердешна жінка, батько, хлопець*.

Серцевий – which concerns the heart, its activity, connection with heart diseases, their treatment: *серцевий м'яз, напад*.

Скальпель – скарпель

Скальпель – a small surgical knife: *скальпель гострий, довгий*.

Скарпель – a tool for processing stone: *скарпель гострий, тупий, новий, старий*.

Стрес – струс

Стрес – general response of the body to the action of internal or external stimuli: *стрес емоційний психічний, фізіологічний*.

Струс – sharp oscillating movement, shock: *струс мозку* – damage to the brain and meninges in closed head injuries; *нервовий струс* – strong nervous excitement, extremely strong experience, deep emotion.

Шкірний – шкіряний

Шкірний – which refers to the skin (the outer covering of humans and animals), associated with skin diseases: *шкірні рецептори, шкірні захворювання*.

Шкіряний – made of leather, trimmed with leather: *шкіряний футляр, шкіряна сумка*.

5. Phraseological units

Phraseological units are the ***lexicalized word groups of the language***. They are called "phraseological units" (PU) because of their polylexical form and single meaning. They make up a heterogeneous group, with different degrees of frozenness and are lexico-syntactic in nature.

a) *Classifications of phraseological units*
    The classification of phraseological units includes:
✓ standardised word combinations, e.g., phrases characterised by the limited combinative power of their components, which retain their semantic independence: *to meet the request/requirement, подавати надію, страх бере, зачепити гордість, покласти край*;
✓ phraseological unities, i.e. phrases in which the meaning of the whole is not the sum of meanings of the components but it is based on them and the motivation is apparent: *to stand to one's guns, передати куті меду, прикусити язика, вивести на чисту воду, тримати камінь за пазухою*;
✓ fusions, i.e. phrases in which the meaning cannot be derived as a whole from the conjoined meanings of its components: *tit for tat, теревені правити, піймати облизня, викинути коника, у Сірка очі позичити*.

Phraseological unities are very often metaphoric. The components of such unities are not semantically independent, the meaning of every component is subordinated to the figurative meaning of the phraseological unity as a whole. The latter may have a homonymous expression – a free syntactical word combination.

E.g.: *Nick is a musician. He plays the first fiddle.*

It is his wife who plays the first fiddle in the house.

Phraseological unities may vary in their semantic and grammatical structure. Not all of them are figurative. Here we can find professionalisms, coupled synonyms.

b) *Semantic classification of phraseological units*
    1. Phraseological units referring to the same notion.
    e.g.: Hard work - *to burn the midnight oil; to do back-breaking work; to hit the books; to keep one's nose to the grindstone; to work like a dog; to work one's fingers to the bone*.
    Compromise – *to find middle ground; to go halfway*.
    Independence – *to be on one's own; to have a mind of one's own; to stand on one's own two feet*.
    Experience – *to be an old hand at something; to know something like the back of one's palm; to know the rope*.

Ледарювати – байдики бити, ханьки м'яти, ганяти вітер по вулицях, тинятися з кутка в куток, і за холодну воду не братися.

2. Professionalisms

e.g.: *on the rocks; to stick to one's guns; breakers ahead.*

3. Phraseological units having similar components

e.g.: *a dog in the manger; dog days; to agree like cat and dog; to rain cats and dogs. To fall on deaf ears; to talk somebody's ear off; to have a good ear for; to be all ears. To see red; a red herring; a red carpet treatment; to be in the red; з перших рук; як без рук; горить у руках; не давати волі рукам.*

4. Phraseological units referring to the same lexico-semantic field.

e.g.: Body parts – *to cost an arm and leg; to pick somebody's brain; to get one's feet wet; to get off the chest; to rub elbows with; not to have a leg to stand on; to stick one's neck out; to be nosey; to make a headway; to knuckle down; to shake a leg; to pay through the noser; to tip toe around; to mouth off; без клепки в голові; серце з перцем; легка рука.*

Fruits and vegetables – *red as a beet; a couch potato; a hot potato; a real peach; as cool as a cucumber; a top banana;гриби після дощу; як горох при дорозі; як виросте гарбуз на вербі.*

Animals – *sly as a fox; to be a bull in a china shop; to go ape; to be a lucky dog; to play cat and mouse; як з гуски вода, як баран на нові ворота; у свинячий голос; гнатися за двома зайцями.*

c) Structural classification of phraseological units

English phraseological units can function like verbs *(to drop a brick; to drop a line; to go halves; to go shares; to travel bodkin)*, phraseological units functioning like nouns *(brains trust, ladies' man)*, phraseological units functioning like adjectives *(high and dry, high and low,ill at ease)*, phraseological units functioning like adverbs *(tooth and nail, on guard; by heart)*, phraseological units functioning like prepositions *(in order to; by virtue of)*, phraseological units functioning like interjections *(Good heavens! Gracious me! Great Scot!)*.

Ukrainian phraseological units can function like nouns *(наріжний камінь, біла ворона, лебедина пісня)*, adjectives *(не з полохливого десятка, не остання спиця в колесі, білими нитками шитий)*, verbs (*мотати на вус, товкти воду в ступі, ускочити в халепу)*, adverbs *(не чуючи землі під ногами, кров холоне в жилах, ні в зуб ногою)*, interjections *(цур тобі, ні пуху ні пера, хай йому грець)*.

Phraseological units in the professional speaking of the doctor

Phraseological units (medical idioms) show the attitude of doctors to their profession and the attitude of people to those who save their lives. Here are the most popular phraseological units related to human body parts and medical field of use:

Заговорювати зуби – distract from the urgent problem with extraneous conversations. Unlike dentists, healers know how to use conspiracies to temporarily eliminate pain. At the same time, the teeth themselves are not treated and the problem remains unsolved.

Сидіти в печінках – to bore, to poison life. The liver was considered the reservoir of human life force. It was believed that a person who interferes with life takes away free energy, which means that he sits in the liver and directly draws other people's strength from there.

Затамувати подих – not missing even the smallest details. In medicine, to illuminate the chest for a correct diagnosis, you need to hold your breath for a few minutes. It is believed that a person holding his breath will get the highest quality result.

Друге дихання – a new surge of strength.

Валити з хворої (дурної) голови на здорову – put the blame from the guilty to the innocent; accuse the innocent.

Гарячка обхопила – to be in a state of great excitement.

Горіти вогнем (полум'ям) – to be very red, hot (from a rush of blood); to be in heat, to feel heat (from illness).

Дрижаки пробирають (проймають, нападають, беруть, б'ють, хапають / пробрали (пройняли, напали, взяли) – someone trembles, shakes from cold, fever, fear, painful condition, etc.

Труситися (тіпатися, тремтіти) як у пропасниці – to be in an excited, nervous, painful state (trans. from fear, nervous tension).

Дитяча хвороба – shortcomings characteristic of the initial period of development of something.

Джмелів слухати (джмелі гудуть) – about noise in the head (from illness, grief, blow or drunkenness).

Туман в (на) очах – someone feels bad (from fatigue, illness, excitement) (synonym: *туман застилає очі*); someone has a dreamy, vague look.

Ледве тягти ноги – to walk very slowly, to move (from fatigue, illness, old age) (synonym: валитися від вітру).

Лежати в недузі – to be seriously ill; get sick.

Лежати пластом – to be seriously ill, not to rise due to weakness; don't move.

Лежати трупом – feel bad; to rest after great fatigue, exhausting work, etc.; not to be used for a long time, to be scattered, to become unusable (about things).

Живий труп – a morally devastated person, a sick person, very exhausted.

Танути як віск [на сонці (на вогні)] – quickly lose strength, health from illness, grief; waste (synonym: *танути як свічка*).

Дивитися в могилу – to be seriously ill, close to death.

Насадити болячок – to cause harm to someone.

З кіндратиком у голові – to be mentally ill.

Народитися в сорочці – to be lucky, happy (synonym: *народитися під щасливою зіркою*. Antonym: *народитися без сорочки*).

Phraseological units contain the noun *кров / blood*:

брати по крові/ blood brothers; пити з когось кров/ jitter, unnerve, agitate; кров з молоком/ blood with milk = healthy; кров – не вода/ blood is not water; заплатити кров'ю/ pay in blood; кровний зв'язок/ blood relation; кровна сестра (брат)/ blood sister (brother); кров із носа йде/ epistaxis.

Issues for discussion:

1. How you understand the notion "word"?

2. What definitions of the word do you know?

3. Explain the difference between meaning and concept.

4. What is grammatical and lexical meaning?

5. What do you know about stylistically marked and stylistically neutral vocabulary?

6. Tell lexical and semantic groups of words in Ukrainian. How do you use them in your professional speech?

7. What phraseological units do you know?

VIII. THE LANGUAGE OF PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION. TYPES OF PROFESSIONAL SPEECH. PECULIARITIES OF A DOCTOR'S PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION.

➢ The language of professional communication.
➢ Professional linguistic and communicative competence.
➢ The forms of communication.
➢ Monologic professional speech.
➢ Dialogic professional speech.
➢ Business conversation as professional dialogic speech.
➢ A telephone conversation as professional dialogic speech.
➢ Peculiarities of a doctor's professional communication.

The language of professional communication

The language of professional communication (professional language) is a functional variety of the Ukrainian literary language used by representatives of a certain industry, profession, occupation. As an additional lexical system, a professional language, lacking its own specificity of phonetic and grammatical levels, remains a lexical array of a certain language.

Professional language is a set of all language means used in a professionally limited field of communication in order to ensure understanding between people working in this field. Its peculiarities are determined by the goal, the situation of professional communication, the personal characteristics of the communicator and the recipient (language competence, age, education, level of intellectual development). Depending on the situation and the purpose of communication, various language means of expressing thoughts are appropriately and correctly selected: lexical, grammatical, phraseological, etc.

The language of professional communication is a multifunctional subsystem of the literary language and performs universal and specific functions. These functions are:

1) nominative (naming professional realities and concepts);

2) cognitive (tools and methods of professional knowledge, memorization, mastery of professional experience);

3) axiological (professional and moral and ethical assessment);

4) communicative (communication in the professional sphere);

5) cultural (preservation and transfer of professional knowledge and culture of professional communication);

6) aesthetic (linguistic perfection of texts) and others.

The main task of the language of professional communication is to ensure professional activity. This language functions mainly in oral form, although written

form is also possible; they use it both in official and unofficial conditions of communication. Its use is actualized primarily in situations of communication within a special sphere – science, technology, production, management, agriculture, transport, communication, medicine, diplomacy, etc. The topics of communication related to professional activities, the corresponding purpose of the conversation encourage specialists to speak in professional language, that is, to use a large number of terms and professionalisms.

All lexical units of professional texts are divided into four varieties:

1) terms of a certain field that have their own definition;

2) interdisciplinary general scientific terminological units (terms of philosophy, political science, mathematics, philology, etc.);

3) professionalism;

4) professional jargon that does not pretend to be accurate and unambiguous.

To know the language of professional communication is to:

- freely use all the wealth of lexical means of the profession;
- observe grammatical, lexical, stylistic, accentological and other norms of professional communication;
- to know special terminology, specific names of the relevant professional field;
- to use all this knowledge in practice, combining appropriatelyverbal and non-verbal means of communication.

So, professional language is primarily terminology specific to one or another field of science, technology, art, and professionalism. It is distinguished according to the sphere of labor activity where it actively functions.

A term is a word or phrase denoting the concept of a special sphere of communication in science, production, technology, in a specific field of knowledge. Terms serve the sphere of communication of a certain industry together with a commonly used lexicon.

Professionalism is a word or expression used in a certain professional environment. Professionalisms are characteristic of the language of a certain professional group. A real specialist must have well-developed language, speech and communication skills.

Linguistic professional competence is the sum of systematized knowledge of the norms and rules of the literary language, based on which the correct language constructions and messages are built according to the profession.

Speech professional competence is a system of abilities and skills of using knowledge during professional communication to convey certain information. Based on language competence, it is manifested in the formation of the skills of using oral and written literary language, the richness of its expressive means in accordance with literary norms.

Communicative professionally oriented competence is a system of knowledge, abilities and skills necessary for effective communication, that is, one must possess a sum of knowledge about language, verbal and non-verbal means of communication, culture, national identity of society and be able to apply this knowledge in the process of communication.

So, professional communicative competence represents professional knowledge, skills and communication skills.

Professional linguistic and communicative competence

Communicative competence is a complex, systematic education. In modern sociolinguistics, it is understood precisely as a system that performs the function of balancing existing language forms, which are determined based on the linguistic competence of the communicator against the background of certain social functions.

The modern structure of communicative competence consists of seven components (types of competence):

1) discursive competence – the ability to combine separate sentences into a coherent oral or written message, discourse, using various syntactic and semantic means;

2) sociolinguistic competence – the ability to understand and produce phrases and sentences with such a form and meaning that correspond to a certain sociolinguistic context of the illocutionary act of communication; (ilocutionary act – the embodiment of a certain communicative goal in the utterance generated during speech; purposefulness; the function of influencing the interlocutor.)

3) strategic competence – the ability to effectively participate in communication, choosing the right discourse strategy for this purpose, if communication is threatened by a break due to sound interference, insufficient competence, etc., as well as an adequate strategy to increase the effectiveness of communication;

4) linguistic competence – the ability to understand and produce learned utterances, as well as the potential ability to understand new, unlearned utterances;

5) illocutionary competence – the ability to properly form an illocutionary (speech) act (ask for something, invite, inform someone, etc.) in accordance with the communication situation;

6) psychological competence – the ability to feel the personality of the partner, his mood, character;

7) sociocultural competence – the ability to understand and use various components of national culture (traditions, rituals, customs, social stereotypes) in specific situations, taking into account the norms of intercultural communication.

The model of communicative competence is built on the principles of a systemic approach, which involves the study of communicative competence as a system, the

determination of its internal qualities, connections and relationships. The model of communicative competence, represented in the "Project of the State Educational Standard for the Study of the Ukrainian Language in Higher Education Institutions" ("Проєкт державного освітнього стандарту з вивчення української мови у вищих навчальних закладах"), is also built on the system principle, where it is noted that communicative competence consists of three main types of competence: speech, illocutionary (language) and sociocultural, which , in turn, also include a number of competencies.

The model of communicative competence, like most existing models, has a two-level approach, which can be reduced to the "knowledge-implementation" dyad. In a broad sense, language competence is knowledge of theoretical information about language (its system and structure) and language material (language units, rules for their combination), which ensure the development of speech activity and the ability to communicate verbally.

Professional speech communication occurs in the sphere of professional interaction of communicators and can be realized in oral or written forms, under official or unofficial circumstances.

Professional communicative competence presupposes the presence of professional knowledge, the general humanitarian culture of a person, the ability to navigate in the surrounding world, communication skills and is a derivative of communicative competence.

Communicative competence (lat. competents – proper, appropriate) is a set of knowledge about communication in various conditions and with different communicators, as well as the ability to use them effectively in specific communication in the role of addresser and addressee.

Communicative competence is determined by communicative intentions (communicative intentions of the addressee), communicative strategies, knowledge of the personality of the interlocutor, the ability to overcome psychological filters, analyze non-verbal characteristics (posture, gestures, facial expressions, etc.); skills to start and end communication at the right moment, control post-communicative effects. A significant component of communicative competence is *language competence*.

Linguistic competence is the knowledge of the norms and rules of the modern literary language by the participants of communication and their skillful use in the production of oral and written expressions.

Language competence consists of lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, orthographic and punctuational competences.

Lexical competence consists in mastering the lexical means of the modern Ukrainian literary language and being able to use them. It provides a wide vocabulary, including mastery of the terminology necessary for communication in the

professional sphere, because the choice of lexical elements depends on the sphere and situation in which the speaker is.

Grammatical competence is the knowledge and ability to use the grammatical resources of the Ukrainian language: word-forming units, ways of creation, categories and forms, morphological and syntactic units. Understanding and composing texts in various spheres of professional activity is based on them.

Semantic competence is the communicator's ability to understand and control the internal logic of content, which is integrated into the development of speech communicative competence, since content issues occupy a central place in communication. Intra-lexical relations, the meaning of grammatical elements, categories, structures and processes, such logical relations as consistency, presupposition (the common fund of knowledge of communicators), implicativeness (the presence of indirectly expressed content, which appears in everyday speech as a hint, in artistic text as a subtext, in business communication as self-representation) are leading concepts in the process of understanding, understanding the content and producing texts.

Phonological and orthographic competences are related to the knowledge of the sound means of the modern literary language, the speaker's ability to use them. These types of competence ensure the reproduction of the sound image of language elements and the correct sound design of speech.

Spelling competence consists in mastering the system of rules that determine the spelling of words according to the established norms of the literary language and the conscious ability to apply them. Spelling competence is a necessary condition for competent writing.

Punctuation competence reflects the logical intonation division of the language (speech) flow and ensures adequate conscious and, accordingly, easier perception and understanding of the written text.

Language competence implies the presence of *speech skills*, which include the ability to speak, listen, read and write, which determine speech behavior.

The forms of communication

A communicative situation is part of a human being's everyday life situation. So it is natural for a language user to consider the situation from his point of view, revealing his personal interest and participation in what he is saying. This is the speaker's attitude to it. The thing he is talking about may satisfy him or not, please him or not, may elicit his positive or negative response, his emotions. This factor forms a complex bundle with another characteristic feature of oral speech. It's almost common linguistic realization is intonation varieties which can be numerous like

varieties of attitudes and emotions an individual can express in various life situations. Subjective colouring of oral speech is one of its most integral characteristics.

Nature of participation in the language event results in three possible varieties (the form of communication):

- a monologue;
- a dialogue;
- a polylogue.

Monologuing is the speaking by one individual in such a way as to exclude the possibility of interruption by others. Dialoguing (conversing) is speaking in such a way as to invite the participation of others. It is quite possible for one person to communicate with another and to the only speaker. Similarly two people can monologue at each other. Polyloguing is the participation (speaking) of several people at one and the same time as to convey their personal point of view on this or that topic, sometimes their participation is conditioned by the necessity to react to a speaker's assumption. It may result in all kinds of discussion, dispute, quarrel, scandal and so on. Still every member of polylogues fulfills the same function as in dialogues. The length of the utterance is considered to be a relevant feature from the linguistic point of view. Monologues are usually more extended. They are also characterized by more phonetic, lexical grammatical cohesion. This means that monologues usually have more apparent continuity and self-containedness than conversation. Phonetic organization of any of the three varieties cannot be analogical since each kind is characterized by specific usage of language means of all the three levels.

There are two modes in which there are different professional communication types available:

- written professional communication;
- oral professional communication;

Professional communication types available under the **written** mode:

1. Texting

Similar to personal communication, texting has become an essential part of professional communication too lately. There are some messages for which you require instant or urgent delivery and even reply.

For such cases, the use of instant messaging systems in the form of SMS, or even the use of instant messaging applications is helpful. The use of instant messaging applications has made sharing of documents too much convenient now.

2. Emails

Emails are one of the oldest yet most efficient professional communication formats that are most commonly used in today's time. Emails can be used for sending across a message or even to send a letter in the form of a digital letter.

Apart from sending an email to an individual, emails are highly useful for sending across the same email to many individuals together in a bulk. Emails are not just restricted to sending messages as you can attach documents and other files to send them to an individual or a group.

3. Project Management Applications

A lot of companies today believe in using project management applications to offer an agile feature to the work process. These applications do not just help in smoothening up the operations but also help in smoothening up the communication process of the team.

One of the ways how these apps help in smoothening up communication is that they allow you to leave a comment on different checklists and tasks. Different applications may offer different features such as some may other integrated chatting features to or some others may offer the feature of video conferencing and similar options.

Oral professional communication involves the use of monologic and dialogic speech.

Monologic speech, or monologue – is a form of speech, when one person speaks, the others just listen. Its signs are the length of the statement, which often has a different volume, and the structure of the text, and the theme of the monologue can change in the process of utterance.

Monologic speech is divided into two main types. The first is an appeal to the listener. It can be a message that needs to be read to a large number of people, an appeal to the listener or a multitude of listeners. Examples of such a monologue can be lectures or lectures, public speech, judicial speech. Monologic speech of the second type is a conversation with oneself. Such a monologue is sent to an indeterminate listener and, therefore, does not presuppose a response.

From the point of view of linguistics, there are several types of monologues. They depend on the communicative function of speech and all are studied in the school course: a description, a message, a narrative.

The narrative is characterized by the presence of a plot, most often an outset and an outcome. In this case monologic speech is used most often. A clear chronological sequence of actions is more typical for the message. And also this type of speech is

used to describe – it is necessary to have the facts that most clearly characterize the described object.

Depending on the content, purpose, method of announcement and circumstances of communication, there are following main genres of oral public monologic speech: *report, speech, speech, message, lecture*.

A report (доповідь) is one of the most common forms of public speech. The report can be political, business, reporting, or scientific.

A political report (політична доповідь) is mostly delivered by heads of state. It is a common form of reporting and explaining to society the issues of the country's internal and foreign policy. With it, officials speak at mass gatherings of people – congresses, sessions, international forums.

A business report (ділова доповідь) is a presentation of information and ways of solving various individual practical issues of the life and activities of a certain team, organization. A special type of business report can be considered a reporting report, in which a report is made not about one or several areas of work, but about the entire activity.

Scientific report (наукова доповідь) – summarizes scientific information, achievements, discoveries or results of scientific research. It is heard at various scientific meetings – conferences, symposia, seminars, etc. A scientific report made on the basis of a critical review and study of a number of publications by other researchers is called an abstract.

A speech (промова) is an oral performance to convey certain information and influence the mind, feelings and will of listeners. It is characterized by the logical coherence of the text, emotional saturation and volitional impulses of the speaker.

The ancient Roman oratorical scheme: what, for what, in what way – can still be decisive for the speaker. Therefore, taking into account the type of speech, the speaker must change both the nature of the speech and the means he will use during its delivery. Speeches are given at rallies, mass gatherings in honor of a certain event, anniversary, etc.

Speech (виступ) is participation in the discussion of some problem. It is difficult to prepare for the speech in advance, because everything depends on the situation related to the development of the discussion. As a rule, the speaker makes it short, fragmented, where he touches on several issues highlighted in the report, and makes his speech not as a single whole, but as a set of remarks. are Characteristic features of the speech – polemicism, critical orientation, laconicism. It has no independent meaning, that is why it can only be understood in relation to the problem under discussion.

A message (повідомлення) is a short report on a topic. If the topic is broad, a report is written, a message is narrow.

A lecture (лекція), like a report, is one of the most complex and common forms of public speaking. Its most important feature is the scientific and theoretical base. The lecture talks about more general and already solved problems (it may contain elements of an academic nature, which is not present in the report).

Monologic speech requires the speaker to correctly express and complete his own thoughts, combine various phrases, supplement and modify already acquired speech structures and adapt them in accordance with their goals, discuss facts and disclose known causes of events.

The result of a public speech depends not only on the content and form of the speech, but also on the impression the speaker makes on the listeners. The speaker's appearance, style, manners, gestures and facial expressions form his image that significantly affects the audience's willingness to listen and perceive the speaker.

One of the important stages of public communication is establishing contact with the audience. Only if there is an *emotional connection* between the speaker and the listeners, the speech will be successful. Contact with the audience is necessary in order to draw the attention of the listeners to the problem. It begins with a pause before the speech begins, until the audience is focused. The pause allows you to psychologically prepare yourself and adjust the audience for communication.

Among the language tools that contribute to establishing contact, *language etiquette formulas* (addressing listeners, thanking, etc.) play an important role.

Speech contact is also formed with the help of interjections addressed to listeners: *як ви знаєте/as you know, як ви розумієте/as you understand, як ви здогадуєтеся/as you guess, як ви вже помітили/as you have already noticed, погодьтеся/agree, уявіть/imagine,* etc.

An important criterion for speaker is *speech technique*: breathing, voice, diction, tempo, pause, intonation, as well as mastery of orthographic norms.

Dialogic (from Greek dialogos – conversation, conversation) language plays an important role in professional activity – a form of sociolinguistic communication, the basis of cooperation and mutual understanding between people in the process of joint activity. Dialogue involves direct verbal contact the speaker and the listener, during which there is an active speech interaction: the statements (replies) of one are replaced by the statements (replies) of the other, that is, the speaker and the listener change roles all the time.

This is a natural and simpler form of communication than a monologue, that is why it takes for 70% of all language communication.

Dialogic language is formed under the influence of motives of activity, has a certain goal and task. The linguistic behavior of dialogue participants, like any type of human activity, consists of programmed (algorithmic) and non-programmed (heuristic) components. Programmable components reflect norms of language

behavior in standard situations accepted in a certain society. Non-programmed ones are related to the characteristics of the speaker, his creativity, as well as the specificity of the situation and the speaker's attitude towards it. These components complement each other.

Depending on the personal attitude to communication or to the interaction of partners, the dialogue can have a modal or dictational character. Modal dialogues are divided into unimodal (unison dialogue, agreement) and multimodal (polemic, dispute, disagreement). Multimodal dialogues are more complex in structure, more detailed and less predictable than unimodal ones. Dialogues of the dictation type are aimed at receiving and communicating information or clarifying it. Dialogic speech is formed by such factors as the motive of activity, goal and task.

The specificity of dialogic speech is determined by the following factors:
- unpreparedness of communication (it is impossible to fully plan in advance, to predict the language behavior of both the interlocutor and one's own;
- immediacy of contact between participants of communication, and hence the possibility of emotional expressions;
- usage of auxiliary, non-verbal means (mimicry, gestures, etc.);
- the direct orientation of speech to the specific statement of the interlocutor, and therefore, the need to constantly monitor his opinion, which requires concentration of thinking efforts and carrying out some speech-thinking operations;
- the possibility of changing the topic of the statement, which requires attention and the corresponding operative reaction of the interlocutor;
- disposition for dialogue, which implies the desire and ability to listen and perceive the other.

Business communication is characterized by speakers' orientation to achieve a certain goal in a short time and with the least effort, and this requires them to have a perfect command of the modern Ukrainian literary language, which for the vast majority of modern professions is a mandatory component of professional skill. Directly related to this, the effectiveness of dialogic language in the business sphere is regarded as an indicator of the specialist's professional linguistic and communicative competence.

So, the culture of dialogical language involves the ability to start, maintain, and end a conversation, ask counter-questions, use means of emotional influence, express desire/reluctance, necessity, urgency, obligation, probability/improbability/low probability of actions (event), as well as the ability to listen to the interlocutor, understand his questions and objections and adequately respond to them. A high culture of dialogical language and good professional training will help a person to achieve his goal without offending his partner and leaving a pleasant impression of himself.

Business conversation as professional dialogic speech

Dialogic speech is the basis of such a form of business communication as a conversation.

*A business conversati*on is a form of official, specially prepared language communication using non-verbal means (facial expressions, gestures, mannerisms), during which there is an exchange of thoughts and business information.

Through a conversation, the desire of one person or a group of people is realized to encourage the interlocutor or interlocutors to take actions that would affect a certain situation existing at the time of communication, or would establish or strengthen the relationship between the participants of the conversation. A business conversation is aimed at solving a specific problem.

The purpose of a business conversation is to obtain information, solve important production problems, and solve certain tasks. According to *Michel Montaigne (1588)*, "the most fruitful and natural exercise for the mind is conversation". Like any conversation, a conversation is "a building made by joint efforts" (Andre Morois).

The main functions of any business conversation include the following:
- the start of innovative measures and processes;
- control and coordination of already started activities, promotions;
- information exchange;
- mutual communication of employees of the same organization, interpersonal and business contacts;
- maintaining business contacts with partners in the external environment;
- search, promotion and operational development of new ideas and plans;
- stimulating the movement of thought in new directions.

As a rule, business conversations are planned in advance. In the process of preparation, the topic of the conversation, the range of issues that should be discussed, and the main intentions that need to be implemented are determined. If certain documents are used during the interview, they must also be prepared in advance.

The structure of a business conversation:
1. The beginning of the conversation.
2. Transfer of information.
3. Argumentation.
4. Refutation of the interlocutor's arguments.
5. Making decisions.

An important and at the same time the most difficult part of a business conversation is the beginning. The researchers highlighted the factors that contribute to the successful completion of a business conversation:
- professional knowledge;

- clarity;
- visibility;
- constant orientation;
- rhythm;
- repetition;
- an element of suddenness;
- frames of information transmission;
- humor and irony.

A telephone conversation as professional dialogic speech

A telephone conversation is one of the varieties of speech. Specialists in the problems of oral business communication suggest following the following rules for conducting a telephone conversation.

If you call:
- first of all, say hello, name the organization you represent, as well as your surname, first name and patronymic. Usually, the first words of a phone conversation are perceived vaguely, so say your last name and first name - at least it will be heard;
- if you are calling an institution or a stranger, you should ask for the surname, first name and patronymic of the interlocutor. You can also tell who exactly you would like to talk to;
- if you are calling on an important matter, ask first if your interlocutor has enough time for the conversation;
- pre-write a list of questions that need to be clarified and keep this list in front of your eyes throughout the conversation;
- the caller always ends the conversation. At the end of the conversation, be sure to say goodbye, remembering that it is tactless to hang up without waiting for the last words of your interlocutor.

If they call you:
- try to pick up the phone as soon as possible and name the organization you represent;
- if necessary, write down the name, surname and contact number of the interlocutor;
- speak tactfully, politely demonstrate understanding of the essence of the caller's problems;
- do not hang up unexpectedly, even if the conversation is uninteresting, boring and too long for you; o if you make a promise, try to keep it and fulfill it as soon as possible. In case of complex issues, offer a mutual meeting for a detailed discussion of the essence of the problem;

- briefly summarize the conversation, list again the agreements that you have reached.

We start any telephone conversation with a short expression of politeness: Good afternoon (morning, evening)! If you are calling on business, you need to state not only your last name, first name, and patronymic, but also the position you hold. If the caller forgot to name himself, the interlocutor has the right to ask: *Excuse me, who am I talking to?/ Перепрошую, з ким я розмовляю?*

A business telephone conversation has the following structure:

1) The moment of establishing contact (mutual greeting, mutual introduction of interlocutors to each other).

2) Presentation of the essence of the case (notifying the purpose of the call, introducing the interlocutor to the course of the case, familiarizing him with the problem).

3) Discussion of a case or problem.

4) Ending the conversation (summarizing the conversation, mutual farewell).

The success and effectiveness of a business telephone conversation depends primarily on clearly observing its structure during communication, careful preparation, as well as on clearly observing some other important aspects of conducting a telephone conversation, which will be discussed below.

There are also a number of **audio-visual professional communication types** available:

1. Phone Calls

Whether you are calling your teammates over the intercom or you are calling up the clients through your mobile phone or landline, phones calls are considered to be one of the most efficient modes of audio professional communication.

While commonly, phone calls are great for taking updates and discussing topics, there are also many times when phone calls are useful for interviews. Apart from the usual phone calls, today there are also many applications available that allow audio calls.

2. Video Calls

With the introduction of the internet, video call has become one of the most commonly used channels for professional communication. There are so many companies that consider using applications and platforms for the purpose of video conferencing or even interviews over video calls.

Currently, when the world is hit by the pandemic of Covid-19, video calls for professional communication has become one of the most important and most commonly used option for many companies. The best thing about these video applications and platforms is that they allow you to get connected with individuals as well as groups.

3. Face to Face Interactions

Face-to-face interactions are the oldest and the most usual form of professional communication ever.

Also, this mode of communication is considered the best as it is helpful in creating less confusion because the individuals are able to see each other expressions and are able to know the intention of the person who is speaking the message.

This is the reason during many interviews; many companies also keep a psychiatrist or a psychologist in the room who can read the expressions of the person to understand the candidates better.

Whether you are communicating over phones calls, videos calls, or even face to face, it is essential that you maintain the practice of listening to the speaker carefully before responding to the person.

Professional communication is highly essential in every organization, whether it is a big firm or a smaller one. Effective professional communication not just allows maintaining proper teamwork but also helps in maintaining a healthy relationship with the clients.

In order to have effective professional communication, it is extremely eminent to understand the features of proper communication such as clarity, being a good listener, and others.

Today, when professional communication is possible through a wide number of mediums and options, choosing the right platform is also quite essential to get the right results.

Peculiarities of a doctor's professional communication

Professional communication is a type of communication that is used for the professional exchange of ideas, information, and messages. It refers to effective written, oral, digital, or visual communications in the context of a workplace or professional world. It is also integral to the workplace, technical or business communication. Writing business emails, or using public speaking to communicate with a specific target audience is critical in today's world. Professional communication is also critical for career or business growth. It incorporates the pedagogical principles of rhetoric, software, technology, and learning theory for improving and delivering communication in a variety of industrial or organizational settings in the business world.

An important part of a **doctor's professional communication** and successful physician practice is a high level of professionalism which contains a multivariate approach to understanding the subjective world of the patient, the ability to find ways to create friendly contact with the patient. The ethical and deontological approach is important component of doctor's professional communication.

Deontology is ethics of duty where the morality of an action depends on the nature of the action, i.e., harm is unacceptable irrespective of its consequences. This concept was introduced by a philosopher, Immanuel Kant and hence widely referred as Kantian deontology. The decisions of deontology may be appropriate for an individual but does not necessarily produce a good outcome for the society. The doctor-patient interaction or relationship is by nature, deontological since medical teaching practices inculcate this tradition, and when this deontological practice is breached, the context of medical negligence arises. This tradition drives clinicians to do good to patients, strengthening the doctor-patient bond.

Given the specificity of the medical profession, medical ethics, deontology and speech etiquette are a necessary and indispensable feature of professional activity of doctor. The most important methods of harmonizing communication between doctor and patient that provides for successful realization of the basic professional objective – treat the patient, are politeness and speech etiquette. Academy member V.M. Bekhterov claimed: "if a patient doesn't feel better after talking to doctor, it isn't a doctor". Therefore, language of professional doctors and their speech behavior are important components of research, as people say: "a word can heal, but also injure".

Regretfully, violation of speech ethic takes place frequently in life and medical area: patients can be rude to a doctor, or the other way around in medical institutions where interns take practice. Sometimes it is necessary to ask participants to watch their language. Deontology and medical ethic is a science that generalizes behavior principles for medical personnel, including doctor, that provide for establishing the required atmosphere in diagnostic, treatment, and rehabilitation of patients.

In order to replace "doctoral ethic", in 1944 surgeon N.N. Petrov introduced the term "medical deontology" (ancient Greek "proper, correct study").

In reality each doctor cares after their patients, but not all of them are able to show their feelings to patients and convince them. Without doctoral speech etiquette communication with a patient cannot take place, this aspect distinguishes the profession of doctor from all other kind of human activity.

Professional speech culture of a doctor must not use words that have doubtful meaning thus causing a negative reaction of a patient. Before speaking with a patient, doctor of general practice must weigh his every word for its effect of influencing patient's soul and psychic. An important component of communicating with a patient is convincingness, but sometimes, "a saving lie is better that truth that hurts a patient's soul". Obtaining skills of using words with care while maintaining dialogue with a patient, some interns remember certain standards of communicating with patients in their future work, but individual approach should be used in each case.

Knowledge is the only common thing between people, without which no specialist can deal. Huge importance is attached to the knowledge of a physician, as "mediocre doctor, more harmful, than helpful (M.Ya. Mudrov)". It is necessary to

mention, that medical knowledge is safe and beneficial only in the hands of people with a clear conscience and integrity, steadfast moral and ethical principles, and an exaggerated sense of fanatical loyalty to the professional duty of medical heart and soul. People with a deficiency of these qualities can use their knowledge to take advantage, and such a concern, "do no harm" (Hippocrates) always accompanied humanity today.

In the professional doctor's speech the conceptual model with the binary center "doctor – patient" prevails, where the doctor and the patient alternately act as both the subject and the object, and the concept of "disease" is the basic component of this model. The physician's linguistic behaviour contains the strategies and techniques that are effective for the communicative mechanisms of the doctor's professional communication. These include settings for comforting, encouraging, compassion, reducing the patient's negative reaction, and psychological support through which the doctor tries to help the people who report on their problems. The practical use of the models of speech and non-verbal doctor's behaviour will support the effective communication of the physician with the patient in the course of treatment, which is a primary factor for successful treatment.

Issues for discussion:
1. What types of professional speech do you know?
2. Characterize the monologic professional speech?
3. Characterize the dialogic professional speech?
4. Tell about peculiarities of a doctor's professional communication.
5. How would you speak with your patient?

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